The relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth

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THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANDATED CHANGE, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SCHOOL GROWTH

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

from

THE UNIVERSITY OF WOLLONGONG

by

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M.Ed.(Hons.) (Wollongong), B.Ed. (Kuringai), Grad. Dip. (Mt. Gravatt)

Faculty of Education
2000
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of two great educators:

To Una Barton, my mother and a truly inspirational teacher

and

To Roy Williams, a principal extraordinaire
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This thesis was supported by a Frameworks Scholarship. I am therefore indebted to Brian Cambourne and Jan Turbill for offering me this opportunity. Without this support the study would never have been started. Thankyou Brian and Jan for this opportunity.

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ABSTRACT

This study set out to develop a grounded theory of the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth. A case study of a period of time between February 1994 and May 1995, was developed. It charting the experiences of the staff of four primary schools' journey through the implementation of a new State mandatory English K-6 Syllabus. Specifically, during this journey, I investigated how four principals and twenty-one members of staff, caught up in this context, went about organizing people, ideas and practices as part of the change process.

Located within a naturalistic paradigm, the study focussed on the 'multiple truths' presented by participants about their school settings and the connections they made between meanings and observable actions within their schools.

A number of questions evolved and were used as a means of directing and framing the study. These included an exploration of two different contexts. The first explored the political, social and educational environment and how these external factors impacted on the case study schools. The second context was concerned with the 'setting', that is, the internal school factors that described the workplaces.

The resulting grounded theory is presented in diagrammatic form, and shows the essential elements that the schools felt were integral to the change process. This is followed by a description of each element with particular reference to the relationships that existed in these contexts between mandated change, professional development and school growth. Implications are also made that may have value for major stakeholders in public education in New South Wales. Finally a number of challenges are offered for those engaged in the change process.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

'May you live in interesting times'.
(A Confucian curse)

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to develop a grounded theory of the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth.

CONTEXT FROM WHICH THIS STUDY EMERGED

This study presents a case study of a period of time between February, 1994 and May, 1995, during which, schools throughout the state of New South Wales (NSW) in Australia, were expected to understand and implement a new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus\(^1\). The series of events associated with this provided the opportunity to conduct a 'natural experiment' into the phenomenon of mandated educational change, professional development and school growth. In particular it provided the opportunity to investigate how four schools, caught up in this context, went about organizing people, ideas and practices which in turn provided the opportunity to develop 'rich descriptions of efforts in progress' (Murphy & Hallinger, 1993:119).

Furthermore this series of events also provided an opportunity to examine certain significant aspects of context in which educational change was supposed to take place, the processes of change that were implemented at the school level, and the content that acted as the focus for the change agenda. The following diagram (Figure 1) emphasises the integrated nature of these dimensions of change. This study focuses on the impact and relationships which existed between each of these dimensions.

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\(^1\) This Syllabus was developed for primary school grades from kindergarten to year 6.
It was anticipated that through observation, discussion and involvement in the implementation period of the English K-6 Syllabus into schools, a better understanding might be developed of the kinds of initiatives that needed to be taken if schools were to successfully implement the mandatory Syllabus.

GENERAL QUESTIONS WHICH FRAMED THE STUDY

Case study research is often referred to as 'descriptive research' as it describes and interprets the facts associated with certain phenomena at a particular time. Hill and Kerber (1967) suggest that in this kind of methodology, questions rather than hypotheses, can be raised as a means of directing and framing the study. Hence the following questions were used for these purposes. They included:

- What was the relationship between the current socio-political change and educational change agendas?
- What was the nature of the current curriculum change proposal: the NSW English K-6 Syllabus?
- What kinds of commitment and initiatives were taken at different levels of the educational bureaucracy to support the implementation of the English Syllabus?
K-6 Syllabus? A corollary of this question relates to the nature of the impact and effectiveness of these commitments and initiatives.

- What was the nature of the schools responses to the mandated changes required by the English K-6 Syllabus?

- What were schools' perceptions of the nature of professional development?

- What was the nature of the relationship between professional development and school growth?

- What was the nature of the planning for and support of the proposed mandated change at the workplace level?

- What was the nature of the relationships between the way schools do business and schools' potential to learn and develop?

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The purpose of this section is to describe the overall context of the study. It has been organized in two parts. Part A examines the current context of change focusing more specifically at a global level. Part B describes the ideological and professional subjectivities I brought to the study.

Part A: The context of change

There are two classes of change factors which have impacted on this study:

a) changes in intellectual climate; and

b) changes in socio-economic-political climate.
Changes in the intellectual climate

'Broader than reform, deeper than revolution, this benign conspiracy for a new human agenda has triggered the most rapid cultural realignment in history. The great shuddering, irrevocable shift overtaking us is not a new political, religious, or philosophical system. It is a new mind'. (Ferguson, 1980:1)

When examining change in general, I believe that it is important to understand 'the big picture', that is, why and how change has evolved and for what purpose. A major part of this big picture involves an understanding of a changing intellectual climate, a shifting paradigm, which is reflecting dramatic changes in the way we both see the world and go about solving problems. This shift in paradigm is evident in many of the current social, political and economic agendas which in turn are having a profound impact on the way we value and view the purpose of education in Australia.

A paradigm, Ferguson explains, 'is a framework of thought (from the Greek paradigma, "pattern"), ...... a scheme for understanding and explaining certain aspects of reality, ...... a distinctly new way of thinking about old problems, ...... (and) a new knowing' (Ferguson, 1980). It is 'the thoughts, perceptions and values that form a particular vision of reality, a vision that is a basis of the way a society organizes itself' (Capra, 1988:11).

Such writers as Capra (1988), Ferguson (1980) and Kuhn (1970) have indicated that throughout the history of human existence we have been creating our reality based on a specific set of values and beliefs. However, in the passage of time we have been prompted to revise and reorder our thinking about the nature of the physical universe. Capra (1988) describes an earlier dramatic shift in thinking in the Western world that took place in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. This was known as the Age of the Scientific Revolution and was dominated by the changed perceptions of people like Copernicus, Galileo, Bacon and later by Descartes and Newton. Such a view moved perceptions from 'earth as nurturing mother' to the 'world as a machine' (Capra, 1988:56). Capra (1988) argues that this mechanistic view of nature has dominated the way we have understood and interpreted our world, that is, until early in the twentieth century when understandings began to change to a more ecological and holistic view of the universe.
Capra (1988:15) goes on to say that since the early seventies we have seen increased evidence of 'a crisis of perception', which is resulting in a dramatic shift in paradigm. He argues that there seems to have been a preoccupation in finding new ways of looking at and seeing the world, for seeing 'hidden pictures' and for finding new meanings and explanations that could not be explained by more traditional disciplines of thinking. The literature indicates that the developing social momentum for viewing the world in new ways has gathered pace and these visions are becoming less speculative and more accepted as a consensus is developing. Capra (1988) indicates that when a general consensus is reached, a collective shift in paradigm occurs.

For example, health and medical practitioners have long since been exploring a new paradigm for understanding and responding to human health and well being. Environmentalists have come to understand the importance of the delicate interrelationship of organisms and their environment and are rapidly developing a strong and active public voice that reflects this, and this is providing society with a new mindset by which they can understand and care for the environment.

In the sixties Kuhn (1970), presented the notion of 'paradigm' and 'paradigm shift' by exploring the scientific theories or 'truths' developed by scientists many centuries ago. He tried to 'see' their theories through a set of beliefs and values that was consistent with their times and came to the conclusion that 'truth' is not a fixed concept; how we understand the world is dependent upon the rules, assumptions and presuppositions we possess, and this framework preordains both the way we 'see' problems and the way we go about solving them.

Since Kuhn (1970) first introduced the notion of paradigm in the sixties, there has been a proliferation of terms used in the literature to describe different paradigms. Logical positivist, objectivist, post-structuralism, humanism, modernism and post-modernism and so on, are all terms frequently used. It would seem that different disciplines and interest groups such as feminists, psychologists, physicists, biologists, economists and educators have developed their own discourse to describe the differing paradigms.

At this point I would like to draw attention to the changing terminology that also accompanies paradigmatic shifts. Modernity and post-modernity
(Hargreaves, 1994) are terms most frequently used in the literature to describe the changing intellectual climate. At the same time the terms positivism and constructivism are frequently used in educational discussion about learning. As the literature transverses a variety of disciplines and topic focuses, so the terms vary. Other terms related to both the old and the new paradigms include rationalism, structuralism, behaviourism and humanism. The current paradigm that is struggling to emerge, is often referred to as post-modernity but also known as a constructivism, post structuralism, ecological or systemic.

The axioms upon which the constructivist paradigm is based are very different to those of the traditional paradigm. As cited in Duffy and Jonassen (1992) a constructivist philosophy would argue that generalisations are not immutable, nor are they universal, that is they are not fixed or affected by time or contextual constraints. Further, this philosophy would reason that objectivity is not possible as the manner in which data are collected and analysed is influenced by the values and beliefs that the researcher may have. In other words, we impose our own meanings on the world and therefore cannot be independent from the phenomena that is being observed. Meaning is constructed and 'rooted in and indexed by', experience (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). A constructivist philosophy does not give credence to absolutes, rather it anticipates that perspectives and understandings may change. Finally, whilst a logical positivist philosophy would argue that discrete causal variables can be measured in quantitative ways, a constructivist philosophy would contend that phenomena cannot be fragmented and measured.

In a shifting paradigm Kuhn (1970:52-53) suggests that,

‘Discovery commences with an awareness of anomalies, that is, with the recognition that nature has somehow violated the paradigm-induced expectations that govern normal science. It then continues with a more or less extended exploration of the area of anomaly. It closes only when the paradigm theory has been adjusted so that the anomalous has become the expected’.

If we compare these presuppositions about the shifting intellectual climate with the current socio-political and economic agendas and practices, many anomalies of this kind emerge. It is these anomalies that are creating a period of uncertainty and contradiction and this is being felt by educators in both positive and negative ways. For instance, teachers are being asked to be more
professional yet at the same time are being held more accountable by mass testing.

Changes in the socio-economic-political climate
To understand current educational change initiatives it is necessary to look at the wider social, economic and political contexts in which schools are operating. Hargreaves (1994:3) contends that the economic, social and political forces of an ever developing post industrial, postmodern world are characterised by 'accelerating change, intense compressions of time and space, cultural diversity, technological complexity, national insecurity and scientific uncertainty'. With a developing global economy and high levels of social aspiration of a changing society, we have a changing world view that is forcing educators to find new ways of looking at educational problems and exploring possible solutions.

Hargreaves (1994), has written extensively on the changing nature of teachers' work and their workplaces. He compares the socio-political contexts of educational practices of the 'modernity' paradigm (views of the last century and through to the early nineteen hundreds), with the postmodern world of today. He argues that the principles that underpin post-modernity as a social condition in which 'economic, political, organizational and even personal life come to be organized' (Hargreaves, 1994:9), are very different from the principles of modernity.

Indications from the media would lead us to believe that the changing view of economics is the driving force behind political and hence educational change. It has been suggested that economies are moving away from principles of productivity and profitability that are reliant on mass production, expansionism and monopoly capitalism (Capra, 1982) to economies that focus on small goods production, services, software and information (Hargreaves, 1994). These new economies are being reshaped by a principle which Hammer and Champy (1993) refer to as 'flexible accumulation', that is, the ability to anticipate and respond to changing market needs at both local and global levels. This has been facilitated, Hough (1995) argues, through the development of technology (the use of computers and telecommunications), allowing for more rapid responses and providing opportunity for the building of global networks and strategic alliances.
However, Ohmae (1990: 9) warns us that:

'In a truly interlinked, global economy, the key success factor shifts from resources to the marketplace, in which you have to participate in order to prosper...The prosperity of countries depends on their ability to create value through their people, not by husbanding resources and technologies'.

Politicians, however, have been slower to join the 'conspiracy' (Ferguson, 1980) until it became apparent that they had an urgent need to view 'trading' and the 'economy' in different ways if national growth was to be sustained and developed.

When we talk of a political context we are referring to both social and economic issues. In thinking about politics within the context of this study, I am considering a social arena in which political, ethical and moral values as well as commitments are constantly tested (Hargreaves, 1994). Political decisions present a process of change as well as a context and as a consequence, political ideas are being organized and administered in new ways just as social opinion, political focus and educational policies are also changing.

The political agendas of the sixties and seventies focussed on consolidation of the welfare state and the development of mass education. The administration was typified by centralised decision making, economic intervention, regulation and control. Politicians of the nineties now seem more concerned with the freeing up of economic markets and like economists, believe in the principles of flexibility and responsiveness. Hargreaves (1994:9) describes this era as focussing on 'decentralised decision making, reduced specialisation and the blurring of roles and boundaries'.

In terms of the current social climate, in most western countries there seems to be a greater social awareness and articulation of basic rights and needs. Society is demanding that we reconsider issues related to 'difference' in ways that are more equitable. Some societies also have higher expectations of what our future needs to look like in the next century and they have become far more critical and nowhere has this been felt more painfully than in education.

Media reports indicate that the community is dissatisfied with educators' inability to respond adequately to the changing nature of demographics and the
So a changing economic paradigm is being reflected in the changing nature, expectations and needs of society. Society has become more pluralistic and, as a consequence, education is having to be more mindful about issues related to social justice, equity and democracy (Capper, 1993).

In Toffler's (1991) book 'Powershift', he argues that the social bases of power are changing too and that the new social basis of power is knowledge which, he contends, will provide a different way of describing the 'rich' and 'poor' in our society 'away from capital accumulation towards information accumulation' (Hough, 1995).

Education is considered a major player in an age that focuses on information. Ohmae (1990) contends that education is the key to assisting people to become 'global citizens'. The educated have the capacity for independence and freedom in a borderless world whilst the uneducated remain 'anchored to time and place and are subject to manipulation or exploitation - political, religious, financial' (Beare, 1994:17). With this in mind, education and schooling lie at the heart of economic and therefore political agendas in the shifting paradigm for the future and reinforces the importance of both teacher and student learning.

I raise these points because it is clear that economists believe that development of a knowledge-based global economy makes education and training, research and development, information, information technology and telecommunications the essential ingredients for investment and the ability to be constantly innovative and globally competitive. This is changing the nature of interactions between the way governments and industry 'do business' and places greater emphasis on schools' ability to effectively respond to mandated change and to the professional development of school staff.

However, Fullan (1991) and Hargreaves (1994) suggest that education, within the current time frame, remains an anachronism. In many western countries education is a monolithic hierarchical bureaucracy. The Department of School Education in New South Wales claims to be one of the largest in the western world. It is governed and controlled using all the features of a past paradigm.
but for a different set of purposes. Recent policy reports (Finn, 1991; Mayer, 1992a) indicate that students should be seen as the raw materials of a new more efficient and effective workforce. In a highly competitive global market place where learning and knowledge are considered the 'leading edge' commodities, a more educated workforce is perceived as the passport to greater economic stability. Governmental control over the business of schools is seen as a necessary control over quality and standards, but in fact, it is more to do with control over content and accountability for standards and performance. The relationship between political change and educational reform seems riddled by paradigmatic anomalies and double-talk.

As Hargreaves (1994) suggests, endemic to social, economic and political change is a change in the way that work, ideas and practices are organized and managed. It would seem that new patterns of organization have the potential to present alternative processes for the implementation of change and the way that problems might be solved.

In traditional corporate organizations, technical rationality became the basis of judgement and planning. These organizations were often unwieldy in structure, used a linear approach to planning, had inflexible approaches to decision making, were consumed by clinical efficiency and used hierarchical forms of leadership and control (Hargreaves, 1994). To survive in a global economy, these organizations are under considerable pressure to change the nature of the way they do business (Hammer & Champy, 1993). This also has implications for the way schools are managed and organized.

Toffler (1985) in describing some of the necessary characteristics of organizations that will facilitate change suggests that we will need to develop 'knowledge intensive organizations'. To achieve this, Tofler suggests that both the nature of the organization and its workforce will have to change. Traditional organizational hierarchies need to become flatter where levels of control and authority are replaced by shared authority, responsibility and decision making and the maintenance of 'Total Quality' for all activities. In these organizations there is a reduced emphasis on specialisation and roles and boundaries have become more blurred. The nature of the workforce will be more qualified, have higher expectations, and cost more.
Educational bureaucracies have been under the same kinds of pressures to change, to change the structures of administration through decentralisation, to recognise and acknowledge all stakeholders in the education process, particularly the parents, to adopt consultative and collaborative decision making processes, and to share responsibility of educational agendas with schools.

In the later part of 1995 we evidenced some changes in the administrative structure of the New South Wales Department of School Education (D.S.E.). The D.S.E. in New South Wales is one of the largest public education systems in the world, employing about 110,000 staff (including 45,000 teachers) across Kindergarten to Grade 12. Until recently the D.S.E. was sub-divided into ten education regions across the state, each having approximately 220 schools. Each region consisted of a number of school clusters and each cluster was supported by a cluster director.

More recently, however, the administration of this huge bureaucracy has been restructured (Department of School Education, Oct., 1995a). The D.S.E. is now administered through forty district offices each headed by a superintendent. The regional structure has disappeared. These changes were carried out over a period of five months. The old clusters have been amalgamated into bigger clusters of schools but smaller districts. This reorganization will see four hundred and thirty non-school based staff positions cut which is the 'equivalent to savings of about $17m per annum' (Department of School Education, Oct., 1995b).

The media reports that the Minister of Education saw these changes as necessary cost cutting measures whilst the feedback from some of the schools I have visited saw these measures as a recentralisation of control. The official communiqué from the D.S.E. accounts for these changes thus:

'The reshaped organization has the classroom as its focus. Greatly improved support will be provided for teachers from the specialist support staff in the district offices and from simplified, more strategic and revitalised administration' (Department of School Education, Sept. 1995b:2).

Is this measure related to improving and flattening the organization, or to do with economic rationalism?
Implications of socio-political change on education in Australia: Current agendas for educational reform in Australia are perceived by educators to be driven by economic rationalism. This and socio-political pressures are resulting in a move away from 'inputs' to a focus on educational 'outcomes' (Finn, 1990) and the associated interests in performance, evaluation, assessment, quality control, standards and accountability. This has necessitated a changed definition of the purpose of education by realigning the purpose of education with the needs of the future economy, the workforce and a more complex society. Politicians are demanding, through policy statements, that educators become more accountable for the achievement of the required standards of learning. Governments want to know whether students are achieving standards that will, in the future, support economic development.

These changing expectations of education are not confined to Australia. Education in Britain, through the Education Reform Act (1988) and in the United States with the statement known as America 2000 (1990), are being dominated by free-market doctrines and national goals and standards for the school curriculum that use 'an output-led model, by means of assessments based on 'what students know and can do' (Holt, 1996: 4).

If we are to respond adequately to these new agendas then, as Hammer and Champy (1993) imply, nothing short of a total reinvention or reengineering of the way we do educational business will make change possible. In short, if education is to be transformed, to address and respond to the paradigm shift, and new sociopolitical agendas then educators will need to see things in new ways and to develop new mindsets about organizing their workplace, teaching and learning.

During the past decade educational reform acts, reviews and reports at both the national (the Karmel Report, 1973; Quality of Education Review, 1985; the Dawkins Statement 'Strengthening Australia's Schools, 1988; and the Hobart Declaration.) and state levels (the Carrick Report, 1989 and the Educational Reform Act, 1990) have closely reflected the changing social, political, economic and educational landscape in Australia. A Ministerial statement titled 'Teaching Counts' outlined the federal Government's current educational agenda in the following way:
The Australian community demands that its national government take responsibility for the economic well being of the country, social cohesiveness in a multicultural society and preservation of the environment for future generations. Australians expect our schools to provide young people with positive social and cultural values and prepare them for work and further education and training. Social justice in education is essential for all these ends. The focus we have on equity of outcomes from schooling must continue (Beazley, 1994:1).

The recommendations of these reports have set the agendas for the development of a new national framework for educational curriculum.

Whilst it has already been suggested that 'learning' and 'knowledge' are the 'leading edge' commodities for future economic and social security in a highly competitive global market place, it is therefore believed that the main business of schools needs to move from a focus on teaching to one on learning (Hough, 1995). With a focus on what has been learnt rather than on how content is taught, literacy is considered to be the vital link between learning, knowledge and economic growth. Literacy and language learning have therefore become a major focus of political interest in the pursuit of a better prepared workforce for the twenty-first century. Literacy is considered to be the currency of improved workplace productivity. It is not surprising then that the development of a set of national 'standards' for the literacy and language learning received priority. In response to this, the NSW Department of School Education, over an extended period of time, developed a new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus based on the nationally identified 'standards framework' for English. This new state Syllabus was expressed in terms of clearly articulated 'learning outcomes'.

A full account of the immediate context of this study will be described more fully in Chapter Four.
Part B: Ideological and professional subjectivities I brought to the study.

In developing a new mindset about professional development, it is important to unpack and understand our values and beliefs. It is these that explain the kind of lenses we use to understand and interpret our world. But these values and beliefs have developed over a lifetime of accumulated experiences, both personal and professional, and they have moulded, shaped and reshaped my interests, my thinking and my understandings about teacher learning, professional development and change.

Most significant amongst these experiences included my initial teacher training, my role as an early childhood adviser, experiences as a language consultant and then as a director of professional development.

The first of these experiences, happened during my initial teacher training at the Froebel Institute in London in 1960, was one of the most exciting formal learning experiences of my life as it presented me with an entirely different and more appealing view of learning than the behaviourist model I had experienced throughout my own schooling. The training was based upon the pedagogical theories advanced by Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852), Jean Piaget (1896-1980), and John Dewey (1859-1952) but it has only been during the past decade that I have become aware of, and been able to articulate, the significance of my training experience, and to understand the impact it has had on the development of both my thinking and my career as an educator.

The focus of this initial training was primarily on 'learning' rather than 'teaching' and, for the most part, the necessary congruence existed between the theory that was being taught and the practices that were exercised and demonstrated to us as students. I remember returning to college for an 'old' students' luncheon after about three years of teaching. Mr Morris, our science lecturer, asked me how I was going and then asked whether I felt the college had prepared me adequately for my teaching responsibilities. It was at this moment that I realised that I hadn't been taught anything much about the nature of teaching or the 'how to's' but rather the focus had been on learning processes, the nature of our own learning, the observation and understanding of children's learning and about child development. I realised that this focus had provided me with a different way of thinking about, looking at, planning for and solving the everyday problems associated with teaching.
The doctrine of my teacher education course has been described as developmentalism (Stone, 1991, 1993, 1994), one that is said to be 'a form of romantic naturalism that inspires teacher discomfort with any practice that is deemed incompatible with natural processes' (Stone, 1996). Alternatively, and less romantically, it might have been described more accurately as a training based on 'situated cognition and the culture of learning' (Brown et al., 1994); that is the exploration of ideas and concepts that are situated and progressively developed through activity which entails both challenging and maybe changing the user's view of the world and adopting the belief system of the culture in which they are used.

Whilst my theoretical stance has developed since these early days, my initial training became a natural springboard and extension for my later understandings of constructivist theory as it applies to education.

More specifically though, I learnt that learning:

- needs to be grounded in a particular context and experience;
  For instance, when studying about children's reading difficulties, we attended classes to understand how reading fitted into the curriculum. Each student worked with a child who was having reading difficulties over a period of several weeks. After each encounter we would gather as a small group with our tutor and discuss our experiences and the data we had gathered. We would argue, debate issues and share our experiences and concerns. We would ask each other questions. We would collaboratively make plans for our next visit. The tutor would principally ask provocative questions rather than provide information and answers.

- needs to be talked about and shared with others;

- is a personal and shared responsibility;

- is about choice and interest;

- is an active process;

- is both an individual and a social activity;
• involves play, exploration, risk-taking, reflection, discussion and sharing;

• is about constructing our own knowledge in active and collaborative ways;

• is about careful observation and good listening; and that it is about

• constructing our own meanings and we do this by making connections and discovering patterns as we try to make sense of our experiences.

What I had learnt at college about learning, in essence, became the basis of future challenges over the next thirty years of professional experience and practice.

The second significant experience grew out of my work experiences with the Save the Children Fund in New South Wales as an Early Childhood Adviser. This organization operated thirteen preschool centres around New South Wales for disadvantaged children, 85% of whom were Aboriginal children. These schools were set up and administered by the Save the Children Fund, with the funding support of the federal government Department for Aboriginal Affairs.

The position of adviser involved the planning and implementation of inservice programs for staff at all levels, the supervision (with a small 's') of the educational and health programs at each school, and liaison work with Aboriginal communities. The 'inservice programs' and supervision were not formal events but rather became a 'way of working' with all the staff from cook to teacher's aide, teacher to pre-school director. I became just another member of the community although this didn't happen automatically, it evolved. Most of my time was spent working alongside the staff in the preschool centres. I became an extra pair of hands and I would take groups of children for activities. At the end of each day we would all meet for a debriefing session, talking about what had happened during the day and what each of us would like to do tomorrow. This was a time of sharing experiences, exchanging information, developing ideas, planning for the following day, and discussing the children's needs. Sometimes I would be asked to provide specific information or ideas. This was only done in response to a request. In essence, I was a co-worker. I tried new activities and ideas and shared them with others.
This way of working evolved as relationships developed. It was a process that was based on mutual respect, trust, openness and a sincere interest in the children. In some schools this relationship developed quickly but in others it took many months before any open process of discussion or sharing could happen.

From this experience I learned the following about professional learning and change:

• I discovered the importance of having a respect for and utilising cultural differences.

• I became acutely aware of the social and cultural values and beliefs of the school community and how these needed to be reflected in the children's education program.

• I experienced the value of working as a member of a community where I assumed no authoritarian or expert role. Learning in this environment was both a shared and an individual responsibility.

• I discovered the value of building upon what people can do and already know. This approach seemed to convey a message of 'valuing' the people with whom you were interacting.

• I found that the school environment, and the children in particular, gave a rich and meaningful focus and purpose to talk about learning.

• Working 'with' people is preferable to working 'on' them.

• Sharing ideas, observing others at work and having a common interest are powerful aspects of the learning process.

• Developing relationships over time, based on trust, a sense of caring and respect is an essential feature of collaborative learning.

• The development of processes or ways of working in an ongoing way seemed more valuable than the attendance of learning events.
In contrast to this experience my next two positions were with publishing companies as a language consultant. My major responsibility involved consultancy work with schools and education departments around Australia on the implementation of holistic approaches to literacy and language learning, using the resources produced by the publishers.

My role as a consultant was easier to perform than the previous position. Indeed 'performance' was a major aspect of the work. My interactions with teachers were minimal and superficial. They usually lasted for only a matter of a few hours, seldom took place in the school setting and took little account of the particular context of the individual schools I was trying to assist. My role was dictated by the publisher and the ambitions of the sales department. This role was about being seen as an expert, about entertainment and about having a natural enthusiasm for the product. My presentations were usually held after school and my main challenge seemed focused on keeping the teachers awake through sheer enthusiasm. I shared experiences, I identified problems, I offered solutions. I was charismatic when necessary, practical, I could empathise, and I could be a fountain of all knowledge related to language teaching and learning. I was a fast talker, an entertainer and I gave slick presentations supported by useful overheads. Indeed I was an expert! An expert presenter, not an expert in teacher learning.

Subsequently, on reflection, I learnt a great deal from this experience.

- I realised that my values and beliefs about teaching were not congruent with my practices in this position as language consultant. This lack of congruence had made me feel uncomfortable.

- I discovered that presentation skills and one-off presentations without follow-up, discussion or reflection did nothing to develop teachers' understandings of children's literacy and language learning nor classroom practices to support this learning.

- I knew little about the particular contexts of the schools from which teachers were coming. I realised that this was a significant drawback. Context was an essential ingredient in making learning purposeful and meaningful.
Having the opportunity to preach to others about what I knew denied me the help I needed to understand what I did not really understand and still needed to know.

Assuming the role of expert extended my separation from the learner and made interactive dialogue almost impossible.

These last two contrasting professional experiences provided an understanding of two entirely different paradigms at work. Each position reflected a different belief system about the nature of the learning process and how adults learn, about whose knowledge is valued, about where knowledge comes from and, to some extent, about how change is seen to take place. The contrasting nature of these positions did not worry me at the time but in my next position I began to think about and make explicit what learning and professional development needed to be about. At this point in my career I started to become aware of the dichotomies and anomalies that existed between my beliefs and practices so I started to make explicit my personal set of beliefs about teacher learning and to try and make these congruent with my practices and decision making.

In a new position as Director of Educational Services with Independent Schools throughout New South Wales my principle responsibility was to provide professional development activities for the staff of independent schools. The first thing that became apparent was that these schools were not a group of schools that had a shared set of values and beliefs about teaching, learning or education. The culture of each school, its values and traditions and its ethos were the things that governed the way things were done, how decisions were made, how problems were solved and the teaching styles that were used in the classrooms. I became more aware of the importance of school culture on the learning culture of the school. I also discovered that there was an expectation, a pre-conceived idea of what professional development should or might be and this did not match my own understandings.

At this time I embarked on an M.Ed. (Hons) through research. My interest was two fold: on the nature of different models of professional development, and to conduct an assessment of a collaborative approach to professional development called 'co-researching' (Barton, 1992; Cambourne & Turbill, 1991). As a result of this Masters research, my understanding of the nature of teacher learning and
professional development was extended considerably and formed the basis of my current presuppositions about professional learning as follows:

- Professional development is a process not an event.
- Professional development is an integrated concept that extends beyond the learning and changed practices of individual teachers.
- Professional development of educators refers to ongoing professional learning within the workplace.
- Professional learning is dependent on a positive working and learning culture within the school.
- Professional learning is both a personal and shared responsibility.
- Professional learning needs to be grounded in the real experiences and issues of classrooms.
- Our values and beliefs underpin the nature of our practice so that in order to change practice we need to unpack and make explicit the beliefs that drive our practice.
- The concepts of ‘shared responsibility’, ‘deliberateness’ and ‘collaboration’ are important aspects of professional learning.
- Successful learning is dependent upon the nature of the roles and relationships that are assumed within the workplace and our knowledge of the nature of learning (Barton, 1992).
- There is a need to recognise that people learn in different ways and therefore a respect for this difference is important in planning and evaluating growth and change.
- Professional growth needs to be seen as a multi-dimensional activity and that this involves many different phases of growth (Barton, 1992).
Professional learning has a number of interactive and integrative elements (Turbill, 1993) as is shown in Figure 2.

These work experiences, more than any others, have shaped the way I view professional development and the kinds of questions that I felt it was important to explore during the course of the research. However, my co-researching experiences in schools have also developed and reshaped my understandings and presented me with questions that I may not have initially felt were important.

For instance, on looking back, I began to realise that the focus of my Masters research on co-researching as a collaborative strategy for staff development, had been on a small part of what was a far bigger story. Whilst initially I had become preoccupied with sets of characteristics about change and professional development, I soon realised that I was proceeding down the same 'parts' pathway. I would now need to use a new set of lenses in order to view and describe the world of schools as a whole, a more interrelated and connected one.

To use these new lenses and to see wholes rather than small parts, it became necessary for me to suspend myself for some months in what often seemed like total chaos. During this experience I began to appreciate the multi-dimensional...
and multi-levelled nature of teacher learning and change and became sensitive to the possibility that education and all its activity, might better be described as an ecological system.

I also recognised the importance of what Mary Bateson (1994) calls 'peripheral vision' and the need to develop new metaphors that link one experience with another so that different kinds of stories can be told. To make sense of what I was learning, it was important to string together selective elements of my prior experiences and beliefs, but at the same time to try and explore both familiar and new territories in different ways.

In this section I have tried to identify some of the different layers of awareness that have contributed to the meanings I have brought to this study. I have also tried to acknowledge that the realities of self and world are always relative and dependent on a particular context as well as a point of view.

RATIONAL FOR THE STUDY

Why another study of professional development and change?
The nineties has been a period of rapid socio-political change accompanied by challenges to the prevailing paradigms and pressures to accept different world views. The pressures on schools to accommodate an ever expanding educational knowledge base and the new, complex socio-political agendas have been considerable. With these pressures has come a greater recognition for the need for ongoing professional development, not in terms of the need to 'fix' teachers up but that learning needed to become an integral part of teachers' professional lives (Guskey, 1986; Guskey & Huberman, 1995:1).

There has been an explosion of research into professional development (Fullan, 1985, 1990, 1992; Guskey, 1986; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Loucks-Horsley, 1994; Joyce & Showers, 1996; Lieberman, 1988, 1995; Lieberman & Miller, 1978, 1990a, 1991) and a plethora of strategies and models for professional development have been offered (Guskey, 1986; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Joyce & Showers, 1995; Cambourne and Turbill, 1991). Furthermore, there has been a great deal of literature available on the change process (Fullan, 1991; Richardson, 1995; Lieberman and Miller, 1992; Sarason, 1995; Bart, 1990; Fullan and Miles, 1992; Tafel, 1992) during the past two decades. These have proved
less than effective in bringing about ongoing individual learning, changed practices or whole school growth (Fullan and Miles, 1992). Whilst many of these strategies, like co-researching for instance (Cambourne and Turbill, 1991), have been highly effective as an occasional activity with a few members of staff, unless they, like so many other suggested strategies, are integrated into a program of professional learning that accommodates wider needs of the school community, then the potential to promote change is severely limited (Barton, 1994). Research on teachers' response to mandated change, however, does not seem to be available.

So why then is yet another study of professional development and change so important? Given that mandated change is an integral part of school life in New South Wales, it is important that teachers are able to respond quickly to political/educational edicts. This means that we need to look more closely at the relationship between mandated change, professional development and school growth. Therefore this study has been motivated by a number of professional and theoretical needs and its timeliness in relation to current socio-political and educational change agendas.

At a professional level there is a need for:

- insights into how schools have approached the implementation of a new mandatory Syllabus document that presents an outcomes and standards approach as well as new approaches to the assessment and reporting of students' language learning;

This point relates to the specific context of change of this study, the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus in New South Wales. Both an outcomes and standards approach alongside new ways of monitoring and reporting students language learning are new concepts to New South Wales schools. With the distribution of a mandatory English K-6 Syllabus, teachers have been confronted with expressed outcomes of their teaching of English that have not been congruent with many of their personal beliefs about literacy and language learning and teaching. Furthermore, the Syllabus has necessitated some major shifts in emphasis in classroom practices. The Syllabus focuses on what has been learnt rather than on teaching objectives and this has emphasised the importance of the
relationship that needs to exist between teacher planning and the ongoing monitoring of students’ learning.

- **case studies of Australian schools that show how they manage and organize mandated change on a day to day basis;**

If, as Fullan (1991) suggests, schools are the key to reform, then case studies of how Australian schools are managing the demands of mandated change have the potential to provide ‘stories’ of different contexts and different approaches to the implementation of new Syllabus statements.

Further, the case studies that form the basis of this study, have the potential to better illuminate and describe the realities of whole school change and changing perceptions of what is needed to prepare students for a rapidly changing world.

Schools are anxious to share and exchange specific information and ideas about the processes that have been implemented to accommodate mandated change and what this might mean for whole school planning and organization.

- **researchers to work in collaborative enterprise with educators for the development of a shared understanding about change.**

For too long academics have gone into schools to conduct research, taking away time and information and returning little to the participants or the institution. Nowadays schools are far too busy to simply pass out information. Entry into schools is strictly on the proviso that there is something in it for all who participate, for individuals and for the school rather than for the outside researcher only. There are many positive spin offs for this kind of co-learning relationship. Information seems to have been more easily disseminated between schools through the formation of co-researching networks between schools and through conference presentations and the publication of articles in journals that focus on teaching and other practical ideas related to school issues that have naturally arisen from the co-researching process.
• contextually specific information and knowledge about the implementation of mandated change in schools within New South Wales, Australia;

A search of the literature reveals that very little research, independent of political or educational systems, has been carried out in Australia on change and the change processes as it happens at the school level.

Research from North America suggests that mandated change does not work. Change, it is argued, needs to come from within (Fullan, 1991). Schools in Australia are controlled by continual mandates for change and many seem to have found ways to cope with this reality in positive ways. There is, therefore, an urgent need to understand what happens in these schools and how they manage and organize the change process.

From these specific instances of how teachers and schools go about their business, organizing themselves for change, there is also a need to develop some theoretical understandings about the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth. More specifically, from a theoretical perspective there is a need to:

• examine and describe the relationships between the parts as they create a big picture of ongoing professional learning and school growth;

Rather than providing yet another explanation of a single aspect of professional development there is a need to understand how all the bits of knowledge create a pattern that fits together to make a cohesive whole.

• develop a new theoretical mindset about the purpose and potential nature of professional development;

I would argue that we need to redefine what we mean by professional development in order to open up different kinds of understandings, opportunities and approaches and to examine the practical implications that this new mindset might have for the way all aspects of teacher learning have been planned for, designed and implemented at the school level. Current definitions seem inadequate in simultaneously supporting
teachers learning, school growth and the drastic educational restructuring that is being demanded by society.

- integrate the notion of continuous change as an integral part of the way schools do business.

The pace of change during the past decade has become frenetic. As indicated in the previous section the nature of society has changed and so too economic development. School agendas are being reshaped to accommodate these changes. Organizations, in particular, like state education departments, need to respond to these rapidly changing needs more quickly than they have ever done before. Change is no longer something that happens from time to time but rather needs to become a way of life. If change has become an integral part of education and the professional lives of teachers, then it is imperative that schools understand the implications of this and have a repertoire of strategies to help them integrate change agendas into the way they do business in schools. It has been strongly argued that the prevailing methods and theories about professional development do not adequately respond to the professional needs of teachers within this constant ethos of change (Fullan, 1991; Sarason, 1990).

It is also the timeliness of this investigation of change and professional development that makes this study important. We are in the midst of the most dramatic change agendas made during this past century. Within educational circles there is a high level of interest and concern about schools' reactions and responses to these changes. Teachers and principals are anxious to exchange and share information. But whilst this is a period of high stress for teachers, for many, it is also an exciting and challenging time in their professional careers.
THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

School communities are complex, dynamic social semiotic systems. One of the problems for this study is the formulation of a general theory of organization which will assist with the description of all the salient factors, their state of constant turmoil and interaction, their perpetual tensions of order and disorder and the relationships between these and teacher professional learning. It therefore became necessary to draw on a number of different pools of knowledge in order to find meaning.

A multi-theoretical approach therefore guided both the conduct and development of this study. These include:

- **constructivist theory**, a theory about knowledge and learning, as a way of understanding adult learning, the notion of transformation and the transfer of knowledge with special reference to the professional development of teachers and change. These are not disparate theoretical frameworks but highly interrelated and connected. To discuss one area is to explore and clarify aspects of another simultaneously.

- the **theory of change** as a way of explaining both the nature and process of change;

- **chaos theory** (complexity theory) as a way of understanding the system dynamics of open evolving systems of organizations that seem to be suspended in a state of disequilibrium;

- **systems theory** as a way of understanding human behaviour as interconnected and where 'nothing can be understood in isolation but must be seen as part of a system' (Ferguson, 1980:52); and

The theory that pervades the overall conduct of this study is constructivist in orientation. Constructivist theory represents a particular view of learning and challenges the more conventional behaviouristic and humanistic theories of learning. The basic tenets of constructivists' beliefs about learning seem to hold not only for children but also for adults.
Constructivist theoreticians view learning transfer as the most complex part of the learning process. Transfer theory, as an integral part of learning theory, has important implications for understanding not only how adults learn but upon the nature of the change process. Transfer of knowledge to practice lies at the heart of the purpose of most initiatives for both staff development and professional development.

It is necessary to provide a basis for understanding the potential development of systemic reform through professional development. To understand the principles of constructivist theory as it applies to adult learning, the importance of transfer of knowledge to practice and to balance this with an understanding of chaos theory, systems thinking and change theory might help to inform educators about how they might support ongoing teacher learning.

This study explores the interdependence of these theories and whether these relationships have the potential to provide new insights into the nature of mandated change, professional development and school growth.

**LOCUS OF THE STUDY**

**The sites**
The location of this study is the Illawarra Region in New South Wales, Australia. The Illawarra lies immediately south of Sydney and Wollongong is its main commercial and industrial centre. The region stretches southwards along a coastal strip and most of the its settlements in the region are small coastal towns or farming communities.

**The schools**
Four schools were selected and all were located in the suburbs of Wollongong. The schools varied in size and in the nature of the communities that they serve.

**The participants**
Many members of staff were involved in the development of this case study. However, at each school site some teachers were more involved than others. The principal of each school, key literacy and language teaching personnel, teachers who have been responsible for training and development programs and parents were the major contributors to the study.
The principals of each of the four schools have played a major role in this study and include David (School A), Alan (School B), Jan (School C) and John (School D). David and Jan are experienced principals and are nearing retirement. Alan has been a principal for a number of years and this is his second school as principal. John has only recently been appointed a principal and has been at his current school for about three years.

Wendy, Libby (School A), Mary, Lucy (School B), Petra, Jane (School C), Judy and Kay (School D) are all experienced teachers and have special responsibilities within their schools for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus and changes to assessment and evaluation practices.

The locus of the study has been described here only briefly but is elaborated on further in Chapter three on the research methodology.

**SUMMARY AND THESIS OVERVIEW**

The main purpose of this introduction has been to provide the reader with an understanding of the focus of the study and its rationale. It was also necessary to provide a brief introduction to the socio-political context in which the study took place as well as to make explicit my personal assumptions and beliefs about professional development and change.

Chapter two presents an exploration of the literature which relates directly to professional development, school growth and mandated change.

Chapter three outlines the research paradigm selected as most appropriate to achieve the purpose of the study and the research methodologies employed in its conduct.

Chapter four expands upon many of the ideas presented in this chapter. It presents a detailed description of the context of current educational change with particular reference to the development of the New South Wales English K-6 Syllabus. As such this chapter focuses on national, state and regional histories provides 'the big picture' and how this has shaped our current educational agendas for the English curriculum in New South Wales.
Chapter five provides a description of the results of the data analysis including both primary and secondary sources. The case studies of each of the four schools are presented and each is framed by the themes and categories that emerged directly from the data. Concept maps developed by the principals towards the end of the data collection form a synthesis of this chapter.

The final chapter outlines a grounded theory about the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth and makes recommendations of how this theory might shape the way that the major stakeholders think about the presentation and support of mandated change in the future.
CHAPTER 2

A LITERATURE REVIEW

The ultimate goal (of professional development) is changing the culture of learning for both adults and students so that engagement and betterment is a way of life in schools (Fullan, 1991: 344).

To aid the reader's journey through this chapter a series of concept trees will be provided. The first of these (Figure 3), shows the overall structure of the chapter. Others, that focus on the major themes, will be offered as the reader proceeds through the text.

Figure 3: Concept tree of the literature
INTRODUCTION

This chapter has a dual purpose. The first is to present a critical review of the literature that describes the fields of professional development and change and the second is to develop a case for a changing view of professional development based on a changing purpose, one that is less politically and economically motivated to one that is more closely related to the notion of continuous professional learning and school reform.

To do this it is necessary to identify not only the appropriate literature from a number of different disciplines that may contribute to our understanding, but to make connections and to integrate these bodies of knowledge in such a way so as to provide a richer and more detailed explanation of the relationships that exist between them.

This literature review is the end product of an ongoing review process in which the literature was constantly compared with observations, experiences and the data that were gathered from a number of different school sites, during the research process. Since the study began, the reviewing process has informed and guided the study. It has opened up doors to new and related topics. It has presented provocative questions for reflection, and has always demanded the active engagement with, and alignment of new propositions with existing knowledge as well as developing new understandings and knowledge.

Such a process is dynamic, organic and formative. The questions that the literature raised often required me to dig deeply to make connections between the ideas presented and the observations and experiences gained in the schools. It was, however, this ongoing interactive and iterative process that helped to shape and organize this review of the literature.

Like many other domains of knowledge the literature on professional development and change present a number of challenges. The first relates to the sheer volume of literature that has been and continues to be generated. The second challenge relates to a shifting paradigm, a move from positivist to constructivist theories of learning. This shift seems to have resulted in literature that frequently offers confused messages. The third challenge relates to the segmented and episodic nature of the literature where studies often do not seem to build on each other.
Because these challenges shaped the final form which this review took, in what follows I will elaborate on each of these.

**The volume of professional development literature**
In response to the first difficulty, the sheer volume of literature, I decided to use an already developed historical overview of the literature on professional development (Barton, 1992) that had condensed and synthesised much of the literature and provided an organizational framework for looking at our developing perceptions of professional development. Using this overview as a base I was then at liberty to focus more specifically on the next generation of literature.

**Shifting paradigms**
The second difficulty, one of shifting paradigms, has resulted in a confused account of what professional development means and what it entails. Many writers in the field are constrained by the anomalies they find existing within schools and within organizational systems. This is evident in a recent publication edited by Guskey and Huberman (1995) on professional development. They conclude their book with a chapter that highlights two outstanding anomalies that have resulted from their investigations; the dilemma of individual versus institutional development and deficit versus growth models of learning. These topics reflect common anomalies within the general literature although I believe they will serve to illustrate the straddled nature of our often confused understandings about professional development.

Kuhn (1970) is reassuring when he suggests that the emergence of anomalies plays an important role in our understanding of new phenomena. He reminds us that:

'Discovery commences with the awareness of anomalies, that is with the recognition that nature has somehow violated the paradigm-induced expectations that govern normal science. This awareness then continues with a more or less extended exploration of the area of anomaly and closes 'only when the paradigm theory has been adjusted so that the anomalous has become the expected' (Kuhn, 1970).
The literature I would argue indicates that 'the anomalous has not yet become the expected' especially with reference to issues related to professional development and change.

Another feature of the impact of a shifting paradigm on the current literature that describes professional development, is that researchers who conduct their research grounded in one particular paradigm seem, over time, to be reluctant to move to another but rather seek to elasticise and extend the parameters of their original theoretical stance. Furthermore, with a changing paradigm comes a change in language. The 'new language' tends to be picked up by others in the field, however, this changed language often conceals the fact that the assumptions and beliefs about learning or the purpose of professional development have not changed at all.

An example of this can be found in the literature on 'supervision' as a valued approach for teacher learning. This strategy was known originally as 'clinical supervision'. It was a top-down expert driven strategy for 'fixing up' teachers based on a logical positivist view of learning (Retallick, 1988). Over time the word 'clinical' has been dropped but the term 'supervision' is still used and reflects an approach where the power relations are usually unequal and the purpose still remains the improvement of one by the efforts of another (Smyth, 1982). More recently this strategy of 'supervision' has also been referred to as peer coaching (Joyce, 1987). This is most confusing as many advocates of peer coaching believe in an equal power base relationship where participants are collectively the creators of knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1996; Lieberman, 1986). 'Supervision' as a term has therefore, become one that has multiple interpretations depending on one's particular view of learning.

The fragmented/episodic nature of the professional development literature
The third difficulty, relates to the fragmented and episodic nature of the literature on professional development and change. The literature is preoccupied with the identification of factors or characteristics. Labels become a way of fragmenting concepts and ultimately, it is felt, a way of better understanding parts. There is little literature that looks at the relationships between the parts nor explains the configuration that might be expected in school settings where change is an ongoing part of their agenda. Furthermore, especially in the area of 'effective' schools, where the volumes of literature are considerable, Rosenholtz (1989) argues that much of the literature, and the
commentary that surrounds it, lacks theoretical foundations. She also suggests that there has been much 'independent ploughing and reploughing of the same ground' (Rosenholtz, 1989: 1). A good example of this can be found in the articles and snippets of the Journal of Staff Development, the professional publication of the National Council of Staff Development.

AN ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORK

The most recent literature that explores topics such as workplace learning, teachers' professionalism and learning cultures, is starting to present case studies that tell stories, bringing together ideas and understandings in a more cohesive way. The literature has also begun to show evidence of an exploration of wholes, an explanation of possible patterns or connections and relationships between the parts (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Lieberman, 1995; Little, 1993; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sarason, 1996). If we are to talk about professional development, then, I believe, it is necessary to loosen and widen the boundaries or parameters so that we might describe professional learning in new ways.

This proved to be a complex enterprise. Not only are there many different pathways into the literature on professional development, school growth and change but there is also a plethora of literature that describe these topics. The thing which separates different descriptions of these topics in the literature relates to their theoretical orientation. It is the changing theoretical perspectives that has changed our understandings of the nature of professional learning and change. Therefore, in this review of the literature, it is important to make the theoretical orientations explicit for not to do so would be like presenting 'an orphaned child without toys' (Rosenholtz, 1989:xiii).

As well as identifying the major theories that are contributing to our current understandings about professional learning, school growth and change, it is my intention to weave together a number of complimentary theories and make explicit their interrelationships. In this way a theoretical triangulation evolves. Furthermore, using a multi-theoretical approach provides a number of different languages for describing this study's topics and, as a result, might help us to develop a new mindset about the nature of professional development and change.
Four broad pools of theory which would assist the process of loosening and widening the boundaries and parameters of professional development emerged from the literature. These were:

**Constructivist theory**: as a way of defining the nature of adult learning. Congruent theories of adult learning underpin this study and inform new ways of understanding how schools might best respond to change.

**Chaos theory** as a way of understanding the system dynamics of open evolving systems of organizations, in this case, schools.

**Systems theory** as a way of understanding the whole and where 'nothing can be understood in isolation but must be seen as part of a system' (Ferguson, 1980)52.

**Change theory**: a theory of change evolves from the explanations offered in the literature about the topics that surround this study. Explanations of adult learning, about the way schools organize and conduct their everyday work environments provide a description of both the nature and process of change.

These theories (see Figure 4) seem to form a natural partnership in explaining about the nature of professional learning and change because the axioms or principles upon which they are based are theoretically congruent. However, the implications of the axioms that each theory affords, provide quite different opportunities for describing, talking about, understanding and solving problems of current change proposals. In this way these theories are highly interrelated and create an 'intricate textual dance' (Bateson, 1994). Just as the boundaries are not fixed between the theories, nor are their goals either constant or pure.
Figure 4: A theoretical framework

Whilst I acknowledge that such a multi-theoretical approach might be seen as producing fuzzy and permeable boundaries between theories, I contend that such fuzziness reflects well the reality of the everyday life in some schools, the nature of their organization and the way they choose to do business. By looking at the literature holistically rather than eclectically, I also believed that it would be easier to establish theoretical relationships and thus avoid the highlighting of dichotomies between ideas.

The conundrum I faced in the presentation of this review of the literature was whether to use this theoretical framework as an organizer of this chapter or whether to use the major themes that had evolved from the literature. As I have said, the boundaries between theories are fuzzy but so too are the boundaries between the themes. One theme overlapped another as a variety of disciplines converged to provide rich descriptions of professional learning, changing mindsets and ways of organizing and doing business within schools.

The connections between theories and themes, therefore, remains loosely connected. Because of the complex set of relationships between topics and theories (see Figure 5) this review cannot present a simple linear review. I needed instead to swing freely between both theories and themes as it seemed appropriate. Sometimes the theme becomes paramount where at other times the theory provided the description of the theme.
Although the theme of adult learning underpins the focus of this entire study, I would like to start this review of the literature by looking at professional development as I believe that this will provide a contextual background to the development of our thinking about professional learning. Furthermore, it will provide an historical overview of the way that understandings about adult learning have been interpreted over time and how professional development has been designed, implemented and managed in schools.

Following this, the review will focus on adult learning. As this theme unfolds, a more integrated and encompassing description of professional learning in the workplace emerges.

The notion of workplace learning, the next theme, heralds new possibilities for thinking about and seeing professional development. Workplace learning emphasises the importance of continuous and collaborative approaches to learning, strategies that are based on the problems and realities of the classroom.

An emphasis on workplace learning has also begun to change our understanding of the nature and importance of the school as an organization, how it operates and the potential influence that this has on professional learning. Consequently the nature of the school as an organization is the next major theme to be reviewed.

At this point in the review it is recognised that if professional learning and school growth is to take place then we need to consider a far more wholistic
view of change. So finally this review of the literature describes the coming together of a number of themes and perspectives about professional learning where schools are described as learning organizations and/or learning communities which, it is argued, provides the basis for ongoing learning, organizational growth and change.

**PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Underpinning theories</th>
<th>Themes in the literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructivism</td>
<td>Professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaos theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems theory</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Connections between theories and professional development

**Some definitions**

Using the new world view, we are moving from the primacy of pieces to the primacy of wholes, from absolute truths to coherent interpretations, from self to community, and from problem solving to creating (Kofman & Senge, 1993: 6). Just as this major shift in paradigm has caused us to define, understand and view education (Finn, 1990) in a different way, so too the literature indicates that the language we use to describe professional development is also changing although Sparks (1994) contends that the language we are using has not yet caught up with the changes in practices.

So we seem to be caught between paradigms, where both the language of the old paradigm is used simultaneously alongside the new. This has been evident in the literature where there are conflicting definitions and where the language of professional learning often means very different things to different people.

---

2 The term 'schools as learning organizations/communities' will be more specifically described under the subheading of the same name.
Just as the language of professional learning has changed over time so too has its nature and purpose.

The language that we still use, that I would argue, belongs to a past paradigm and includes such terms as in-service education, professional development and staff development. The current literature that surrounds professional learning suggests a variety of definitions from the general all inclusive definition to the specific (Grant, 1990).

There is, however, general agreement about the definition of in-service education. In a Report of the In-service Teacher Education Project commissioned by the Australian Government, 'in-service training and development' is defined as:

'...... a deliberate adult learning activity initiated by teachers themselves, by their employees, by tertiary institutions, or by other agencies with a stake in education' (Department of Employment, Education and Training 1988:5).

It is also described strictly as an activity, a one-off course or lecture, identified as important, organized and conducted by experts outside schools and usually based on matters of centrally regulated and controlled curriculum. These in-service courses are often conducted in locations not associated with school contexts and usually have little to do with teachers perceived teaching and classroom needs (Duignan, 1986).

Such a definition reflects a narrow understanding of the dimensions of adult learning and typifies the thinking of the nineteen-sixties and seventies. At this time, in-service training was considered the major route to implement changed classroom practices which was the purpose of the activity. Whilst this strategy is still used in the nineties, it is my experience that it is used as only one of many strategies and has as its focus, awareness raising and informing teachers of new curriculum and policy rather than the implementation of new classroom practices. The NSW Department of School Education now refer to in-service courses as 'training and development' initiatives.

In literature from the late eighties, the terms professional development and staff development are often used interchangeably (Fullan, 1992). For example,
Fullan (1992) does not draw a distinction between the two terms. He uses 'professional development' as a generic term describing it as:

'vethe sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout one's career from pre-service teacher education to retirement' (326).

However, Stephenson (1987) suggests that there are major differences between professional development and staff development. Whilst he recognises that professional development refers to the continuing development of individual teachers throughout their career, he also describes it as a voluntary activity. Stevenson (1987) points out that staff development, on the other hand, focuses on the collective development of the school staff and is used more broadly to describe both an event and a process of change. Turbill (1993) has observed that staff development is a term that is more commonly used in the American and Canadian literature although similar distinctions are made by teachers here in Australia.

Staff development is also reported as a formal and systematic process that has as its starting point the needs and interests of the school (Fullan, 1994). In Australia it often includes an activity or series of activities that focus on mandated school change and the implementation of someone else's thinking. Furthermore, it is also described as being a strategy for the development and improvement of practice and school growth (Griffin, 1983; Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990).

Hewton (1988), takes this a step further by describing staff development as an even more inclusive term that brings together individual and collective development as well as school growth. He writes:

'A Staff development programme is a planned process of development which enhances the quality of pupil learning by identifying, clarifying and meeting the individual needs of the staff within the context of the institution as a whole. The programme has three strands relating to the individual, interest groups and the whole school' (1988: 89-90).

Schmuck (1994), however, provides an even more extended definition by suggesting that staff development needs to be an integral part of 'the way we
do business' in schools. He argues for the importance of the relationship between the individual and the development of the organization. He suggests that staff development needs to be seen as an integrated blend of individual development, that refers to cognition, attitudes and skills and organizational development that includes norms, structures and procedures within the school. This definition is more consistent with the current literature on professional learning.

Definitions of the term 'professional development' are more problematic. It is a term that is frequently linked with the literature on school restructuring (Murphy, 1991; Murphy & Hallinger, 1993), reform and the building of shared beliefs and a shared vision (Butt, Townsend, & Raymond, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1993, 1995; Lieberman, 1995; Lieberman & Miller, 1990b; Little, 1993; Sellars, 1996; Sykes, 1996). In these cases the term is used in a generic sense and applies to the ongoing professional learning of both individuals and school staff.

In this study the terms staff development, professional development and professional learning will be used interchangeably. These terms will refer to the development of both individual and collective professional learning in schools.

As changing definitions seem to be closely related to the changing purposes and nature of professional development, these purposes will be discussed in more depth after the next section which provides an historical overview of professional development.

**Historical overview of professional development**

It seems appropriate that a historical review of the literature on professional development should be presented here as this has the potential to provide a context for changing perceptions about the nature of adult learning, change, the change process and school reform.

A conceptual and organizational framework for an historical overview of professional development has already been developed (Barton, 1992). This framework was based on a number of focus questions as follows:

- What learning design is being demonstrated by the model of professional development?
• Where does new knowledge about teaching practices come from?

• Who takes part in its creation (knowledge)?

• What roles and responsibilities are being assumed by the participants in the professional development activity or strategy?

• Where is the responsibility for the learning centred?

This framework captured the historical evolution of models of professional development (see Figure 7) from an integrated and multi-faceted perspective and reflects our changing perceptions about the nature and purpose of professional development, about models of professional development, teacher change and how the management of change has evolved.
1. The Authoritarian Model

Expert/Provider

Teacher (Recipient)

2. The Support or Training Model

Individual Teacher (Recipient)

3. The Individual to Co-operative Model

Individual Teacher

4. The Critical Collaborative Model

Teacher

Teacher Principal

Administrator

Researcher

Consultant

Experienced Teacher

Co-operation between individuals

Agenda/Innovation
Recognised Knowledge Source

Figure 7: Models of professional development (Barton, 1992)

The first two models, the authoritarian and support training models, reflect a deficit view of learning and a purpose for staff development restricted to 'experts' telling teachers about new curriculum and more effective ways of working with students in the classroom (Barton, 1994). In these models, the opinions of experts were those that set the agenda for what needed to be changed and how it should be changed (Hall & Loucks, 1978). Teachers were seen as technicians rather than professionals (Ebbutt & Elliot, 1985). Changes in
teachers' beliefs and attitudes were considered to be the outcome of changed classroom practices (Guskey, 1986) as shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8: A model of the process of teacher change (Guskey, 1986)

Fullan (1985) has argued that the impact of this approach to changed teaching practice was short lived and did little to develop teachers values and beliefs about either learning or teaching.

The literature that describes the third model of professional development, the individual to co-operative model, focuses on the 'improvement of local practice and the fine tuning of existing repertoire' of teaching skills rather than on 'the production and dissemination of new knowledge' (Barton, 1992). In this model the purpose of professional development focused on curriculum renewal, the content and practice of teaching (Henry, 1981) and was developed through in-school action research as a process of classroom inquiry, and partnership strategies including clinical supervision and interactive research and development projects between outsiders, usually academics, and teachers. The focus of these strategies was the classroom and the concerns and issues which teachers had personally identified as important.

Whilst this was a positive change of emphasis, the literature of this period demonstrated a limited understanding of the notion of collaboration The relationships described in the literature continued to show evidence of a 'novice-expert' mentality. Teachers also seemed to have no public voice and their knowledge continued to be devalued (Barton, 1996).

The fourth model presents a collaborative model of staff development where the focus is on the development of working relationships within a school. It emphasised a changed culture of teaching as well as the development of a new
more collaborative school culture (Fullan, 1991). Hannay and Stevens (1985) suggested that successful collaboration was dependent upon participants taking responsibility for their own learning. This shift of responsibility for learning away from external agencies to individuals and school communities was a major change in our thinking about how professional development might be planned for and developed.

It was concluded that the literature on collaboration as a strategy for professional learning was not sufficient to sustain change at the whole school level and that the concept of collaboration needed to include the whole school community not just select groups within the school (Barton, 1995). Because the literature at that time was promoting the concepts of culture and community as key factors in the change process, a new model of professional development was added and referred to as The Community Learning Model - A Culture (Barton, 1995). A further clarification was made by suggesting that the Collaborative Model referred more specifically to individual change whereas the new Community model referred more to cultural and collective change (see Figure 9).

Figure 9: Refining and extending models of professional development (Barton, 1995).

By doing this there was an attempt to tighten the boundaries of the collaborative model because the literature on culture and community were
developing sufficient strength to present new understandings concerning the relationships between teachers values and beliefs, learning and change.

It is at the 'Collaborative Model' that I would like to take up later in this review of the literature. Up till the late eighties, the literature had presented a litany of strategies and approaches to professional development but since then the literature indicates that a new vision is emerging.

But before continuing with a closer look at the notion of 'collaboration' and 'community learning', it is organizationally appropriate to use this historical overview of models of professional development as a basis for describing its changing purposes as well as highlight the underlying political agendas.

**Changing purposes of professional development**

Like definitions, perceptions of the purposes of professional development have changed with time. For many years, in Australia, these purposes have been controlled and governed by political and bureaucratic agendas. As definitions of professional development have been extended, agendas and actions are beginning to be identified by individual schools and their staff, agendas that are more focused on their own particular contexts and communities.

Just as an historical and epistemological development have been offered in the last section as a way of reviewing the literature of the past three decades, its framework can also be used to illustrate the connections between purpose and practice and to provide a summary of our evolving perceptions of how teachers learn and its relationship to the purpose of professional development (see Figure 10).

In this diagram (Figure 10) the changing purposes of professional development are described variously as an activity, an ongoing process and as a long term strategy for school reform. In reality, however, professional development includes all these purposes. However, they have changed from a focus on external political agendas through changed curriculum (Little, 1989; Paris, 1989; Pink, 1989), to one of 'improved' teaching practice and from this to a focus on equity, that is, learning and success for all and the development of teacher professionalism. Simultaneously, the literature indicates that professional development is about school improvement, site-based restructuring as it is
often referred to, or systemic change and reform. These purposes have been driven by political agendas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1960 - 70's</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Authoritarian Model</td>
<td>To inform and enlighten teachers about changes in curriculum through the direct transmission of instrumental knowledge from expert to novice (Rich, 1977). A deficit model designed to fix teachers (Dillon-Peterson, 1994).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1970 - 80's</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. The Support or Training Model</td>
<td>To provide support for teachers to make changes to their classroom practices and to develop new technical teaching skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Late 1970 - Early 1980's</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. The Individual to Co-operative Model</td>
<td>To improve local practice and the fine tuning of existing teaching repertoire. All the above purposes were the agendas of external agencies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1980's</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. The Collaborative Model</td>
<td>By the mid eighties schools were to become more responsible for their own growth and development and the ways in which this should be supported. Professional development became more commonly known as staff development. No longer was staff development about implementing something but rather about the development of a changed culture of teaching as well as a new school culture.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1990's</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. The Community Model</td>
<td>Emphasis on growth/change (Dillon-Peterson, 1994) and on learning success for all. To make continuous learning an integral part of every educator's professional life (Brandt, 1994). To activate school and therefore educational reform, that involved asking educators to think differently about learning and children (Goldberg, 1996). To develop learning communities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10: Changing purposes of professional development

Reflecting the general thinking of the nineties, Fullan (1991) argues that the ultimate goal of professional development is about changing the culture of learning for both adults and students, so that 'engagement and betterment is a
way of life in schools’. However, Fullan suggests that this can only happen if staff development becomes an ongoing and integrated concept about the way that schools work and the extent to which learning becomes the main agenda for the whole school community, parents, students and educators alike. This concept places the focus of staff development on schools, that is, the collective development of the whole school community as well as individual teacher development.

Sykes (1996) supports this by suggesting that there are two different dialogues currently being explored with reference to professional development. One focuses on the nature of current strategies for the professional development of teachers and focuses mostly on events and processes that might be used to improve teacher learning. The second debate sees professional development as a reform process and focuses on the nature of teacher learning within the school setting. This is an integrated concept that denotes the way that schools work and the extent to which learning becomes the main agenda for the whole school community. The challenge for professional development, Sykes (1996) argues, is to bring together the two dialogues about professional learning so that they are congruent, working together to make reform a reality.

The concept of learning as an integral part of the way schools do business opens up and extends the concepts of professional development to one of a system (Joyce & Showers, 1995: xiv), specifically a learning system, which in turn becomes a changed school culture, one that sees a positive change in the ways that professionals work together, the way they work with their students, their knowledge base and the process of inquiry that becomes an integral part of everyday life (Joyce & Showers, 1995). The purpose of systems, Joyce (1995) argues, is to regenerate the organization, the quality of life and the development of the individual (Joyce & Showers, 1995: xiv). In this way staff development becomes an integral part of the infrastructure and its purpose is to sustain and support ongoing learning and change. But Joyce (1995) does not indicate whether it is the teacher, or the student, or both, who becomes the focus of all school activity.

Little (1993) reminds us that professional development/staff development is an integral part of a larger picture called whole school change. If this is so then it no longer seems useful to confine explorations of teacher learning within a framework of 'staff development' or 'professional development'. These
opinions are generally supported by the current literature that suggests that the purpose of professional development is about 'all staff learning together, in self reflection and creative ways, making the school experience a richer one for students. It engages teachers as professionals and full partners in the shaping of the organization, governance and curriculum. It is about the building of a culture of learning' (Garston, 1989: 64:).

Garston (1989) continues by arguing that this will necessitate the modification of the structures of the workplace and the roles that are assumed. All staff, he suggests, need to become caretakers of learning communities, collaborators, problem seekers, action researchers, and designers of responsive student-centred curricula. Garston concludes by emphasising that whilst system changes power relations (equalising roles) and the nature of the workplace, the focus is on getting things done and having a voice in what those things will be and how they will be done.

It becomes evident that in describing the 'purpose' of professional development it is difficult to separate purpose from the nature of professional development and what it might look like. However, as has been mentioned, one of the major political purposes of professional development has often been left implicit in the literature. This agenda relates to educational reform/restructuring and the extent to which professional development has a part to play in this reform/restructuring process.

Reform/restructuring and professional development
If, as Sykes (1996) suggests, one of the major debates concerning professional development is that it should be seen as a reform process and focuses on the nature of teacher learning within the school setting, then what is the current reform agenda and where does professional development fit?

Senge (1990) argues that reform is about a changed mindset about education, schools, teaching and learning. It is acknowledged that it involves systemic change, takes place in specific contexts and takes time (Lieberman, 1994). At the school level Little (1993) identifies five streams of reform. These include:

- subject matter teaching (standards, curriculum and pedagogy),
- problems of equity among a diverse student population,
• the nature, extent and use of student assessment,

• the social organization of schooling and finally,

• the professionalisation of teachers.

Darling-Hammond (1995), suggest that the overall vision of school reform is one of practice that requires teachers to rethink their own practices, to reconstruct a new set of relationships with their students, to establish new roles and expectations about student outcomes and to learn to teach in new ways.

Little (1993) posits that a 'problem of fit' exists between the two dialogues that Sykes (1996) identified, that is, the nature of current strategies for the professional development of teachers and professional development as a reform process. Little (1993) notes that 'only if we can develop strategies or mechanisms that embody principles consonant with the complexity of the reform task' (1993: 133) will change take place. Specifically, Little suggests that there is a lack of fit between intentions and outcomes. She argues that the training model that dominates our current professional development programs has not enabled schools to realise the reform agendas. Little (1993) also notes that 'resource allocations for professional development represent a relatively poor fit with the intellectual, organizational, and social requirements of the most ambitious reforms.

During the past five years the language of school reform, particularly in North America, has changed to a language of restructuring. The Rand Report (Rand Corporation, 1978) found that initiatives for reform had largely failed. Another American report, A Nation at Risk (1983) recommended the urgent reform of American public schools. As a result of these reports, current restructuring initiatives in North America have focused on the fundamental redesign of schools, of developing new understandings about teaching and learning and the goals of schooling. Initiatives have moved away from 'designing controls intended to direct the system to developing the capacity of schools and teachers to be responsible to student and community needs, interests and concerns' (Darling-Hammond, 1993: 754).
The success of such a reform agenda however, is dependent upon our mindset about teaching and learning. 'Reforms that rely on the transformative power of individuals to rethink their practice and to redesign their institutions can be accomplished only by investing in the individual and organizational learning, in the human capital of the educational enterprise - the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of teachers and administrators, as well as those of parents and community members' (Darling-Hammond, 1993: 754). In this context, Darling-Hammond (1993) argued that professional development along with policy development and political development, play a vital role in school restructuring.

Furthermore, it has been suggested that if restructuring is to be successful then we need to better understand the nature of teachers work (Lieberman & Miller, 1992), and to develop communities of learning grounded in communities of democratic discourse (Darling-Hammond, 1993: 761). Specifically, Lieberman (1995) notes that if reform is to become operational then teachers need to learn about, develop and use new ideas with their students by building new roles, creating new structures, working on new tasks and creating a culture of inquiry. This reform agenda requires an expanded view of professional learning, one that is both personal and professional, both individual and collective, both inquiry-based and technical' (Lieberman, 1995).

Clarke and Astuto (1994) present a less optimistic view of current reform agendas. They point out that the language of reform is still dominated by 'harshness of bureaucracy, control, competition, and intervention. It is a discouraging language of distrust and inspection' (Clark & Astuto, 1994: 500). They suggest that reform initiatives are 'stuck in a worsening negative cycle, unable to deliver on its promises and destructive to the human spirit' (Clark & Astuto, 1994: 520). They challenge the dominant negative assumptions that policy makers have about professional educators and students potential, their motivation and ability to reform educational agendas. They argue that reform needs to be lead by school communities and teacher-student centred reforms rather than by systemic reformers and their 'repressive and retrogressive policies'(Clark & Astuto, 1994: 520).

Senge (1990b), on the other hand, argues that if we are to respond appropriately to the demands of the next century then we will need to develop new 'mental models' about how we understand the world and take action. If
this is so, then the notion of reform or restructuring may be inappropriate terms. Maybe we need to 're-conceptualise' professional development for school growth rather than trying to restructure what is already in place. Our mental models, Senge (1990b) describes as the deeply ingrained assumptions and values we have that shape our current actions. If we are to develop new mental models then there is a need to re-examine our assumptions and beliefs about teaching and learning. Unless this happens it is unlikely that models of professional learning and thus whole school growth will develop. The notion of changing our beliefs and values as a prerequisite of changed practices reverses the previous notions of the process of teacher change presented by Guskey (1986) in the eighties (See Figure 8).

In the next sections a number of strategies or mindsets/mental models about professional learning will be presented and how these might relate to the dialogue on re-conceptualising change.

From Collaboration to Communities of Inquiry
In 1967 Schaefer wrote a visionary treatise calling for the development of school-university based inquiry where schools became 'centres of inquiry'. Fundamentally, such a school, he suggested, is characterised by a pervasive search for 'meaning and rationality in its work'. It requires that 'teachers be freed to inquire into the nature of what and how they are teaching'...... 'As every teacher knows, however, pedagogical strategies cannot be meaningfully separated from content, and there must also be continuing opportunity for the teacher to inquire into the substance of what is being taught. Schaefer continued by stating that no school could 'be reflective about its work or serious in its commitment to learning if students were not similarly encouraged to seek rational purpose in their own studies' (Schaefer, 1967: 3-4). This vision of schools becoming 'centres of inquiry' has still not been realised here in Australia but with a move towards the development of the notion of schools becoming learning communities then this might well become a reality for schools.

The collaborative model of professional learning shown in Figure 9 (p.46) has as its focus the changing perceptions of the culture of teaching and learning (Fullan, 1991). In this model teachers work and learn together (Biott & Nias, 1992), participating in collaborative activities to enhance their own, their peers and/or students learning. These activities help teachers to generate their own
questions about teaching and learning (Buchanan, 1994). It is an approach that changes the nature of relationships within the school and perceptions of the value of teachers' knowledge. As teachers learn together they develop a framework of mutual support for each other through the process of change (Biott & Nias, 1992) as well as creating new knowledge.

Collaboration is considered to be about building relationships not tasks (Peck, 1987). Furthermore, inquiry and ongoing research are seen as an integral part of the collaborative process. Indeed, expanding and elaborating the teachers' knowledge base is seen as a crucial aspect of teachers' professional lives (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Clandinin & Conelly, 1995) and affect 'how they perceive and act on various messages about changing their teaching' (Borko & Putnam, 1995: 59).

Collaborative inquiry places importance on professional interaction, shared reflections and the development of shared understandings based on the premise that people learn better when they work with others (Biott & Nias, 1992; Wells, 1994). Judith Warren Little (1990a) describes collegiality as having specific behaviours that include adults talking together about teaching and learning practices, about observing each other as they engage in their daily business which in turn provides the basis of ongoing reflection and discussion. Barth (1990) suggested that adults also need to work together on the planning, designing, researching and evaluating of curriculum and through this kind of activity adults will 'teach each other what they know about teaching, learning and leading' (Barth, 1990).

There has been an increasing emphasis on 'those who learn, those who teach and those who educate teachers' (Deer & Williams, 1996: 57) and with this the notion of partnership and networking, between schools, the business world, the wider community and universities, has been seen as an essential development in response to the challenges of the future. As well as extending the possibilities for new working relationships, this approach has created new possibilities for learning (Asher, 1987) and has formed the basis of the professionalisation of teachers (Robinson & Darling-Hammond, 1994) as well as a rethinking of initial teacher education.

In the early days of research partnerships between teachers and university personnel the notion of partnership was seldom realised. Status, power, a
deficit model of learning and questions related to the ownership of knowledge became problematic and therefore the notion of partnership had to be re-conceptualised (Barton, 1992). Wells reports that larger groups forming 'communities of inquiry' were more appropriate in which knowledge was co-constructed through action, reflection and collaborative talk' and 'where knowledge and expertise are a shared achievement, arising from joint engagement in challenging activities that are personally significant to the participants' (1994:9). The focus of this concept of 'communities of inquiry', however, is more on 'inquiry' than the concept of 'community'. Well's (1994) description of community of action and inquiry focuses more on the event than an integral way of working at the whole school level.

Collaboration between different stakeholders in the education process was, however, only part of the equation. Recommendations of two highly significant reports on education in America, Tomorrow's Teachers by the Holmes Group (1986) and A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st century by the Carnegie Corporation (1986), initiated an elaborated notion of partnership and networking between universities and schools with particular reference to teacher education. Both reports recommended that all prospective teachers undertake an internship in what has become known as Professional Development Schools (PDS).

Goodlad (1990b) in his work on school restructuring has stressed the importance and need for the simultaneous renewal of teacher education and schools. Not only student teachers would come together in these schools but novice teachers, experienced teachers and school administrators thus forging closer working partnerships between schools and universities and providing a context for the development of new ways of working (Darling-Hammond, 1994). As the Holme Group reports:

The PDS stands potentially centred to three basic commitments of the Tomorrow's Schools of Education - professional learning in the context of sound practice, improvement orientated inquiry and education standard setting (1995:90).

Several networks of Professional Development Schools were set up throughout America. Currently this concept is still evolving but in most networks, Deer
and Williams (1996: 59-60) suggest, that there are six characteristics present as follows:

- **Collaboration** that has caused a change in relationships between school personnel so that there is more mutual planning and shared decision making.

- **Research and experimentation** where all schools are committed to school based inquiry, action research, the rethinking of practices, learning from each other and the expansion of a knowledge base about teaching and learning.

- **Development of the teaching profession** (Abdal-Haqq, 1991).

- **Administration and leadership** - collegial and co-operative forms.

- **Context oriented** where there is a commitment to diversity and equity issues and a high priority is placed on responding to all children's needs and the success of all.

- **Model for other schools** serving as exemplars.

Deer and Williams (1996) points out, however, some of the concerns about the further development of these schools. She cites cost, their limited number compared with number of teacher undergraduates, and the 'alternate route' which these schools provide. The question here is that if these Professional Development Schools provide the best field experiences for undergraduate teachers, should they remain an alternate route to graduation? In Australia the concept of partnership, particularly between universities and schools, has not been explored in a serious way.

Collaborative partnerships focused on research relationships between school personnel and educators outside the school setting have mostly focused on teachers learning how to do research, gaining their own voice, a public voice. Whilst collaborative initiatives were an important strategy for professional development it was limited as a strategy for reform as these activities were usually short lived and ever changing and not necessarily an integrated concept of the way schools went about their business. However, Fullan (1991)
suggested that this collaborative approach to professional development presented a 'different mind-and-action set' and suggested the following themes as having the potential to create new mindsets, mindsets that were necessary for the development of new cultures and to support and sustain change.

- 'From negative to positive politics;
- from monolithic to alternative solutions;
- from innovations to institutional development;
- from going it alone to alliances;
- from neglect to deeper appreciation of the change process, and
- from "if only" to "if I" or "If we" (Fullan, 1991:347).

The other change that the notion of collaboration raised within schools was the necessary balance between individual and collective development. Collaborative enterprises focused more on individual and small group development rather than the growth and development of the whole school. I would, therefore, question Fullan's (1991) suggestion that collaboration as an activity has the potential to move schools from single innovations to institutional development. Whilst it is argued that there can be no collective development without the growth of individuals (Ferguson, 1980), unless collaboration becomes an integrated way of working within schools, whole school growth is unlikely (Fullan, 1992).

The notion of networks, however, have greater potential for whole school growth and reform. Lieberman and McLaughlin (1992) suggest that 'instead of targeting individuals and attempting to provide them with new skills or perspectives, networks concentrate on building communities of teachers/learners. It is thus critical that policy makers and others approach teacher networks not from the standpoint of management and control, but from that of the norms and agreements of communal relations.' (p. 677)

Lieberman and McLaughlin (1992) report on a number of American teacher networks such as the Foxfir Teacher Networks, the Urban Mathematics
Collaboratives and the North Dakota Study Group. They suggest that these networks are transforming practice and creating professional communities by inspiring teachers to solve problems, take risks, assume ownership of their teaching, and exercise leadership in their schools (Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992). Darling-Hammond (1993) adds that participation in professional communities through school and teacher networks deepens understanding.

In summary, the concept of collaboration has moved from collaboration as a social way of working on matters of personal and shared concern on to collaborating networks and teams of teachers. This model of professional learning emphasises the importance of collective effort and whole school change, where schools are concerned with working towards shared goals and understandings. This concept of a 'community of inquiry' and the 'collective' good has been developed as a result of a deeper understanding of the nature and potential of community development, culture, climate and organizational learning. In particular the concept of culture and community development have brought a new set of understandings about learning and school growth and it is these understandings, along with literature from the world of business, that forms the basis of new understandings about professional learning and change. Central to these changing perceptions of professional learning is our developing awareness of how adults learn in their workplace. So it is to theories about the nature of adult learning and what can be done to promote professional learning that I now turn.

ADULT LEARNING

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Figure 11: Connections between theories and adult learning
Most of the early models of professional development presented in the previous section demonstrate limited and predominantly behaviouristic understandings about the nature of adult learning. During the last decade, however, much has been written about adult learning based on a constructivist view, particularly as it relates to professional growth and change. The later models of professional development reflect this changed view of the nature of adult learning. A great deal of this literature has been generated by writers focusing on the world of business and industry. The literature on adult learning that is pertinent to this study falls into three major categories;

- the nature of adult learning;

- workplace learning; and

- the kinds of learning strategies that need to be developed to promote change and professional growth within schools.

The nature of adult learning

In recent years researchers such as Kolb (1983), Brookfield (1986, 1987) Schon (1987), Argyris (1990), Marsick (1987), Knowles (1984), Galbraith (1991) and Merriam (1993) have greatly contributed to our awareness and understanding about the nature of adult learning.

One of the issues raised in the literature relates to the similarities and differences between adult and child learning. Knowles (1984), for instance, introduced the concepts of andragogy, 'the art and science of helping adults learn' which he contrasted with pedagogy, 'the art and science of helping children learn' (Knowles, 1984:43). He argued that these concepts could be understood in terms of a learning continuum which starts with pedagogy and continues through to andragogy. Arguments that adult learning is similar in nature to child learning have often been presented in the literature but Knowles (1975), Tough (1968) and Houle (1961) suggest that the notion of 'self directed learning' is the distinguishing feature of adult learning whilst Sparks (1994:24) contends that young learners 'build knowledge structures rather than merely receiving them from teachers. With this view', he suggests, 'knowledge is not simply transmitted from teacher to student but instead constructed in the mind of the learner'. Sparks therefore maintains that teachers need to
demonstrate learning behaviours that reflect inquiry and reflection rather than telling and directing and that these behaviours need also to be reflected in the way staff development is designed and implemented.

Kolb (1984) sees learning as change, and change, he maintains, is about the resolution of conflicts. He suggests that all learning grows out of previous experience and therefore presents a model of the learning process that starts with a concrete experience followed by reflection and observation. This he maintains, leads to the development of abstract concepts and generalisations which in turn leads to active experimentation.

Honey and Mumford (1995) offer a similar cyclical process of learning but one that is slightly more flexible than Kolb's model. They suggest that there are four stages to the learning cycle. Stage one involves having an experience. Stage two involves reviewing the experience whilst stage three involves drawing conclusions from the experience. The final stage is concerned with the planning of what will happen next. Honey and Mumford (1995) argue that these stages are mutually supportive and no one stage is effective on its own. They also suggest that a learner might start at any point in the cycle.

Cambourne (1988, 1992), like Kolb (1984) and Honey and Mumford (1995), sees learning as an ongoing, continuous natural process. Cambourne suggests that learning starts with demonstrations of what we need or want to learn. Engagement, immersion, responsibility, expectation, use, approximation and feedback, he also identifies as being key elements of the learning process.

All three of these theories of learning are learner centred, they are all cyclical in nature, holistic and learning is seen as being grounded in experiences. Cambourne (1988) and Kolb (1984) both believe and emphasised that the responsibility for learning lies with the learner, that feedback is an important part of the process and that learners will only learn when they are convinced that the learning will have some personal/professional value.

Fullan in discussing learning, describes two distinctly different types which he called 'inner' and 'outer' learning (Fullan, 1993). 'Inner learning', Fullan (1993) suggests is about intrapersonal sense making, the personal learning stance that we need to make if change is to take place. 'Outer learning', on the other hand,
is about 'connectedness' through relating and collaborating with others (Fullan, 1993:138).

Turbill (1993) argues that 'If we view learning as a process of changing one's world view as new experiences are integrated with old experiences and transformed into new knowledge, then the focus in staff development should not just be a focus on the change process and understanding the nature of change alone but an equal focus on the learning process and the nature of learning. The two processes become seamless as they operate together - one and the same'(Turbill, 1993:96).

Individual learning differences and learning styles: Much has been written during the past decade on individuals' learning styles and preferences. Dunn (1990) describes a personal learning style as 'the way in which he or she concentrates on, processes, and retains new and difficult information and engages in challenging tasks' (Cited in Ingham and Dunn, 1993: 182). Many instruments have been developed, such as the one developed by Myers Briggs (1996) and another by Honey and Mumford (1995) to help learners better understand their own learning styles in the belief that an awareness of learning preferences helps us as learners to exploit our strengths and explore our weaknesses. Furthermore, they contend that developing your existing style may involve first recognising that you are not making full use of the opportunities available to you.

Adults are also said to learn at a number of different levels of readiness and using a wide range of different methodologies. Both the readiness and the experience are important in determining what learning style might be adopted (Honey & Mumford, 1995). Smith and Kolb (1996) suggest that adults learn more quickly, effectively and comfortably when the learning experiences are geared to their learning needs.

Honey and Mumford (1995) present four learning styles including activists, reflectors, theorists and pragmatists. These, they suggest, correspond with their four stages of the learning process.

Critical reflection: Donald Schon (1983) described learning as the interaction of both action and reflection. Schon emphasised that 'reflection in action' is an essential component of adult learning. This implies that professionals learn as
they go about their work and that their knowing is related to their actions. Schon argues that the learner 'does not separate thinking from doing.... implementation is built into his inquiry (1983: 68). This notion is supported by Holliday and Retallick who suggest that 'thinking about what we are doing as we are doing it is the essence of Reflection in Action' (1994: 8). In this context the implied challenge for educators is to make' continuous learning an integral part of every educator's professional life' (Brandt, 1994a).

Mezirow (1985) argues that adult learning is about 'becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand and feel about our world; of reformulating these assumptions to permit a more inclusive discriminating permeable and integrative perspective and of making decisions or otherwise acting upon these new understandings. More inclusive, discriminating, permeable and integrative perspectives are superior perspectives that adults choose if they can because they are motivated to better understand the meaning of their existence' (Mezirow, 1990). Mezirow also suggests that critical reflection may be the most distinguishing feature of adult learning.

Galbraith (1991) also advocates the importance of critical reflection to learning and developed the theory of 'The Adult Learning Transactional Process'. Galbraith believes that if the adult learning is active, collaborative, critically reflective, challenging and a transforming experience then the transactive process has occurred. This transactional process, Galbraith suggests, gives rise to three forms of risk taking: 'the risk of commitment , the risk of confrontation and the risk of independence' (Galbraith, 1991: 5). It is the last of these, the risk of independence that Galbraith argues is about the learner moving towards 'self direction' and growth although Galbraith warns that, 'asking adult learners to take responsibility for their own learning as well as to seek individuality and independence can be a highly anxious and threatening experience' (1991: 5).

Brookfield (1986) developed a set of principles which he felt described the conditions necessary for the transactional process to take place. These were:

- that adults participate in learning of their own free will;
- that there must be respect maintained between participants;
that there must exist a culture of participation and collaboration;

that praxis and critical reflection lead to different ways of thinking and working; and

that self direction occurs.

It is clear that Galbraith's (1991) thinking was highly influenced by Brookfield's (1986) conditions and this is reflected in a set of principles that he developed. The relationship between the conditions and Galbraith's principles is plain. These principles included:

• An appropriate philosophical orientation must guide the educational encounter.

• The diversity of adult learners must be recognised and understood.

• A conducive psychological climate for learning must be created.

• Challenging teaching and learning must occur.

• Critical reflection and praxis must be fostered.

• Independence must be encouraged (Galbraith, 1991: 6-7).

Of these principles Galbraith maintained that critical reflection and praxis offered individuals the strongest long term benefits. He noted that, 'Critical reflection is a knowing act that fosters in learners a questioning and critically aware frame of mind'(Galbraith, 1991: 23).
Workplace learning

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Figure 12: Connections between theories and workplace learning

The impulse for learning, whether adults or children, is an impulse to be generative, to expand our capability (Wittrock, 1974). Senge (1990b) suggests that organizations need to focus on both generative learning which is about creating, and adaptive learning which is about 'coping'. The Total Quality Movement (TQM) that started in Japan focused on the evolution from adaptive to generative learning. It emphasised continuous improvement and constant feedback. This became an early approach for the development of learning communities. In these early days of TQM the focus was on 'fitness to standard, making the product reliable so that it would do what its designers intended it to do and what the firm told its customers it would do. Then came a focus on fitness to need, understanding better what the customer wanted and then providing products that reliably met those needs' (Senge, 1990a: 8). All these concepts originated from literature of the world of business. However, this literature has provided some worthy new concepts that has helped to inform our understanding of the value and importance of continuous learning in the workplace.

Understandings about the nature of workplace learning have been well documented by Marsick (1987), Levy (1987) Watkins (1991) Holliday and Retallick (1994), Midgley (1995) and Cattegno (1996). Implicit in the literature on workplace learning is the notion of learning from experience of 'doing one's job as a teacher' (Retallick, 1997a:5). Kotter (1988) notes that people spend ninety-eight percent of their work time on the job, and only one to two percent in formal training and that most of the learning must occur on the job. Senge (1994) also supports this notion by pointing out that 'the learning capabilities
that matter are inseparable from the work people do' (Senge, 1994:46). However, Watkins (1991) points out that besides the formal training activities, the informal modes such as coaching, mentoring and work groups that focus around specific tasks, and the incidental learning that takes place in the workplace, these are not the only sources of learning. Watkins suggests that we need also to consider that 'learning in the workplace is social and much learning that is acquired is the incidental result of social interaction' (Watkins, 1991:13). Watkins also argues that as well as a social context, learning occurs as is influenced by both a political and economic context.

Marsick (1987), drawing of the work of Mezirow (1981, 1985) and the critical social theory of Habermas (1971), developed a theory of workplace learning that integrates three domains of learning. Habermas (1971) identified these domains as technical, practical and emancipatory. Marsick and Watkins (1990) renamed and described these as 'instrumental' learning (technical) which is to do with task related learning; 'dialogic' learning (practical) which is about consensual norms and 'self reflective' learning (emancipatory) which relates to the way that people learn to understand themselves that is developed through social interaction and involves values and beliefs (Marsick & Watkins, 1990).

Retallick (1994: vii) defines teacher workplace learning in these terms:

'..... teachers' workplace learning is viewed as an essential component of the overall professional development of teachers. It occurs largely in school settings and involves the transformation of knowledge, values and beliefs into classroom practice. It includes both informal and planned learning, often involves input from others such as academics or consultants and has the intention of improving the quality of teaching'.

Holliday and Retallick (1994) were also conscious of the importance of process and outcomes of workplace learning:

'Workplace learning refers to the processes and outcomes of learning that individual employee and groups of employees undertake under the auspices of a particular workplace. Both the processes and outcomes of learning involve changes in the meanings that the individuals and all employees apply to their workplace. Learning in the workplace involves changes in the feelings and values, knowledge and understanding and skills that have relevance for a
particular workplace. Workplace learning comes about as a result of endurance and groups of employees being both willing and able to satisfy the individual, groups or workplace needs through outcomes, self direction, supported and tempered by workplace co-operation' (Holliday and Retallick, 1994: 7).

Besides the nature of workplace learning the literature focuses strongly on the conditions required for effective workplace learning.

The conditions necessary for workplace learning: Within the workplace there are many factors which might be seen as having an impact on the potential learning of its members. Literature in this area is abundant (Garratt, 1990; Holliday & Retallick, 1994; Honey & Mumford, 1995; Learmont, 1993; Retallick, 1997a; Rogers, 1982; Wollman-Bonilla, 1991).

Honey and Mumford (1995) cite a number of factors which they feel are critical to workplace learning. Some of these included:

- Personal learning style
- Job content
- Range of opportunities for learning
- Blockages to learning
- Rewards and punishments
- Learning skills
- Awareness of the learning process
- Methods of learning
- Climate/culture of organization
- Past experience of learning
- Impact/behaviours of boss, colleagues, trainers/facilitators

(Honey & Mumford, 1995:1)

Many of these factors are reflected in a research study of Australian schools throughout the States of New South Wales and Victoria conducted by Retallick (1994). This study provided a contextual model of teachers' workplace learning. This model (shown in Figure 13), identified seven key aspects that teachers perceived to be influential in their capacity to learn in their workplace.
The most important factor which had the greatest impact on teachers learning related to the 'context of the school situation'. The context referred to the changing nature of the culture of Australian society, and the economic and technological changes. Commonwealth and State policies were seen as having both positive and negative effects on school activities and the professional development of teachers. Context also refers to the immediate school community, its location, social class, ethnicity, religion and family structures. Sometimes teachers found that their values conflicted with the community. Also organizations like the School Council, the Parents and Citizens Association, or school committees in which parents participated, often are involved in making decisions about funding, resource allocation and curriculum priorities. These were seen to have a significant effect on teachers' workplace learning.
With reference to 'The nature of the innovation/change', innovation refers to the 'product' (like the use of laptop computers) and change the 'process' (like co-operative learning). Things like the implementation of a new Syllabus, as is the case in this study, involved both process and product. One of the problems facing teachers relates to who initiates the learning. Syllabus documents are developed independently of teachers and change in this case is mandated. In Retallick's (1994) research project teachers indicated that mandated change raised issues of ownership and control which also had an impact on their capacity to learn.

One of the significant issues related to 'the teacher as a person and learner' was that of the stage in the teacher's career and their age. For many reasons these issues affected the teachers' level of commitment as well as their participation in the change process.

'Situations of teaching' referred mainly to where teachers' workplace learning occurred. School size, the kind of school (secondary/elementary), the nature of teachers' work, class size (student/teacher ratio) and number of staff were all seen to effect teachers' workplace learning.

The factor related to 'learning resources and support' addressed the question of how and from whom teachers learn. The role and support offered by the principal and other school executives, the structures and activities developed in the school to nurture and promote teacher learning and the availability and distribution of resources and funding for relief days, internal staff development and training and development courses, were all seen as important issues that could either hinder or enhance teacher learning.

Under the category of 'system recognition and reward' teachers indicated that they felt the system was uncaring and lacked concern about their development as a professional. They felt there were few incentives and little recognition or value placed on workplace learning.

'The culture of the school', or 'the way things are done in this place', was also seen by teachers to have a significant impact on their ability to learn in the workplace. This has been extensively described by Rosenholtz (1989). In Retallick's (1994) study the most salient aspects that impacted on learning related to values and beliefs and organizational functions and structures.
Since 1994 further research has indicated that what is missing from this model of workplace learning is 'an understanding of how the work and the learning actually interact'. In other words, how does the model explain both work and learning taking place? Retallick (1997a) suggests that by adopting an action research cycle into the model then this might provide a clearer picture of what could actually happen.

Holliday (1995), however, draws a distinction between 'conditions of learning' and 'conditions for learning'. Conditions of learning he describes 'as being a state of being, thinking or actions, that promote, through their present, processes of learning' (Holliday & Retallick, 1994:2). They are the joint responsibility of the workplace environment and the individual or members of the learning teams. On the other hand, conditions for learning, he suggests, can be provided by the organization and workplace environment. Holliday suggests that there are five conditions of workplace learning:

1. **Self**: The condition of feeling positive about oneself as a person and as a teacher/learner having a sense of self worth and a positive self image.

2. **Personal meaning**: The condition of constructing one's own positive understandings of oneself as a person and as a teacher/learner and of the circumstances that influence one's learning.

3. **Action**: The condition of applying, testing and developing others and one's own ideas in practice.

4. **Collegiality**: The condition of engaging in supportive activities with colleagues.

5. **Empowerment**: The condition of feeling a sense of ownership, control and self direction over personal decisions and actions, including over personal processes and outcomes of learning (Holliday, 1995:16-17).

Wollman-Bonilla (1991: 114-115) also offers five conditions. He suggests that learning grows out of the learner's purpose; that it entails developing ownership of new ideas and activities; that it involves taking risks; is fostered by social interaction and requires improvement. Many others offer sets of
conditions for effective workplace learning. As well as those conditions mentioned mutual planning and evaluation activities are mentioned (Rogers, 1982:125); shared vision, the identification of current skills and the recognition of learning and rewards (Learmont, 1993:33); and the free flow of authentic information, a perception of learning as a cyclical process and the ability to value people as a key asset for organizational learning (Garratt, 1990:78-79).

Finally, with particular reference again to teachers and schools, Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) argue that any workplace learning for teachers must consider:

- 'the teachers purpose
- the teacher as a person
- the real world content in which the teachers work
- the culture of teaching: the working relationship that teachers have with colleagues inside and outside school' (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991:5).

This literature presents as a pot pouri of conditions for workplace learning. The lists seem intimidating and overwhelming. They seem to combine the notions of both 'conditions of learning', that is the promotion of ongoing learning processes through which individuals learn; and 'conditions for learning' that can be developed by the organization through the environment. But what is important here is that professional learning is dependent on both the individual and the organization taking responsibility for developing conditions that promote ongoing workplace learning.

The kinds of learning skills that need to be developed to promote change and professional growth within schools
Watkins and Marsick (1993) writing largely for the world of business argue strongly for the need for 'learning organizations' which they suggest are important because of the changing nature of work, changes in the workforce and changes in how people learn' (1993: 4). We are becoming more aware of this in schools and are beginning to recognise that, 'Learning is central to the survival and growth of all organizations' (Garratt, 1990:xi) and that 'continual' learning is a basic requirement of our modern work environments (Vaill, 1996).
Watkins and Marsick combine these notions by suggesting that 'The foundation of the learning organization is its enhanced capacity for continuous learning' (Watkins and Marsick, 1993:23). Furthermore, they argue that 'the learning organization ....... transforms itself', and that, 'Learning takes place in individuals, teams, the organization, and even the communities with which the organization interacts' (Watkins & Marsick, 1993:8).

It has been suggested that 'Many of the newly important competencies involve skills that are likely to be most effectively developed by learning processes embedded into the day to day activities of the manager and his/her team members and colleagues' (Sheldrake & Saul, 1995:668).

The literature describes a number of competencies/skills of learning that need to be considered and planned for. Some of these focus on the individual as a learner whilst others focus on organizational (collective) learning. They include self directed learning, formal, informal and incidental learning, team learning, double loop learning and self reflective learning.

Self directed learning: Many researches have provided explanations of self directed learning and emphasised its importance for professional growth (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Brookfield, 1986; Mocker & Spear, 1982). Knowles (1975:16) describes self directed learning as a 'basic human competence, - the ability to learn on one's own' and suggests that it has become 'a prerequisite for learning in this world'. Candy (1991) provides a particularly useful definition of self directed learning which emphasises that it 'embraces dimensions of (both) process and product, and refers to four distinct but related phenomena'(Candy, 1991:28). These include:

- 'self direction as a personal attribute (personal autonomy);
- self direction as the willingness and capacity to conduct ones own education (self management);
- self direction as a mode of organizing instruction in formal settings (learner control); and
• self direction as the individual, non institutional pursuit of learning opportunity in the natural societal setting (autodiadaxy)' (Candy, 1991:28-29).

Guglielmino (1977) was concerned about the extent to which individuals perceived themselves as having the skills and attitudes normally associated with self directedness in learning. He identified eight factors as being crucial and included:

• a love of learning;
• self concept as an effective, independent learner;
• tolerance of risk, ambiguity and complexity in learning;
• creativity;
• view of learning as a lifelong, beneficial process;
• initiative as learning;
• self understanding; and
• acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning.

The importance of self directed learning or self direction in learning as it is often referred to, is seen as a prerequisite for organizational learning as well as an individuals professional learning. This kind of learning is said to occur in formal, informal and incidental learning contexts (Guglielmino & Guglielmino, 1991).

**Formal, informal and incidental learning:** The literature indicates that we need to be aware of the value of formal, informal and incidental learning in the workplace. Formal learning has been described as 'structured institutionally sponsored, classroom based activities' (Marsick & Watkins, 1990:6). Informal learning, it is suggested is 'predominantly experiential and non institutional and includes incidental learning. Incidental learning, however, is considered to be a by-product of some other activity such as sensing the organizational culture, or
trial and error experimentation' (Marsick & Watkins, 1990:7). These descriptions infer that informal learning is intentional whilst incidental is not.

Honey and Mumford (1995) identify a number of examples of both formal and informal learning opportunities as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Formal learning opportunities</strong></th>
<th><strong>Informal learning opportunities</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being coached</td>
<td>Being involved in a major change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being counselled</td>
<td>Committee meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars/Workshops/Courses</td>
<td>Domestic life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a mentor</td>
<td>Familiar tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job rotation</td>
<td>Interaction with people</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading as part of a course</td>
<td>Networking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special projects</td>
<td>Normal work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stretched boundaries of job</td>
<td>Problem solving with colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task groups</td>
<td>Visiting another organization</td>
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</table>

Marsick and Watkins (1990) indicate that it is particularly important that learners have an awareness of their incidental learning. They also suggest that informal and incidental learning takes place along a continuum of conscious awareness. Critical reflection, they say, plays an important part in being aware of the incidental learning that might be taking place (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). As well as critical reflection, Marsick and Watkins (1990) argue that proactivity and creativity are two further important conditions that enhance informal and incidental learning.

So the important issue here is the recognition of the value of informal and incidental learning in the workplace and that we need to be consciously aware that it is happening. This awareness is heightened through the process of ongoing critical reflection.

**Team learning:** The literature indicates that if we are to build a learning organization then team learning is extremely important. Whilst Donald Schon (1983) described learning in terms of action and reflection, team learning, Retallick (1997b) suggests, is about thinking and action. Senge (1990a) argues that team learning is one of the five disciplines required for organizational learning. He argues his case thus:
'First there is a need to think insightfully about complex issues (by tapping) the potential of many minds to be more intelligent than one mind... Second, there is the need for innovation, co-ordinated action ... where each team member remains conscious of other team members and can be counted on to act in ways that compliment each others' actions ... Third there is the role of team members on other teams ... a learning team continually fosters other learning teams' (pp. 236-237).

In the Fifth Discipline Fieldbook it is pointed out that team learning involves 'the process of learning how to learn collectively' (Senge, Roberts, Ross, Smith, & Kleiner, 1994: 355) as opposed to 'team building' that is concerned with developing of skills of communication and relationships.

Team learning 'starts with self mastery and self knowledge, but involves looking outward to develop knowledge of, and alignment with, others on your team' (Senge et al., 1994: 355). Whilst it is the individual who learns, it is others, it is suggested, that need to provide the individual with opportunities to share and receive feedback. It is this process of sharing, feedback and reinforcement that enhances and extends not only the individuals' learning but also the team's learning. 'Teams are crucibles through which opposing ideas can be brought together and confronted - ideas that otherwise would remain within the heads of individuals and not linked together in new combinations' (Watkins & Marsick, 1993: 97)

If teams are to learn there is a need to develop the processes of dialogue, discussion and consensus formation (Senge, 1990b). Retallick (1997b) suggests that team learning processes call for the integration of thinking and action. Watkins and Marsick (1993) identify the following as key processes of team learning:

Framing. Framing is an initial perception of an issue, situation, person or object based on past understanding and present input.

Reframing. Reframing is a process of transforming that perception into a new understanding or frame.

Integration Perspectives. Divergent views are synthesised and apparent conflicts resolved, though not through compromise or majority rule.
Experimenting. Experimenting is action undertaken to test an hypothesis or a move or to discover something new.

Crossing Boundaries. When two or more individuals and/or teams communicate, they cross boundaries.


So team learning using these key processes is seen as the first step towards building a learning organization.

**Single-loop and double-loop learning:** Argyris (1992) notes that 'organizational learning is a competence that all organizations should develop 'for 'the better organizations are at learning the more likely it is they will be able to detect and correct errors ... and the more likely they will be at being innovative or knowing the limits of their innovation' (p.1). Single and double-loop learning is concerned with how we respond to and correct errors. The concept originated from Argyris's and Schon's theory of 'action science'. Action science assumes that there exists a 'theory-in-use' behind our every actions.

Single-loop learning occurs when an error has been detected and corrected without questioning the underlying values of the system which may reveal the cause of the error. In contrast to this, double-loop learning identifies, examines and questions the underlying and often hidden assumptions, causes and values that govern our actions (Argyris, 1992).

The significance of double-loop learning to the organization is that it has the potential to result in organizational change, whereas with single-loop learning, where underlying causes or 'theories-in-use' are not examined, the organization is likely to merely maintain the status quo. Whilst Argyris writes for the business world, it is easy to see the implications and connections to teachers professional learning and schools growth. Double-loop learning in schools is about entering a dialogue with our values and beliefs as a way of extending and developing our understandings and thinking.

In explaining double-loop learning, Argyris (1992) suggests that there are four steps that need to be followed. The first is concerned with helping individuals to become more aware of their 'theories-in-use' or in educational language, the
assumptions and beliefs that drive their theories-in-use. The second step Argyris suggests is to show individuals the limitations of single-loop learning. With teachers this might involve encouraging them to critically examine their assumptions and beliefs. The third step, it is suggested, is to help individuals learn a new theory of action based on an analysis of the limitations of theories currently used. In the school situation, Fullan (1991) argues that this is the most difficult and lengthy part of the change process.

**Self-reflective learning:** Self-reflective learning is described by Marsick and Watkins (1990) as one of three important domains of learning in the workplace. This is similar learning to that described by Senge's mental models or by Argyris as double-loop learning. All relate to an awareness and understanding of the assumptions, values and beliefs that drive our actions.

Self-reflective learning is directed at personal change and as such also involves 'a transformation in meaning perspectives, that is integrated psychological structures with dimensions of thought, will and feeling which represents the way a person looks at his or herself and relationships' (Mezirow, 1985:20). Like self directed learning it is a higher order learning skill. It is considered an essential skill of professional learning

In concluding this section on adult learning, it becomes clear that the literature has changed over the past decade from an emphasis on the nature of adult learning to how this learning might be developed, nurtured and sustained within the context of schools as organizations. It is the 'How to's' that are seen as imperative if learning is to be seen as an integral part of the business of teaching and 'the way we do business round here'.
SCHOOLS AS ORGANIZATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Underpinning theories</th>
<th>Themes in the literature</th>
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<tr>
<td>Constructivism</td>
<td>Schools as organizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Change theory</td>
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<td>Chaos theory</td>
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<td>Systems theory</td>
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Figure 14: Connections between theories and schools as organizations

A number of theories contribute to our understanding of schools as organizations, how they work and how the organization might be configured to enhance or deter ongoing professional learning. Chaos theory, systems theory, organizational theory and systems thinking provide different perspectives on the nature of the school as an organization and together have the potential to illuminate a new mindset about its importance in school growth and change.

Chaos theory
Under the umbrella of chaos theory there are a number of related theories or sub-systems that expand our understandings about the nature of schools as organizations. These include systems theory, organizational theory and systems thinking as shown in the following figure (15).

As I have already mentioned in the introduction, the science of chaos or wholeness, commonly referred to as 'chaos theory' (Briggs & Peat, 1984; Briggs & Peat, 1990; Gleick, 1988a; Prigogine & Stengers, 1985) provides a different way of understanding the dynamics of open organizations like schools. It is a way of describing the complex patterns of interrelationships and processes that commonly occur.
Chaos theory has changed our attitudes about how the world works. It describes the order of disorder. Gleick (1988b: 5) describes chaos theory as, 'a science of process rather than state, of becoming not being . . . . (It) breaks across the lines that separate scientific disciplines . . . . (and) poses problems that defy accepted ways of working in science . . . . turning back a trend in science toward reductionism'.

To explain chaos theory, Figure 16 shows a cross-section through a spherical representation of a school as an open dynamic system. Sullivan (1993: 30)
makes a number of observations about the nature of chaos theory as it applies to schools as follows:

- 'Influences from other systems continually enter and leave through every point on its surface boundary.

- Influences can arise internally and externally. They can travel over any interconnected network within this evolving system.

- The interconnections create a 'butterfly effect' of possible communication pathways spreading in all directions. There are always many more interconnections than there are influences.

- At any network intersection, people's expectations selectively magnify or dampen the energy or strength of the influences.

- This magnifying or dampening process naturally allows some influences to dominate the system whilst causing others to die out.

- Thus the nature of the influences and people's expectations selectively enhance the evolutionary direction of this open system'.

Schools are human systems of natural and socially organized relationships where people can make choices and can have some control. Such groups of people relate to each other in an habitual way and reflect on their relationships. Sullivan (1993) points out that such 'groups of people systematically construct and share a web of beliefs about themselves and their environment, their purpose for being there, their relationships and interactions, their needs and what they produce' (Senge, 1993:20-21). They develop shared and personal theories which helps them to explain and understand their reality. The notion of systems or systems theory 'describes the organization as an entity in its environment and, therefore, enables the description of change over time (and) ..... can facilitate the understanding of the material, temporal and social dimensions of a school' (Sullivan, 1993:21).

Classical science is fashioned around the science of reductionism where reality is modelled on mechanistic processes. All components interact with each other in a linear way of cause and effect. Every event is reduced to the interaction of
its parts and whilst this allows for most accurate and detailed descriptions of the cause and effect of how things function, the meaning of the whole is lost, disguised in a veil of simplicity. Furthermore, this approach does not take account of the myriad of influencing variables, either internal or external to the school, and their capacity to shape change in a school.

There has, however, been a fundamental change in the way physical science describes highly complex systems. With the development of computer technology it has been possible to determine that a whole systemic entity is composed of many interacting elements which, through the eyes of a classical scientist, appear as a 'chaotic storm' of complexity. This shift of emphasis from reductionism to holism has changed the way of describing social and natural relationships. It has given rise to a connection between humans and the natural and social world. It also takes account of the complex variables that need to be understood and how these can impact on each other.

The general theory of organization is derived from chaos theory and is transforming the scientific interpretation of system dynamics and bringing together the natural sciences and the social sciences in a flow of philosophical thought known as the self-organization of living systems or 'new naturalism' (Briggs & Peat, 1990; Jantsch, 1980; Prigogine & Stengers, 1985).

What is important for this study is that by accepting the general theory of organization and its relationship with change, and that along with its sub-systems of organizational theory and systems theory (see Figure 17 and 18), have an important contribution to play in better understanding change and professional development, I am acknowledging that change is a process of self and collective renewal, an ongoing evolving system (Jantsch, 1980; Jantsch & Waddington, 1976).

Evolving systems theory (Jantsch, 1980; Jantsch, 1981) is a 'big picture' vision of organizational members forming a group consciousness (Jantsch & Waddington, 1976) about growth and development. As well as accepting the importance of collective growth and development, this interpretation also recognises that there are an infinite number of influences that unpredictably interact within a school as a social system. These influences generate expectations about the organization and based upon these, people either
maintain the status quo or change so as to adapt to the new environment presented by those particular influences (Jantsch, 1981).

When using systems theory as a way to describe organizational change, Weick (1977), based on work by Glassman (1973) on living systems, developed the idea of loosely coupled systems. Weick focused his attention on the structural relationships of schools and their functions during the process of change. By coupling, Weick (1977) was referring to the communication networks along which organizational processes flow. He described them as being situated along a continuum from tight to loose. 'Tight' coupling refers to direct control between the various sub-systems of the system whilst 'loose' coupling implies that the sub-systems are integral components even though they are empowered with a degree of autonomy (Weick, 1977). Schools are good examples of loosely coupled systems. These systems influence change within both the functions and structures of schools. 'The potential function of loose coupling is to provide a sensitising mechanism for change systems to be either dampened or magnified ....it enables various parts of the organization to more readily pinpoint the place of influence and effectively apply negative or positive feedback on that influence' (Sullivan, 1993)

Sungaila (1990, 1991), on the other hand, in her research, focused on the actual mechanisms of the change process. Whilst using many of the concepts developed by Weick (1977), Sungaila (1990) described the process of structural and functional change as 'self-renewing' and 'self-organizing'. These organizing dynamics, she suggests, assist the development of changing structures and functions.

Further, Sungaila (1991) argues that members of an organization are also loosely coupled but interconnected and form a network of free standing participants. The evolution of schools as social systems are dependent on the co-operation of these networks in dampening or magnifying some influences rather than others. They can dampen or magnify influences arising from ' their autonomy, personality, professional development, ability, needs, and their personal and organizational goals and expectations. Each of these influences is then a convergence or network of even more influences' (Sullivan, 1993: 29).

So, in summary the significance of chaos theory for this study is threefold. Firstly, chaos theory provides a way of looking at the way schools do business.
It alerts us to the importance of understanding complex sets of relationships and urges us to understand the connections and interdependencies that exist between the parts. Secondly, the theory urges us to consider the whole organization, so, if we are to explore professional development, then there are many factors that need to be considered, both within and outside the context of the school, that create impact on the dynamics of context and the process of change. Thirdly, systems thinking can be used as a tool for describing and understanding chains of events and relationships between factors within a school as an organization and thus the dynamics of the change process.

**Social/general systems theory**

Social systems theory, it is suggested in the literature, offers us a way of understanding an organization and its relationship with educational change.

The way that many schools are currently trying to implement reforms just won't work as there is a philosophical mismatch between the purpose and nature of the reforms and the way that schools do business (Little, 1993). In order that reforms have a chance of being realised, it is essential that the traditional patterns of operation are torn apart and new patterns or ways of thinking are developed to take their place (Betts, 1992:38). Furthermore, it is considered essential that individual and organizational change are addressed simultaneously (Tafel & Bertani, 1992). Betts (1992) argues that if educators are to adequately respond to the current problems of accelerated change, then they must apply a 'systems approach' to their thinking.

So, if we use social systems theory as a way of examining schools and change, can we better understand the fundamental connections between professional learning, the way schools and classrooms do business and school growth?

Organizational theory explains the nature of interactions between organizational structure and people. Perrow (1970) argues that the structure of organizations can determine the behaviour of the people within the organization. He cites, as an example, the control and power of juvenile detention centres over the behaviour of young offenders. A more dominant view, however, provides the reverse point of view where it is believed that the behaviour of people shape the processes, the decisions, the structures and the values of an organization (Owens, 1991). In this sense the focus has moved away from a deterministic or dictatorial approach to one of a purpose-seeking
organization that has a participative style. Do not the structures, however, change when the nature of the participation changes? Fullan (1991) suggests that flexible structures remain important as they are needed to support and sustain collaborative enterprise (Fullan, 1991).

Until the late seventies our perspective of organizations was restricted to a limited structural view, one which included such notions of hierarchies of power and control, organization charts, rules and regulations like standard operational procedures, and bureaucratic offices (Little, 1993). Educational Departments in Australia are suffering from prolonged 'paradigm paralysis' as these operational tenets are still entrenched within the system, particularly in New South Wales. Banathy, (cited in Betts, 1992:38) presents five reasons why they have found it so difficult to cast aside this paralysis. These included:

- a piecemeal or incremental approach (a fragmented perspective);
- failure to integrate solution ideas;
- a discipline-by-discipline study of education;
- a reductionist orientation; and
- staying within the boundaries of the existing system (not thinking out of the box).

Whilst the language may have started to change, administrative and curriculum development practices have developed little over the past two decades. More recently, however, Government Reports and Directives indicate a move away from machine like characteristics to an emphasis on the more human dimensions of organization (Owens, 1991), although authority hierarchies and control are still a strong aspect of the culture.

Whilst there has been a heavy focus, during the past few years, on the potential role that professional development might play in educational reform, educators have been urged to better understand the nature of their organizations, the structures, the human and social dimensions and the behaviours of the people who sustain the organization. This, it is argued, will lead to a better understanding of the relationships that exist between
In order to adequately describe and explain the nature of organizations, we need to refer to systems theory, a theory first outlined by a biologist, Ludwig von Bertalanffy in 1950. The significance of his work is suggested in the following statement:

"An organism is an integrated system of interdependent structures and functions. An organism is constituted of cells and a cell consists of molecules which work in harmony. Each molecule must know what the others are doing. Each one must be capable of receiving messages and must be sufficiently disciplined to obey. You are familiar with the laws that control regulation. You know how our ideas have developed and how the most harmonious and sound of them have been fused into a conceptual whole which is the very foundation of biology and confers on its unity" (Lwoff, 1966: 1216).

If we were to substitute organism for organization, cells for groups and molecule with individual, we have an interesting and realistic description of a school. Translated into organizational language, Berrien (1976) describes an organization thus:

'An organization is an integrated system of interdependent structures and functions. An organization is constituted of groups and a group consists of persons who must work in harmony. Each person must know what the others are doing. Each one must be capable of receiving messages and must be sufficiently disciplined to obey...... ' (Berrien, 1976: 43).

This description immediately suggests specific behaviours, people working together in harmony, people knowing where they fit in the bigger picture and people responding positively to their peers.
If we are to understand fully and talk about organizations then a number of tenets need to be understood. These tenets include the basic concepts of systems theory, its characteristics and its classes as has been illustrated in Figure 17.

The two basic concepts of systems theory include the notion of sub-systems and multiple causation. Within any system or organization like a school, there will exist a number of sub-systems which are components of a larger system. The sub-systems are highly interactive and mutually interdependent (Owens, 1991) as shown in Figure 18.
All organizations exist for the purpose of achieving a specific goal through the successful completion of a number of tasks. In the case of the focus of this study, New School Wales schools are working towards developing and extending children's levels of literacy and language learning. Specifically, they want to implement a new English K-6 Syllabus. In order to achieve this goal certain structures need to be put into place to support and sustain efforts. However, we need to consider all the major sub-systems within a school.

The Getzels-Guba model of a school as an open social system included two sub-systems and their interactions; the organizational or institutional system and the human system (Getzels & Guba, 1957). As a model to understand the dynamics of organizational behaviour this model has stood up to time and, with the increased importance placed on technology a more sophisticated model has been developed. Owens and Steinhoff (1976) present a model (see Figure 19) that suggests that there are four primary organizational sub-systems of schools; human, structure, technology (tools of the trade and resources) and task. These are not constant nor the same across different organizations. Owens and Steinhoff (1991) later adapted this model to include both internal and external relationships as follows:
Figure 19: Organizational sub-systems of schools (Owens and Steinhoff, 1991: 78)

The many sub-systems and elements that make up a school 'hang together' and are highly interrelated, one part constantly reflecting the other and all operating towards a common purpose. The structure reveals a pattern of connections and interrelationships that are ever flexible and moving. Fullan (1991) refers to this as a moving mosaic. I believe, however, that the angles in a mosaic are too well defined and don't conjure up the fluidity of action or the myriad of interrelationships that might exist. Maybe a more appropriate analogy might be a ball of mercury. The whole can be split into many parts but action or movement causes these parts to become part of the whole or to split into new configurations.

Betts (1992) suggests that one of the problems with many schools in Australia is that they operate as sub-systems of the Education Department rather than developing their own local and contextualised systems and sub-systems.
There has been a tendency to attribute a single cause to an organizational event. Systems theory warns us not to ascribe phenomena to a single causation factor for just as organizations are complex organisms, so too the causes are multiple (Owens, 1991).

Systems are characterised by a number of features; by synergy, hierarchy, homoeostasis and purposiveness. **Synergy** takes place because 'the whole (system) is greater than the parts (sub-systems and elements), (and) because the relationship among the elements adds value to the system. The relationship among the elements is maintained by an exchange of energy....... (and) a difference in energy potential among elements allows for interchange. A healthy system is constantly searching for a dynamic balance through self-regulating mechanisms' (Betts, 1992: 38-39). Whilst the total energy of a system is fixed, energy is constantly being redistributed amongst the sub-systems. In terms of the school setting, the major energy is learning. Individually, all systems and sub-systems are subject to **entropy**, the process by which energy becomes distributed evenly throughout the system. When there is no longer a difference in energy levels among the sub-systems or elements, the system breaks apart or dies' (Betts, 1992: 39).

Hierarchy, as a characteristic of systems, does not refer to levels of authority, responsibility and control, commonly known as 'line and staff', but rather to networks and levels within and between the elements and sub-systems of the system and its processes. As schools are arbitrary hierarchies rather than natural ones, they require higher levels of energy (Betts, 1992).

Homoeostasis, another important characteristic, refers to 'self-regulation through feedback mechanisms' (Betts, 1992: 40). Schools are organic systems and, as such, are very complex which places an emphasis on its ability to provide feedback which, if adequate, will maintain the dynamic balance required between the elements and enable schools to respond to changes within their environment. Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960) describe the concept of feedback thus:

> 'In its simplest form, feedback is the kind of communication an actor receives from a live audience. If the crowd is enthusiastic, the performer reacts with similar enthusiasm. There is in a way a closed circuit between performer and audience with continuing interchange of information ........
Essential to feedback is the notion that the flow of information is actually having a reciprocating effect on behaviour. This is why the term loop is frequently associated with feedback. This circular pattern involves a flow of information to the point of action, a flow back to the point of decision with information on the action, and then a return to the point of action with new information and perhaps instructions’ (p. 299).

Purposiveness of organizations that have a single goal are called unitary systems. Schools have multiple goals and sometimes these conflict with each other and therefore can be described as pluralistic. It is necessary to work in ways which will facilitate compatibility and alignment between these goals.

Organizations are referred to as being open or closed systems. Schools as communities are described as open social systems, that is, systems that interact with their communities as well as with different levels of their own bureaucracy. In describing open systems, Katz and Kahn (1966, cited in Betts, 1992:39) have identified five significant attributes:

- 'Energy is transformed, and something new is produced.
- A product is exported into the environment.
- The pattern of energy exchanged is cyclical; the product that is exported into the environment is the source of energy for repetition of the cycle of activities.
- The system aims to 'maximise its ratio of imported to expended energy'.
- The system exhibits differentiation, a tendency toward increased complexity through specialisations'.

Closed systems, on the other hand, do not interact with their environment. They are systems that cannot generate sufficient quantities of energy internally to replace lost energy, neither can they import or export energy across their boundaries. Closed systems that are dependent on the region or central office for their energy sources will surely find change impossible. These schools become energy dead sub-systems. It is only by taking control and responsibility of the passed down reforms that schools can create and import
sufficient energy to sustain growth and development and can operate as a system.

But schools are exceedingly complex organizations thwart with ambiguity, ambivalence, uncertainty and contradictions. Drucker (1946: 26) likens an organization to a tune saying "...it is not constituted by individual sounds but by the relationships between them'. If we are to understand these relationships then we need a way to describe and explain them so that the interconnections may be more easily seen.

It is important to remember, however, that the structure of the system is shaped by the perceptions of those who maintain and develop the structure. It becomes clear that if we are to understand educational organizations there is also a need to better understand relationships between human behaviours and the context which typifies the organization (Owens, 1991). In the literature of the eighties, these relationships are described through discussion of school climate, culture, ethos or ecology. It is well documented that the culture of organizations in which people work has a great influence upon the way teachers think and their behaviour (Lieberman, 1988; Lieberman, Falk, & Alexander, 1991; Owens, 1991; Rosenholtz, 1989).

A focus on climate and culture became popular as a result of the release of two books from the corporate world, William Ouchi's Theory Z (1981) which highlighted the differences in management style in Japan with those of the United States and Peters and Waterman's book In Search of Excellence (1982). William Ouchi provided alternative solutions for corporations in America to redress strong Japanese competition. This solution was referred to as Theory Z which was based on the importance of Human Resource Management. Ouchi (1981: 165) explains the assumptions of Theory Z as follows:

'Of all its values, commitment of a Z culture to its people - its workers - is the most important ... Theory Z assumes that any worker's life is a whole, not a Jekyll-Hyde personality, half machine from nine to five and half human in the hours preceding and following. Theory Z suggests that humanised working conditions not only increase productivity and profits to the company but also the self-esteem for employees ... Up to now American managers have assumed that technology makes for increased productivity.
What Theory Z calls for instead is a redirection of attention to human relations in the corporate world.

This fits well into Lieberman's (1988) and Rosenholtz' (1989) and notions of school as a workplace.

The second book, In Search of Excellence, looked at the common characteristics of America's most successful companies. Its overall theme was similar to Theory Z. Owens (1991) notes that the work of Peters and Waterman (1982) provided a consistent theme: 'the power of values and culture ........ rather than procedures and control systems, provides the glue that holds them together, stimulates commitment to a common mission, and galvanises the creativity and energy of their participants. These values are not usually transmitted formally or in writing. Instead they permeate the organization in the form of stories, myths, legends and metaphors - and these companies have people in them who attend to this awareness of organizational culture' (p.170).

Tagiuri (1968) in describing 'climate' suggests that we need to look at the characteristics of the total environment of the school. He presents four dimensions of this environment which include:

- The ecology,
- The milieu,
- The social system , and
- The culture.

When reference is made to the terms 'culture' and 'climate' we are describing the way in which the behaviour of people within an organization affects the behaviour of others as well as the effect that events have on shaping behaviour. Specifically, 'Culture refers to the behavioural norms, assumptions, and beliefs of an organization, whereas climate refers to perceptions of persons in the organization that reflect the norms, assumptions and beliefs' (Owens, 1991: 171).
The elements of school culture are not fixed, the configurations are for ever changing like the patterns in a kaleidoscope. Whilst the basic elements may remain the same, the changing configurations that represent the whole are ever changing. So too are the contexts in which schools are trying to operate.

Sarason (1971) argues that the culture of school is not necessarily planned or created but rather is a phenomenon generated by the activities of people in the school. These might include lecturing, listening, moving according to schedule; the physical objects found in the environment like walls, chalkboards, furniture or playgrounds and the temporal regularities observed which include the pattern of the daily schedule, the school calendar and the length of classes. Furthermore, Rosenholtz (1989) suggests that there is also technical culture which refers to the flow of technical knowledge that needs to exist within the school environment.

Changing values and mindsets are producing changing cultures. The energies of schools are engaged in the building of 'new values-based cultures amid the existing ones' (Ferguson, 1980:39). Therefore making explicit, through discussion and sharing, individuals values and beliefs along with the goals of the school, help teachers to understand the basis of their practice and to develop a collective vision of the goals for a school.

Whilst we may come upon the perfect pattern, there is a natural overwhelming urge to turn the kaleidoscope to see if we can find something more productive. It is the turning and changing that becomes the fascination more than the pattern. The pattern is only temporary.

Lieberman (1988), in her book Building a Professional Culture in Schools uses the term 'professional culture' rather than organizational culture. This she does intentionally as she argues that schools need to develop a very particular kind of culture in schools, one of professionalism and learning; one that builds collaboration, changes organizational structures, expands leadership roles and responsibilities and even considers what is to be taught. These ideas are reflected in the changing purpose and focus of learning for all, both teachers and students in schools.
Systems Thinking

Albert Einstein suggested that no problem can be solved from the same consciousness that created it. He said that we needed to learn to see the world anew. Systems thinking, Senge (1990b) believes, provides a new language to talk about schools and allows us the possibility of viewing things from a different contextual perspective and for turning things on their head in order to find specific rather than general solutions to our problems. With this new language and imagery we can break away from linear processes and better develop action that will be multi-dimensional. Proponents of systems thinking believe that it offers a new paradigm for educational reform (Asayesh, 1993).

Senge (1990b) argues that unless a system is changed, that is, the organizational structures are changed, then only marginal improvements can be made to students learning. He believes that systems thinking is a way of understanding the nature of living organisms, in this case schools. Systems thinking is a concept that has been around since the early twentieth century. As a sub-system of system theory, system thinking provides a body of knowledge and tools that will help us to see the underlying patterns within an organization that are creating 'roadblocks to change' (Isaacson & Bamburg, 1992).

A move to 'holistic perspectives became known as 'systemic' and the way of thinking it implies as systems thinking' (Capra, 1995:15). Whilst it was pioneered by orgasmic biologists, other disciplines including psychologists, ecologists and physicists began to realise the importance of systems thinking. The Gestalt psychologists, for instance, identified the importance of integrated perceptual patterns rather than an emphasis on the isolation and study of elements. Gestalt theory refers to the qualities exhibited by a whole that are not present in its parts. The ecologists, or naturalists as they were known, become interested in the study of animal and plant communities and the network of relationships that existed between them. The physicists too, when developing quantum theory, found that it was impossible to decompose the world into independent elements or isolated parts, indeed they suggested that there were no parts but instead a pattern showing a complex web of relationships which formed a unified whole.

Capra (1995) draws a parallel between ecosystems and schools as learning communities because they are both living systems. He states that the challenge for educators is to learn how to develop sustainable communities. Because
ecosystems are the natural sustainable systems of plants, animals and micro-
systems and present a set of the natural patterns of life, Capra (1995) argues
that by understanding the basic principles of ecology, the 'language of nature'
(14), we may better understand and be able to apply these principles to help us
to sustain and develop school communities.

The principles of all living systems include interdependence, partnership,
context, diversity, processes, networks and relationships. Systems thinking is a
way that helps us shift our emphasis in thinking from a focus on parts to an
understanding of wholes, the organization and how it functions. Systems
thinking also provides us with a language to describe what is happening (Senge
et al., 1994). Capra argues that, like ecosystems, 'although we may discern
individual parts in any system, these parts are not isolated, and the nature of
the whole is always different from the mere sum of its parts' (1994:15): that is,
the properties of the parts can only be understood from the organization of the
whole. This is constructivist theory. The converse of this is a reductionist or
positivist view which states that to understand the whole we need to recognise
and understand the properties of its parts.

Systems thinking is a specific discipline for seeing wholes (Senge, 1990b: 68) not
just the parts and of seeing the relationships between them. It recognises that
the actions of each individual has an effect on the organization as a whole,
'about recognising yourself as having an effect on the world around you'
(Asayesh, 1993). It shifts our thinking away from hierarchies to operating
within networks (Capra, 1995), from a system that is 'synthetic, rather than
analytic; (and) one that integrates, rather than differentiates' (Betts, 1992:38). It
is a framework for seeing interrelationships rather than things and for seeing
patterns of change rather than static snapshots (Senge, 1990b: 68).

System thinking focuses on root causes for problems and long term goals and
consequences which flow directly from individuals assumptions and beliefs and
the structures that shape them, rather than on symptoms (Asayesh, 1993). An
example of an iceberg is given where it is maintained that traditional
organizations tend to focus on the tip only. Systems thinking encourages
schools to try to discover what is at the base of the iceberg, to find answers to
the 'why' questions. This focus forces schools to examine the 'cultural
architecture' of our organization.
As well as a belief that change comes from fixing systems not people and that organizations need to focus on root causes and long term consequences, another belief forms an essential part of its own set of values; systems thinking also holds that systems have identifiable recurring patterns (Asayesh, 1993). An understanding of these patterns can 'help the organization 'leverage' change by working with the system rather than against it' (Asayesh, 1993: 11).

Capra (1995) contends that there are two strands of systems thinking, contextual thinking and process thinking. Contextual thinking is about connectedness by recognising the importance of context rather than analysis, relationships rather than objects and networks instead of hierarchies. Process thinking, she suggests, involves the understanding that 'every structure is seen as the manifestation of underlying processes' (Capra, 1995:19) There is a continual cyclical flow of matter and energy through living system. . There is a dynamic balance, a constancy of pattern, of form, while there is continual structural change' (Capra, 1995: 20).

Schools are made up of many complex interdependent relationships among the various parts of the system (Sparks, 1994). Systems theory allows us to see how the parts constantly influence each other in a constant ebb and flow of changing configurations. Systems thinking recognises that changes in one part of the system can have profound effects on any other part of the system. The way the parts influence each other determines whether school improvement efforts succeed or not. Brandt (1994a) believes that much reform just has not worked because of our piecemeal approach and our lack of a systematic approach.

For change to occur Senge (1990b) suggests that organizations need to develop five capacities or 'learning disciplines' for the development of learning organizations. These include personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning and systems thinking.

**Personal mastery** refers to proficiency and the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision. People with high levels of proficiency 'are able to consistently realise the results that matter most deeply to them - in effect, they approach their life like an artist would approach a work of art. They do this by becoming committed to their own lifelong learning' (Senge, 1990b: 7). Senge (1990b:8) suggests that his main interest here is in 'the connections between personal learning and organizational learning, in the
reciprocal commitments between individual and organization, and in the special spirit of an enterprise made up of learners'.

**Mental models** is about the deeply held assumptions we have about the world and how we take action. I have talked about the relationship between school culture and the norms, assumptions and belief of individuals and organizations; Senge sees it as essential that mental models that are mostly hidden, are unpacked and made explicit. In this way he believes that we have to look inwardly and then expose our thinking open to the influence of others.

The building of **shared vision** is about developing collective 'pictures of the future that fosters genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance' (Senge, 1990b:9).

**Team learning** is about developing dialogue, suspending assumptions and beliefs and then being willing to enter into genuine thinking together and recognising the patterns of interaction amongst the group especially those that might undermine learning. Senge (1990b) maintains that unless the team can learn together the organization cannot learn and grow.

Senge believes that **systems thinking** is the most important of these learning disciplines as it provides 'a way of thinking about, and a language for, describing and understanding (the invisible fabrics of interrelated actions and) the forces and interrelationships that shape the behaviour of systems' (Brown, Smith, & Isaacs, 1994). System thinking also integrates the other disciplines and provides the corner stone of change (Isaacson & Bamburg, 1992). 'A good systems thinker, particularly in an organizational setting, is someone who can see four levels operating simultaneously: events, patterns of behaviour, systems, and mental models' (Senge et al., 1994:97).
SCHOOLS AS LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS/COMMUNITIES

<table>
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<th>Underpinning theories</th>
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<td>Chaos theory</td>
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<td>Systems theory</td>
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Figure 20: Connections between theories and schools as learning organizations/communities

According to the Fortune magazine (Domain, 1989: 48-62), at a time of accelerated change, 'the most successful corporation of the 1990s will be something called a learning organization, a consummately adaptive enterprise.' Senge (1990b: 3) suggests that 'only when we give up the idea of a world of separate unrelated forces, can we then build learning organizations, organizations where people continually expand their capacities to create the results they truly desire, where collective aspirations is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together'.

The notion of 'learning organizations' (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Dixon, 1994; Garratt, 1990; Isaacson & Bamburg, 1992; Kanter, 1983; Kofman & Senge, 1993; Kramlinger, 1992; Senge, 1990b; Vaill, 1996) and 'learning communities' (Aitkin, 1994; Barth, 1990; Collay, Gagnon, & Enloe, 1996; Hoban, 1995; Johnson, 1995; Reid & Van De Weghe, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1994b; Southworth, 1995; Zimmerman, 1992) have become common language in the literature on workplace learning during the past decade. These concepts have already been referred to frequently in this review and it is now time to focus on them in more detail. They are concepts that have largely been developed outside schools in a range of other types of organizations particularly those with a business orientation. However, I would like to argue that there is much in this literature that can contribute significantly to our understandings about professional development, school growth and change.
The literature on the notion of 'learning communities' or 'learning organizations', originated from a variety of disciplines and theories including organizational theory, systems theory, social theory, industrial democracy and business and management. These terms are often used interchangeably in the literature as though they were synonymous, whilst on other occasions strong distinctions are drawn between them.

It becomes apparent in the literature, however, that there is some confusion over the terms 'learning organizations' and 'learning communities'. Once again the terms seem to mean a variety of different things to different people. It is too simplistic to suggest that a clear distinction can be drawn between writers from a business orientation using 'learning organizations' and educators who mostly use the term 'learning communities'. For instance, Peter Senge (1990b), in his book 'The Fifth Discipline' freely uses the term 'learning organizations' but it is clear that the theoretical base of his work is community development rather than organizational theory, although the language used is more typical of organizational theory.

**The 'learning organization'**

A new vision of the term 'learning organizations' and 'organizational learning' have become the catch cry of modern business organizations both here in Australia and in the United States (Kramlinger, 1992). No doubt Peter Senge's (1990b) book The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization and the work of Harvard's Chris Argyris and Richard Tanner Pascale have been largely responsible for this new vision of organizations, capable of thriving in a world of interdependence and change (Kofman & Senge, 1993: 5). Whilst the majority of the literature applies to the life and growth of business corporations, many of the principles and ideas transfer well when thinking about school growth and workplace learning.

So why is it so important to develop 'learning organizations' and what are they? In response to the first question Watkins and Marsick (1993) suggest that:

>'The forces compelling organizations to make this shift in perspective include changes in organizations, the changing nature of work, changes in the workforce and changes in how people learn' (p. 4).
It would seem from the literature that the concept of 'learning organizations' includes the notion of continuous improvement, that learning needs to become a part of everyone's job (Kramlinger, 1992) and that it has the potential 'to make everyone smarter at their jobs' (Northwest Airlines). Peter Senge (1990b) emphasises that we will need to change our perceptions, our mental models, of how organizations, including schools, will need to be. He argues, like Sergiovanni (1994a) and many others, that there is a need for developing learning organizations/communities 'where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together' (1990: 3).

In describing a learning organization, Watkins and Marsick (1993) say it is 'one that learns continuously and transforms itself. Learning takes place in individuals, teams, the organization, and even the communities with which the organization interacts'(p.8). A learning organization has also been described as 'an ideal characterised by the fact that individuals and collective learning are the key'. Pedler, (cited in Burgoyne, 1995: 22) is more general in his description suggesting that 'the learning organization is an aspirational concept that constitutes a view of what might be possible'.

Organizational learning, on the other hand, is often referred to in the literature as 'the activities and the process by which the ideal is achieved' (Finger & Burgin, 1996:6).

Watkins and Marsick (1993) present some features which they consider are common to learning organizations. These features include:

- Leaders who model calculated risk taking and experimentation
- Decentralised decision making and employee empowerment
- Skill inventories and audits of learning capacity
- Systems for sharing learning and using it in the business
- Rewards and structures for employee initiative
• Consideration for long term consequences and impact on the work of others

• Frequent use of cross-function work teams

• Opportunities to learn from experience on a daily basis

• A culture of feedback and disclosure

Furthermore it is suggested that the development of a learning organization depends on a number of action imperatives where each complements the others as follows:

• Create continuous learning opportunities

• Promote inquiry and dialogue

• Encourage collaborative and team learning

• Establish systems to capture and share learning

• Empower people toward a collective vision

• Connect the organization to its environment (Watkins & Marsick, 1993: 11).

The important point which emerges from this literature and has particular relevance to this study relates to the need to make professional learning an integral part of the workplace. In order to build and sustain a learning organization there are a number of action imperatives as well as learning strategies which need to be fostered in order to develop an effective learning organization. I have mentioned the learning strategies before and include team learning, double-loop learning and the development of Senge's (1990b) five interconnected disciplines, systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and again team learning.
The learning community
Sociologists, scientists, theologians and psychologists all construct different meanings from the word community. 'Community' has been simply defined as a group or groups of people with a common purpose and/or shared vision (Zimmerman, 1992). Atkin (1994) would agree with this definition but adds that community members need to work vigorously to translate their core values into principles and practices and to make sure that these are congruent with their beliefs.

The literature also indicates that community development is determined by a set of values (Gluck, 1985; Kelly & Cochrane, 1984) and that these lead us to 'shape relationships with fellow human beings' (Gluck, 1985:1), and cause the community to examine their values and beliefs. Senge (1990b:9), uses the principles of community development theory to suggest a range of techniques and processes, that might encourage the examination of values and beliefs. He calls this process the challenging of pre-existing mental models.

Sergiovanni argues that, 'Changing the metaphor for the school from organization to community changes what is true about how schools should be organized and run, about what motivates teachers and students, and about what leadership is, and how it should be practiced' (1994b:30).

Sergiovanni (1992) provides a definition that highlights the relationship between individual and collective development within a community as follows:

'Communities are collections of individuals who are bonded together by natural will and who are together bound to a set of shared ideas and ideals. This bonding and binding is tight enough to transform them from a collection of Is into a collective we. As a we, members are part of a tightly knit web of meaningful relationships' (p. 31).

Barth (1990) argues that it is the social relationships within a school and the learning and the power of collective inquiry that is at the heart of educational change. He describes a community of learners thus:

'In a community of learners, adults and children learn simultaneously and in the same place to think critically and analytically and to solve problems
that are important to them. In a community of learners, learning is endemic and mutually visible' (Barth, 1990:43).

Barth (1990) suggests that communities of learners are about people discovering, sharing and celebrating together. Teachers are researchers and students of teaching, who observe others teach, have others observe them, talk about teaching, and help other teachers. In short they are professionals. Above all, Barth argues, communities of learners are committed to finding conditions that will elicit and support learning. Summarising these ideas he says,

'When the need and the purpose is there, when the conditions are right, adults and students alike learn and each energises and contributes to the learning of the other. What needs to be improved about schools is their culture, the quality of interpersonal relationships, and the nature and quality of learning experiences. School improvement is an effort to determine and provide, from without and within, conditions under which the adults and youngsters who inhabit schools will promote and sustain learning among themselves' (Barth, 1990:45).

This view of a community of learners implies that learning is embedded in the everyday work of teachers and that learning is a life long pursuit. Barth (1990) points out, however, that there are still questions that need to be considered if learning communities are to be developed and sustained. He asks:

• How can we overcome the taboo that prevents teachers from making themselves, their ideas, and their teaching visible to other teachers?

• How can principals become active learners when learners learning implies deficiency?

• How can students learn to work more co-operatively and less competitively?

• Can we have more and higher standards for adults and students without more standardisation?

• In what ways can those outside the schools, by working with those within the schools, contribute to the development of a community of learners?
Where do legitimacy and accountability come from?

How can a conception such as a community of learners avoid becoming yet another set of prescriptions, another list to be imposed on teachers, principals, and students? (Barth, 1990: 47)

It is from notions of community that issues of individual versus collective development evolved. Community infers collective development.

**Individual versus collective development:** (Staff development versus professional development) Senge (1990b) makes note that collective learning is not only possible but vital to realise the potential of human intelligence. At a time when collaboration and collective learning are being emphasised as the panacea for change and school reform, Fullan (1993:40) argues strongly for the development of the individual saying that 'personal change is the most powerful route to system change'. This notion is also supported by Lessing (1986), and many writers from the world of business including Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990), Covey (1989) and Senge (1990b). Senge (1990b:139) describes the relationship between individual and collective learning by saying:

'Organizations learn through individuals. Individual learning does not guarantee organizational learning. But without it no organizational learning occurs'.

Fullan (1994), however, whilst stressing the importance of both individual as well as collective learning to school growth and reform, argues that each must have also equal power. He also notes that 'systems change when enough kindred spirits coalesce in the same change direction' (Fullan, 1993: 143).

Clearly these two concepts, individual and collective development are closely linked and it would seem that whole school growth and change is heavily dependent on individual change.

**Learning organizations or learning communities: Is there a difference?**

Sergiovanni (1994b) argues that the concepts of community and organization are very different and presents a strong argument for the concept of community rather than organization. He dismisses the notion of organization
by saying that for far too long educational administration has 'imported' concepts from other disciplines and thus is essentially characterless. He suggests that management theory, a derivation of organizational theory, guides the way schools have been managed and this is essentially behaviouristic and mechanistic in its approach. This seems a fair comment with the literature on organizational theory of the sixties and seventies but not quite appropriate of the current literature.

Sergiovanni (1994b) goes on to point out other perceived limitations of organization as a metaphor for change. He suggests that other assumptions about organizations include the notion of hierarchy equals expertise. He notes that, 'those higher in the hierarchy are presumed to know more about teaching, learning, and other matters of schooling than those lower, and thus each person in a school is evaluated by the person at the next highest level. Not only does the metaphor organization encourage us to presume that hierarchy equals expertise, it encourages us to assume that hierarchy equals moral superiority' (Sergiovanni, 1994b: 30).

Sergiovanni (1994b) contends that, if we change metaphors, as we have during the past decade, then the theory is also changed. He suggests that 'changing the metaphor for the school from organization to community (also) changes what is true about how schools should be organized and run, about what motivates teachers and students, and about what leadership is, and how it should be practiced' (1994b: 30). It also changes the way we think about how schools might be and the way they are organized.

He points out that the metaphor 'organization' comes from organizational and behaviour theory and it is from these theories that we have developed our mindset about educational administration and how schools should work. Sergiovanni (1994b) suggests that this mindset about organizations conjures up a group of people governed by rules, regulations, coherent wholes, regulatory monitoring, supervision and logical order. Organization, he points out, becomes 'separate from people, functioning independently in pursuit of their own goals and purposes' (Sergiovanni, 1994b: 30). But other groups of people like families, friendship networks, social clubs and communities operate in very different ways.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old Paradigm</th>
<th>New Paradigm</th>
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| **Organizations**
| gesellschaft | **Communities**
| **gemeinschaft** | |
| **Staff have:** Contracts | Commitments |
| **Motivation Force:** Rational will | Natural will |
| **Ties:** Thin, instrumental and calculated | Moral ties, thick and laden symbolic meaning. The ties in the community redefine how certain ideas are to be understood eg. empowerment, shared decision making, site-based management, collegiality and so on. |
| **Concerns are bounded by roles rather than needs** | Socially organised around relationships and interdependencies. Bound together by images, concepts and values that together represent a shared ideal |
| **Tied together by purpose through bartering arrangement** | Defined by values and beliefs and rely on norms, purposes, professional socialisation, collegiality and natural interdependencies rather than control mechanisms |
| **Relies on formal management systems like supervision, evaluation and staff development, managerial and organizational schemes that seek to co-ordinate what teachers do, how they work together and leadership itself.** | **Social lives are created with others who have intentions similar to ours** |
| **Relations are constructed for us by others which form hierarchies, roles and role expectations. They are formal and competitive.** |

Figure 21: A summary of the differences between organizations (gesellschaft) and communities (gemeinschaft) (Sergiovanni, 1994b: 30; Tonnies, 1957).

Sergiovanni (1994b) draws a number of distinct differences between organization and community. In order to highlight these differences, he uses the concepts of 'gemeinschaft' (society) and 'gesellschaft' (community) developed by Tonnies in 1957. Tonnies (1957) used these terms to describe shifting values and social transformations. These differences have been summarised in Figure 21.

It could be argued that by using the concepts of gesellschaft and gemeinschaft to demonstrate the polar opposites between organization and community, Sergiovanni (1994a) has presented a false dichotomy. But the use of opposites to create a continuum makes it easier to categorise, explain and justify one's position. It might be more realistic, however, to acknowledge that we live in a techno-rational world and schools are an integral part of that society, the big
picture, and therefore one of the challenges that schools face is being able to juggle and understand the characteristics of both gesellschaft and gemeinschaft if they are to adequately respond to change.

Using Tonnies concept of gesellschaft and gemeinschaft as a base, we could have added Parsons (1951) 'types of social relationships' as a subheading in recognition of the importance that relationships play in the development of community (Barth, 1990). Parsons (1951) presents five pairs of 'pattern variables' showing how people orient themselves towards each other, their alternative value orientations and how they might perform roles in relationship to each other (see Figure 22). Further, two more variables could be added, identified by Mary Rousseau (1991), to make seven in all as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizations</th>
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<tr>
<td>Affective neutrality</td>
<td>Affective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self orientation</td>
<td>Collective orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism</td>
<td>Particularism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Ascription</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specificity</td>
<td>Diffuseness (inclusive, holistic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentalism (means/ends)</td>
<td>Substantive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egocentric love (self gratification)</td>
<td>Ultraistic love (selfless concern for others)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 22: Pairs of variables showing different ties for connecting people to each other (Parsons, 1951; Rousseau, 1991).

If we translate these seven variables so that they relate to the school context, the first variable applies to the relationships that teachers have with their students, or principals with their teachers. Affective neutrality suggests that the nature of the relationship with students would be one of expert and novice rather than affective which would denote a more informal sharing and co-learning relationship. The third variable refers to the way students might be treated. Universality indicates that treatment follows a set of rules and regulations as opposed to particularism which sees students as individuals and having specific needs. Specificity refers to the possible tight parameters of job descriptions, roles and responsibilities whereas diffuseness is a more inclusive and holistic concept. Achievement and ascription are currently surrounded by political agendas. Achievement is considered by the community as something that needs to be demonstrated, currently by using the National or State learning outcomes as benchmarks of achievement. This lies in contrast to
ascription where pupils would be accepted as a result of enrolment in the school.

The sixth variable relates to the issue of means and ends. Organizations draw a clear distinction between the means and the ends (instrumentalism) whilst in communities the boundaries between these are blurred (substantive); 'Ends remain ends, but means, too, are considered ends (Sergiovanni, 1994b: 33). The final variable, egocentric love and ultraistic love refer to the issue of motivation, what motivates us to work? Is it self gratifying interests (egocentric love) or a selfless concern for others (ultraistic love)?

Just as differences might be seen between community and organization, different forms of communities and organizations also exist. Tonnies (1957) provides a useful analysis of community and describes them as having three forms:

- **community by kinship** based on special kinds of relationships between people. Kinship in schools refers to collegiality, caring and supporting other learners and developing relationships between teachers and parents and teachers and students;

- **community of place** where the group lives in a particular habitat and therefore maintains a special identity and shared sense of belonging. In schools this might refer to the nature of the learning environment; and a

- **community of mind** where the group has common goals and values and shared conceptions of being and doing.

Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler and Tipton (1985) suggest that as communities grow and mature over time they develop enduring and resilient qualities. They develop a culture of their own and it is the 'enduring understandings' that create a fourth form of community - a community of memory (Sergiovanni, 1994b:32). It is when a community, over time, has developed kinship, place and mind that it can become a community of memory (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985). In terms of schools as communities, it is these different forms of community that have to be continually nourished and sustained if they are to become a true learning community.
SUMMARY

In this review of the literature I have tried to present a case for a more comprehensive view of professional learning (rather than professional development), school growth and change. I have done this by attempting to identify and then bring together a number of complementary theories and to make explicit their common elements. These theories underpin a series of topics that have the potential to better inform us about the nature of change and provide a more detailed overview of the complexities related to professional learning and change. Each theory/topic represents a different layer of change which collectively explains the interrelated landscape that we call school and what needs to be considered if we are to adequately plan for and support change.

I started this review by providing some context for the topics by reviewing the literature on professional development and staff development. As a consequence of this review the literature was organized in such a way so as to highlight a series of models of professional development. Each model reflected a different view of adult learning, how knowledge is created and who creates it.

Further I argued that as the purposes of professional development have changed, so too have the strategies that have been used to promote professional learning. The focus has changed over time away from programs of indoctrination to approaches that recognise, and are sensitive to, the nature of adult learning within the school setting.

This section on professional development concluded with a review of the literature on the importance of collaboration in the workplace. From here I presented the final model of professional development, 'The Community Learning' model, based on more current theories of adult learning, described professional learning as a multi-faceted activity, one that is embedded in the workplace and everyday context of teaching.

In the next section on adult learning I presented an extended view of professional development as a learning system and in light of what we know about how people learn, that learning needs to be an integral part of the workplace.
Whilst I have argued that a knowledge of how adults learn is important when planning for professional learning, it is how we can promote effective learning strategies and develop the conditions that are necessary to develop a culture of learning.

This review of the literature then focuses on the school as an organization. Here chaos theory, systems theory and systems thinking, it is argued, provides valuable insights into the complex sets of relationships that develop between people, their behaviour and their work environment. The theories reviewed provide another way of describing the way schools do business and the dynamics involved in the change process.

Hence, school growth and change is about increasing 'the capacity of individuals and organizations to know when to reject certain change possibilities, to know when and how to pursue and implement others, and to know how to cope with policies and programs that are imposed on them'(Fullan, 1991: xiii). If we recognise chaos theory as enhancing our understanding of change then all these factors would be recognised as important but so too would the interconnections that exist between them.

The next section looks at schools as learning organizations/communities. The differences between organizations and communities is explored and a case is presented for the need to develop schools as communities of inquiry, where again learning for all is the focus. It is this approach that is seen to have the greatest potential for the implementation of mandated change and school growth.

The literature indicates that change can best be brought about through 'the creation of communities of inquiry, in which knowledge is co-constructed through action, reflection and collaborative talk' (Fullan, 1994:ix). Furthermore that 'only changes emanating and sustained from within (the school) are likely to bring lasting improvement'. (Barth, 1990:xv). We have also learnt that staff development initiatives need to be linked to the life and growth of the organization and 'organically connected to everyday life' (Fullan, 1994: 6).

In the final analysis I have argued that effective professional learning is about dealing with the social culture of the schools', the nature of the schools'
governance, its deep structures of organization and the habits and values the school community employ.

As this review indicates, studies of change in education have moved away from an interest in 'innovations' to a pre-occupation with 'reform' and 'restructuring'. The literature indicates a shift away from narrow perspectives of change to more active, comprehensive and holistic solutions (Fullan, 1991). Therefore, it is suggested that change can no longer be administered as a series of single innovations such as is often presented in training programs. It needs to focus on reshaping the whole. In order that this is a reality, there is a need to become more aware of the interrelationships that exist between the parts and changing the parts so that reshaping and rethinking can take place (Fullan, 1994).

Teacher and educational change can no longer be viewed as a safe training package. Neither is it about maintaining stable equilibrium. Stacey (1992) suggests that change is about coping and supporting the unknowable. Change, we have seen, is open endedness. It is about developing orderly strategies in a disorderly world and creating 'far from equilibrium', organizations often referred to as 'bounded instability'.

Of particular significance to this study is Fullan's comment that 'top-down structural change does not work' and for this reason 'you can't mandate what matters because there are no shortcuts to changes in systems' cultures' (1993: 143). This study challenges this reasoning for Australian schools are constantly challenged by having to adopt mandated curriculum policy and have developed significant strategies to make this a reality.

However, before leaving this review of the literature and proceeding on to the next chapter, I feel it is necessary to highlight one discrepancy that has become particularly visible with the development of this review. It is the problem of the use of the term 'professional development' in the title of the study and the subsequent discussion of the term. What I realise as a result of this review is that the term professional development would have better been replaced by the term 'professional learning'. The term 'professional development' is far too limiting and too narrowly defined. It seems to carry with it far too much baggage from a past paradigm to be useful in current school contexts. Senge
(1990b) suggests that if we are to move forward we need to develop new mindsets and this is particularly so about the way we understand and talk about professional development. Along with a new mindset comes a new language, one that extends our understandings from a limiting view of professional development to an expanded view of professional learning.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Methodology is best understood as the overall strategy for resolving the complete set of choices or options available to the inquirer. The methodology of the constructivist is ...... iterative, interactive, hermeneutic, at times intuitive, and certainly open ...... It makes demands of its own so heavy that anxiety and fatigue are the most constant companions. It is a difficult path, one perhaps strewn with boulders, but one that leads to an extravagant and hitherto virtually unappreciated rose garden. (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:183)

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to develop a grounded theory to illuminate the nature of the relationships that might exist between professional development, school growth and mandated change. The study aimed to achieve this by developing a case study of 'a period of time' during which schools were required to understand and implement a new mandatory State English K-6 Syllabus. This event presented the opportunity to look closely at four schools responses to this mandatory change and the ways in which each school went about preparing for, implementing and sustaining the necessary change.

This study focussed on the 'multiple truths' presented by participants about their school settings and the connections they made between meanings and observable actions within their schools (Denzin, 1997:xvi). It focussed on sets of complex relationships and behaviours and therefore the choice of methodology needed to be qualitative in its approach, based on the axioms of naturalistic inquiry as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985). This approach is said to be 'iterative, interactive, hermeneutic, at times intuitive, and most certainly open' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:183).

Four primary schools (K-6) became the primary sites for the collection of data. Twenty-one members of staff and the four principals of these schools became the participants in this study. Three of the four schools were known to be
interested in being involved in research projects with outsiders. These kinds of partnerships were seen by these schools as an essential part of the way they went about keeping 'in touch'. The fourth school made direct contact with the university suggesting that some form of partnership might be established as a form of support as they journeyed through the rapid process of implementing the mandatory change that was being demanded.

The Regional Education Office of the Department of School Education constituted a secondary site for the study and participants included the Director for Teaching and Learning as well as Training and Development Officers and a Language Consultant.

The four schools were visited regularly during an eighteen month period, from February, 1994, to August, 1995 during which time schools were trying to develop their understandings of the mandatory English K-6 Syllabus and implement the required 'outcomes and profiles approach'. In May, 1995, the New South Wales Minister for Education called a temporary halt to all implementation activities until a complete review of the implementation process of the English K-6 Syllabus had been completed. Whilst this case study examines an eighteen month period of time, school visits were extended for an extra few months so that the study could be concluded in a way that left all participants valuing the experience.

Data were collected from both the primary and secondary sites in the form of field notes, observations of staff meetings, professional development activities, debriefing sessions and other working committees, structured and semi-structured interviews which were audio taped and transcribed, and various artefacts that included documentation produced by the Department of School Education, the Regional Office and the schools. Analysis of these documents provided greater detail or clarification of ideas and concepts discussed during the interviews.

Field notes, observations and transcripts and/or summaries of all interviews were returned to participants so that subsequent directions, emerging themes and areas of interest could be further explored or investigated. This continuous revisiting of the data formed an integral part of the 'hermeneutic dialectic process' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:44 & 149).
METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION FOR THIS STUDY

To better understand the nature of the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth it was necessary to unpack a myriad of complex concepts, human experiences and behaviours within a number of different contexts. The different contexts were not selected to create contrasts as a basis for comparison nor to highlight cause and effect relationships, but rather to present the multiple created realities of the staff and principals of four schools as they engaged in the change process. However, Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest that these realities

'...do not exist outside of the persons who create and hold them; they are not part of some "objective" world that exists apart from their constructors. They consist of certain information configured into some integrated, systematic, 'sense-making' formulation whose character depends on the level of information and sophistication (in a sense of ability to appreciate/understand/apply information of the constructors' (1989:143).

Guba and Lincoln point out that these constructions of reality come about through the interactions of a constructor with information, contexts, settings, situations, and other constructors (not all of whom may agree), using a process that is rooted in the previous experience, belief systems, values, fears, prejudices, hopes, disappointments, and achievements of the constructor' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:143).

Hence, there seemed no alternative but to locate this study within the naturalistic paradigm and to follow the tenets and procedures associated with the methodology of constructivist inquiry. Lincoln and Guba (1985), in their book Naturalistic Inquiry, present a complex diagram which describes the flow of the research process. However, in a later book, Guba and Lincoln (1989) provide a more detailed and precise explanation of the methodology of constructivist inquiry. In this description, they suggested that the methodology is bound by a set of precise specifications which 'must be adhered to closely if the study is to be meaningful in constructivist terms' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:173-174). This process is outlined in Figure 23.
Figure 23: A diagrammatic representation of the methodology of constructivist inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:174).

In constructing this diagram of the methodology of constructivist inquiry, Guba and Lincoln (1989) were anxious to point out its limitations and possible misinterpretations. The problems, they suggested, related to the representation of an essentially non-linear process in a linear way. They noted that the multidimensional perspectives did not seem apparent. They also pointed out that some parts seemed unconnected, floating in space as though no connection existed whilst other arrows that are black and bold, in reality had a more tenuous quality than might be interpreted. In particular, Guba and Lincoln...
suggested that the hermeneutic dialectic circle could not be presented in two dimensions. Rather this process should be seen as a sphere.

THE CONSTRUCTIVIST METHODOLOGY IN ACTION

Because the purpose of this inquiry was to understand complex human behaviours rather than 'prove' cause-effect relationships it was located within what Guba and Lincoln (1989) refer to as the 'naturalistic' or 'constructivist' paradigm of inquiry. The study has adhered to the axioms and processes which underpin the methodology of constructivist inquiry as described in the flow chart devised by Guba and Lincoln (1989: 174) (see Figure 23). I intend to use this flow chart to form the organizational framework for my description of the methodology adopted.

Guba and Lincoln (1989: 174) emphasise that constructivist inquiry demands a particular inquiry process which includes:

- an initial set of entry conditions which must be adhered to;
- an inquiry process that focuses on a hermeneutic dialectic circle; and
- an inquiry product, the case report (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Entry Conditions

The entry conditions identified as prerequisites for constructivist inquiry include the use of natural settings, human as instrument, qualitative methods and tacit knowledge.

Natural setting The first condition of entry applies to the need for the study to be carried out in a natural setting, one which has not been specifically contrived for the purposes of the study. The four school sites, named School A, B, C, and D, offered the natural settings of this study. Furthermore, as it was assumed that multiple realities would be revealed, it was also considered necessary that the study should be carried out within the same context and time frame (between February, 1994 and August, 1995). Guba and Lincoln argue that it is these frames that 'determine and are determined by constructions' (Guba &
Lincoln, 1989:177) and that, 'Contexts give life to and are given life by constructions that are held by the people in them' (op. cit.: 175).

**School sites (primary):** Four schools participated in this study. All schools were 'primary' schools (Kindergarten to Year 6) and situated in suburbs, both south and north, of Wollongong City Centre. Wollongong is a coal mining and iron ore processing town lying approximately fifty kilometres south of Sydney and situated along the coastal fringe. The city has a very culturally diverse population which includes, among its major ethnic groups, Macedonians, Italians, Portuguese and some groups from the Pacific Islands including the Cook Islands. There is also a strong presence of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders.

All four schools are state funded public schools and are managed from three levels; at a central level, at the regional level, and at the school level. Personnel and management within this huge bureaucracy is based on a hierarchy of authority, power and control. Curriculum is controlled at a central level and comes under the direct control of the state Government's Ministry of Education.

Three of the four schools, Schools A, B, and C were keen to participate whilst the third, School D, with the exception of the principal and just two teachers, were reluctant to become involved. It was unfortunate that soon after the commencement of the study the principal took long service leave which meant that the contributions from this school were limited. There were also differences between each school with reference to size, number of staff (see Figure 24) and approaches to mandatory change. Each school was selected on the basis of being representative of a different position on the continuum of change.

**Participants:** During the initial visits to the schools, a wide range of teachers were interviewed but it became apparent that those who had the widest information and best understanding of professional development, school growth and change and were most interested in this study were those who were most responsible for the implementation and support of the new English K-6 Syllabus. So from a wide range of participants to begin with, in the later stages participation became more limited and more focused. It was, therefore, the English K-6 Facilitators, some senior teachers responsible for the development of new assessment and reporting procedures, professional
development and outcome-based education, as well as the school principals, that became the long term participants in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Nature of school population</th>
<th>Student enrolment</th>
<th>Full time staff</th>
<th>Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Widely varying socio-economic and cultural backgrounds (11.5% of school population has a language background other than English)</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23 (18 parallel &amp; 5 composite classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Widely varying socio-economic and cultural backgrounds.</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21 (21.0 classes, 2 pre-school classes Yr. 3,4 &amp; 5 composite classes and all other classes parallel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Predominantly low socio-economic area. Macedonian and Portuguese are the main ethnic groups. (38% migrant NEBS students. There is a high level of unemployment in the community.)</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7 (parallel classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Represents all socio-economic groups but high percentage of parents are professionals and anglo-celtic in origin. (0.5% NEBS* and 0.7% Aboriginal students)</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>15 (including part time staff)</td>
<td>13 (including 6 composite classes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 24: General details of the four schools participating in this study

Other sites (secondary): The Regional Office for the Department of School Education was directly responsible for the development of Training and Development initiatives and in-service activities to support schools in their efforts to implement the new English K-6 Syllabus. The Director of Teaching and Learning as well as the Training and Development team and the Language Consultant, were an integral part of the process of change. They were concerned to respond to schools needs. The focus of this study was of particular interest to them and so, on an irregular basis, I sought information regarding official Departmental policy as well as shared observations of the schools responses to the new Syllabus.

Human as instrument
Typically, the inquirer enters the study not knowing what they do not know (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:175). In this study I was unsure about the context and
how the staff might react to mandated change so whilst I entered the sites with some notion of what I wanted to better understand, the methodology demanded that I not contrive a list of preset questions. I therefore, entered the study as a learner, not sure about the outcomes but reassured that the design would emerge as the study progressed. For the design to emerge, there was a need to be adaptable and to understand that my primary task was to discern what information might be salient along the way and then, if appropriate, be prepared to follow possible leads and pursue issues and concerns. Whilst recognising all my imperfections, I felt assured that 'human as instrument', along with its subjectivity and bias, were recognised and acknowledged as being the only possible choice when adopting a constructivist approach.

**Qualitative methods**

Guba and Lincoln suggest that having adopted the position of 'human as instrument', the methods best adopted for the collection of data, are those that utilise the human senses such as, 'talking to people, observing their activities, reading their documents, assessing the unobtrusive signs they leave behind, responding to their non-verbal cues, and the like' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:176). In this study all these senses were utilised although one of the distinctive aspects of the methods of data collection used was their changing nature and purpose as the study developed.

Methods of data collection included observations, both structured and unstructured interviews, concept mapping, surveying and the collection of documents.

**Observations/Field notes:** Observations/field notes (See Appendix 1) focussed on the activities that took place in each school. These included observations of staff meetings, executive meetings, special purpose school committees, parent council meetings, staff debriefing sessions and staff development activities.

'Persistent observation', Lincoln and Guba argue, enables the researcher to 'identify those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and [to focus] on them in detail' (Lincoln & Guba, 1986:304). For this study my observations served to help me understand what actually happened within the school and the manner in which things happened. They provided insights into how the school was managed, characteristics of leadership, how the school was structured to support change
and the staff's responses to the everyday running of the school, their responses to change, their levels of participation, as well as the nature of the school culture. As noted by Bogdan and Biklen (1982: 84), observations focus on 'capturing a slice of life', in this case, of how the school went about its business. Observations also served as a means of confirming what I was being told in the interviews. In this way observations and interviews fed upon one another. These provided opportunity to triangulate data that had been gathered with school documentation.

Observations took note of the time spent on each aspect of the activity, recorded the process of events, individuals' responses and reactions. Furthermore, space was left to one side for notes that often included questions that came to mind about what was happening. In the initial stages of the research this column was well utilised until my understandings of each school context had developed sufficiently well to feel confident about my understandings of what I saw.

Whilst most forms of data collection saw my role as a participant as well as an observer, the taking of field notes required a passive role, one of observer exclusively, although from time to time, as my relationship with participants developed, it became increasingly difficult to maintain the role of a detached observer.

**Personal reflective journal:** Personal observations and reflections were noted in a personal reflective journal, constituting another dimension of the kind of data that was collection. The journal focused on spontaneous, ongoing, and retrospective observations and my thoughts of what I thought was happening. Tentative and personal interpretations were made, questions for future discussion were identified, and issues recognised. Denzin (1997) notes that the value of this kind of text is that it is 'anchored in the worlds of the lived experiences' (Denzin, 1997:xv).

The reflective journal also noted my personal reactions to the field notes taken and to the content of the interviews. Stake (1995) suggests that this becomes a means of making conscious a testing process of the veracity of one's own observations and understandings.
Finally this reflective journal also mapped and noted my understandings and anxieties about the research 'in progress'. Each differing purpose of this journal was organized under different headings as follows:

1. Personal reflections/reactions to what happened, and possible future questions/directions
2. Personal reflections on the research process
3. What I think I have learnt
4. Useful references/contacts

The computer software package that I used to assist with the organization and processing of the data, also provided scope for me to insert 'memos' which included observations, reflections or questions that needed to be asked as I processed the data. These observations were different to the ones made in my personal journal as they happened some time after the event.

**Interviews:** The potential of interviews is to 'learn about what you can't see and to explore alternative explanations of what you do see' (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992: 65). Both unstructured and semi structured interviews were conducted during the entire course of this study and constituted the major method of data collection. After each interview, transcripts and summaries were made (See Appendix 2 and 3). In-depth qualitative interviewing helped to explain how and why the school culture, the culture of learning, organizing and participating was created, evolved and maintained (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Rubin and Rubin suggest that interviewing is 'An intentional way of learning people's feelings, thoughts, and experiences' (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Further, they suggest that the intention of an interview is to:-

- seek specific information about something that may have happened and will provide context and background;
- try to find explanations for why or how something happened; and
- to discover personal perceptions, attitudes and opinions (Rubin & Rubin, 1995:3)
However, the purpose and nature of the interviews changed as the study developed and a series of distinctive phases emerged based on a number of research decisions that needed to be made to adequately sustain the process.

The first phase of interviews focused on my need to develop an understanding and awareness of what was happening, how it was happening and why, and then finally how this was realised in change initiatives at the school level. It was at this stage that the use of both primary and secondary sites were used. Interviews were most often structured as I sought specific information about both Departmental and school policy, initiatives and developments.

It was at this stage too that a great deal of reading of official documents was required to better understand the context in which the change proposals were being made. An understanding of the historical and socio-political contexts was an essential starting point for developing my understandings of where, how and for what purpose the current change proposals at the school level were being initiated.

The second phase of interviewing focused more specifically on background details of the schools and where they were up to in their understanding and implementing of the English K-6 Syllabus. Again the purpose of these interviews focused on specific information gathering.

The third phase of mostly unstructured interviews was based on a specific subject for discussion like 'curriculum' or 'professional development'. As such I had few specific questions in mind. At this phase the interviews also sought to achieve other purposes;

• to identify 'key' participants;

• to 'explore the territory';

• to establish working relationship for, as Rubin and Rubin (1995) point out, 'Conversations are as much about being in a relationship as they are a means of sharing information'; and

• to develop an ethos of professional collaboration so that there was value for each member of the partnership.
Once I had acquired an understanding of the context of each school, and had begun to establish stronger relationships with fewer respondents, the fourth phase of interviews, although largely unstructured became far more focused on specific issues. Participants felt that these interviews should provide opportunities for us both to explore issues, problems, and processes related to professional development, change and school growth. Hence, because of the collaborative nature of this process, the researcher was not only the interviewer but often the interviewee. Most of the in-depth data collected for this study were gathered at this phase.

Rubin and Rubin (1995) suggest that there are many kinds of interviews including:

- **cultural** interviews where 'researchers ask about shared understandings, taken for granted rules of behaviour and standards of value, and mutual expectations;

- **topical** interviews where the researcher wants to learn about particular events or processes;

- **oral histories** where the researcher chooses a period of time or a crucial event and then asks participants to describe what happened;

- **qualitative evaluation** interviews where the researcher learns in depth and detail how those involved view successes and failures of a program or project'; and

- **life histories** where what is being studied is concerned with the major events in the life of the participant' (Rubin & Rubin, 1995:6).

With the exception of the last type, life histories, this study used all of these kinds of interviews to explore the research topic. However, details of life histories and geographies of individual schools were recorded, if these were perceived to have an impact on how the school managed change.

The final phase of interviewing demonstrated, I believe, a unique format and one on which I have found limited literature. For the sake of a label, one might refer to this activity as 'concept mapping' but it reflects a great deal more than
this. The process produced oral texts as well as visual ones. The visual images that were produced by the principals during this process provided a different avenue for human expression and the oral text reflects the nature of the process of negotiating meanings.

Concept mapping: Having spent many hours discussing how each school was coping with mandated change and in a more focused effort to identify the actual relationships and connections that might exist between mandated change, professional development and school growth, a change in the way we worked with participants seemed to be necessary (Reflective Journal, February, 1995). So this new data collection process evolved as a result of a number of circumstances and problems perceived by the researcher:

• Each school was becoming increasingly committed to activities to support the implementation of the Syllabus and whilst I had become an active participant in many of their activities, participants were looking for greater professional rewards from our co-researching relationship. Some participants indicated that having someone to talk to and talk through ideas had been useful. They also saw me as a 'debriefer' which allowed them to reflect and 'ruminate' on their experiences. I had also become a co-conspirator, a confidant and a source of information. Alan, the principal of School B saw me as someone who asked the 'hard questions' and caused him to unpack his values and beliefs, his vision and make explicit the process that he believed, instinctively, that the school needed to activate in order to support and sustain change (Interview B12). Because of these reasons, there was a need to conclude and bring together many of the themes we had explored. It was important that they felt they had achieved something that was more concrete.

One of the problems of qualitative inquiry that assumes a collaborative approach is how to end the project/relationship in a way that makes all participants feel that they have grown as a result of the experience. The teaching staff felt that just the support and opportunity to reflect on how things were going was sufficient return for their investment of time (Interviews A6, B9, C12 and D5).

• Discussion with two of the principals about the political popularity of 'benchmarking' effective practices as a way of presenting a set of
operational standards for change, led to my sharing of an article that reported on a research project in the United States on the 'Benchmarks of Change' (Prestine & Bowen, 1993) (Reflective Journal, February, 1995). This article raised a number of questions which seemed to summarise many of the topics we had explored over the past months. The principals from Schools A and B showed an interest in pursuing some of the questions in greater detail and wondered whether these questions were applicable to their situation.

I recognised that an exploration of these questions with the four principals, might provide an appropriate way of drawing things together and of providing a tidy and more satisfying conclusion to the study.

- One of the problems that emerged from the ongoing analysis of the data was the complex nature of the participants' observations, understandings and practices and the difficulty they experienced in making the interrelationships and connections explicit. These understandings seemed to remain a part of their tacit knowledge. I therefore needed to find a way to help them focus on relationships and connections and make these explicit in their descriptions.

Because of these dilemmas and the forced pause in the implementation process for the English K-6 Syllabus (see chapter 4), I proposed that instead of continuing with the interview format, that the four principals might like to summarise their ideas and observations by constructing a diagram to show how they were operating in their schools to support mandated change, professional learning and school growth. As it seemed that the principals had the best grasp of the overall picture of the essential elements of the schools' organization and its culture, I decided that this concept mapping should be developed with them. All principals were willing to try and thus a series of meetings took place with individuals over a period of several weeks.

Hence, the final phase of interviews (concept mapping), phase five, was very different than those of the previous phases. In a strict sense this activity could not be called an interview. All sessions resulted in a diagrammatic representation of the principals' thinking. Besides the development of a diagram, all sessions were taped and a transcript made which providing a written text of the oral monologue/dialogue. In turn this provided not only
insights into the process of concept mapping but also how the principals were constructing meaning from their school's experiences.

The development of this strategy demonstrated the emergent nature of the research design where refinements in procedure had to be developed in response to the needs of participants as well as those of the researcher.

Each principal approached the task quite differently and, as a result, the role that I adopted also varied. Whilst the focus of this strategy was on the individual principal's construction of reality, the product also represented a 'joint construction' between researcher and principal of our shared perceptions of the school's operation, management and ethos.

All four principals found the questions on 'Benchmarks of Change' (See Appendix 4) (Prestine & Bowen, 1993) a useful starting point and/or a focus for their thinking.

As a consequence of this process a number of characteristics became apparent. The process provided the opportunity for the principals to:

- Reflect upon, try out, question and justify their ideas. These responses resulted in a dialogue with their own thinking.

- Take control of their own constructions.

- Become directly involved in another level of analysis. This became apparent as they questioned their own understandings, as they constructed and then refined the meanings they were trying to portray, with comments like, 'Is this what I mean?' 'Is this how it really is?' or 'How does this element go with this one?' This process of explicit reflection also provided me with the opportunity to check my own meaning constructions, to raise questions that might help to clarify points and to identify gaps or inconsistencies in our thinking.

- Receive instant visual feedback as the diagram developed which, some said, allowed them to 'see' their own thinking, to share and interpret their thinking and experience, and then to immediately receive a response. In this way the process moved them onwards far more quickly.
Think out aloud as they developed their understandings. It became a metacognitive exercise as the learner reasoned, reflected, refined and developed his/her own thinking. On seeing the product of their thinking (a bit like listening to yourself on a tape recorder) they could immediately change, try out ideas, take risks, alter or justify what had already been done and articulate what they wanted to do.

The final diagrams that are presented in the Results chapter, were the outcome of many meetings, much discussion and many drafts and revisions. The process allowed me to not only better understand the principal's individual construction of meaning but how exactly the meanings were constructed. The diagrams and descriptions developed also provided a succinct summary of their perceptions, of the essential elements of and relationships between professional development, school growth and mandated change.

Reflecting on the concept mapping process, principals offered a number of observations. John, the principal of School D, expressed his thoughts as follows:

"Well I think what's happened in me reflecting on these issues we've been discussing now over a period of time, I think what I've been able to do in these last sessions is to tap into my subconscious belief patterns and make them become conscious. Now then you're saying, and I agree with you, even though I've delved deeply to bring an unconscious belief to a conscious level, I'm consciously not doing those things at the moment but I've now put them down on paper as saying they are benchmarks. But I'm not reacting to them in a conscious way at the moment because I've only just brought them out' (Interview D12: 45).

John said that he had found concept mapping a difficult process as he had never had the opportunity to talk about what was in his head nor had anyone given him encouragement to express his thoughts and knowledge. John said that he felt it was important to have someone 'who could draw things out of you' (Interview D11: 4).

Alan, the principal of School B, admitted to finding the process exhausting. A snippet of dialogue describes his efforts thus:
Alan: You've dragged me into areas I haven’t really sat down and worked through yet, which is awful and painful and you ask such difficult questions.

BB: Oh dear, is that bad?

Alan: No, its great. They have helped me to work things out. You’re helping me unpack my values and beliefs. It hurts though' (Interview B21: 66).

And then later in the session he noted:

Alan: I think you’re asking all the right questions. I understand what you’re doing, um, it’s just painful for me getting to there (Interview B21: 237).

David, the principal of School A, also offered an observation of the process:

‘What your questions and this diagram have allowed me to do is to start off with my current perspectives and then to build on this by bringing together theory that’s in my head and the practical aspects of schools’ (Interview A17: 45).

My role during this process was to ask questions about the nature of the connections and relationships between the various benchmarks of change that had been identified. Sometimes, however, the questions identified by Prestine and Bowen (1993) were all that was required to keep the process going.

Denzin (1997) suggests that there is a need to develop new forms of texts for interpretive ethnography, forms that are more appropriate to changes in the world’s culture. He argues that as world culture has become both postmodern and multinational then ethnography should reflect these changes. He talks of postmodern ethnography as 'the moral discourse of the contemporary world' and as such he suggests that we should be exploring new kinds of experiential texts. He sights performance-based texts, literary journalism and narratives of the self as having the potential to provide 'a new ethics of inquiry'. With an increase in sophistication of computer technology could not visual texts such as those developed by the principals in this study become yet another way of developing new experiential texts? Denzin argues that, 'A text must do more than awaken moral sensibilities. It must move the other and the self to action'. At the end of his book, however, Denzin concludes by suggesting that 'No text
can do everything at once. The perfect ethnography cannot be written' (1997: xxi and 287).

Surveys: Three surveys were used in this study. They were distributed to all members of the teaching staff in each of three schools (Schools A, B and C). One survey was conducted to obtain the general impressions of the school staff to the English K-6 Syllabus and the Training and Development modules that had been developed to support the Syllabus' implementation. The purpose of this survey then was to gauge whether opinions offered by the key participants were representative of their staff. Another two surveys were constructed to further 'test the waters' about issues that seemed to be re-occurring frequently in the interviews concerning:

- the importance of understanding the 'big picture'; and
- the interrelationships between individual and collective development.

Whilst the results of these mini projects were interesting I decided not to use them in the final case report but they did serve to provide me with a better understanding and further insights into some of the details related to the individual and school contexts.

Documents: Document analysis provides a rich source of information about the context, policy development and the development and implementation of programs. There were many documents coming from a variety of sources that were important to this study. In order to understand the context of the case it was important to refer to all documentation that pertained to and explained:

- the development of policy at the national and state political levels;
- the mandated English K-6 Syllabus and support documents developed by the Board of School Studies;
- the support literature and directives (including memos) that were published and distributed by the N.S.W. Department of School Education to all schools;

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• all training and development initiatives and course handbooks developed to support schools’ implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus;

• the official policy and management documentation developed at the school level; and

• various published articles written by members of staff within the schools, and in particular, the personal writings of the principal of School A and two senior teachers from other schools.

The review of documents served two purposes; as a means of triangulation, that is, confirming or disconfirming information presented in other sources of data and as a means of searching for additional interpretations and verification of the facts related to the reform proposals.

**Tacit knowledge**

Polanyi (1966) argues that constructivist inquiry maintains the right to recognise the use of tacit knowledge during the research process. Guba and Lincoln (1989: 176) describe tacit knowledge as ‘all that we know minus all we can say - the latter ... is propositional knowledge’. The positivist would maintain that use of this tacit knowledge yields the study irrelevant on the grounds of its subjectivity. In a constructivist approach, however, this tacit knowledge is considered essential in making judgements in the early stages of the research process. In this study my tacit knowledge guided the decisions I made about the value and extent of the responses and when it was necessary to change tack or develop new approaches that would enhance the notion of research as a collaborative process.

‘In keeping with the constructivist nature of qualitative inquiry, knowledge is not acquired didactically; rather, it is developed inductively through dialogue among reading, individual research, and reflection. All participants are both teachers and learners’ (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992:xiv).
The inquiry process

The hermeneutic dialectic circle: data analysis

Lincoln and Guba (1985), in describing the focus of the inquiry process, emphasise the importance of the hermeneutic dialectic circle (see Figure 23). This cyclical process refers to the manner in which data are collected, how meanings are negotiated and constructed through a continual process of cycling and recycling information and the process of continuous analysis. 'It is hermeneutic because it is interpretive in character, and dialectic because it represents a comparison and contrast of divergent views with a view to achieving a higher-level synthesis of them all' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:149).

The hermeneutic dialectic process as described by Guba and Lincoln became the basis for the inquiry methods that were used. A 'co-researcher', 'co-learner' ethos was created with stakeholders who participated in the study (Cambourne & Turbill 1991, Barton 1992, Turbill 1993). The hermeneutic dialectic process involved a continuous cycle of data collection, meaning negotiation, analysis and construction until consensus emerged. Joint interpretations of these data were used to construct accounts of what was 'meant' ('Multiple Constructions'). These interpretations were continually informed by an ongoing review of the literature and reflective summaries of what both the literature and the emerging interpretations 'meant' ('Other Inputs').

Guba and Lincoln (1989: 149 - 150) advise that for the hermeneutic dialectic process to be productive, certain conditions need to be present. There needs to be a commitment to 'work from a position of integrity'; that participants are given ample opportunity to offer their own constructions as well as critique the construction of others; a willingness to share power; a willingness to change or reconsider their position in light of joint negotiation of meaning and a commitment of energy and time to the process.

The hermeneutic dialectic process in action

Several elements are described by Guba and Lincoln (1989) concerning the nature of the hermeneutic dialectic circle. They suggest that there are four 'continuously interacting elements' involved in the process until 'consensus (or non consensus) emerges' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:177).
The first element is concerned with the selection of respondents. At the beginning of the study a wide range of participants were identified using purposive sampling, that is, selected for some other purpose other than 'representativeness' or 'randomness'. Patton (1990) described six kinds of purposive sampling; the sampling of extreme or deviant cases, typical cases, maximum variation sampling, critical case sampling, convenience sampling or the sampling of politically important or sensitive cases. In this case, the purposive sampling could be described as the sampling of typical cases and/or those of political importance.

As the process of data collection developed, joint constructions made and the emergence of salient themes, so the group of participants changed slightly according to the information needed. For instance, at the beginning of the study, as the focus was on schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus, those teachers who were most involved in its implementation became the main respondents whilst later, when management and structures became the focus, the principals and the school executive became major participants. When the school culture and the change process were in focus, the principals and senior teachers became the major participants.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest that the second element of the hermeneutic circle relates to the cycling and recycling of the data and their analyses. All summaries and/or transcripts of interviews or field notes were returned to those involved after each meeting. All data were analysed immediately and followed up in the next meeting with new focus questions raised or requests for clarification or further explanation. At this stage the data represented the respondents individual constructions of meaning.

The third element in the hermeneutic circle is related to 'grounding the findings that emerged in the constructions of the respondents themselves' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:179). Data collection and analysis proceeded hand in hand creating ever more complex webs of information and this process served to guide subsequent decisions and directions. At this stage joint constructions of meaning emerged and consensus (or non consensus) was negotiated. These joint constructions were now grounded in all prior constructions. Grounded theory is described by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as:
one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents. That is, it is discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to the phenomenon. (In this way) 'data collection, analysis, and theory stand in reciprocal relationship with each other' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:23).

In this study the hermeneutic dialectic process guaranteed the constant backwards and forwards referencing between data collected and the analysis ensuring the constant grounding of the findings back into the data. However, Glaser and Strauss (1967) argued that well constructed 'grounded theory' should meet certain criteria if the joint constructions are to be judged as grounded in the data. They should reflect, they suggest, the concepts of fit and work (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, cited Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 205). Glaser and Strauss (1967: 3), in judging the applicability of the theory, describe it as one that should:

'fit the situation being researched, and work when put into use. By 'fit' we mean that the categories must be readily (not forcibly) applicable to and indicated by the data under study; by 'work' we mean that they must be meaningfully relevant to and be able to explain the behaviour under study'.

Elden (1981: 261) suggests that grounded theory might be referred to as 'local' theory as it refers to local and contextual understandings that, without the intervention of the researcher, might remain tacit. He explains that 'local' refers to the expertise that is held within a particular work situation that often does not become explicit without engagement in a research process which helps to unravel and make public the knowledge that individuals hold.

As this hermeneutic dialectic process took place I was also engaged in a constant process of alignment between my research experiences, my past professional and personal experiences and propositional knowledge, the data that were being gathered, the meanings being made, the analysis of documents and the literature that I was reading. This constant process of alignment and analysis helped to form new meanings, connections and understandings. Glaser (1978) refers to the simultaneous use of these different sources as the development of theoretical sensitivity.
The final element of the hermeneutic circle concerns the emergent nature of the research design. When I started my study I could not be specific about anything and neither was I sure about where the research process might take me. However, as the process developed and data were collected and analysed, so the directions became more focused. I began to realise what was important and what was not and therefore the analysis of data became more structured with time. Consensus about joint constructions also became easier to negotiate as our ability to describe and understand what was happening developed.

The final product of the hermeneutic dialectic circle is the case report which represents the joint constructions that finally emerge. The case report provides a 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973:26) which describes the context but at the same time allows the reader to vicariously experience the lived experiences of the participants. It presents a 'portrayal of life' in four schools as they try to come to terms with a new Syllabus (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:214). Guba and Lincoln (1989: 181) describe this final case report as 'a major vehicle for the dissemination, application, and individual aggregation of knowledge'. This final case report is presented in Chapter 5.

As this study presents a case study of a period of time, the final case report presents the collective joint constructions of schools' responses to the mandated new English K-6 Syllabus. However, when reporting on schools' approach to changed assessment and reporting procedures, the case report presents four different accounts. The decision to do this was taken so that the reader might share in the vicarious experiences of each school in a more personal way and so that more detailed insights might be gained of how each school actually engaged in the change process during the time period that forms the focus of this study. These vignettes also serve to show that whilst the outcomes may have seemed different, the underlying principles that characterised the way the three schools went about implementing and sustaining mandated change was very similar.

Whilst these elements have been described in a way that may sound like a linear process, they occurred in a way that responded to the immediate needs that arose.

However, this description of the research process does not adequately account for the many layers associated with the analysis of the data nor the measures
that were undertaken to ensure the trustworthiness of both the data and the interpretations. It is these areas that will form the focus of the next two parts of this description of methodology.

DATA ANALYSIS USING THE CONSTANT COMPARATIVE METHOD AND 'NUDIST', A COMPUTER SOFTWARE PACKAGE

In describing the nature of the hermeneutic dialectic circle I have established the ongoing and integrated nature of data analysis with data collection. Data analysis started with the first data collection 'in order to facilitate the emergent design, grounding of theory, and the emergent structure of later data collection phases' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:242). The constructions of meaning that emerged were the product of both inquirer and participant interactions. These meanings were then reconstructed into meaningful wholes. This process of data analysis was essentially 'inductive' rather than 'reductive' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:333). However, it is important to describe in more detail the extent and nature of the data analysis including the coding of the data.

The 'constant comparative method' for processing data is described by Lincoln and Guba as a 'continuously developing process' (1985: 340). From my perspective this extended from the collection of the first piece of data till the final full stop was placed at the end of the study. Each stage of analysis informed the next throughout the inquiry. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain the various stages that they believe best describe this process. These stages include:

Stage 1: ‘comparing incidents applicable to each category;

Stage 2: integrating categories and their properties

Stage 3: delimiting the theory; and


This description makes a very complex process sound relatively simple. During the process of analysis I found that I worked simultaneously both 'up' from the data, 'building new understandings from 'thick descriptions', reflecting on and
exploring data records, discovering patterns and constructing and exploring impressions' (Richards & Richards, 1994:446); and down from the theory, incorporating, exploring and building on prior theoretical input, or on hunches or ideas.

The initial stage involved the recognition of categories in the data. To do this it was first necessary to identify or 'unitise' segments or chunks of text, each chunk representing a particular idea (Appendix 5). The chunk might be a phrase, a sentence or sometimes a paragraph. Chunks of meaning then had to be 'coded' or 'categorised' through a process of discovering and identifying recurrent themes (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). In identifying categories Spradley (1979) suggests that there are a number of starting points including the identification of categories for the names of things, cover terms or semantic relationships. It was the semantic relationships that became the starting point for this study. Further Spradley (1979: 111) suggests that it might be useful to look more closely at specific semantic domains. He lists nine domains including strict inclusion, spatial, cause-effect (more preferably named by Lincoln and Guba (1985), as 'mutual shaping'), rationale, location for action, function, means-end, sequence and attribution. Whilst many of these domains express those used in my study, I am inclined to believe that the nature of the categories were more intuitive, identifying incidents and constantly comparing these with others until theoretical properties of a category became evident.

In reality this was a very messy process. Large sheets of butcher's paper on the wall were used to chart initial coding. This produced a cacophony of categories that did not seem to make much sense in the initial stages. But as more text was coded so dimensions, relationships and properties began to emerge. It was a process of identifying, matching, comparing, trying out, adjusting and readjusting. At the initial stage about fifteen major categories seemed to emerge but I noticed that there was a major confusion between processes, products, conditions, strategies and consequences. However, as I became ever more familiar with the data, comparisons between categories were made, relationships were identified and connections established so that the final set of categories comprised of just three but each with very many sub-categories (See Appendix 6) and many of these seemed to 'fit' under a number of different categories. This, I believe, served to emphasise the interrelated nature of the data.
Glaser and Strass (1967) might have recognised the characteristics of their stated stages one, two and three taking place at this time. At stage one they note a move away from comparisons between categories to comparisons within categories and a more intuitive 'look-alikeness' or 'feel-alikeness' approach to the properties that made up the category. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explain that the reducing of categories constitute stages two and three of the process and this reduction can be explained by an improved articulation, integration of the categories and that the categories become so saturated, that is, well defined, that this part of the process is complete.

The process of identifying categories and sub categories required the deep exploration of what was meant and understood by the various terms and labels that were being used. For instance, what was meant by 'curriculum' or 'professional development'. To one principal the definition of 'curriculum' was extremely broad encompassing 'all the planned and unplanned activities within the school'. For another principal, however, his definition of 'curriculum' was restricted to the content of teaching. So some terms used by participants seemed to have more than one or different meanings. Meanings, therefore, were not always standardised as they often varied between participants. Furthermore in vivo categories (Strauss, 1987:33) were often misleading and needed careful definition (eg. 'the big picture' and 'significant other'). Peer debriefing and revisiting participants with the data to clarify meanings became the support strategy essential for sustaining the coding process.

The coding process was complex as it also demanded a sound understanding and recognition of the nature of the properties and dimensions of each category as well as the relationships between categories and sub-categories. Decisions were constantly made about what categories were significant to the study, what questions still needed to be asked, what ideas explored, what text segments were relevant to which category and why and whether the categories should be altered. This was not a simple clerical process but rather an essential analytical procedure (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:70)

The next step in the process was to retrieve and bring together identically labelled 'chunks'. Because of the quantity of data, the physical manipulation and sorting of the data would have been almost impossible, so I turned to computer technology to help with this process (See Appendix 7).
The value of computer software to help with the organization and management of complex, rich and messy data was significant. In one sense, the software package aided the process but in another sense it complicated the coding process as it provided so many creative and alternative approaches to the way data could be arranged. The software package I used, Q.S.R. NUDIST (standing for Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorising) commonly known simply as NUDIST (Quality Solutions and Research Pty. Ltd, 1994), proved to be a powerful tool, designed to store and explore data and ideas so that clerical routines could be minimised. It served more than a code and retrieval system. It also created an index database which allowed me to:

- 'create, record, store and explore the categories for thinking about the study;
- index data contained in the document database at particular categories and at particular stages of the research process;
- manage the categories in an index system using an unlimited number of categories and sub-categories organized into index 'trees';
- modify the index system any time to suit changing ideas in the study;
- search the index system to find links between categories and data; and
- write and edit memos about any index category'.

This memo facility allowed me to take note of accruing evidence, integrate reflections and reactions with the emerging ideas, make direct links between the data and the literature and to write reminders to myself of connections and relationships that seemed to be emerging.

The following extract of text has been taken directly from NUDIST to illustrate the insertion of memos into the data. The 'memo' facility helped me to record and integrate reflections as I interacted with the data. This extract shows a reflection/observation made as I processed the data.
'Preliminary observations/reflections suggested by data/ before indexing.

It would seem that topics like professional development or curriculum development or culture are not clearly defined nor are they surrounded by tight boundaries. This is evident by the way that these topics become interchangeable with each other during interviews. For example, professional development becomes the main topic of discussion whilst 'curriculum' is the focus of the interview. The relationships between these topics seem to be (ecologically) dependent on each other, interrelated. In this instance this suggests to me that one cannot exist on its own in a vacuum but is reliant on a number of related factors. I will need to explore this with David when next I see him'.

The next extract shows how the memo facility could also be used to make explicit connections between the data and the literature/theory.

'School Culture: Definitions

The pattern of basic assumptions that the group invented, discovered in learning to cope with its problems of external and internal integration' (Schein, 1993:90).

'The integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, and artefacts, and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations' (Deal & Kennedy, 1982:4).

- create new categories for further analysis from the result of searches of document text or indexing' (Quality Solutions and Research Pty. Ltd., 1994: 1).

Most important of all, the software allowed me to constantly change my mind about the location or relationship of categories and sub-categories, as segments from different documents were pulled together. This in turn offered new ways of seeing the data. Above all, the flexibility of the software package enabled me to modify the database, shift, reorganize, undo, and backtrack to earlier stages of the process. Richards and Richards (1994: 449) believe that:

'... because the process of constructing an understanding is tentative, involving the exploration and testing of hunches at all grain size levels, hanging onto them if they look good for now, throwing them away when they no longer fit, while maintaining the rest of the growing structure' (Richards & Richards, 1994:49).
In this way the software had the potential to pursue patterns by comparison of text segments from different sources (Richards & Richards, 1994:447) and this flexibility would have been impossible to do manually.

It is important to point out, however, that NUDIST, unlike most other software packages for qualitative data analysis (QDA), did not merely provide a facility for 'coding and retrieval' as a textual-level operation. It also had the facility to 'select-and-sort' which provided the opportunity for conceptual-level operations (Richards & Richards, 1994:448). This provided an additional range of ways that theories could be constructed and tested and, as a result, provided a means to extend the possible perspectives and understandings of the data.

The 'select-and-sort' facility of the NUDIST software package should have been the most exciting level of analysis but it proved disappointing. Initially I was instructed to enter my data into two distinct data types. The first, I was told, should focus on characteristics of the participants and the data sites (eg. gender, years of experience, primary sites/the schools, kinds of participants and secondary sites). This was called BASE DATA. The second contained all the texts generated, the CONCEPTUAL DATA (See Appendix 8). NUDIST provided the opportunity to match aspects of one type with aspects in the other in eighteen different ways. This was intended to allow the researcher to establish relationships between the codes, test hypotheses, find clusters, make qualitative matrices and so on. However, the two main sources of data I had identified were not appropriate for purposes of matching. If, say, I had selected either gender or experience and related these to leadership skills, then a search might have established a myriad of interesting relationships. However, these particular findings would not have informed my research focus.

If I had fully understood the conceptual organization of the software before starting my research rather than learning as a result of engagement in the research process, then I might have developed the idea of say, personal characteristics and behaviours as one of the other major sources of data. If this data had been juxtapositioned with the conceptual data, then the select-and-search facility may have afforded additional valuable insights about relationships that existed in the data. So, the eighteen different ways offered to reveal relationships, did not provide, in my opinion, ways that would adequately illuminate the complexity of the relationships reflected in the data.
Description of conceptual categories

I have admitted that the initial stage of the coding process produced a 'cacophony of categories', however, these were reduced quite quickly to eight categories. One of these categories was labelled 'Don't Know' and became the dumping ground for all pieces of text that I was not sure about. As time passed, however, and categories became more clearly defined and therefore many pieces of 'Don't Know' text were entered under an appropriate category. Another category identified was 'Reflections'. This clearly did not 'fit' with the other categories but with time these reflections were integrated as 'memos' whilst the data was being processed.

As 'Professional Development' was a key category in terms of the study, it remained as a separate category till very late in the refinement process. Other stumbling blocks included the category identified as the 'English K-6 Syllabus'. This category, I decided, was critical as it encompassed all participants responses to the Syllabus. But it also contained all the information concerning the 'context of change'. The question here was, should it be left as a separate category or should it be fitted into the Curriculum category? At times like this that it became necessary to talk to my peers. If I found it difficult to articulate my reasoning and justify my decisions then I knew there was a need for me to reconsider, try out a new configuration or to try and make explicit the tacit knowledge which seemed to be driving my decision making process.

The complete process was a long and arduous one. However, as it developed so did my understanding of what was relevant and of its relative importance to the study. The final set of categories identified saw a vastly refined set which was later used as the structural organizer for the final case report. The final categories that emerged included Curriculum, School Organization and School Culture (See Appendix 6).

**Curriculum:** This category included policy, planning, design, implementation, program evaluation, the English K-6 Syllabus, definitions and participants' perceptions of the 'big picture' (See Appendix 9).

As I have mentioned, this category, 'Curriculum', became problematic because of the variety of perceptions that participants had of its meaning. Having made a note of this in a NUDIST memo, I decided that a text book explanation of the facets of curriculum might suffice and so the first four categories were thus
identified. The English K-6 Syllabus was identified as a major sub-category of curriculum. Its subcategories can be seen in Appendix 10.

**School Organization:** This theme refers to the way the schools went about their business and included subcategories of external support structures, internal structures and activities, administrative principles, leadership style, and issues related to alignment. This category proved to be the easiest to identify (See Appendix 11 for more details).

**School Culture:** The participants seemed to have a clearer idea of what school culture included. The categories that emerged included general characteristics of culture, professional development, people and behaviours, traditions/rituals, and change. I felt that professional development and change might not have been appropriately placed but participants argued that professional development and change were about learning and learning needed to be an integral part of the ongoing day to day culture of the school (See Appendix 12 for a more detailed break down of sub-categories and Appendix 13 for a complete listing of all levels of categories).

Having described the coding process I now return to the final levels of analysis, the case report.

**THE FINAL CONSTRUCTION - THE CASE REPORT**

It was not until the development of the case report that I became aware of yet another level of analysis taking place, yet another part of the hermeneutic cycle. The case report required me to describe, as neutrally as possible, what I found out from the participants in the four schools that would inform the case study. In this way the case report presented a 'thick description' rather than an interpretative account. However, Guba and Lincoln (1989: 223) suggest that this report should not only provide the facts but 'enable the reader to see how the constructors make sense of it, and why'.

Thus the case report required me to yet again piece together the results of the analysis of the data so as to make a coherent whole. Suddenly the relative importance of each level of data and its analysis took on a new dimension. In establishing what I thought the case study meant, I was obliged to make
decisions about what the most salient points of the data meant for our understanding about mandated change, professional development and school growth. I also had to consider the reader and bring together the analysis in a way that clearly expressed the context as well as the responses and actions described. In this way I hoped to allow the reader 'to walk in the shoes of the local actors' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:223).

At this stage of the study I found it necessary to reconsider the relative importance of many of the subcategories which resulted in a process of collapsing many into each other and reforming new subcategories. There was also a need to re-establish temporal relationships so that a sense of process might be understood. If I compare the original coding of data and the subsequent emergence of categories with the framework used to write the case report, these changes and modifications become more evident (See the following Figure 25).

The section on curriculum, whilst being the most problematic category to analyse, continued to raise problems at the case report level. It was not until details relating to 'context' had been explicated from the schools' responses on curriculum, that the curriculum section could be adequately described.

To summarise the research process I have developed a diagram that explains the various phases of the inquiry (see Figure 26).

Having described the research process in action, it still remains for me to explain the measures that were taken to ensure the adequacy of the study.
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<tr>
<th>CODING CATEGORIES</th>
<th>CASE REPORT</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Planning</td>
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<td>Design</td>
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<td>Implementation</td>
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<td>English K-6 Syllabus</td>
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<td>Definitions</td>
<td><strong>Schools responses to ODE and the English K-6 Syllabus</strong></td>
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<td>literacy and language learning</td>
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<td><strong>School Organization</strong></td>
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<td>Leadership and principles of management and administration</td>
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<td>Alignment</td>
<td>Understandings of what is meant by school culture</td>
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<td>Descriptions</td>
<td>People and relationships</td>
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<td>Problems</td>
<td>Change and school growth</td>
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<td>Professional development, staff development &amp; professional learning</td>
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<td>Rituals and traditions</td>
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<td><strong>School Culture</strong></td>
<td><strong>Benchmarks of Change</strong></td>
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<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>School A School B</td>
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<td>Professional development</td>
<td>School C School D</td>
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<td>People and behaviours</td>
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<td>Traditions &amp; rituals</td>
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<td>Change</td>
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<td>Benchmarks</td>
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**Figure 25:** Comparisons between the coded data and the final analysis for the case report

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Figure 26: Sequence of phases in the research inquiry
CRITERIA FOR JUDGING THE ADEQUACY OF THE INQUIRY

It is argued that certain criteria need to be adhered to when establishing the adequacy of an inquiry's 'trustworthiness' and 'validity' (Patton, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Guba and Lincoln (1989) identify three differing approaches in the consideration of 'the quality of goodness' of a constructivist inquiry. Firstly, they suggest there is a need to invoke the 'parallel criteria', or foundational criteria, which focuses on the trustworthiness of the inquiry. Next, they argue the value of the unique contribution that the *hermeneutic dialectic process* brings to the quality of the inquiry, and finally, they attest to the necessity for invoking 'authenticity criteria' (op. cit.: 233).

**Parallel criteria** are intended to parallel the 'rigour' criteria used in a more conventional paradigm. Typically these would include the methodological criteria of internal validity which would ascertain the 'truth value of the inquiry; external validity which is concerned with the applicability of the inquiry to other contexts and subjects; reliability which relates to the consistency of the inquiry; and objectivity which refers to the neutrality, free of bias, values and prejudice'. On axiomatic grounds, however, these criteria, Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest, are unworkable.

They argue that a set of more appropriate and meaningful criteria are needed for constructivist inquiry but that run parallel to those used by the positivist researcher. These include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. All these criteria were used in this study during the processes of data collection and analysis.

By its very nature, the *hermeneutic dialectic process* establishes the 'trustworthiness' and 'validity' of the inquiry as it demands the ongoing verification of internal judgements through a process of constant negotiation with participants in order to establish more significant interpretations. In this way data is analysed in a continuing manner. With such a process in place, Guba and Lincoln (1989: 244) suggest that 'the biases or prejudices of the (researcher) shaping the results is virtually zero'.
Whilst parallel criteria present criteria related to methodology, on their own they do not guarantee that the data gathered from the respondents 'has been collected and faithfully represented' (op. cit.: 245). Guba and Lincoln (1989: 245) argue that 'outcome, product and negotiation' criteria are equally important and identify fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, catalytic authenticity, and tactical authenticity as authentic criteria that can and should be explicitly confirmed.

**Fairness**

Fairness, as the term suggests, is about the ethics of honesty and fair play. It is concerned with how fair the researcher has been with the respondents in negotiating and presenting their constructions of reality in a balanced and honest way. It is suggested (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:246) that there are two ways that this might be achieved. Firstly, by ensuring that the sampling has been purposive, that is, making sure that a range of participants have been identified so that a full range of constructions have been contributed. Secondly, all negotiations need to reflect the sophisticated nature of the process which is used to achieve consensus and that these negotiations should be open. Another way of maintaining fairness is through constant member checking which, along with the other strategies mentioned, became an integral part of the research process of this study.

**Ontological authenticity**

This refers to the extent to which individual participants improve and develop their thinking during the course of the study. This was particularly evident when comparing the responses of participants during the first half of the study, with their construction of the 'benchmarks diagrams' which were developed as a conclusion to the data gathering process. These diagrams illustrated, quite explicitly, their increased ability 'to apprehend their own worlds in more informed and sophisticated ways' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:248). Whilst enhancing the principals' own understandings, the development of the diagrams also developed my own understandings of their worlds. It was the process of concept mapping that provided a way for respondents to demonstrate their growing awareness. Another technique that was used was an audit trail. Having entries of individual constructions at different stages during the study demonstrated individual growth. As I assumed the role of a 'co-learner', ontological authenticity became an integral part of the research process.
Educative authenticity
This criterion concerns the extent of 'individual respondents' understanding of, and appreciation for, the constructions of others outside their stakeholding group' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:248). I believe that this criteria was successfully fulfilled. At the beginning of the study three of the four schools indicated an interest in each others responses to the English K-6 Syllabus and their constructions of meaning with particular reference to this study. It was, therefore, arranged that each participant could share their responses across schools and in this way they gained insights, understanding and an appreciation of the perceptions of other respondents. Whilst there was not a great deal of direct interaction between participants across schools, this arrangement afforded me the opportunity, during the interviews, to make reference to other participants' responses and how these might have been different or the same as their own. Again the sharing of the final 'benchmark diagrams' between the three principals, caused a great deal of interest in the differing perspectives and emphases.

Catalytic authenticity
This criteria refers to the 'action' that is stimulated by the research process. Because this research study focused on events and activities as they happened, the research process became an integral part of solving problems and working through decisions and identifying actions and/or modifying approaches. For the participants, increased understandings informed their subsequent actions in an ongoing way. This was often demonstrated in the follow-up discussions after interviews or through the hermeneutic dialectic process and its ongoing approach to negotiation.

Tactical authenticity
Whilst Guba and Lincoln (1989) believe that action, as a result of the research process is important, they also indicate that without the power to act, then wanting to act is not sufficient. The fact that this research activity was valued by the participants and that each knew what the other was doing, if action took place as a result of their growing perceptions, then the support of the group ensured their empowerment to act. The focus of the research was on an immediate issue and the participants had a shared goal concerning the successful implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. This meant that action and empowerment became an integral part of change for all the stakeholders.
I believe that this explanation of the methodology as well as the final case study report provide many examples of the criteria needed for the judgement of adequacy for this study.

The next chapter, 'The Context of Change', provides a description of the change agendas at different levels of power and how changes in political direction impacted on the educational reform agendas.
CHAPTER 4

THE CONTEXT OF CHANGE

All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players:
They have their exits and their entrances.....
(As You Like It, William Shakespeare)

INTRODUCTION

To understand the complexities related to the context of change that underpin this study of mandated change, professional development and school growth, it is necessary to identify and understand a number of different 'plays' that have been acted out partly consecutively and partly simultaneously over a period of a decade. These plays serve to explain the motivations for the new English K-6 Syllabus and the manner in which it has been presented and organized.

Chapter one provided the backdrop for these plays. Readers were introduced to a number of significant socio-political and economic changes at a global level. In Australia these changes are reflected in a number of significant Federal Government reviews and reports. These reports set in motion the development of a new national agenda for educational change and reform, an agenda that politicians felt would equip students with the skills that would provide the nation with the means of facing the challenges of the twenty-first century.

The choice of metaphor, 'play', serves to emphasise the series of events that unfolded (the 'plot'), and the way the agendas for action were 'produced', 'directed', 'stage-managed' and 'choreographed' by those in power and authority. Each play has its own stage, actors and audience, and, as will be seen, the plot of one play creates the starting point for another.

As a suite, the various plays make manifest a set of historical cameos and upon closer scrutiny reveal a network of interconnected reforms that have contributed to a changing purpose of education for New South Wales' schools.

Hence, this chapter, through the presentation of five plays, tries to expose the pathways of political and educational thinking that have resulted in current
curriculum and operational change. The first of these plays focuses on the national agendas for educational reform in Australia. The second highlights the response of the state government in New South Wales to the national agendas. The third play tells of how a special board was developed to realise new state education policies. The fourth and fifth plays present the 'system' perspective at both the central and regional levels.

These plays provide the necessary context for a final play which is concerned with schools' responses to a specific agenda for change, specifically a new English K-6 Syllabus. This play is described as the final case report which is presented in the following chapter.

PLAY ONE: THE NATIONAL AGENDAS FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The first play presents the national agenda for change (see Figure 27). The main players responsible for charting and developing the course of national educational reform between 1988 - 1995 included:

- the Federal Government\(^3\) and its Ministers;

- the Australian Education Council (AEC), which is comprised of all State, Territory and Commonwealth Government Ministers of Education and the State Directors of Education\(^4\);

- the Curriculum Assessment Committee (CURASS), a committee appointed by the AEC;

- the Australian Co-operative Assessment Program (ACAP), another committee appointed by the AEC; and the

\(^3\)The Federal Government in Australia is our National Government. It is commonly known as a Federal Government as Australia is a Federation of a number of States and Territories.

\(^4\)Whereas State Education Departments and their public servants, the Directors General are directed by their Ministers, it is important to recognise that there are two 'layers' of power. ie. a) political (elected) Ministers and b) appointed Directors General who are (mostly) educators who have become bureaucrats. There is not always agreement between State and Federal Ministers just as there are times when Directors General do not play ball with Ministers!

1989: AEC resolution to remove curriculum differences between school systems across Australia. 'Hobart Declaration' released by all State Ministers of Education.

1990: AEC recommended that student profiles should be developed.

May: ACAP appointed to work on projects related to profiles.

Nov: First meeting of the Australian Literacy Federation (ALF).

Dec: AEC approved ACAP proposal to develop profiles for English and Maths.

The Curriculum Corporation was established.

1991: Feb: Launch of The National Project on the Quality of Teaching and Learning (NPQTL)

April: AEC started development of National Statements and Profiles for each of eight learning areas.

Aug: CURRASS was directed to set up and manage the above work and to complete it in two years.


1993: July: National Statements and Profiles presented to AEC.

Further period of time recommended for a review of above.

Work referred to States and Territories.

National Professional Development Program (NPDP) was established.

Dec: AEC resolved to continue work on National Curriculum.

1994: National Statements & Profiles were published and launched.

The National Strategy for Equity in Schooling (NSES) was endorsed.

The language of government reviews and reports, both national and state, began, in 1989, to reflect the language of business and industry and quickly became general usage in educational reports. Terms like outcomes, strategic planning, quality assurance, mission statements, operational control, responsive management, human resource management, restructuring, performance appraisal and training and development not only provided a new language to talk about what schools might do but also described a new set of priorities and directions for education in the nineties and beyond.

At both the national and state level there was a move away from 'inputs', in terms of financial...
support, to a focus on educational 'outcomes' which highlighted teacher accountability, student performance, assessment and evaluation and teaching for 'quality learning'.

This change in focus was evidenced by initiatives first taken by Dawkins (1988), the Federal Minister of Education, for the development of national standards, greater accountability measures, and improved management procedures.

The Dawkins Report, released in 1988, called 'Strengthening Australia's Schools: A Consideration of the Focus and Content of Schooling', invited co-operation between all education systems (public, Catholic and independent) to come together to develop a national focus that would 'strengthen the capacity of Australian schools'.

The report focused national attention on clarifying the purposes and priorities of schooling, increasing school retention, addressing equity issues, developing a common curriculum framework and common approaches to assessment and improving the quality of teacher training.

**The Hobart Declaration (1989)**
A year later, in response to this call for collaboration, all Ministers and Directors of Education (AEC) around Australia, ratified Ten Common and Agreed Goals for Schooling. This became known as the Hobart Declaration (Australian Education Council, 1989).

These Ministers and Directors General approved a number of curriculum initiatives with a view to developing a common national curriculum framework. They lent support to work that had already been started by the Directors of Curriculum around the country on the development of National Curriculum Statements in each of the eight key learning areas of the curriculum, one of which was English. Also in this year (1989) there was a major 'mapping exercise' conducted to identify common/different threads among State K-10 English Syllabuses as a forerunner to the development of the English Statement and Profiles.
Essentially, the AEC acted as a forum for national collaboration in curriculum policy development related to all levels of education in Australia. As such it approved a proposal presented by the Australian Co-operative Assessment Program (ACAP) to develop profiles in the areas of mathematics and English (Australian Education Council, 1991).

In the same year, the AEC, as part of its commitment to national collaboration, set up a company known as the Curriculum Corporation of Australia. It was stated that this company would strengthen the collaboration between states and 'facilitate greater efficiency and effectiveness in curriculum development through the sharing of knowledge and scarce resources' (from a poster distributed to all schools and educational institutions around Australia).

In February 1991, the Hon John Dawkins, Federal Minister for Employment, Education and Training announced a special national project 'to restructure the teaching profession, deal with low teacher morale and to improve the quality of teacher learning' (Australian Education Council, 1991:12). The relevance of this national project on the Quality of Teaching and Learning (NPQTL) to this study is that 'it brought together for the first time teacher unions, state and non-government employers of teachers, and the Federal Government into a single forum to work jointly on key policy and procedural teaching and learning issues across the nation' (Australian Education Council, 1991:13).

Whilst the notion of 'quality teaching and quality learning' was not set as a priority by the Department of School Education in NSW until 1994, the notion of collaboration across different school systems and interest groups became an important feature of the ways that educators in New South Wales came to work together to ensure the successful implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus. Collaboration had not been the usual way of working at the state level before 1991. The nature of this collaboration at a state level will be discussed later.

The National Statements and Profiles
In April 1991, the AEC initiated the development of the National Statements and Profiles for each of the eight learning areas (The Arts, Health and Physical Education, Science, Languages other than English, Studies of Society and the Environment, Technology as well as English and Maths). So in June, 1991, the
Curriculum and Assessment Committee (CURASS), a sub-committee of AEC, was set up to manage this work for which they were given a two year limit to complete the tasks. CURASS presented the AEC with the completed Statements and Profiles in July, 1993.

The National Statements described what might be taught to achieve stated learning outcomes (Australian Education Council, 1994a). These Statements were described as being:

'an account of the strands and bands of each learning area. Strands are groupings of understandings of a learning area's content, processes and concepts. Bands are the broad stages in a sequence for developing knowledge, understandings and skills in a learning area. Each statement has four bands. Generally Bands A and B will be covered in primary schooling, C in secondary school to year 10, and D in the post compulsory years' (Australian Education Council, 1994a:1)

The National Profiles, on the other hand, consisted of a series of descriptive statements of learning outcomes for each of the eight key learning areas. The National Profiles, like the National Statements, were designed to 'provide a set of common reference points describing a set of common learning outcomes and providing examples of student work which demonstrated the outcomes' (Australian Education Council, 1991:10). The 'learning outcomes' described a student's progression through a sequenced set of 'outcomes' across eight levels of achievement. They described what students were to know at various points during their education (Australian Education Council, 1994a). The outcomes were recognised as a 'standard of achievement', and provided the explicit articulation of what a student was expected to know and be able to do (Archival document C7.8).

The Statements and Profiles were intended to provide a framework for the development of curriculum documents in each state/territory around Australia (Australian Education Council, 1994b). Further, they were intended to provide a common language and understanding about student achievement for reporting to parents (Australian Education Council, 1994a). It was also anticipated that they would assist school personnel to talk with their parents, which in turn might increase their participation in school activities (Australian Education Council, 1994b).
In 1993 the National Statements and Profiles for each of the eight learning areas were approved by the AEC. However, AEC felt that time was needed to allow the states and territories to review the documents (Australian Education Council, 1993). After a period of review both the Statements and Profiles were published and distributed by the Curriculum Corporation in 1994 (Australian Education Council, 1994a).

Toward the end of 1993, the Curriculum Corporation was charged by the AEC to monitor and report back on how each state and territory was using the Statements and Profiles as a framework for developing their own state/territory syllabus documents.

Like the National Statements and Profiles, other National documents were being expressed in terms of outcomes. In 1994, for instance, the National Strategy for Equity in Schooling (NSES) was endorsed and emphasised the importance of 'maximising educational outcomes by lifting the attainment levels of students' (Australian Education Council, 1994a:6). Here again the focus was on levels of student learning.

The National Professional Development Program (NPDP)
In line with the Federal Government's commitment to 'better educational outcomes for young people and towards achieving agreed national goals for schools' (Beazley, 1994:13), sixty million dollars was made available for projects over a three year period (1994 - 96) that would:

• 'renew teachers' knowledge of their subject disciplines';

• 'provide teachers with the opportunity to play a central role in determining their own professional needs within the context of emerging national priorities' (Beazley, 1994:13);

• provide teacher professional development opportunities that would increase teachers' understanding and implementation of the AEC Curriculum Statements and Profiles (Beazley, 1994:14); and

• develop new opportunities for teachers and university academic staff to share information and discuss national issues affecting their work (Beazley, 1994:14).
This initiative was known as the National Professional Development Program (NPDP). All state and territory Departments of Education, as well as non-government sectors, professional organizations and universities were encouraged to develop proposals and seek funding. In New South Wales the Department of School Education, in collaboration with the Association of Independent School and the Catholic Education Commission applied for and were given funds to develop training and development initiatives that would support the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus.

The Australian Literacy Federation (ALF)

Returning to 1990, designated the International Literacy Year, the Australian Literacy Federation (ALF) was established. ALF is a federation of five professional organizations concerned with the promotion and support of English language and literacy education in Australia. These include the Australian Association for the Teaching of English (AATE), the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA), the Primary English Teaching Association (PETA), the Australian Council for Adult Literacy (ACAL), and the Australian Reading Association (ARA), renamed in July, 1994, the Australian Literacy Educators' Association (ALEA)

The purpose of ALF was to 'promote excellence in the provision of English language and literacy programs at all levels of education in Australia' (Meiers, 1994:2).

The Australian Literacy Federation was awarded a grant by the Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET). This grant had three purposes as follows:

- 'to support the national collaborative curriculum activity in English education through activities that focused on the implications of the National Statement on English for English teaching and teacher development;

- to contribute to the ongoing development of the national English Statement and Profile through the provision of professional advice and the development of related professional activities'; and finally,
to promote and support sound classroom practice in the implementation of the Statement and Profile' (Meiers, 1994:3).

One of the outcomes of this project was a publication called Exploring the English Curriculum Statement and Profile for Australian Schools (Meiers, 1994). It documented many teachers' research and exploration of how they had become familiar with the National Statement and Profile for English and 'ways in which these resources could be used effectively in classrooms' (Meiers, 1994:4). It provided examples of 'interesting' teaching practices and useful ideas (Meiers, 1994). Besides this publication, Information Bulletins were also sent out regularly to keep federated association members informed of important activities and resources (Meiers, 1994). The formation of ALF and the resources it published provided a valuable resource for teachers in New South Wales as they endeavoured to understand the National English Statement and Profile and the nature of learning outcomes.

Implications of this 'play' for the big picture
In summary, the national agendas based on principles of economic rationalism included:

• the articulation of a changing purpose of education, one that would prepare students for the twenty-first century.

• the identification of national standards through the development of a national curriculum framework;

• a focus and clear statement of student learning 'outcomes';

• the development of a common language to describe student achievement which would facilitate the reporting of these achievements to parents;

• the encouragement of greater collaboration between states; and

• the need for educators to be more accountable.

It was these agendas that set the course for state initiatives in the area of curriculum, organizational and management reform in New South Wales.
public education. Furthermore it provided a specific template for the future English K-6 Syllabus.

PLAY TWO: THE STATE OF NEW SOUTH WALES: AGENDAS FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

The second play focuses on the New South Wales Government's agenda for change (see Figure 28). In describing the directions that were set for education in the state, they need to be seen in terms of their relationship with national agendas for change.

The developing context of educational reform in New South Wales may be said to have begun when a new Liberal Government came into power in 1988 after many years in opposition. This Government had a strong commitment to educational reform and its main concerns focused on structures, curriculum, accountability and assessment and reporting of students' learning. Reform initiatives started as soon as this Government took power. Sir John Carrick was appointed to chair a committee to review education in New South Wales schools.

The most significant outcomes from this Review Committee (Carrick, 1989) with reference to the current study included the recommendations that:

• the Public Instruction Act (1880) and its many amendments (1987) should be replaced by a new Education Reform Act;

• a Board of Studies should be created to take responsibility for the development of curriculum across K-12 (primary and secondary education) and take over the duties that had hitherto been the responsibility of the Department of School Education (for primary school syllabus documents) and of the Board of Secondary Education (Carrick, 1989:12);

• support should be given to the notion of Key Learning Areas (Carrick, 1989:6); and that
1989: Liberal Party came into power in NSW and Metherell was appointed the new Minister of Education

April: Appointment of Brian Scott by Metherell to conduct a management review on the system of educational administration, its efficiency and effectiveness.

June: The Scott Report was released. Basic Skills Testing Program was introduced into Primary schools for Yrs 3 & 6 in literacy and maths.

Sept: Carrick Report: The Committee of Review of NSW schools

Nov: An interim report called 'Schools Renewal' was presented by Scott. Release of a White Paper on curriculum reform in NSW schools by Metherell called 'Excellence and Equity'.

1990: Education Reform Act

1992: Focus on Ten Common Agreed National goals for schools arising from Hobart Declaration


1994: Minister for Education approved the release of the English K-6 Syllabus.

1995: April: Minister for Ed. announced a moratorium on the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus

May: Review committee established

Aug: Eltis Report released

- curriculum development should focus on six Key Learning Areas at the primary level which should include English, mathematics, science and technology, creative and practical arts, personal development health and fitness and human society and its environment (including modern languages) (Metherell, 1989:7). All these recommendations, including the formation of a Board of Studies, were accepted by the state government and provided for in the new Reform Bill.

This Bill was tabled in State Parliament in November 1989 for public review and debate and in the following year, 1990, the Education Reform Act was finally passed.

Besides the Review of Schooling in New South Wales (Carrick, 1989), Metherell, the State Minister for Education at that time, appointed Brian Scott, a former director of a large business, to review the 'efficiency and effectiveness of management structures and
administrative procedures across the education portfolio' (Metherell, 1989:7).

The recommendations of the Scott Report (1989) concentrated on proposals for fundamental reform of structures with a major devolution of responsibilities and authority from the central office (DSE) to the regional, cluster and school levels (Metherell, 1989:7).

To be able to face the challenges of the future, this Report presented five alternative premises which, it was believed, would assist the system (DSE) and its schools to operate more effectively.

They included the beliefs that:

• 'The school, not the system, was the key organizational element providing teaching and learning.'

• Every school is different and therefore has different needs.

• The best judge of those needs will usually be the individual school's teachers and its community.

• Schools will best meet their needs if they are enabled to manage themselves in line with general guidelines.

• The role of the system, if it is to be effective, must focus on providing support to schools and their leaders' (Scott, 1989:5-6).

Based on these premises, the Scott Report concluded that:

'The most effective management approach to revitalising education in New South Wales (was) to make all schools well managed, self-determining, self renewing centres of educational quality' ............ 'A basic change (was) needed so that the system (was) totally committed to supporting the school, rather than the school being in support of the system' (Scott, 1989:6).

It was anticipated that the Scott Report, known as The School Renewal Plan, would have a dramatic impact on teachers' professionalism, the nature and extent of school budgeting, and the assessment procedures for both students
and staff (Scott, 1989). Specifically, each school was to have greater control and responsibility for deciding on its own needs for training and development and school growth. Schools were to start managing their own budget, selecting their own staff and developing their own five year Renewal Plan (Eltis, 1990:2). Instead of a top-down model of management and administration, Scott recommended that schools become the focus of support. He also recommended that a decentralised basis of organizational structure be adopted, whereby decisions and actions were to take place as near to the school as possible (Scott, 1989:7). This new organizational structure is represented in Figure 29 below.

The School Renewal Plan (Scott, 1989) and the appointment of Brian Scott to develop this plan was a reflection of both a national and state move towards a corporate style of administration (Dudley & Vidovich, 1995). The implementation of the 'Schools Renewal Plan' (Scott, 1989) lasted over six years and covered a wide range of ideas.

Whilst the Scott Report focused on issues of management, Metherell (the Minister for Education at this time) was focusing on the development of a new curriculum and in 1989 published a White Paper on 'Curriculum Reform in New South Wales Schools' (Metherell, 1989). It was this statement that charged the Department of School Education to have a new English K-6 Syllabus ready
for release by 1990. However, when the Board of Studies was established as a result of the Education Reform Act, it took over the responsibility for curriculum development and consequently the development of this new English K-6 Syllabus. Thus a revised time for the release of the English Syllabus was announced for term one, 1992. As a result of the development of the National Statement and Profile for English, however, the Minister for Education in New South Wales charged the Board of Studies to incorporate the National Profiles into the new English K-6 Syllabus (Australian Education Council, 1992). This meant that the Board would need to develop a syllabus that also made explicit the 'learning outcomes'. This caused a further delay in its development and publication. In 1992 The Director-General of Education (the head of the Department of School Education in New South Wales) signalled to schools that improved student learning outcomes would become one of the Department's priorities for 1993.

In March 1995, a change of Government and thus a new Minister for Education, announced a pause in the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus so that progress could be reviewed. The Minister, in response to community pressure, was concerned about the quality of some of the outcomes statements in the new English K-6 Syllabus, the amount of work expected of teachers in recording student performance and the expected pace of implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus (Minister's Press Release, 1995). Professor Eltis was appointed to conduct this review. The review outcome was known as the Eltis Report and was released in August, 1995.

The Eltis Report
Professor Eltis chaired the committee of review which was established to report on the progress on the implementation of profiles and outcomes in New South Wales schools. The state Minister for Education indicated that he was committed to aspects of a profiles and outcomes approach such that:

• syllabuses should specify the content to be learned;

• clear standards should be set for each level of schooling; and that

• student progress should be reported to parents in terms of whether those standards (were) ... being achieved (Minister's Press Release, 1995).
The Eltis Committee, in preparing their report over a period of three months, processed five hundred and sixty-eight submissions from schools, both government and non-government, parent and community organizations, professional associations, teacher unions, and tertiary education institutions. It became one of the most wide ranging reviews ever conducted over such a short time in New South Wales.

The data gathered from schools around New South Wales and reported in the Eltis Report (Eltis, 1995) included comments that covered basic understandings about the Syllabus, about the curriculum, about teaching and learning, about its implementation, which included feedback on the training and development program, and about assessment and reporting. In essence, most of the data of this study confirms the findings presented in the Eltis Report. In summary comments on the review findings, the Eltis Report concluded that:

'The two most frequently mentioned concerns were: the pace of change introduced in schools was too rapid; and the perception that increased attention to assessment and reporting was resulting in less time being available for teachers to concentrate on teaching and learning programs. On the other hand, a significant number of respondents indicated that a focus on outcomes facilitated the quality of teaching and learning and the monitoring of individual student progression.' (Eltis, 1995: 76).

Other major concerns reported included the following:

- the language of outcomes was not clear
- the increased workload for teachers
- the terminology associated with functional grammar
- the number of outcomes (too many)
- the negative reaction to the training and development model adopted
- whether there should be standardised or customised reporting' (Eltis, 1995: 76).
Eltis also noted that a range of definitions and terms surrounded the development of profiles and outcomes. The term 'outcomes' had first been mentioned in the Education Reform Act, 1990 where it was indicated that any syllabus should state:

'the aims, objectives and desired outcomes in terms of knowledge and skills that should be acquired by children at various levels of achievement by the end of specified stages in the course, and any practical experience that children should acquire by the end of such a stage' (Section 14 (3)).

Of outcomes, the Board of Studies explained that they could be 'viewed as being on a continuum between the very general aims of core knowledge, skills and attitudes in the syllabus to the much more detailed and specific outcomes expected from classroom activity' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1991). An 'outcomes and profiles' approach was introduced as part of the national framework including the National Profiles and National Statements. In 1994 the Department of School Education adopted what was referred to as 'an outcomes and profile approach'. In a document titled 'Shared understandings: The language of an outcomes and profiles approach', it was stated that an outcomes and profiles approach encompassed two major concepts:

• 'the explicit articulation of what a student (could) do (outcomes);
• the identification of a standard of achievement (Levels)' (Eltis, 1995:4).

The recommendations of the Eltis report were published in August, 1995 and the new Minister for Education accepted all the committee's recommendations. Some of the major recommendations of the report that have connections with this study are as follows:

• the syllabus content should remain unaltered, but the number of outcomes be reduced;

• further time should be given to schools to implement the syllabus (1995-97);

• the Board of Studies, the body responsible for the development of curriculum, should review the use of functional grammar and its
terminology as it applies to the support of a functional approach to language learning;

- teachers should be given an explanation of the intentions, purposes and rationale for the introduction of a profile and outcomes approach;

- schools should be the focus of professional development, that they should be encouraged to work with other groups (Universities, professional associations and community groups), that the individual context of schools needed to be considered when developing activities and that the best practices of teachers should be used to assist others. It was therefore recommended that more funds be made available for schools to develop their own initiatives for professional development.

- communities should become more involved in the development of strategies to increase understanding of the new syllabus and

- there should be more involvement of teachers in the trialing and review of the revised syllabus (Eltis, 1995).

In relation to this study, some recommendations directly mirror the responses of the participants. These include the recommendations that:

- teachers should be more involved in the development of syllabus outcomes and support materials;

- materials should be developed that explained more clearly the intentions, purpose and rationale for the introduction of outcomes;

- schools be the focus for the delivery of professional development activities; and that

- schools work together and with other relevant groups 'to explore new approaches and determine what is best for them in their own context' (Eltis, 1995:vi).
All the recommendations of the Eltis Report were accepted by the Minister for Education and the Board of Studies was therefore instructed to make the necessary modifications to the Syllabus.

**Implications of this 'play' for the big picture**

In terms of this play the most significant 'acts' to this study relate to two main areas as follows:

- the 'rocky road' associated with the development of an 'outcomes based' English K-6 Syllabus; and

- changes in managements structures and administrative procedures within the Department of School Education in New South Wales (Scott Report, 1988).

The development of the English K-6 Syllabus presented in terms of 'learning outcomes' and based on the national curriculum framework for English (the National Statement and Profile for English), ensured that the national agenda for standards and accountability were being maintained in New South Wales. However, the lengthy and troubled history of the Syllabus' development serve to account for the negative manner in which teachers and the community received the final copy.

One of the most significant recommendations of the Scott Report to this study included the devolution of responsibilities and authority from the central bureaucracy to schools. Schools were encouraged to become more self determining. Further, schools were to be given funds to identify, develop and support professional development needs. However, by the time the final copy of the new English K-6 Syllabus reached the schools, devolution initiatives were fast disappearing particularly when sizeable funds became available from the Federal Government to support the implementation of a syllabus that reflected national standards and the clear articulation of learning outcomes.
PLAY THREE: THE BOARD OF STUDIES (NSW)

The third play involves the Board of Studies (BOS) in New South Wales (see Figure 30). BOS is a statutory body legislated by the Education Reform Act of 1990 (Australian Education Council, 1991). It consists of twenty-three members who represent a wide section of the community including the Parents and Citizens Association, university personnel, the DSE, the Technical and Further Education Commission (TAFE), principals, the Department of Ethnic Affairs, Aboriginal groups, Catholic Education, the NSW Teachers' Federation and members from business. The Board has a full time president and three ex-officio members who include the Director-General of School Education, the Executive Director of the Ministry of Education and Youth Affairs and the Managing Director of the Technical and Further Education Commission. The Board is appointed for a four year term (Carrick, 1994:8).

The Board of Studies has various responsibilities including the development of all curriculum and support materials for Public Schools from Kindergarten to Year 12 in New South Wales. It was responsible for the development of the English K-6 Syllabus (Carrick, 1994). Under legislation all syllabus documents developed by BOS are mandatory. Final approval for the syllabuses is the responsibility of the State Minister for Education (Australian Education Council, 1992).

The development of the English K-6 Syllabus has a long, colourful history. Before the Education Reform Act (1990), the DSE had been responsible for the development of curriculum and since the mid-eighties, the DSE had been developing a new English K-6 Syllabus. After many draft documents, the new syllabus was finally ready for publishing and distribution at the beginning of 1991. But with the focus of political attention on the Education Reform Act and the recommendations of the Carrick Committee (Carrick, 1989), this syllabus was put on hold at the last minute by the Minister of Education (Dr Metherell). After the formation of BOS in 1990, the DSE relinquished their responsibility for the development of the English K-6 Syllabus (Australian Education Council, 1992) and the Board of Studies took over this responsibility.

It was a year before the newly formed BOS advised schools of their timetable for the release of new syllabus documents. They advised that a draft English K-6 Syllabus would be released in Term One of 1992 (Board of Studies (NSW), Chapter 4: The Context of Change 168
1990: Board of Studies set up as a statutory body to develop school curriculum K-12


1992: Draft of new English K-6 Syllabus was distributed to all schools and other concerned parties for review and comment.

1993: Minister approved final copy of English K-6 Syllabus was distributed to all schools. The start of the development of support materials for the English K-6 Syllabus.

1995: Nov: BOS established the English K-6 Syllabus Review Committee


In the following year, 1993, the State Minister for Education instructed BOS to incorporate the National Statement and Profile for English into the new English K-6 Syllabus. This was done but many more outcomes were added to accommodate the high percentage of second language learners in New South Wales schools. The final draft of the English K-6 Syllabus was described in terms of 'demonstrable learning outcomes' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:7) These had been organized into strands and sub strands. Within each strand and sub strand the outcomes were identified in levels. Across Kindergarten to Year Six five levels of outcomes were identified.

Figure 30: History of the Board of Studies development of the English K-6 Syllabus.

Each level represented a standard or benchmark against which students' achievements could be compared (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994).

It was anticipated that the learning outcomes expressed in the Syllabus would assist teachers 'to plan teaching programs and to identify outcomes that related to a given level of student achievement' (Australian Education Council, 1991:32). Further, it was felt that having a syllabus expressed in terms of outcomes would help schools to assess and report on student learning.
(Australian Education Council, 1992). The Syllabus was also described as presenting an 'outcomes and profiles approach' (Department of School Education (NSW), 1994a:12). Whilst in theory this concept was not new, it was the first time that a syllabus document had presented a 'standards framework'.

Concepts relating to 'standards' and 'outcomes' had been presented at various times in a number of disparate documents and memoranda to schools via school principals since the publication of the Carrick Report (1989) and the New South Wales Educational Reform Act of 1990. Now these ideas were coming together and being presented to teachers in the form of a new English K-6 Syllabus.

A key element of an 'outcomes approach' to the curriculum was said to include a new approach to assessment and reporting (Department of School Education (NSW), 1996). The English K-6 Syllabus indicated that assessment should be viewed as:

• an integral and intrinsic part of teaching and learning;

• a process that would inform planning and teaching; and

• a process which should arise from everyday classroom activities (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:262).

Furthermore, it was suggested that assessment processes 'should not be presented in purely comparative and competitive terms' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:262). New approaches to the reporting of student learning, it was advised, should be 'clear, accurate and supportive' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:262).

All schools in New South Wales were directed to implement these new approaches to assessment and reporting thus:

• 'Kindergarten teachers will begin to assess and report in terms of the early learning profiles in Term One5, 1995; and

• All other primary teachers will begin to assess and report in terms of profiles in English K-6 by the end of 1995' (Archival document C7.7).

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5Term One extends from February to March.
The new English K-6 Syllabus also reflected a functional view of language and literacy. This view of language is 'concerned with relationships between context, language structure and meaning' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:2) and provides a description of how language works. Concepts that arise from a functional view of language are described in the new Syllabus in the following way:

- 'Language is a social phenomena. There are three broad overlapping social functions which are identified - to construct views of ourselves and the world; to participate in the world and interact with others and to create and interpret texts.

- Language is a resource for making meaning. The need to make meaning within particular contexts motivates the choices that are made from the language system.

- Language influences, and is influenced by, context. The context of culture and the context of situation influence the creation and interpretation of texts.

Within the context of culture particular beliefs, values, attitudes and ways of thinking about the world motivate choices from the language system.

Within the context of situation the particular field (what is going on in the text), the tenor (the roles and relationships of language users) and the mode (spoken or written), influence choices made from the language system' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1994:4).

After a period of review, the final copy of the new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus was introduced into New South Wales schools in the latter part of 1994.

In summary it was said that 'the outcomes standards approach', in conjunction with a functional view of language as outlined in the English K-6 Syllabus, (would) provide teachers with an effective framework for improving learning outcomes for all students' (Department of School Education (NSW), 1994a:15).
The new Syllabus presented teachers with a number of new concepts. Firstly, the Syllabus was expressed in terms of 'an outcomes standards approach' and this was a new way of expressing student learning.

Secondly, new approaches to the monitoring and reporting of student's language learning were built into the Syllabus. Teachers were required to indicate whether appropriate standards had been achieved.

Thirdly, the Syllabus focused on individualised, student-centred learning and finally, it reflected a change in view of the purpose of language and literacy learning. It presented a 'functional view' of language. A functional view of language places an emphasis on the wide range of purposes and contexts of language in use and the role that language plays in society. This functional approach demanded the teaching of various text types and the use of a functional grammar to describe how language works. The language and use of functional language is complex and significantly different from the purposes and descriptions of traditional grammar (Department of School Education (NSW), 1994b).

In addition to these changes, schools in the South Coast Region of New South Wales were encouraged to consider the new English K-6 Syllabus outcomes within a broader context of 'outcomes-based education'6.

Having released the new English K-6 Syllabus, the Board of Studies developed a number of resources to support its implementation. These included teacher reference books and a number of teaching kits that provided practical teaching ideas. The publications developed included:

- Teaching about Texts
- Dictionary of Classroom Practices
- References for Teachers
- Programming, Planning, Assessing, Reporting and Evaluating
- A Handbook of Grammar
- Recommended Children's Texts
- Teaching Kits (Archival document O.5)

After the release of the Eltis Report and its recommendations for changes to the English K-6 Syllabus, the Board of Studies initiated their own review of schools' education systems.

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6 This proposal of implementing outcomes-based education will be discussed in Play Five.
experiences of using the English K-6 Syllabus (Board of Studies (NSW), 1996:2). The findings of this Review were released in two reports. The first, published in August, 1996, indicated that the main issues that needed to be addressed included:

- the number and nature of outcomes;
- the delineation of content, including such aspects as learning to read and the interrelationships of strands and substrands;
- the scope and sequence of content in stages;
- ways in which the functional approach to language is being understood and used in schools;
- the place and scope of grammar in learning and teaching, along with its associated concepts and terminology;
- the size, organization, layout, design, and language of the Syllabus and support document;
- planning, programming, assessing and reporting;
- support documents for teachers and parents;
- the 'load of newness' in this particular Syllabus' (Board of Studies (NSW), 1996:5-6).

The second part of the Review presented proposals that specified possible solutions to the issues described above. These solutions formed the basis for the revision of the existing English K-6 Syllabus and the publication of a replacement syllabus document (Board of Studies (NSW), 1996:5). It was planned that the Revised Syllabus and Support Documents would be released to schools in March, 1998 (Board of Studies (NSW), 1997).

**Implications of this 'play' for the big picture**
The significance of this play is the power relationships between the state Minister for Education, representing the political perspective (state agendas),
the Board of Studies, a political appointment body taking responsibility for curriculum development and the defunct role of the Department of School Education as the curriculum developers. It becomes plain just how political the development of the English K-6 Syllabus became and this complexity made the whole issue of the implementation of the final new Syllabus for English difficult for teachers.

PLAY FOUR: THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL EDUCATION

Between 1985 and 1989 the Department of School Education had been responsible for the development of school curriculum, specifically the English K-6 Syllabus. The DSE used a collaborative model of curriculum development and intended to launch a new English K-6 Syllabus at the beginning of 1989 but with the development of a new Education Reform Act in 1990, all work on that Syllabus was postponed.

After the Education Reform Act of 1990, the Department of School Education was no longer responsible for the development of curriculum for schools as this responsibility had been taken over by the newly established Board of Studies. The agenda for the Department of School Education was set in place by the state agendas (See Figure 31). From the State Education Reform Act (1990) and documents developed by the Department of School Education ensured the implementation of the state priorities. Not all these Reports or System Planning Documents are directly related to this study but the relationship between the state agendas and the Department of School Education needs to be understood as it provides a context for how the four case study schools in the current study were operating on a day to day basis.

After the release of the Scott Report called Schools Renewal (Scott, 1989), the Department of School Education became involved in the implementation of its recommendations. The Scott Report focused on new ways that the DSE might conduct its business. For some while after the initial release of the Scott Report the system went about implementing the main strategies and recommendations of the Report to ensure that the school, not a central bureaucracy, was the focus
Figure 31: The DSE planning documents (Department of School Education (NSW), 1992:30).
of education services. Up until 1989 the central administrative offices dictated how things were to be conducted in all public schools throughout the state and the schools had almost no responsibility for their own planning or activities to support change.

As a direct result of the recommendations made by Scott, the devolution of funds and responsibility for human resource management was transferred to the schools and regional offices in 1990. This change of control and responsibility is reflected in the changing allocations of funds for human resource management as expressed in the following figure (32).

Figure 32: Allocation of funds for staff training and development (Australian Education Council, 1992:40).

Here we see that in 1988 and 1989 no funds were available directly to schools for training and development, whilst between 1990 and 1993 schools became the main beneficiaries of the funds allocated to training and development. In 1991 twenty percent of central funds was distributed to schools. Distribution of funds in the following year increased dramatically to sixty-one percent to schools, twenty-five percent to regions and fourteen percent to support state wide initiatives. In 1992 the distribution of funds for human resource development again increased and included sixty-five percent of central funds for training and development to schools, twenty-three percent to regions and twelve percent for state initiatives.
The significance of this for the current study is that it indicates that schools from 1991 would need to become more responsible for their own professional development and staff development needs.

After the initial implementation of Scott's recommendations, priorities of the DSE were to improve curriculum implementation and the educational outcomes of students in various key learning areas, student assessment and basic skills testing. These responded directly to the state agendas and reports that recommended sweeping reform agendas for New South Wales schools as indicated in Figure 31.

In January, 1992, Boston, the Director General of Education, presented schools with a document called 'Education 2000' which, it was anticipated, would 'improve the educational outcomes of students and meet the social, cultural and economic needs of New South Wales and the nation' (Department of School Education (NSW), 1992:2).

Figure 33: An historical overview of the DSE's role in the support of the English K-6 Syllabus
This document presented a long-term vision and a framework for strategic and management planning in the DSE.

It noted that the vision could only be achieved by developing a partnership of students, staff, parents, other educational and community agencies, government, industry and the general community. This document set in place:

- the publication of an annual set of priorities;
- advice on how schools should be managed;
- advice to primary schools on curriculum implementation requirements.

These initiatives were part of a declaration of corporate purpose and goals. All advice was described in terms of outcomes for the year 2000.

In 1993 schools were encouraged to become familiar with and start trialing the National Profiles. As a result of teachers' experiences at the kindergarten level, it was decided that more levels were needed to describe early language learning.

In consequence, the Department of School Education began to develop the Early Learning Profiles. This involved the identification of two additional levels of learning called Foundation and Transition that would come before level one of the English K-6 Syllabus.

Besides the Early Learning Profiles, the Department developed what were called the ESL Scales which were intended to include language learning outcomes more typical of second language learners (Archival Documents O.5). The ESL Scales served as an adjunct to the profiles and outcomes of the English K-6 Syllabus. They were not announced in any of the early documentation supporting the implementation of English K-6 Syllabus.

Both the Department of School Education and the Board of Studies were responsible for the development of initiatives designed to help schools implement the new English K-6 Syllabus in New South Wales.
Funds for this support came from two different sources; the federal government, through funds available from the National Professional Development Program (NPDP), and the state government. The main source of funds came from the NPDP. A consortium was formed in New South Wales to decide how these funds should be spent. Members of the consortium included the Department of School Education, the Catholic Education Commission\(^7\) (CEC), the Association of Independent Schools\(^8\) (AIS) and various parent bodies and Union representatives. It was decided that thirty percent of the NPDP funds were to be used at a central level to develop a series of training and development packages to support the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus. The remaining seventy percent of the funds was to be distributed to the major education agencies that made up the consortium to help school regions and individual schools to design their own support services or to administer the packages developed through NPDP funds.

Figure 34 shows the extent of the support that was developed for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus in the Public Schools of New South Wales. This support included training and development packages for teachers, and materials that focused on practical aspects of implementation. It was intended that a two hour workshop on the English K-6 Syllabus should be developed by a group of parents for parents. This package, although advertised (NSW NPDP Consortium Poster, 1995), did not appear at the school level.

Another course developed for teachers to introduce them to the concept of profiles and outcomes called 'An Introduction to Profiles', developed by the DSE, is not shown here. This serves to demonstrate the unreliability of many of the documents distributed to schools with reference to the availability of support materials or in-service programs. Of all the documents and posters developed to announce to teachers the extent of the support for the new syllabus, none appeared to provide all details, or completely accurate details of what was to happen. There seemed to be no consistent agreement between the various announcements. Hence there were inconsistencies between advertised intentions and what actually happened. Furthermore, the names of initiatives in

\(^7\)The Catholic Education Commission represents the systemic Catholic schools throughout New South Wales. Some Catholic schools are classed as independent schools as they are administered by specific groups eg. The Marist Brothers.

\(^8\)The Association of Independent Schools in New South Wales represents the interests of all independent (private) schools throughout the State.
reality often differed from their advertised titles. This caused considerable confusion amongst teachers. The following figure (34) describes, with the exception of the supplementary courses, the initiatives that 'actually happened'.

Figure 34: Support for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus (Department of School Education (NSW), 1994a:12).

- **An Introduction to Profiles**
  A training package was developed by the DSE to introduce teachers to the concept of a 'standards framework', and 'an outcomes and profiles
approach'. The program consisted of two modules called 'Profiles in Focus' which was designed for principals and 'Profiles in the Classroom' designed to be delivered to teaching staff by the school principal.

- **The English K-6 Basic Course: An Introduction**
  This course provided an introduction to the new English K-6 Syllabus and to the implementation of an outcomes and profiles approach. Attendance at this course was compulsory for all teachers. The course consisted of three parts as follows:

  Introducing English K-6 (One hour)
  Understanding English K-6 (Two hours)
  Implementing English K-6 (Two hours)

  These courses were mostly presented to teachers during 1994 and during school time at a series of school staff meetings or at a staff development day (Field notes A12, B4, C6 and D4). These courses were conducted by trained facilitators.

- **The English K-6 Major Course**
  This major initiative consisted of a multiphase course of eight 'stand alone' modules that could be delivered as a whole or as individual modules. It was to be the main training and development package that was developed by members of the Consortium and financed by NPDP funds. Attendance of this course was optional. The modules covered the following topic areas:

  Talking and Listening
  Reading and Writing
  Reading Strategies
  A Functional View of Language
  Grammar and English
  Helping Students with Early Literacy Difficulties
  Programming and Planning
  Assessing and Reporting (Archival document B1.2)
The Facilitators Training Program
This program was designed to train facilitators in the content of the new English K-6 Syllabus and to prepare them to conduct the English K-6 Basic and Major Course on the new syllabus in their own schools and schools in their school district. Teachers who could be identified as having a special interest, knowledge and skill in the teaching of literacy and language learning were invited by the Regional Office of the DSE to take part in the Facilitators Training Program. The training programme lasted for a week and involved taking participants through each of the modules of the English K-6 Major Course. This amounted to about three hours on each module (Researcher's Personal Journal, July, 1995). Besides becoming familiar with the English K-6 Major Course, facilitators were provided with two hours of information on how to be a 'good presenter' and about the change process. (Interview A4: 24-39 and Researcher's Personal Journal, July, 1995).

Each of the four case study schools in this study had a trained English K-6 facilitator on staff.

A range of other topic specific supplementary courses were designed to act as extension courses to the Major Course. Documented information on these courses was again varied and therefore unreliable. Records from the Regional DSE office indicated that there had been no demand for these courses (Interview R3).

A variety of teaching materials
Besides the many training programs, a number of teaching resources were published and circulated to all schools to support implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus. These resources were intended to provide teachers with supplementary information to the courses they had attended or to provide demonstrations of 'theory into practice'. Developed by both the Department of School Education and the Board of Studies, they included

- An Early Learning Profiles Workbook
- Units to Support Early Learning Profiles
- Using the ESL Scales
Furthermore, the DSE/BOS produced and circulated resources that would provide teachers with practical ideas for the classroom including:

- Preliminary Ideas for Assessing and Reporting (Vol.1 and Vol.2)
- Teaching Units: Units of Work (30)
- Outcomes in Practice
- Outcomes in Action
- Choosing Literacy Strategies that Work (Vol.1 and Vol.2)

A special 'Pamphlets for Parents' was published by the DSE to support schools' work with their community. Further to this initiative, a training module for parents called 'Introducing English K-6 to Parents and the Community' was also developed (NPDP funding).

Finally, materials were also developed to support the Early Learning Profiles included a video and a training package (DSE funding).

In order to guarantee that both the Department of School Education and the teachers would fulfil their respective responsibilities related to the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus, an enterprise bargaining agreement was negotiated with the New South Wales Teachers' Federation, as part of an application for a pay increase. A joint memorandum stating the agreement boundaries was distributed to all primary schools. This agreement stipulated that all teachers would be committed to the full implementation of English K-6 during 1994-5 which included programming around outcomes as well as assessing student learning and reporting this learning to parents in terms of outcomes. The DSE for its part, was committed to providing a program of training and development and support materials that would assist teachers to implement the new syllabus. The Teachers' Federation also agreed that teachers would attend the English K-6 Basic Course in their own time. The pay increase was justified in terms of teachers' guarantee of higher productivity.

It was at the beginning of 1994, and the new school year, when facilitator training courses began around the state. As schools went about attending the compulsory and optional courses, speaking to their school communities about

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9 Enterprise bargaining refers to negotiations that take place between an employer and employees, or union representatives in their place. Negotiations of this kind focus on workplace conditions, salary/wages or other terms of employment.
changes in the English Syllabus and taking steps to change their assessment and reporting practices (which they were obliged to do before the end of 1995), the media reported of a general unrest both within schools and the community. The media, particularly in talk-back radio shows, indicated that school communities were becoming anxious about the new syllabus and in particular, that traditional grammar was being replaced by functional grammar, something about which they had no understanding. At this time of general concern and anxiety both within schools and their communities, New South Wales had a state election and the party that had prompted the educational changes was replaced by a new party.

The new Minister for Education called an immediate halt to both the training and development courses and the implementation of the English Syllabus so that a committee could be formed to review the syllabus' content, the inclusion of functional grammar, the implementation process and the mandatory new approaches to assessment and reporting.

**Implications of this 'play' for the big picture**

The Board of Studies was concerned with the development of the English K-6 Syllabus whilst the Department of School Education was responsible for supporting schools with the implementation of the new Syllabus. With large sums of federal funds being made available for training and development (NPDP), the Department of School Education was quick to regain control of both the money and the planning of training and development packages for teachers. Hence there was a return to a top-down process of power and control of teacher learning. This resulted in a pyramid model of professional development, a 'we know what's good for you' approach. Most of the federal funds were spent on a facilitators' training program where selected facilitators were trained in what to say and how to say it. No deviation from the script was permitted. This had the effect of disempowering both the facilitators and the teachers. There was very little money left for schools to use to support their own professional development needs.
At the time of this study the state of New South Wales was divided into a number of educational regions. The South Coast Region, in which the four case study schools were situated, lies just south of Sydney. The purpose of the South Coast Regional Education Office, like all other Regional offices around New South Wales, was to support schools in their region and to develop such initiatives that would assist schools to carry out the mandatory state and Departmental directives (Interview R3).

Individual regions around the state embraced the concept of 'an outcomes and profile approach', as presented in the English K-6 Syllabus, in different ways and attempted to assist their constituencies to understand the implications of an outcome and profile approach on planning, learning, teaching, assessing and reporting.

In the South Coast Region, however, there was a recognition that a greater emphasis on student outcomes needed to be set within the broader context of school restructuring and enhanced opportunities for learning. One of the initiatives taken by this Region, unlike any other region in the State, was the introduction of the concept of 'outcomes-based education' (OBE), sometimes referred to as 'outcomes driven education' (Cowling, 1993). This concept should not be confused with Syllabus outcomes.

The concept of 'outcomes-based education' (OBE) was first conceived in the United States of America. The Regional Director for Teaching and Learning described OBE as an approach to education that was based on a set of theoretical beliefs about learning as follows:

- there should be 'a clear focus on the culminating or exit outcomes which we believe all students should be able to demonstrate' at the end of their schooling;

- 'all students can learn and succeed and schools have the responsibility to create the conditions and the capacity to enable this to occur'........;
• 'schools and individual teachers, must hold and promote high expectations for all of their students';

• 'exit outcomes which are formulated should be future-oriented (what do we want students to know, to be able to do, and to be like when they leave school), and the way that students demonstrate their achievement of them should relate as far as possible to real life situations';

• 'for each exit outcome there should be a set of standards or criteria appropriate to different stages of learning by which students achievement of the outcomes can be measured;

• 'schools and teachers should design down (or back) from the exit outcomes they wish to achieve. The exit outcomes are thus the starting point for planning, ...... programming, ....... teaching, .... and assessment' (Cowling, 1993:2).

1993: A task force was set up to monitor schools' staff understanding of what the term outcomes meant.

Sept. Dr Mamary from Johnson City, New York, introduced 150 educators on the South Coast to outcomes-driven education.

Oct: Director of Teaching & Learning in Region was granted a senior executive scholarship from the Dept. and travelled to USA to investigate the implementation of an outcomes-driven education.

1994: Rewrote many of the Major course modules.

1995: June: Dr Allan Rowe from Iowa, USA, followed up on what Mamary had said but focused more specifically on teaching/learning and assessment.

The Director believed that outcomes-driven education had as its focus 'learning' rather than teaching (Cowling, 1993:2). He believed that if schools adopted an outcomes-driven education, then it would be necessary for the schools to begin the process of aligning all that was done in the school to student learning and the exit outcomes (Interview R1).

In 1993 the Regional Director of Teaching and Learning won a scholarship to visit North America to investigate the way in

Figure 35: Key events that preceded the publication and distribution of the English K-6 Syllabus in the South Coast Region schools
which schools, school districts and school systems in seven states were implementing an outcomes-based approach to education. His investigations of how 'outcome-based education' had been implemented confirmed his belief of its value as a means of initiating change in schools (Interview R1). Further it convinced him that:

- 'unless a school and its community has a clear idea of what it wants all its students to know, to be able to do and be like by the time they leave school, all of our busyness will come to nothing'.

- 'Because outcomes are derived from beliefs about the purpose of schooling, the nature of learning and perceptions about the future, they cannot be imposed or mandated. Their adoption must be voluntary and wholehearted'.

- The outcomes which we determine all of our students should achieve, must affect everything we do as a school, as a region and as a system' (Cowling, 1993:3).

Whilst the Director of Teaching and Learning was under no illusions about the magnitude of this last statement, he indicated that he felt that anything less would 'guarantee that outcomes end up on the same scrap heap as thousands of other good educational ideas' (Cowling, 1994:3).

After the Director returned to Australia, whilst he did not have the power to mandate the adoption of OBE in the South Coast Region, he set up a Task Force to carry out some research on OBE. This lasted through to 1994. He also wanted to find out 'what principals and other executives in a range of schools understood by the term 'outcomes' and how they thought a stronger focus on outcomes might change what they did' (Cowling, 1994:1).

By this time schools had been introduced to the National Statements and Profiles and had also undergone in-service training programs to raise their awareness and understanding about the nature of learning outcomes as expressed in the National Profiles.
The research undertaken by the South Coast Regional Task Force indicated that principals and other staff were most confused about outcomes (Cowling, 1994). Many educators indicated that they regarded outcomes to be no more than a synonym for objectives. This was not surprising as the Board of Studies, in one of their early drafts of the English K-6 Syllabus, did little more than change a few words to the pre-existing objectives. Other educators associated outcomes with quantifiable data (Cowling, 1994). The Task Force discovered that outcomes, for most principals and teachers, bore no relationship to teaching, student learning, the way schools were organized or how staff learning might be organized (Cowling, 1994:2). Because of this uncertainty, a series of think-tanks, seminars and workshops were organized for principals and other appointed school officers to help them, if they chose, to begin the process of developing an outcome-based approach in their schools (Interview R1).

The Director was keen that the syllabus outcomes of the new state mandatory syllabus documents fitted into an already existing theoretical and practical framework in schools (Interview R1). The Director saw an 'outcome-based approach' as being a different approach to teaching and learning, one that presented a different paradigm, one that was 'more attuned to the reality of today's and tomorrow's world. The knowledge, skills and qualities which our students will need when they enter such a world demand that we reshape our practices, our structures and our ways of doing business' (Cowling, 1994:6).

As a consequence of this Director's personal vision of educational reform, the concept of an outcome-based approach and its relationship to syllabus outcomes was introduced into schools in the South Coast region in two ways: Firstly, through a series of seminars and courses for school personnel to examine the concept of 'outcome-based education' and how schools might negotiate their own set of school exit outcomes with their communities (Archival document A5.2); and secondly, through the implementation of syllabus outcomes, initially using the new English K-6 Syllabus and then later with subsequent syllabus documents that would be expressed as outcomes for other Key Learning Areas (Archival document O. 6).
CONCLUSION

The initial three questions that formed the framework of the current study included the following:

- What is the nature of current educational change proposals?
- Is there a relationship between current socio-political change and educational change agendas?
- What kinds of initiatives were being taken at different levels of the system to support the implementation of curriculum change?

In response to these questions this description of the context of the study explains the origins and complexity of the current educational reform agendas. In turn, each of the five plays has described aspects of current educational change proposals and their relationship to the larger picture of sociopolitical change. The plot of each play builds upon the plot of the preceding play. This is shown in Figure 36. As can be seen, the national agendas seem to have shaped the N.S.W. state agendas. Furthermore, the state agendas were responsible for the directives and proposals for educational change that were later implemented by the Board of Studies and the Department of School Education which in turn became mandated change agendas for schools.

The next chapter focuses on school responses to the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus and the many initiatives that were developed to support this implementation process.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National</th>
<th>State: NSW</th>
<th>BOS</th>
<th>DSE</th>
<th>South Coast Reg.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'89 Hobart Declaration (State Ministers of Education)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Implementation of Scott report particularly devolution initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'90 AEC approval to start work on a national curriculum framework. (Statements &amp; Profiles for each of eight areas).</td>
<td>Education Reform Act</td>
<td>Board of Studies set up as a statutory body to develop school curriculum K-12.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'91 Launch of National Project on the Quality of Teaching and Learning. CURRASS directed to set up and manage Statements &amp; Profiles.</td>
<td>Developed learning outcome statements for English K-6.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Priorities to improve curriculum implementation, educational outcomes for students and assessment of learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'92 Carmichael Report The Key Competencies (Mayer) Report</td>
<td>Focus on Ten Common Agreed goals for Schools arising from Hobart Declaration</td>
<td>Draft English K-6 Syllabus distributed to schools for review and comment</td>
<td>DG announced that 'student outcomes would be one of five major priorities for 1993.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'93 National Statements and Profiles presented to AEC. NPDP established. AEC resolved to continue work on Nat. curriculum</td>
<td>Minister instructed BOS to incorporate National Profiles into new NSW syllabuses including English K-6.</td>
<td>Minister of Education approved final copy of English K-6 Syllabus.</td>
<td>Development and trialing of Early Learning Profiles.</td>
<td>Task force set up to monitor schools' staff understanding of what the term outcomes meant. Director of Teaching &amp; Learning visits USA to investigate OBE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'94 National Statements &amp; Profiles were published and distributed to schools</td>
<td>Minister of Education approved release of new English K-6 Syllabus.</td>
<td>Final copy of English K-6 Syllabus distributed to schools.</td>
<td>Emphasis on Quality Teaching and Quality Learning, reporting to parents on students learning. Development of training packages to support Syllabus.</td>
<td>Rewrote many of the Major Course Modules to reflect better principles of learning. Visitor: Allan Rowe from USA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'95</td>
<td></td>
<td>Minister for Ed. announced pause in implementation of Eng. K-6 Syllabus. Review committee established Eltis Report released</td>
<td>BOS established the English K-6 Syllabus Review Committee.</td>
<td>All teacher directed to assess students' learning in terms of outcomes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 36: Overview of context of this study
CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

'The thing finally written on paper ... is a collaborative document; a mutually constructed story created out of the lives of both the researcher and participants' (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990:12).

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes an analysis of data gathered from four primary schools over a period of fourteen months during their implementation of the mandatory English K-6 Syllabus in New South Wales.

In analysing the data a distinction has been drawn between 'context' and 'setting'. 'Context' refers to the surrounding political, social and educational environment, the external factors that have an impact on the case study schools. This socio-political context has been described in the Introduction and later extended in Chapter Four. In this chapter, however, the focus of the results is the 'setting', that is, the internal school factors that describe the workplace.

The data has provided details concerning the nature of the mandated change, how the four case study schools coped with this change and the processes they developed to support the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. The analysis of the data responds directly to the major research question which seeks to better understand the nature of the relationship between mandated change, professional development and school growth.

Each of these topics, mandated change, professional development and school growth, along with the relationships that existed between them, were explored through a set of questions. The first question represents the major research question.

• What is the nature of the relationship between mandated change, professional development and school growth?
The second question reflects the time frame and focus through which the first might be answered. From this question three more specific questions emerged that focus more specifically on mandated change, professional development and school growth

- **How are schools responding to mandated change, specifically the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus?**

  How are schools currently 'doing business'?
  How could change as an integral part of the workplace be planned for and supported?
  What are the schools' perceptions of the nature of professional development.

Towards the end of the study, in an attempt to bring things together, the principals were asked to respond to this final question as follows:

- **What are the benchmarks of mandated change and school growth?**

Exploration of the second question revealed the interrelatedness of the questions that followed. As the data from these questions were reduced and reorganized using the analytic procedures described in the methodology chapter, four themes emerged which have been used as organizers for describing and interpreting the results as follows:

**Theme One:**

*Schools' responses to the new English K-6 Syllabus* and the initiatives that are taken to support the implementation process of this Syllabus.

The next two themes emerged as the main factors that seemed to influence a school's capacity to grow and change. These included:

**Theme Two:**

*School organization*: the ways that the schools support and maintain mandated change through the development of activities and processes;

**Theme Three:**

*School culture*: 'how' the schools go about their daily business.
Theme Four:

Principals' responses to the final research question are presented as the fourth theme. This theme presents the personal perceptions, or benchmarks, of each of the three principals, of the essential characteristics of school growth.

These four themes form the organization of this chapter as shown in Figure 37. It should be noted, however, that the starting point of the study was to discover how the schools were responding to the English K-6 Syllabus. From these discussions each of the other three themes emerged. In talking about how they were going about the implementation process, the schools talked of the importance of the school as an organization or community and its culture. The benchmarks of school growth and change then became the culmination of all these discussions. In this way it became apparent that each of these themes was embedded in the other.
The results of the data analysis present a 'narrative inquiry' (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990), that is, a number of stories that tell of the ways that a group of principals, teachers, and school communities experienced the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. It presents a complex plot with many players. To assist the reader with the 'players', a 'Dramatis Personae' is presented (Figure 38). It is intended that this will facilitate the reader's journey.

### Dramatis Personae

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School A</th>
<th>School B</th>
<th>School C</th>
<th>School D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>David, the principal</td>
<td>Alan, the principal</td>
<td>Jan, the principal</td>
<td>John, the principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glen, the deputy principal. Resource person for outcomes-based education</td>
<td>Sally, a senior teacher, chairperson of the English K-6 syllabus committee and the English K-6 facilitator.</td>
<td>Petra, a senior teacher and the English K-6 facilitator</td>
<td>Dean, the deputy principal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wendy, a senior teacher, on the school executive, chairperson of the English K-6 syllabus committee and the English K-6 facilitator.</td>
<td>Mary, a senior teacher currently involved in a collaborative reflection in practice project.</td>
<td>Jane, a senior teacher.</td>
<td>Judy, a senior teacher and area facilitator for English K-6 syllabus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libby, a senior teacher and chairperson of the assessment and evaluation committee.</td>
<td>Lucy, a senior teacher.</td>
<td>Cate, an ESL teacher.</td>
<td>Kay, senior teacher and member of the school English K-6 committee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sue, a member of the school executive</td>
<td>Parent from the School Community</td>
<td>Rachel, a first year teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarah, a senior teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jenny, a senior teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nan, a senior teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent members from the School Council</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Regional Personnel

- Director of Teaching and Learning
  - Helen, language advisor
- Caitlin, a senior education officer responsible for the development of training and development initiatives

Figure 38: Dramatis Personae
In this first part of the results I intend to describe the schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus and its implementation.

The responses of all the participants from the case study schools, were classified into four categories as follows:

- outcomes-driven education and its perceived relationship to the English K-6 Syllabus;
- the English K-6 Syllabus;
- the training and development courses and other initiatives that were developed to support the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus; and
the new mandatory approaches to assessment and reporting of students' literacy and language learning.

The following figure (40) provides an overview of theme one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S C H O O L S' R E S P O N S E S TO E N G L I S H S Y L L A B U S</td>
<td>Category 1: Schools' responses to outcomes-based education (ODE) and their perceptions of the relationship between ODE and the English K-6 Syllabus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Category 2: Schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus</td>
<td>Schools' responses to the implementation process Schools' responses to programming and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Category 3: Schools' responses to the Training and Development Program and other curriculum support material</td>
<td>Courses: Other short courses Curriculum support materials for the English K-6 Syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Category 4: Schools' responses to the new mandatory approaches to assessment and reporting on students' literacy and language learning</td>
<td>School A School B School C School D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 40: Structured overview of theme one

Whilst each of the first three categories provide insights into the schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus and initiatives developed to support its implementation, the fourth theme provides concrete examples of how each school engaged in the process of change.
Unpacking the responses from each of the four schools indicated that their perceptions of the relationship between the implementation of outcomes-driven education and the introduction of the English K-6 Syllabus were highly integrated and generally highlighted the following:

- the need for a theoretical framework into which the English K-6 Syllabus could fit;
- descriptions of the process of adopting ODE and some of the confusions that emerged;
- the perceived relationship between ODE and the English K-6 Syllabus;
- the importance of alignment within the school.

As reported in chapter four, the 'Context of Change', schools on the South Coast of New South Wales had been encouraged by their Director of Teaching and Learning to consider and adopt an 'outcomes-driven' approach to education. The Director indicated that he considered that adopting ODE was a way that schools might change their focus away from teaching to learning. He also felt that such an adoption would provide a theoretical framework into which the 'outcomes standard framework' of the English K-6 Syllabus, might comfortably fit (Interview R1).

The Regional Director for Teaching and Learning described ODE as an approach to education that was based on a set of theoretical beliefs about learning. These included the belief that 'all students could learn and succeed, that success bred success and that schools controlled the conditions of success' (Interview R1).

A series of seminars, courses and think-tanks were organized by the Regional Office for principals and then later another series of seminars were developed for members of the school executive. All of the principals from the case study schools in this study attended the introductory seminars on ODE. Two of the principals had also heard American experts and advisers, especially brought to

Chapter 5: Results - Theme One
Australia in 1993, talk about ways to introduce and develop the concept of ODE (Researcher’s Journal. August, 1994).

At the time of this study, involvement with ODE was well established by School A. David, the principal, explained that an outcomes-driven approach\(^\text{10}\) was not new at his school. He pointed out that his school curriculum and approaches to assessment and evaluation had been outcomes-driven for some time and that parents had been involved, from the start, with the identification of exit outcomes (Interview A3: 4-11). Further he emphasised that, 'You can't separate exit outcomes from anything else because its integral with all that you're doing' (Interview A5: 3).

Libby, a senior teacher from the same school, suggested that their familiarity with an outcomes-driven education was the reason that the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus had not been too 'traumatic'. As a school, she indicated, they had been coming to terms with outcomes-driven education for about four years and had solved many of the initial problems related to the change (Interview A14.3). Because of this familiarity, Libby suggested that the teachers at her school had been able to focus specifically on learning and to slot the Syllabus and its 'outcomes standard framework' into what they were already doing within the school, rather than have the Syllabus dictate a new agenda for action (Interview A14: 39-41).

A move towards ODE was also adopted, in principle, by Schools B and C, however, each of these schools worked towards its adoption at a different pace and in different ways. In 1994, a group of staff from School B got together to explore the concept of ODE with a view of implementing the English K-6 Syllabus first and then developing ODE to provide a theoretical framework into which the outcomes and profile framework of the Syllabus might fit. However, School C was less interested in ODE and proceeded simply with the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. When the Syllabus was implemented along with their new policy for assessment and reporting, the principal indicated that as a school they would look at the possibility of implementing ODE. This approach was considered by both Alan from School B and Petra from School C as 'working from the bottom-up' (Interviews B6 and C5: 163).

\(^{10}\) Outcomes-driven education rather than outcomes based education was the preferred term used by all four principals.
The principal of School D, however, felt that adopting ODE presented an unnecessary additional burden for the staff who were already becoming stressed by an overloaded agenda for change.

A number of confusions related to both ODE and the English K-6 Syllabus were noted from staff of Schools A, B and C. Petra from School C added that she felt teachers had been confronted with too many new concepts all at one time (Interview C2: 121-123), whilst both Wendy and Sally from Schools A and B respectively, felt that the terminology that surrounded both ODE and the English K-6 Syllabus had been confusing. In particular, they cited the terms 'exit outcomes' that referred to what the students should know and be able to do by the time they left Primary School, and 'syllabus outcomes' that referred to learning outcomes along a learning continuum within a specific content area (Interviews B5: 80-88, B14: 32, A14.4: 105-106 and the Researcher's Journal, August, 1994). This confusion was also confirmed in a report developed by a Task Force appointed by the Regional Director of Teaching and Learning to investigate school responses to ODE.

However, both Sarah and Wendy from School A, commented on the need to learn the new language of an outcomes-driven education. Sarah argued that learning the new language was an essential part of the change process. An understanding of the new language, she said, allowed teachers to talk about new concepts and ideas (Interview A14.4:105-106).

There were other confusions too about some of the concepts related to ODE. If ODE was concerned with 'success', teachers from School A asked, what constituted 'success'? David, the principal of School A, after hearing Al Mammary, a visiting American expert talk about ODE, constructed a diagram (See Figure 41) as a way of describing to his staff what was meant by 'success'.

Chapter 5: Results - Theme One
In his diagram, 'success', David argued, referred to 'clear demonstrations of quality learning'. David indicated that students needed 'the ability to say or do
on command' (knowledge), 'the ability to advance (their) knowledge through thoughtful action' (understanding) and 'the ability to acceptably perform in life context per criteria' (life role use). These demonstrations could be of low or high quality, he suggested, and a quality performance was about 'achieving predetermined criteria with a continuously improving mindset (Archival document A4.2).

The concept of alignment seemed another important aspect for schools. Alan, the principal of School B, felt that the main attraction of an outcomes-driven education was that it forced schools to align all that they did in the school to learning as well as helping students achieve the exit outcomes. The importance of alignment was also highlighted by Petra, the English K-6 Facilitator11 from School C. She described the importance of alignment thus:

'If you have some outcomes for your school then everything that you do right down to your playground duty and the way you organize your assemblies and even down to those very superficial things, should all relate back to those exit outcomes that you're trying to achieve in your school. That is the essence of it' (an outcomes-driven education) (Interview C5: 159).

Glen, the deputy principal of School A, felt that issues of alignment between the various elements, such as, curriculum policy, teaching practices, the School Management Plan, the work of the school committees and new policy for assessment and reporting, constituted the main challenge for schools. He felt that two kinds of alignment were required; a theoretical alignment between what was believed and what was practised within the school, and the alignment of an outcomes standard curriculum with the School Management Plan and its organization and implementation (Interview A8: 73).

As schools developed their understandings about these relationships, three of the four case study schools indicated that they saw the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus as an integral part of a bigger picture concerned with 'exit outcomes and outcomes-driven education. The English K-6 Facilitators from Schools A and B felt that if the English K-6 Syllabus was to be successfully implemented into schools then there was a need for teachers to understand the 'big picture', in this case, 'an outcome-driven approach' to education (Interview

11 An English K-6 Facilitator refers to a teacher who was invited to attend the Facilitators Training Program, a program designed to train teachers to conduct the Major English K-6 Course developed to inform teachers about the new English K-6 Syllabus.
A8 and B6). They also indicated that where exit outcomes had been developed by the staff and their school community, teachers seemed to have a better understanding of the relationship between school exit outcomes and the outcomes identified by the English K-6 Syllabus (Interviews A2, B8 and C9). Glen, the Deputy Principal from School A, reported that:

'Staff are becoming more aware of (learning) profiles. Rather than have something given to them they've developed it themselves and they have an affinity with the profiles which they can apply through the children to the report card and it became much more purposeful and meaningful' (Interview A8).

This comment seemed to support the idea that where teachers had become involved in the development of their own school exit outcomes, then they were more inclined to understand the purpose and intent of the 'outcomes standard framework' presented in the English K-6 Syllabus.

With reference to assessment and its relationship to an outcomes-driven education, Glen warned of the potential risks of becoming too involved with the 'immeasurable' aspects of the learning process and the ways in which schools might identify whether an outcome had, or had not, been achieved. He said,

'You have to make sure that everything that happens from the time that child starts learning if you like, is effective, is accountable as far as the learning process (is concerned) and there's always a problem with something like that. Sometimes the process may get lost, the quality of the process. We have to be very careful, because it's something that's immeasurable that we don't eventually get to a stage where we have to measure all the time, or have a measuring device all the time .... In actually saying that children have achieved certain outcomes, I'm concerned that teachers may feel that they have to have some sort of measuring devices which, the problem with the test is where you tend to teach to the test and you might be trying to achieve outcomes without going through all the necessary processes. We have to ensure that children develop lifelong learning capacities ..... and that it's an enduring sort of learning situation and not just a checklist that you've reached this stage now and then move on' (Interview A8: 63-70).
Category 2: Schools' Responses to the English K-6 Syllabus

Participants' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus presented a mixture of both negative and positive comments. They provided a range of general responses as well as more specific responses concerning the implementation process of the Syllabus and about programming for the learning outcomes expressed in the Syllabus.

Schools' general responses to the English K-6 Syllabus

Starting with the negative responses to the Syllabus, participants focused their comments on:

- the time allocated to the implementation of the Syllabus;
- the developmental time line of the Syllabus and its administration;
- the theoretical and political infighting that had surrounded the development of the Syllabus;
- the perceived lack of a theoretical explanation and framework of learning to underpin the English K-6 Syllabus;
- the generalised nature of the stated learning outcomes;
- the confusions created by the new language that surrounded the Syllabus and the National Statement and Profile for English; and finally
- the jargon that surrounded functional grammar.

The National Statement and Profile for English was made available to schools early in 1994, so by the time the final copy of the NSW English K-6 Syllabus was distributed to schools in the latter part of 1994, schools were already becoming familiar with the notion of 'outcomes' as descriptors of literacy and language learning.

The schedule for the implementation of the Syllabus was considered by all participants to be far too rushed. Letters from the Director General of the Department of School Education to schools indicated the following schedule:
The English K-6 Syllabus was distributed to schools in late 1994.

Teachers were advised to begin programming with outcomes in 1995;

Kindergarten teachers were directed to assess and report in terms of the Early Learning Profiles in term one, 1995.

All other teachers were advised to assess and report in terms of profiles in English K-6 by the end of 1995. (Archival document C7.7).

Petra noted that teachers, particularly those in the lower grades, with whom she had been working, considered that this schedule was far too hasty. For kindergarten and year one teachers this schedule only gave them six months to come to grips with the Syllabus and programming with outcomes before new practices in assessment and reporting needed to be implemented (Interview C2: 134-136).

 Whilst comments on the Syllabus from teachers in the case study schools were mostly positive, the English K-6 Facilitators indicated that this positive response was not common across all schools in their area. Petra, the English K-6 Facilitator from School C, had been conducting the English K-6 Basic Course, (one of the training courses that had been specially designed to support the implementation of the Syllabus) with a number of schools in her area. As she went from school to school Petra noticed a certain cynicism, hostility and fear about the English K-6 Syllabus (Interview C10: 27-38). She reported that teachers, like the general community, seemed suspicious about change and uncertain about the value of functional grammar (Archival documents O.4).

Many teachers, Petra reported, saw the Syllabus and its 'outcome approach' as a 'political vote catcher' and as a 'back to basics' exercise (Interview C10: 32-38). They also were reported to have mentioned:

- the length of time it had taken to produce the English K-6 Syllabus and the number of drafts of the Syllabus that schools had received for trialing and response since 1988 (a total of four drafts) (Interview C9: 176-181);
- the political fighting over the philosophical underpinnings of the Syllabus; and
the changes in theoretical direction of language during the past few years.

Participants indicated that the feedback they had offered on all previous 'drafts' of the Syllabus seemed, in their opinion, to have had no impact on the final copy (Interviews D6, B8, A7 and C9). Jane from School C said that this made her feel a 'lack of professional worth' (Interview C9). Teachers from the other three case study schools indicated that they felt that politicians were too much in control of current educational agendas. They also indicated that they felt that by mandating change, the DSE would always be able to maintain control over schools (Interviews B8, C5, D7 and A2). Sally from School B stated that this was a way of devaluing teachers' professional knowledge (Interview B8).

Reflecting on the political uncertainty and theoretical differences of opinion about the model of language that should be used to underpin the Syllabus, Petra stated:

'We've waited so long for this document .... I mean we can understand the reasons why and we understand how important the debating was and how important all those 'round tables'\(^\text{12}\) were but the average teacher in the classroom really doesn't have time to get into all that and shouldn't be expected to .....All the politicising (sic) is another stumbling block to change I think' (Interview C10 : 39-43).

The principals of Schools B and D elaborated on the issue of the theoretical underpinnings of the Syllabus. Alan, the principal of School B, felt that the Syllabus presented teachers with a theory of language but not a theory of learning. He suggested that without a theory of learning a syllabus that was based on an outcomes approach would be difficult to implement (Interview B1: 72). John, the principal of School D, was more concerned that the Syllabus provided no theoretical explanation or justification for using a 'functional model of language' (Interview D7: 94).

Principals from three of the case study schools, David, Alan and John, considered that a lack of a theoretical framework was one of the Syllabus' major weaknesses. They felt that their teachers had little understanding of the 'big picture', referring to socio-political change, nor where an outcomes

\(^{12}\) The 'round table conferences', organised by the DSE, involved a series of discussions between academics and other interested parties and were designed to argue the case for the theoretical underpinning of the new syllabus as it related to language learning.
approach had come from (Interviews A3, B6 and D6). John noted that teachers had been left to work out the connections and relationships on their own (Interview D6). In light of these concerns and the decision by the state government that all syllabus' would be expressed in terms of outcomes, adoption of ODE, the principals felt, seemed like an educationally sound proposal as it would provide the theoretical framework that the English K-6 Syllabus lacked (Interviews A3, B6 and D6).

As all new syllabus documents for each of the Key Learning Areas (KLA's) were to be presented in terms of outcomes, teachers from the case study schools indicated a concern about having to 'come to grips' with too many outcomes within a short space of time. But whilst these teachers seemed overwhelmed they also indicated how comforted they were that there would now be some commonality between schools in New South Wales about what was to be taught and learned.

'I love it because you know that whatever school you go to, it will have the same aims and outcomes for everyone' (Interview C3: 86).

David, the principal from School A, argued that the outcomes provided in the English K-6 Syllabus were extremely nebulous and therefore it was difficult to tell whether they had been achieved. David felt that there was 'nothing concrete' about the outcomes and that they were 'too generalised' (Interview A2: 11). At School A they had been working for many years on developing their own curriculum (Interview A1). David felt that because his school had a detailed idea of what they were doing, they were in a better position to look at the Syllabus outcomes and match them with pre-existing ones that they had developed themselves. This he thought would help to 'firm up' the outcomes and make them less nebulous (Interview A2: 43-58).

David was also concerned that teachers might be inclined to let the outcomes drive the curriculum, rather than allowing the needs of the children to determine the kinds of teaching activities and learning experiences that were most appropriate (Interview A1: 83-90).

Another word of caution concerning outcomes was offered by Sally.

'I am concerned about this productivity mentality where we are just focusing on outcomes and organizing children into levels and forgetting about the whole...
learning, the person as a whole, physically, mentally and spiritually. That is an element that I cannot see' (Interview B8: 30).

Wendy, the English K-6 Facilitator at School A, felt that the introduction and dissemination of the Syllabus and the support documents as well as the training modules had been very disorganized (Interview A6: 94-103). The other three English K-6 Facilitators from the case study schools indicated that there had been many false starts for the English K-6 Syllabus through a series of drafts. Furthermore, the distribution schedule for the delivery of support materials had been unreliable. This made Facilitators of the training courses feel insecure about starting modules with their staff before follow-up materials had actually been received (Interviews B14: 22-25, A3: 39-40, A3: 86-89, A6: 86-89 and C9: 180).

Further negative responses focused on the terminology of the Syllabus. Most participants from the case study schools commented on their confusion about some of the technical or organizational terms that had been used to describe both the National Statement and Profile for English and the NSW English K-6 Syllabus. The English Facilitators particularly noted that different terminology had been used to express the same concept across different documents. In the National Statement and Profile for English different points along the learning continuum had been referred to as 'levels' whilst in the NSW English K-6 Syllabus these learning points had been labelled 'stages'. There were also more 'stages' than their equivalent 'levels' and these happened at more regular intervals along the continuum (Interview A4 and Personal Journal, August 1994). Although this might seem quite a small difference, Wendy reported that it had caused considerable confusion amongst the teachers both at her school and other schools she had visited. Further, it was reported that this difference in language had become the subject of a number of special meetings in the case study schools (Interviews A4, B9, C9 and D6).

Nan added that she felt that whilst teachers were being asked to talk about students' learning in a new way, in terms of outcomes, they would also need to learn the new language that had been used to describe outcome-based learning (Interview A14.2).

It was also pointed out by the English K-6 Facilitators from School A and School C that the technical jargon associated with functional grammar had caused problems in their schools (Interviews C3: 21-24, C9: 175, C1: 9-11 and A16: 88).
The Facilitators indicated that teachers found this jargon threatening as they knew little about 'functional grammar'. Petra from School C, feared that this lack of understanding about 'functional grammar' might result in teachers reverting to the use of text books to teach traditional grammar and the old language that described it and with which they were more familiar (Interview C2: 9-10).

Having had the Syllabus for only a few months, a directive from the new Minister of Education, announced a pause in the implementation process to enable 'progress to be reviewed and to consider future directions' (Eltis, 1995). Petra from School C noted that this confirmed 'teachers' worst suspicions that things might not be quite right' (Interview C10:39-43).

Whilst teachers indicated a certain cynicism towards the English K-6 Syllabus, the data also showed that the initial responses from teachers in the four case study schools to the Syllabus document itself were positive. All teachers interviewed stated that they were committed to a 'functional model of language' (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Hasan, 1985), the theoretical underpinning of the Syllabus. The data indicated, however, that whilst staff in the four schools were generally familiar with a functional model of language, they admitted to having little knowledge of 'functional grammar' that was necessary to describe how functional language worked. Teachers from three of the case study schools felt that having this knowledge about how language worked was important as it enriched their holistic approach to the teaching and learning of language (Interviews A2, B8 and C5).

Whilst not the sentiment of all participating teachers from the case study schools, the comments of Rachel, a first year teacher in School C, summarised many of the teachers' responses to the Syllabus as follows:

'The Syllabus is very comprehensive. It clearly outlines the developmental sequence (of a children's language learning) and the teaching implications involved in them. There are ample descriptions of strategies and program suggestions to support teachers in their implementation of the Syllabus. It is a user friendly document' (Questionnaire C.Q.1).

Other teachers from the case study schools asserted that they had found it 'easy to read', that it was 'clearly organized', a 'useful working document to use when programming' and a 'valuable teaching resource'.

Chapter 5: Results - Theme One
Judy, an English K-6 Facilitator from School D suggested that whilst the theory presented in the Syllabus, was not new, it presented 'a new way of looking at language learning' (Interview D6: 21). She went on to point out that if teachers had been keeping up with new developments in language learning then the Syllabus should not present problems. If, however, teachers had not developed their understandings of language learning over the past five years then coming to grips with the Syllabus would be difficult (Interview D6).

Schools A, B and C suggested that there was a relationship between helping teachers 'unpack' their beliefs about teaching and learning and the schools’ ability to accept mandated change, in this case the English K-6 Syllabus. These schools reported that they had begun to realise and value the important connection that existed between making values and beliefs explicit and changed classroom practice (Interviews A9, B9 and C3). Lucy from School B felt that the Syllabus did not present anything that did not fit with her current values and beliefs about literacy and language learning. She attributed this to all the staff development programs in which she had participated with the whole school staff prior to the distribution of the Syllabus. These programs she felt had given her the opportunity to examine carefully and make explicit her values and beliefs and refine her thinking where necessary (Interview B9: 56-57).

This 'unpacking' process of values and beliefs, initiated in Schools A, B and C by the principals, was said to have brought staff closer together. Lucy said that the 'open, frank and often lively discussion' had done this. She suggested that when the English K-6 Syllabus arrived the staff were better prepared to support each other and accept the mandated changes of the Syllabus whether they personally believed in its philosophy or not (Interview B9: 56-57).

Jane, from School C, felt that the Syllabus recognised 'the professionalism of teachers by not stating exactly how the content was to be taught or when. She also found the Syllabus personally reassuring as it indicated to her that what she had been doing in her classroom was acceptable (Interview C3 and C9: 21). This sentiment was echoed by Wendy, another teacher from the same school, who indicated that she too felt reassured by the Syllabus for it confirmed the content and practices that she used in her classroom.

Wendy and Jane also felt that the Syllabus laid out all that teachers had to do. They both perceived that the outcomes expressed what was already 'in most
teachers' heads' but now it had all been 'written down' and this was 'really useful' (Interview A3: 27 and C3: 137-138) This, they felt, would allow teachers to work 'smarter not harder' (Interview A3 and C3). Wendy remarked:

'These profiles are what we've all done intuitively for an awful long time. We've had all this stuff in our heads and it's been a horrible job trying to remember it all and if anybody had ever given us some time we probably would have tried to systematically write down what it is that we were trying to achieve, but we never did have the time. So the profiles are really useful' (Interview A3).

Consequently, Wendy felt that teachers were not being required to start again with something new in the English Syllabus, but rather were being required to add to their knowledge of literacy and language learning, specifically about how language 'worked' and about an 'appropriate language' that would describe this (Interview A3: 12-20).

Thus it was evident that the functional model of language presented in the Syllabus was received positively by most teachers in the case study schools. Classroom teachers in these schools indicated, however, that they had little understanding of why a 'functional model of language' and 'an outcomes and standards framework' had been adopted. The English K-6 Facilitators, on the other hand, seemed to see the Syllabus within a much broader agenda for change. Petra particularly, saw the Syllabus' functional model of language and its outcomes approach within a broader context of sociopolitical change. She noted:

'I think it's a way of addressing global issues, sociopolitical agendas which will prepare children more adequately for the workplace and functioning in life and in the community more practically. I don't see a functional model of language as a model of teaching and learning' (Interview C10: 58).

Jane recognised that a strength of ODE and the Syllabus outcomes was that it was concerned with 'learning for all' and thus provided a more equitable program for students (Interview C3: 141).

As well of commenting on the Syllabus in general terms, participants talked more specifically about the implementation process of the Syllabus and about their changed approach to programming for outcomes.
Schools' responses to the implementation process of the English K-6 Syllabus

In two of the four case study schools, the arrival of the English K-6 Syllabus did not seem to cause any undue problems as it was slotted into an existing framework of action and change that the schools had been working on in a continuous and ongoing way for some while. As Libby from School A recalled,

>'In the past five years we have undergone a huge shift in our belief system, as a whole staff, in how children learn, what a teacher's role is, what a teacher should be and how teachers are also learners' (Interview A14.3).

Libby went on to say that having a framework that reflected the shared beliefs of the staff, provided a strong base which provided the infrastructure necessary to support externally mandated change (Interview A14.3).

Three of the case study schools reported that an essential part of the implementation process of the English K-6 Syllabus had been to prepare and work closely with their school community to explain the nature of an 'outcomes based' approach. Wendy from School A noted that by the time the English K-6 Syllabus arrived at her school, the parents were 'comfortably talking about the English K-6 Syllabus and outcomes and profiles' (Interview A10: 125).

It seemed from their responses that those teachers who already had a developed understanding of literacy and language learning, had few problems finding where a functional model of language fitted in to their already existing understandings. Wendy, the English K-6 Facilitator from School A noted that, 'a lot of the staff already hold the philosophy of whole language. Now functional language fits within whole language, it's part and parcel of it ...... What we need to learn now is how to work with the new document and how that fits in with what we've already done and already know' (Interview A14: 3).

Alan, the principal of School B, made a similar observation. He suggested that all change proposals that had been presented to schools from the outside, in this case the National Statements and Profile for English, the English K-6 Syllabus and outcomes-based education, represented 'the theory of others'.

He went on to explain;

13 This refers to a particular description presented as a model of staff development (Turbill, 1993) in which teachers' learning is seen as an amalgam of their own personal theory, this
'None of this (the National Statement and Profile for English, the new Syllabus and ODE) will funnel through to the classroom until the teacher has internalised it and made it their own, a part of their belief system or paradigm if you like, that drives what they do in the classroom. All these innovations coming into the school and classrooms can encounter blockages until those personal understandings can be made by the teachers' (Interview B1: 5-9).

Alan went on to argue that if his school was going to successfully implement new curricula then another critical factor was that it should be included in the School Management Plan, and slotted into the school curriculum cycle. Alan described a curriculum cycle as involving five different phases which were conducted over a period of time. These phases included planning and developing, drafting and trialing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating (Interview B1: 45-49). 'By using this plan', he suggested, 'you can schedule new syllabus statements over time rather than trying to come to grips with everything all at once. By doing it this way teachers don't feel they are ignoring their responsibilities and, at the same time, it helps to relieve tension and allay feelings of guilt' (Interview B1: 10). Alan also reported that this 'guilt factor' was a dominating influence on what happened in his school. He went on,

'Teachers see all these things that they are supposed to do and they worry about how they will ever be able to do everything. They feel it is just too much for them and it's too overbearing to cope with. They feel like giving up' (Interview B2: 9).

As an example of the pressure the teachers were under, Alan, the principal of School B went on to explain that during 1994 the National Statement and Profile for English had arrived at schools early in the year. This, he indicated, had been followed by the English K-6 Syllabus, the Early Learning Profiles and the ESL Scales. All these documents had been accompanied by training courses. Furthermore, a new draft science Syllabus had also been sent to all schools for review and in 1995 schools were expecting to receive yet another new syllabus (Interview C12: 76).

Alan was also alarmed by the 'tight' timetable that had been set for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. This, he suggested, would mean _theory in practice, along with the 'theory of others' and again this theory also in practice (Figure 2, p.21)._
that schools would have less control over how this mandated change should be introduced and implemented (Interview B1).

A committee formed in School B, to take responsibility for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, set itself three outcomes that they wished to achieve with the school staff. They wanted their teachers to:

'
Be aware of the National Statement and Profile for English and its structure'

......

'Have a shared meaning of what a student outcome or what outcomes were in relation to the students in their class' ..... and

'Understand that there were different planes or different levels of 'outcomes' not just those related directly to the students' learning in their class but related to the whole school as well' (Interview B1: 40).

Alan observed that these anticipated outcomes reflected the committee's understanding of the relationship between 'syllabus outcomes' and 'exit outcomes'. He also reported that this was the first occasion that he had heard teachers talk about and stress the importance of 'shared meaning' (Interview B1: 40).

Petra indicated that the whole process of implementing the Syllabus had left her feeling devalued as a professional and somehow inadequate. She felt that this applied to many of her peers too who were very competent teachers and had well established values and beliefs about language teaching and learning (Interview C10: 52-54).

In one school where there did not appear to be a strong collective interest and ongoing commitment to school growth and professional learning, teachers reported high levels of anxiety and tension about the constant stream of mandates that were being handed down to them. They claimed that they felt disempowered and indicated they could do nothing to develop the support needed to respond adequately to the proposed mandated changes (Interview D6). The English K-6 Facilitator believed that her school did not have an adequate infrastructure to support change (Interview D6).
Schools' responses to programming for the learning outcomes:
Sue, a senior teacher in School A and a member of her school executive, felt that having curriculum outcomes would tighten up the kind of activities she planned and would increase her expectation of the learning outcomes for her students (Interview A9: 46-47). She said, 'When I plan the activities they don't seem so haphazard. There seems to be a plan to it all' (Interview A9: 47). She then went on to say:

'Like for instance, this year, I'm teaching dinosaurs. Now over previous years I've taught dinosaurs many times and usually I've gone straight into it and we've talked about them. I've sort of set the agenda for how we're going to be teaching dinosaurs, but this time when I was doing dinosaurs, the children mainly set the agenda of how and what they were going to learn, based on outcomes' (Interview A9: 47).

It was not clear how this related to either exit or Syllabus outcomes but Sue indicated that this change had come about by her learning more about an outcome-based education and how children's learning had to be the central focus of all school development efforts (Interview A9: 50-69).

Petra observed that the best way to help teachers to understand an outcomes approach in the classroom was to get them to use the outcomes and the indicators of learning in their programming. Petra pointed out, however, that the DSE training module on 'programming' had not been available for use when it was most needed (Interview C9: 181).

Petra was also concerned about how teachers might use the pointers/indicators and outcomes of the Syllabus when programming. Petra said:

'I'm worried about the outcomes being used as a checklist ... Out will come 2A, level three ... yes, I'm going to teach this outcome this week and they'll go down the pointers and they'll watch the kid and they'll tick the pointers and they'll say right they've learnt that outcome then they'll go on to the next one'.

Petra shared David's concern that 'outcomes' rather than 'students' needs' were dictating and controlling teachers' programming (Interview C2: 134-138).

Sue from School A, described her planning and programming with outcomes thus:
'We have a curriculum here that we do in units and the thing I would do next would be, well, what do I want them to get out of this unit? What do I want them to achieve? And so I would write down the points of knowledge that I would want them to get out of this and then from there I'd say how am I going to do this and I'm going to make sure that the children actually achieve those outcomes .... It makes sense, an outcomes driven approach .......... I think before I used to look not from the bottom up but you looked at 'Oh, that activity looks great, I'm gonna really do that' or 'that looks really interesting' without actually thinking of the consequences or what you think the children are really going to achieve out of it' (Interview A9: 35-36).

Maria and Lucy described their programming in a similar way. Since using outcomes, they suggested, it had been necessary to plan backwards, finding learning activities that would ensure that children achieve the outcome (Interview B5: 105-106).

Just one participant, Jane, a teacher from School C, felt strongly that it was the outcomes of assessment and evaluation that drove her programming. She indicated that assessment and programming were an integral part of the teaching processes and couldn't be dealt with separately (C3:100). She suggested that in coming to terms with new programming practices, it was important not to overlook the important relationship between programming and the monitoring of children's language learning.

For some teachers there was a conceptual problem between what was meant by 'an objective' and how this was the same or different from the concept of 'an outcome' (C3: 78-84). Maria and Lucy both raised this issue. They both felt that it was important teachers understood the difference. They suggested that an 'objective' was something that you hoped the children might learn. Maria said, 'There is this agenda (with an objective) that says that not all children will achieve', whereas with an outcome, 'we're expecting every child to achieve. It's just a matter of time' (Interview B5: 97-99).
Category 3: Schools' Responses to the Training and Development Program and Other Curriculum Support Materials to Support the Implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus

In the Context of the Study (Chapter 4), it was indicated that the Training and Development Program included four major in-service packages, some smaller in-service packages, as well as a variety of curriculum support materials. The Training and Development Program included the following:

Courses:
An Introduction to Profiles
   Profiles in Focus (for principals)
   Profiles in the Classroom (for teachers)

The English K-6 Basic Course: An Introduction
   Introducing English K-6 (One hour)
   Understanding English K-6 (Two hours)
   Implementing English K-6 (Two hours)

The Facilitators' Training Program

The English K-6 Major Course
   Talking and Listening
   Reading and Writing
   Reading Strategies
   A Functional View of Language
   Grammar and English
   Helping Students with Early Literacy Difficulties
   Programming and Planning
   Assessing and Reporting (Archival document B1.2)

Other in-service packages included:
   The Early Learning Profiles
   The ESL Scales

Curriculum Support Materials

The responses from most of the teachers in the case study schools and each of the four English K-6 Facilitators were highly critical of the Training
and Development Program. In particular, the Facilitators' criticism focused on the Facilitators' Training Course and the design of the modules that constituted the English K-6 Major Course that Facilitators were expected to conduct in their own schools and schools nearby. One of the English K-6 Facilitators felt that the release of the training packages and all the support documentation, had all happened far too quickly (Interview C9: 175).

Courses: An Introduction to Profiles
Two courses were designed to introduce schools to the notion of profiles. One targeted school principals (Profiles in Focus) and the other was designed for teachers (Profiles in the Classroom). After attending Profiles in Focus, it was intended that principals should return to their schools and conduct Profiles in the Classroom with their staff. However, this only happened in one of the four schools. In School C the course was presented by the English K-6 Facilitator and in School D, the school staff attended the course with the staff of another school close by. Feedback from the staff of this school after their attendance of the course was most negative. A teacher from School D reported thus, 'I don't really think it (the course on profiles) will make much difference because in all honesty no one really understood it anyway' (Interview D5: 78). Staff indicated that the course had presented a great deal of new terminology as well as too many new concepts (Interview D5).

The English K-6 Facilitators from the case study schools, indicated that no direction had been given to their schools as to when the course, Profiles in the Classroom, should be conducted or how it might relate to the Introductory part of the compulsory English K-6 Basic Course. The principals from School B and C as well as Petra, the English K-6 Facilitator from School C, all felt that work on profiles should precede the Introductory Course of the English K-6 Basic Course (Interviews B1: 43 and C10: 323-330).

The English K-6 Facilitator from School A, however, felt that there was no need for her school to do this course on Profiles in the Classroom as the staff were already familiar with outcomes and profiles (Interview A3).

It was reported that staff from School B and D had become confused after attending 'Profiles in the Classroom' with regard to the relationship between 'outcomes-based education' and an 'outcomes and standards approach' as presented by the English K-6 Syllabus. Judy, one of the teachers from School D,
indicated that within her experience of other schools, principals shared the same confusions about these concepts so that when they presented the course 'Profiles in the Classroom' to their staff, they had helped to sustain and further develop these confusions (Interview D6: 142).

Courses: The English K-6 Basic Course
The English K-6 Basic Course consisted of three modules: Introducing English K-6 (One hour), Understanding English K-6 (Two hours), and Implementing English K-6 (Two hours). This course was compulsory for all teaching staff. Compulsory attendance constituted a part of an enterprise bargaining agreement reached as part of negotiations between the DSE and the State Federation of Teachers for a pay increase (Archival documents B4.2, B15.1 and B15.2). These courses, presented by the English K-6 Facilitators, were most often presented during scheduled staff meeting time or at a Staff Development Day (Field notes A12, B4, C6 and D4).

The organization and presentation of the English K-6 Basic Course in each of the case study schools varied. The English K-6 Facilitators commented on the importance of involving the staff in the organization of this course, when it would take place and how it was to be conducted. Wendy, the English K-6 Facilitator of School A, reported that in her school all decisions relating to the how, when and where details were made collectively by the whole staff (Interview A6). Wendy considered that teachers' ownership of the decisions associated with this course was an important part of the process of change. Shared decision making amongst the staff, Wendy suggested, made finding solutions easier (Interview A6).

All of the English K-6 Facilitators in this study emphasised how important it had been to make changes to the format of the Training modules before presenting them to teachers. In Petra's opinion, making changes to the design of the courses had helped her to make the course 'her own', that is, it had helped her take ownership of it. She felt that this was particularly important, although having 'made them her own' she also reported that she considered it was important to encourage other teachers to co-present these introductory courses with her (Interview C5). In two of the other case study schools the English K-6 Facilitators reported that they had also co-opted the help and involvement of other members of their staff to co-present the course (Interviews A6 and B8).
The Facilitators all indicated that they had needed to spend many hours rewriting and re-organizing the modules. Each of the three modules, Introducing, Understanding and Implementing English K-6, they indicated, had focused too heavily on the direct dissemination of information and no attention had been given to 'how' the teachers might learn all the new information (Interviews A6, B8, C2 and D6). Petra said that the modules contained a great many overheads, which they predicted might result in 'death by overhead' for the participants. The course also required a lot of direct teaching. Petra explained her thinking thus:

'We had to change the modules so they would work with the teachers. If they had been left as they were, they would have been terrible'.... 'I mean it's half past five at night, we've had a hard day at work and here we are putting on overhead after overhead, turning the page, reading the next thing, and I thought I'm not going to do this' (Interview C2: 343 - 345).

The other three English K-6 Facilitators also felt that a more effective model of adult learning needed to be superimposed on the course and that they needed to make the courses more 'palatable' and to also customise the course for their own individual school contexts. They also perceived that the pace and time allowed for the courses needed extending and that they, as Facilitators, would need to make closer and more explicit links for the staff between the theory presented and actual classroom practice (Interviews A6 and B8 and D6).

Specific changes that they all felt were most important included reducing the content given in each session, eliminating information that they considered to be repetitious and leaving out sections that they felt their staff already knew (Interviews A4, B8, C5 and D6). Petra added to this list of changes, by suggesting that sharing personal anecdotes and stories was important and helped to make meanings clearer and more personal for the teachers (Interview C10: 3).

All four Facilitators in this study indicated that they had also added more workshop activities to their presentation of each module and some indicated that they had provided activities that the teachers could try in their classrooms. Wendy referred to this as 'personalising theory back into classroom practice' (Interview A16). Wendy also indicated that she had developed a number of handouts outlining practical suggestions for the teachers in her school (Interview A16). Petra reported that by making these kinds of changes to the
design of the course was a way of saying they could 'make them their own' (Interview C5:97). All four Facilitators pointed out that whilst they had made many changes to the program they had tried to maintain the 'integrity of the content'.

Wendy, in summing up, emphasised the importance of the skills of the presenter. No amount of changes to the modules would help, she suggested, if the presenter didn't have a clear understanding about what would or wouldn't work with teachers as well as the content (Interview A5: 133). Wendy, in describing good presenters that she knew, reflected on their strengths as follows:

'Not an expert learner type..... humble, ........ talks from experience, ........ provides lots of personal anecdotes, ................. doesn't read from the overheads, ............ Anything she says you know comes from the heart even if she's been asked to deliver something from above. ...... She has a way of internalising and making it her own and making things meaningful for teachers. ........ She just has a way of getting right into teachers' heads' (Interview A5: 134-141).

Sally, Petra and Wendy all mentioned that the 'Introducing English K-6' module which formed the first course of the English Basic Course, did little to account for the context of change or explain the bigger picture. They felt that a lot more time needed to be spent on the concepts of outcomes-base education (ODE), and how this connected with an 'outcomes and standards approach' as expressed in the English K-6 Syllabus. The teaching staff, it was reported, were particularly confused about the terminology relating to an outcomes and standards approach. Facilitators commented on the amount of time that needed to be given to teachers to discuss and share their understandings about these concepts. The principal from School A remarked that until a common language could be developed, there was little point in proceeding (Interview A5). The principal from School B also felt that this was important and conducted a session during a staff meeting which looked specifically at differences in terminology between the National Statement and Profile for English and the NSW English K-6 Syllabus (Interview B5: 152-153).

Petra reported that from her experience with teachers from other schools, she felt that those teachers who had understood the concept of outcomes and a standards framework, presented in the 'Profiles in the Classroom' course, seemed to find it easier to understand how the English K-6 Syllabus worked
Petra indicated that she felt that an understanding of an outcomes approach had provided the teachers with an understanding of the context of change and if this was understood then, she suggested, outcomes at the curriculum level would fit into place more easily (Interview C9: 28-29). She referred to this as 'conceptual comfort' (Interview C9: 35). 'They (the teachers) understood the purpose of the whole thing and they were then able to apply that, that big purpose and focus in on one particular curriculum area'.

As a follow-up initiative, in further support of the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, a small amount of money was made available through NPDP funds to all schools. Jan, the principal of School C, indicated that this helped her to pay for casual teachers to come into the school to release teachers from their classes so that they could undertake the training modules together during school time (Interview C10:115-133).

Courses: The Facilitators' Training Course

The Facilitators' Training consisted of a week long course in locations throughout the state. Teachers were selected from around the state but their selection to attend the course and become English K-6 Facilitators was reported as being fairly arbitrary. All four of the English K-6 Facilitators from the case study schools were considered by their schools to be highly competent in the area of English teaching and learning. They had been selected to become English K-6 Facilitators either by the Regional Office or by their school principal. Once the teachers had completed the necessary training, it was expected that they would return to their schools and conduct both the English K-6 Basic Course, consisting of three modules, as well as the eight modules that made up the English K-6 Major Course. The newly trained Facilitators were also expected to conduct both these courses with schools in their area.

All four English K-6 Facilitators from the case study schools were highly critical of the their Facilitators' Training Course. Specifically they were critical about the structure of the course, about the model of adult learning that had been adopted and demonstrated, and about the overall outcomes that the course had on all participating teachers.

14 The NPDP, as explained in the previous chapter, was a Federally funded program designed to support the development of teachers understanding of learning outcomes. All States around Australia developed their own initiatives. In New South Wales most of the funds were used to develop training and development courses to support the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus.
Specifically, the English K-6 Facilitators offered the following critique of their training:

**About the structure of the course:**

- Facilitators indicated that the course was devoted to content laden lectures and the dissemination of information. It was suggested that there was far too much content to be covered in a week's training (Interview A6: 15). Wendy said that the presenters of the Facilitators' Training had been forced to apologise for 'jamming so much into one day' (Interview A3: 102). As a result of this pressure, the regional organizers in the South Coast Region made arrangements for further courses and meetings to be developed and presented to support the Facilitators after they had finished the course. These activities were 'add-ons' to the original training program. (Interviews A4: 9 and A6: 5-28 and 31-35 and Archival document A4.3).

- Whilst each of the Facilitators in this study were well informed about a 'functional model of language', none of them professed to understand functional grammar. It seemed that the designers of the Facilitators' Training Course had made the assumption that teachers who had been selected to become English K-6 Facilitators would already know about functional grammar (Interview A6: 34).

**About the model of adult learning:**

- Each of the four Facilitators were concerned about the model of learning that had been adopted for the course. The model was based on the transmission of knowledge from expert to novice, described in the review of literature as the 'Authoritarian Model' (Refer to Figure 7: Models of Professional Development, p.44). The Facilitators' concern was twofold. They were concerned about the effect of the model on their own capacity to learn and, as trained Facilitators of the courses, they knew the model to be an ineffective model of learning and would do little to change classroom practices.

- The Facilitators claimed that the model of adult learning inherent in the course allowed little time to be an active learner. They also reported that whilst it seemed there were many workshops and opportunities to discuss topics, these activities had insufficient time
allocated to them and did not provide the chance for participants to reflect or share ideas, so 'we rarely felt we had control of the content' (Interviews A3, A6, B8, C10 and my Personal Journal, September, 1994). As Wendy commented, 'I think we all came out of the course with whiplash' (Interview A3: 101). Alan, the principal from School B, supported these observations by saying that it typified the way change was handled within the bureaucracy. He said, 'They identify a particular group, flood them with information and then send them off and say "off you go". .... They're interested in ticking a box to say that they've (the DSE) run that course and therefore completed their responsibility' (Interview B14: 28).

About the outcomes of the Facilitators' Training Course on individuals:

- Wendy, the English K-6 Facilitator from School A reported that the course had left her fellow Facilitators with a fair degree of anxiety about their personal lack of understanding about functional grammar. She indicated that they felt it would be difficult for them to train teachers as they did not have sufficient knowledge (Interview A6: 34 and 44-46).

- Whilst most of the feedback from Facilitators on the Training Course was negative, Wendy and Petra commented on the skills of their Regional Consultants to 'do the best they could with the course they had been given to present to the Facilitators' (Interviews A4 and C5). It seemed that these Regional Consultants had tried to be responsive to the Facilitators needs as they arose during the Facilitators' Training. For instance, because of the negative feedback from the Facilitators, the Regional Consultants had spent time rewriting many of the modules to try and accommodate some of the changes the Facilitators felt were essential. It was reported that these changes related almost entirely to developing a sound model of adult learning and developing a better teaching process for the delivery of the modules by the Facilitators (Interview C10: 78-86).

The data also indicated that the Regional Consultants had planned several extra modules for the English Facilitators, beyond the modules presented at the Facilitator Training Course. These modules focused exclusively on functional grammar, to provide the Facilitators with special help in an area where they did not feel confident (Interview A3: 98-105, A6: 24-39, A10: 193-200 and C10: 143-147). This follow-up support was not extended to all Facilitators within the South Coast Region that took part in the Training. It excluded Facilitators from...
the Catholic or Independent schools sector. Their own systems were left to cope with any problems their Facilitators may have had (Personal Journal, October, 1994).

Courses: The English K-6 Major Course
The data indicated that there was a certain scepticism amongst the English K-6 Facilitators as to whether teachers would attend any of the eight modules that made up the English K-6 Major Course. Wendy, Sally, Petra and Judy, the four English Facilitators from each of the case study schools, felt that teachers in their schools would need to attend all the Major Courses, after completing the English K-6 Basic Course, if they were to understand the English K-6 Syllabus. The data confirmed this feeling as none of the teachers in the case study schools had attended any of the modules by the end of 1995 because, as they explained, they were still trying to understand the concepts presented in the English K-6 Basic Course.

The Facilitators indicated that like the Facilitators' Training Program, the modules of the English K-6 Major Course focused exclusively on the 'transmission of information'. The Facilitators felt that the designers of this course had not considered the differing context of individual schools, the nature of the change process, principles of adult learning, the need for greater participation by schools in the trialing process nor the potential value of networking between schools and the wider community (Personal Journal, February, 1995).

By the time the English K-6 Syllabus was put on hold in August, 1995 and the Eltis Committee had started to conduct a review of the implementation of the Syllabus, schools had only time to complete the course 'Profiles in the Classroom' and the English K-6 Basic Course.

Other short courses
Two further training packages containing a video and course notes for teachers had been circulated to schools to support two separate documents, one 'Using the ESL Scales' and the other, the 'Early Learning Profiles'.

'Using the ESL Scales' was designed 'to raise teachers' awareness of the special needs of ESL students in their classrooms and to provide them with some appropriate teaching strategies' (Interview C1: 16). It was argued that because of the multicultural nature of many schools in and around Sydney, it was
necessary that the Syllabus outcomes should reflect the language learning of second language users (Interview C4 and Archival Document B1.2).

The Early Learning Profiles were developed to extend the language learning outcomes for students entering school for the first time. The outcomes that had been identified in the English K-6 Syllabus for the first stage/level of learning were not seen to be sufficiently detailed in their descriptions of children’s early language acquisition (Interview C2).

In support of the implementation of the Early Learning Profiles, besides the training package that had been sent to all schools, a course was organized to train a limited number of teachers working in the early childhood area who, after their training, would return to their schools and train principals in their area so that the principals, in turn, could take their teachers through the Early Learning Profiles course (Interview C11: 51-53). Principals were seen as the best presenters of this course rather than teachers. It was suggested that this decision was based on not having to pay principals for time away from school (Interview C11). Petra felt that:

'It would have been better delivered by teachers who were actually using the profiles in their classrooms. Principals are mostly non-teaching staff ..... I thought it was a pity because unless you've actually got into these profiles and you've started trying to take evidence on site and gather it on the run and do all those sorts of things that we have to do when we're looking at kids in terms of profiling them, you really can't help other teachers' (Interview C11: 54-58).

**Curriculum support materials for the English K-6 Syllabus**

It has been indicated in Chapter Four that support materials were developed by both the Board of Studies and the Department of School Education in New South Wales. These resources were described as providing demonstrations of ‘theory in practice’ (Archival Document O.5). They were intended to provide teachers with supplementary information to the courses they had attended as well as practical ideas of how to use the Syllabus in classrooms.

The English K-6 Facilitators from Schools A and C, reported that the majority of teachers in their schools had indicated that most of the publications were useful, particularly the first of two volumes called Teaching Units of Work (Interviews A4 and C10). It was noted, however, that none of these activities were aligned in any way to the stated outcomes of the English K-6 Syllabus.
This seemed like an oversight as did the lack of explanation as to the purpose of each suggested activity (Personal Journal; June, 1996).

Teachers in two of the case study schools were critical of the way the publications had been advertised, marketed and distributed. They indicated that schools and regional personnel were unsure about when materials were going to arrive and had little idea of what the materials might include (Interview C9 and A6: 85-98). In my Personal Journal I wrote:

'Schools seem to have received a lot of information about the curriculum support materials that are being developed. I have noticed, however, that there seems to be a discrepancy between the gazetted dates for publication and their actual day of arrival in the schools. The publishing program is way behind schedule. I've also noticed that the names of publications vary across different documentation. I'm totally confused. There seem to be documents coming from the Board of Studies which schools will have to buy and I've heard teachers complain about how expensive they are. Then there seem to be other materials that I suppose the DSE have developed. These are being distributed to all schools but they seem to have only sent one set to each school. That won't be terribly useful. I heard on the radio last week that course materials have been developed for parents but none of the schools I've been in seem to have received anything!' (Personal Journal, March, 1995)

Petra, the English Facilitator from School C, made similar observations about the support materials. In particular, she noted that whilst a time line had been sent to all schools by the central administration of the DSE as to the availability of support documents, the materials had not been received when promised. They had not been available at the time the training courses were to be given (Interview C9: 180) so publications could not support the courses. Petra felt that it would have been useful to have had the 'Teaching Units of Work' to use for trialing purposes before the courses so that practice could be more closely linked with the theory presented in the courses (Interview C9).

Further, Petra argued that, within her experience, when staff were beginning to develop new approaches to assessment and evaluation, they were simultaneously needing guidance on planning and programming but the training module on planning and programming was not available when it would have been most useful (Interview C9: 181). Petra noted that the teachers she had worked with had been quick to understand the relationship between
programming and planning and assessment and reporting, but the support materials were not available to support this understanding (Interview C10: 102-111).

In summary, the general criticism from staff in the case study schools to the print resources, was that the materials were not available when promised and that the publishing schedule for the documents did not allow schools the flexibility to use them when they might have been most valuable.

Category 4: Schools' Responses to the new Mandatory Approaches to Assessment and Reporting of Students' Literacy and Language Learning

Whilst the results till now, have presented a combined account of all the case study schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus and the Training and Development Program, this section will focus on individual schools' responses to changed policy on assessment and reporting on students' learning. Rather than providing a myriad of individual responses and critiques of the new assessment and reporting policy, the case study schools present their own 'stories' describing what they did and how they actually went about making changes to their approaches to assessment and reporting policies and practices.

These accounts provide insights into the ways in which the four individual schools went about conducting their business to support the change process and the kinds of structures and processes that needed to be in place to allow change to happen at all levels of the school community.

The data indicated that in all the case study schools, from the moment the English K-6 Syllabus was introduced, teachers began to make connections between the outcomes of the Syllabus, programming and planning, and assessment and reporting practices (Interviews A8 and D6). The principals of each school indicated that their staff understood the interrelatedness of these elements of the teaching/learning cycle and that having a syllabus expressed as outcomes demanded new ways of monitoring children's learning (Interviews A8, B2, C5 and D6). The data revealed that it was when the introductory training courses on outcomes and profiles were being conducted, that teachers began to discuss the implications of the Syllabus and its outcomes for new approaches to assessment and reporting (Field notes, March, 1995 and Interviews A12, C6 and D4).
The data also indicated that each of the four schools went about the task of changing their approaches to assessment and reporting quite differently. In two of the four schools, changes in assessment policy had been part of their School Management Plan for some time. School A, for instance, had been developing a new policy for five years. As well as different approaches to change, the starting points for change also varied between schools.

School A:
The release of the English K-6 Syllabus was not the catalyst for action in School A. The school had been engaged in the process of trying to develop a new school assessment and reporting policy for four years prior to the release of the Syllabus. The catalyst for change had naturally grown out of the teachers' frustration with a shift in their philosophy towards whole language and the lack of congruence that had developed between their teaching philosophy, their understandings about how children learnt language and their school policy for assessment and reporting this learning.

The principal, David, said that their journey towards the development of a new policy for assessment and reporting had relied on a 'process of developing a shared meaning through shared language amongst the teachers, the parents and the students (Archival document A2.1:1). David felt that it should be possible to make change an 'enjoyable, challenging, rewarding and worthwhile experience' (Archival document A2.1:1) but in order that this might happen he also noted that it was important to create a culture that was collegial and collaborative (Interview A2).

In line with these beliefs the school staff felt that it was important to have a shared understanding of what effective assessment meant. Four criteria developed by Cambourne, Turbill and Butler (1994) as part of the Assessment and Evaluation Module of the Frameworks training program15 were adopted by the school staff. These were:

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15 Frameworks is a training program consisting of two modules. The first is called the Literacy and Language Course K-8 (Turbill, Butler, & Cambourne, 1991) and the second is called the Assessment and Evaluation Module (Cambourne, Turbill, & Butler, 1994). Each course consists of ten three hour sessions and is usually conducted weekly in schools over the course of a school term.
• Assessment and evaluation must result in optimal learning for all involved.

• Assessment and evaluation must inform, support and justify teacher decision making.

• Assessment and evaluation practices must reflect the theories of language, learning and literacy which guide our teaching.

• The findings which result from our assessment and evaluation practices must be accurate, valid, reliable, and perceived to be rigorous by all who use them.

The school decided that they would need a model of evaluation to underpin their whole school policy. This they developed collaboratively and is summarised in the following figure (42).

Figure 42: School A’s model of evaluation (Archival document A2.1:2)

This diagram shows that the staff saw their model of evaluation as involving a shared responsibility for assessment between students, parents and teachers. Sharing, discussion, and a process of negotiation, formed the main characteristics of the process that was adopted to develop their new policy on both assessment and reporting.
Details of this process were further expanded on by the principal. David suggested that to develop new school policy, the community had passed through a number of phases of development as follows:

- **Phase 1**: Initiating the project
- **Phase 2**: The deliberation period
- **Phase 3**: Experimentation and development
- **Phase 4**: Moving on...
- **Phase 5**: A New Year Begins
- **Phase 6**: And still we are going

The principal was anxious to point out that whilst this process might look linear that in reality 'nothing could have been further from the truth'. David recalls the anxiety that he experienced as he resisted the temptation to just tell the staff what to do. He indicated that he knew from experience that if the change was to be 'deep and lasting' it was essential that the staff and other members of their learning community should develop a feeling of commitment and ownership of the policy. This meant that David needed to be a participant in the process rather than the project's director (Archival document A2.1:3).

Phase one was described by David as establishing a 'platform of success', by identifying people in the school who were perceived to have already been successful in various ways and who also had vision. David described the involvement of a group of teachers from his school with personnel from the university who came together to collaboratively investigate the assessment and evaluation of language learning. This project involved trialing new approaches in the classroom. It created much discussion and sharing of the project and its outcomes with the rest of the staff at staff meetings and with the parents. As a result of this collaborative project, a school committee was formed from the members who had participated in this project as well as other volunteer teachers and parents. Libby became the chairperson of this committee and described her involvement thus:

'Five years ago before (David) came we had a very traditional school, a very traditional hierarchy. The executive had their own little meetings, they had their own little Christmas party; totally traditional. Little people at the bottom like me did as they were told and you didn't really speak to the boss and you didn't have whole school staff meetings. Then (David) came. David had a totally different philosophy about the way a school should run and he
established people like me and got me to take on the role of looking after the committee. So the first thing that got off the ground was assessment because we had determined this need. Teachers were not happy with our assessment. We had teachers here dabbling in whole language and we had very traditional across the grade testing. Now you can't teach whole language and test in the traditional way. It just doesn't fit together. ... So there was a lot of dissatisfaction among certain staff members, right, who had undergone a shift in philosophy towards whole language, so there was that dissatisfaction there.

There were also a lot of parents and a lot of our parents are also teachers at other schools. So there was dissatisfaction on their side in terms of assessment. So that (assessment) started first. Now in the five years we've been here, we've been doing that with (two people from the university) coming in and talking about assessment and whole language, all right. So what we've done in the last five years is we have undergone a huge shift in the belief system, as a whole staff, in how children learn, what a teacher's role is, what a teacher should be and um, how teachers are also learners' (Interview, A14.3).

Libby went on to explain that the role of the Assessment and Reporting committee, was to do 'the leg work' and collect information to present to the whole school staff so that they could collectively make decisions (Interview A14.3).

David described phase two of the change process as the Deliberation Period. It was during this period that teachers were expected to try new things in their classroom. These activities challenged their closely guarded belief system (Archival document A2.1:4). This, David indicated, was the most painful part of the process and described it as the stage at which 'blood was let'. He pointed out that some teachers fought hard to resist change whilst others did not see why they needed to change as their own system seemed good enough (Archival document A2.1:4). David said that it was at this stage that 'working committees were formed, position papers presented, concerns expressed and acknowledged, and solutions sought co-operatively and collaboratively' (Archival document A2.1:4).

As well as a school committee for assessment and reporting, a parent committee was also set up to provide the school with parent perspectives on assessment and reporting (Interview A13). In its early days this committee indicated to the school that many parents still wanted marks on school reports.
Libby felt that it was important for the school to try and find ways to accommodate their parents' needs although, she suggested, profiles might, with time, replace this perceived need for marks (Interview A14.3).

As part of this phase, to heighten awareness and provide impetus to the project, the school committee for assessment and reporting organized a whole school staff meeting in the evening. The principal acquired some funding from the Regional Education Office to support this initiative and parents and other community members were invited. An important outcome of this meeting was that the school community developed a shared view of learning theory (Archival document A1.2:4).

Phase three, described by David as 'Experimentation and Development'. focused on the trialing of new approaches to assessment and reporting. David indicated that it was a time of 'constant contact, referral, discussion, consultation, revision and amendment' (Archival document A2.1:5).

Three years after the start of initiatives to explore and develop new policies for assessment and reporting, David prepared a booklet for the staff which summarised and described the collective decisions that had been made during their process of changing policy and classroom practices (Archival document A2.1). A look at the contents of this booklet reveal the extent to which the whole school had became involved in its development. The booklet started with a statement about the staff's shared beliefs about assessment and evaluation and provided samples of recording formats used in the classrooms.

Samples of school reporting formats were collected and discussed amongst the staff and the parents. Two further booklets were developed, a 'Teacher Report Pack' and a 'Parents Report Pack' to explain the reporting procedures. The Parents Report Pack was further supported by a video made by the teachers(Archival document A2.1:5). This pack was presented to two hundred parents who attended two meetings especially called to discuss new reporting practices. David felt that it was important to be seen to be 'up front' at this meeting, presenting a unified view of the teaching staff to the parents (Archival document A2.1:7).

A follow-up to this booklet for staff was an article written by the principal called 'The Principal's Role: Creating a Community of Learners for Change'. This article described the school's process of change and the role of the principal.
in this process. He described some of these roles as 'leading from the rear', 'carrying the flag' and 'deflecting the flak' (Archival document A2.1: 1). This article later became a chapter in a book on assessment and reporting (Cambourne & Turbill, 1994).

As part of the school's ongoing interactions and discussions between the parents, the community and school staff, the school presented their beliefs about evaluation for review. This set of beliefs had been borrowed from the 'Frameworks' Assessment and Evaluation module (1994) that teachers had attended as part of Phase two (Archival document A2.1:7).

Phase four, 'Moving On', saw the ongoing development of the project through the work of the school and parent committees. These committees developed recommendations which were presented to the staff and the parent body for review. Recommendations were discussed, accepted or returned to the committees for further consideration. David emphasised the importance of parent participation. He indicated that their full participation in the 'developmental process was instrumental in the success of the project' (Archival document A2.1: 9). He said, 'Without their awareness, involvement and support through increased knowledge, there (could) be no success' (Archival document A2.1: 9).

Phase five described the year during which the school adopted and fully implemented their new assessment and reporting policies. Towards the end of the year both parents and teachers were surveyed to gauge their responses to the changes. Parents indicated their overwhelming support for the new assessment and reporting processes (Archival document A2.1:11).

Phase six represented the decision of both parents and staff to continue the development of formats and procedures in an ongoing effort 'to ensure that student evaluation reflected beliefs, classroom strategies and curriculum goals and at the same time provided all stakeholders with the information which they required in the format which was of the greatest value and provided the most useable information' (Archival document A2.1:11). The format of the new report card, which was called 'Written Communications', used a narrative style to describe students' learning. Results of another survey sent out to parents at the end of the year, indicated that the parents were enthusiastic and happy with the modifications that had been made to the format.
David stressed that one of the most important aspects of this change proposal was that parents and staff had full ownership of the project and full support, protection, and encouragement (Archival document A2.1:12).

Beliefs about how children learned seemed to form the cornerstone of all developments in this school (Personal Journal, May, 1994). When the English K-6 Syllabus had been introduced, it was fitted into their existing school plan for curriculum development. David pointed out that it was impossible to talk about the English K-6 Syllabus without talking about assessment and evaluation as an integral part of the it (Interview A1: 2). Glen, the deputy principal, added that the outcomes of the Syllabus had assisted teachers with the reporting process. Use of the outcomes in the assessment and reporting process had helped the staff to become more aware of the value of profiles. Glen said,

'Rather than have something given them they're developing understandings themselves and therefore, they feel they have a closer affinity with the profiles which they can apply through the children's report cards. An outcomes and profiles approach is much more purposeful and meaningful this way' (Interview A8: 84).

David argued that all decisions in the school needed to relate to the needs of the children. Further, he suggested that the focus of the school's response to these needs was through curriculum development. David described curriculum as:

'... everything that you do, all the planned and unplanned experiences that you have. It's the curriculum that hooks kids and hooks teachers too. That's what you have to get in place first of all and that's why we say, if you change curriculum, you must change people' (Interview A1: 194-196).

He went on to say that he had discovered through experience that 'if you have a curriculum that is relevant and if you have experiential based learning activities .......... the kids get hooked on learning .......... they become self-directed learners, they love learning and they become life long learners' (Interview A1: 192-193). It was the responsibility of the school, David emphasised, to constantly 'scrutinise the curriculum for alignment of curriculum goals, instructional strategies and evaluation activities' (Archival document A2.1: 12).

As well as describing how School A went about changing their policy on assessment and reporting practices, this description provides insights into how
the school engaged in the change process. It demonstrates the ongoing nature of teacher learning and how this was embedded in the everyday life of their workplace. Further it describes the organizational and leadership principles that were considered an essential part of the school's way of 'doing business'. In summary, the following characteristics were seen by the participants from School A as essential aspects of the change process.

- The need for change was said to have grown out of a real need perceived by the school staff themselves rather than by way of an external edict (Interview A14.3).

- By taking their own initiative to make changes in assessment and reporting practices, the teachers and the school community indicated that they had taken control of the change agendas rather than being led. This control was reported to have made their efforts more purposeful and meaningful.

- The successful process of change was seen to be dependent on the development of a shared meaning and shared language about the nature of the change proposal (Archival document A2.1).

- For change to happen it was considered necessary to develop in the school a culture of collegiality and collaboration (Interview A2).

- The personal philosophy of the principal was seen as having a significant impact on the manner in which the school engaged in the change process, the way the school operated, as well as its organization and culture.

- Both the staff and the principal indicated the need for alignment between their beliefs, practices and school policy. It was a lack of alignment that had first provided the catalyst for a change in assessment and reporting policy within the school. This seemed to provide a 'real' purpose for change. The principal pointed out that school culture and the way the school was organized determined whether this 'alignment' or 'degree of congruence' could be achieved (Interview A17).

- Libby described a number of relationships that she considered essential aspects of the change process (Archival document A2.1). Relationships between change, school culture, vision, principles of organizational
renewal, teacher learning and leadership style were highlighted. She noted that:

* in developing a common vision it was necessary to consider issues related to leadership style, the management of conflict and the change process;

* the vision of the school should be made explicit and should be supported by the necessary organizational structures;

* there should be an awareness of the existence of multiple cultures within the school and their particular attributes (Refer to Figure 66: p, in Chapter 6);

* recognition of the expertise that teaching staff might bring to the school community and the influence that this could have on school growth and the implementation of mandated change (Archival document A2.1); and

* the empowerment of individuals by the principal to take on roles of responsibility (chairing school committees) to develop school policy had been a key to the implementation of mandated change (Interview A14.3);

- the process and relationships that had been established between the various organizational groups (school committees, parent meetings and staff meetings), were essential for the development of shared decision making and the development of common goals within the school (Archival document A2.1);

- the recognition of the important role that the school community needed to play in the development of school growth (Archival document A2.1);

- that the process of change was a lengthy process and involved a number of different phases of development (Archival document A2.1);

- collaborative ventures between the school and the local university were seen as an integral part of the development of both individuals and the school as a whole;
the importance of the school providing staff with opportunities to make their beliefs explicit (Archival document A2.1); and finally,

the relationship between and alignment of curriculum goals, instructional strategies, and teacher and student learning (Interview A1).

School B:
The annual School Management Plan indicated that School B had started to focus on literacy and language learning late in 1993, before the distribution of the English K-6 Syllabus. This plan outlined the curriculum priorities for the school and also the priorities dictated by the DSE central office, the Region and the Cluster\(^\text{16}\) (Field notes B2 and B3). The School Management Plan in this school, was developed by the staff as a whole.

Alan, the principal of School B, felt that the starting point for change in his school was to provide opportunities for his teachers to examine children's literacy and language learning as well as their own beliefs about language learning (Interview B6). To provide this opportunity, Alan introduced the Frameworks program (Turbill, Butler, & Cambourne, 1991), a whole school in-service training program in which all teachers participated (Archival document B1.3).

In 1994, as part of their School Management Plan, the school staff wanted to focus their attention on the concept of an outcome-based approach to education with particular reference to its implications for schooling, teaching and learning (Archival document B1.4). Alan indicated that he thought it was important that the school develop a 'big picture' view of an 'outcomes driven approach'. Like School A, Alan felt that it was important to have a theoretical framework into which a 'standards framework', a 'profile and outcome approach' of the syllabus documents, might fit. He also felt that having an understanding of the 'big picture' would help his staff to implement the English K-6 Syllabus (Interview B6).

\(^\text{16}\) A Cluster refers to a group of schools in close proximity to each other. At the time of this study each educational Region was divided into a number of different Clusters. Each Cluster had its own Director who was responsible for supervision of the schools as well as providing support for principals.
Work on an outcomes driven approach ran simultaneously with the schools introduction to the National Statement and Profile for English. The principal indicated that it was important that he help his teachers make explicit connections between what they had learnt from the Frameworks program and the new initiatives that were being introduced. This he did frequently during school staff meetings (Field notes B7, B13, B15 and B16).

By the beginning of 1995 the school staff felt that they were ready to start work on assessment and reporting. The school staff decided that they would like to participate as a school in the second Frameworks module on the Assessment and Evaluation. This, they felt, would provide them with a starting point for thinking about changed approaches to assessment and reporting (Interviews B5: 145-151 and B6: 15-17).

The second Frameworks module on Assessment and Evaluation was conducted by the principal, who was a trainer for the program (Interview B6). The data indicated that the school staff had decided to work slowly towards the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus but Alan, pointed out that it was impossible to talk about the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus without discussing the assessment and reporting of students' learning (Interview B6). Alan wanted the staff to have 'a deeper and broader understanding of assessment and evaluation' before fully implementing the Syllabus. He described the value of 'Frameworks' as having the potential to 'add layers of understanding' for his staff (Interview B6: 19-23).

In conjunction with the staff's attendance at the Frameworks module on assessment and evaluation, a committee of volunteer staff was formed to take on the responsibility of developing other initiatives and activities that would assist and support staff in the exploration and development of new approaches to assessment and reporting.

As this school had only just begun thinking about a new policy for assessment and reporting, it was not possible to make observations of how the school engaged in the change process as had been done with School A. In this school there was no recorded history to explain how they engaged with mandated change. However, like School A, it was considered essential, by the principal, to provide staff with the opportunity to make explicit their values and beliefs about assessment and evaluation before engaging in a process that would result in changed practices. Furthermore, Alan sought activities that would
extend teachers' knowledge and understanding of new practices for assessment and evaluation.

School C:
The staff of this school reported that they had been working on changes to their policy on assessment and reporting for two years prior to the release of the English K-6 Syllabus (Interview C11). School C was a small school with only six permanent teaching staff and a principal. Jan, the principal, suggested that this had made it easier to change the way they worked, to arrive at consensus and to develop a culture of collaboration and learning within the school (Interview C12).

In order to understand the processes of change that they adopted in this school to develop new policy and practices of assessment and reporting, it is necessary to describe their starting point and their vision of how the process of change might work. Their journey is mapped in Figure 43.

Petra indicated that the catalyst for change had grown out of the staff's dissatisfaction with the approaches they had been using for professional development. They were looking for a way of developing their understandings and all the approaches they had tried were seen by the staff to have failed (Archival document C9.8). Coupled with this perceived need, Petra, the senior teacher in the school as well as the English K-6 Facilitator, working in conjunction with the principal, was anxious to establish a learning community in the school. This they felt might enable them 'to cope with and learn from change and to improve learning through change' (Archival document C9.8:1). Petra and Jan were interested to develop a team building approach to professional development, one which would allow them to use their 'collective talents and shared wisdom' (Archival document C9.8:2).

A decision was made by the school to participate in the same course that had been used with success in both Schools A and B (Interviews A2 and B6). Petra had attended a trainers' course for the Frameworks modules and this enabled her to conduct the course with her own staff (Personal Journal, April, 1995). The school began by using the Frameworks first module on Literacy and Learning (Turbill et al., 1991). During the eight sessions that extended over a school term, the staff were introduced to a new approach to professional development, one which encouraged them, through a series of workshops, to explore 'the theory of others through readings', to engage in 'individual and group reflection' and
to 'make explicit their own beliefs and values about learning and literacy (Archival document C9.8:2).

Petra and Jan described this process as 'long and often tedious as teachers went through the necessary period of "intellectual unrest" when they felt challenged, threatened and confused (Archival document C9.8:2). They suggested that the collegial support that emerged during their group sharing and reflection time was an essential part of the Frameworks model of learning. Petra and Jan suggested that it was as a result of these sharing times that teachers had taken control of their own learning. They indicated that as a result of their collaborative learning within their own school context, the teachers felt 'ownership' of their new found knowledge.

Having completed the first of the Frameworks courses the staff decided to participate in the second module on Assessment and Evaluation (Interview C11). Again Petra was the facilitator for this course. Petra indicated that whilst the first Frameworks module had focused heavily on helping the teachers to 'unpack' their values and beliefs about teaching and learning, the second module had helped them to develop strategies for collecting, analysing and reporting on data gathered about their students as language learners (Interview C11). Like the first course teachers were again encouraged to examine their own practices in relation to assessment and evaluation, study the practices of others and through group reflection, risk taking and sharing, were able to arrive at their own personal theory of assessment and evaluation' (Archival document C9.8:2).

Petra suggested that the model of learning upon which this program was based had brought the staff more closely together as it had encouraged them to reflect on their practice, share classroom experiences and work together on their problems (Field notes C7 and Interview C11). Petra also indicated that as part of their workshop sessions the staff had designed an initial action plan to determine future policy and directions for assessment and evaluation.

Petra reported that it was through these activities that a 'learning community' had emerged. The school, she indicated, had developed a new shared knowledge and shared meaning which as a community, had prepared them for the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus and its demands for new approaches to assessment and reporting (Archival document C9.8:3).
The process of becoming prepared to make changes and to start developing new practices for assessment and reporting extended over a period of two years. The school plan for 1994 and 1995 focused on the trialing of new assessment and reporting processes in conjunction with the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. The school staff decided to use the outcomes of the English K-6 Syllabus to assist them in the reporting of students' learning (Interview C2: 5). In this way new assessment techniques and reporting procedures for English were integrated, right from the start, with the implementation of the Syllabus (Archival document Interview C2).

Petra and Jan described their process of learning in the following way:

"The mode of implementation was rushed, with the training modules not meeting teachers' needs. This Syllabus was mandatory so we used our learning community skills to align this external edict with our shared internal beliefs. We explored the concept of profiling children and examined the functional model of language and its accompanying grammar. We trialed classroom strategies for collecting data about children's learning. We used the concept of 'peer debriefing' regularly and systematically to assist us to accurately interpret our data. We shared our successes and problems and took shared responsibility for reporting our data to parents and the system" (Archival document C9.8: 4).

Petra and Jan developed a diagram to help them describe the school process of change that they had experienced. They described the process as involving five stages (See Figure 43).

As well as developing new assessment strategies in the classroom, the School Management Plan for 1994 included the following new initiatives for reporting student learning to the parents:

Term One17: Parent Information Session
Parent Interviews: The introduction of parent interviews were held early in the year. This had been brought forward from term two in previous years. The interview was conducted between the parent and the teacher.

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17 The school year in Australia begins in February and finishes in December. There are four school terms in a school year.
Figure 43: School C's concept map of the journey of the assessment and reporting process (Adapted from Figure 3.1 developed by Cambourne and Turbill, 1994, page 19)

Term Two: Distribution of Prose Reports
Prose Reports focused specifically on the students' writing development and used the English K-6 Syllabus outcomes as a guide. This was a short informal written communication.
A Parent Survey to be conducted as to their response to the Prose Reports.

Term Three: Student Portfolios and Student Led Conferences
Student Led Conferences was a time when children presented their portfolio to their parents showing their growth in literacy and language learning.

Term Four: Parent Information Session on the nature of outcomes expressed in the English K-6 and the subsequent levelling of students. Yearly Report: This was a formalised Report Card that described the child's progress in terms of the English K-6 Syllabus outcomes but with space to allow opportunity for teachers to add their comments (Interview C2:112-117 and Archival Document C9.6).

The staff at School C thought that having Petra on the staff provided them with an 'in house' consultant for English (Interview C3). Because of Petra's perceived skills and understandings in the area of literacy and language learning it was Petra who played a major role throughout the process of change (Interview C3).

Throughout the process of trialing, it was reported by the principal and Petra that time had been set aside during weekly staff meetings and grade meetings for the school staff to share their classroom experiences and contribute their personal responses to the new techniques being used to assess students' literacy and language learning (Interview C5 and C12). Another purpose of these sharing sessions was to collectively decide on what they might try next and how they might go about it (Interview C5: 72). Petra described the process the school went through to develop their strategies for reporting thus:

'This is only a trial year and we're certainly going to refine each stage of this as we go through. We've had a pre-interview staff meeting (referring to parent interviews), we've had a post interview staff meeting. We've had a pre-prose report staff meeting ...... and we are going to have a post-prose report staff meeting so we can share what we are going to do, what were the pitfalls, how do we need to change it for next year. We'll do the same with student led conferences and we'll do the same with the final report at the end of the year. That's really quite evolutionary, we're working our way through it and at the end of the year we'll have a game plan I think. I don't think we'll have the final product.'

18 Levelling refers to establishing at what stage along the language development continuum the student has reached.
We've (also) done some parent in-servicing. I ran a parent course about three weeks ago just talking about the new style of reporting that we were going to try and I also talked to them briefly about profiles' (children's learning profiles) (Interview C2: 118-119).

With particular reference to the implementation of 'three way conferences', Petra reported that staff meetings had provided her with the opportunity to demonstrate, through modelling, how students could be prepared to take an active role in this activity. She suggested that the focus of the 'student led conference' was to help children to reflect, articulate, and evaluate their own learning. Petra described it in this way. 'I suggested to the staff that we do it by modelling because how better to teach children or adults to do anything than by modelling? So I sort of ran that staff meeting on a modelling vein hoping that they'd pick up on it' (Interview C5: 18).

After each new initiative for reporting students' learning, Petra indicated that a questionnaire had been sent home to the parents asking them for their feedback, comments and ideas (Interview C2). Jan indicated that the feedback from parents had been very positive and some of the parents' ideas had been discussed by staff, action taken and new initiatives included in future plans (Interview C12). Feedback from the parent questionnaires indicated that the student led conferences had given parents new understandings about their children as learners. Furthermore, they said that they had been surprised at the enthusiasm and pride that their child had demonstrated during the conference. Parents indicated that they had enjoyed the conferences and felt that they should be continued (Archival document C9.2). Jan felt that the ninety-eight percent attendance rate by parents was also an indication of the popularity of this reporting initiative (Interview C12).

Staff also evaluated each of the new reporting strategies from their own perspective. They identified the 'enhancers' and 'inhibitors' of each initiative and then, coupled with the parents responses, a new School Management Plan was drawn up for the following year, 1995, to reflect refinements as follows:

Term 1: Three-way conferences
The focus of this conference was on goal setting for the coming year.
Throughout the trialing process, Petra felt it was necessary to provide the staff with 'refresher' sessions which involved returning to the Frameworks course to make connections between the theory and what they were doing and making 'salient points explicit'. These occasions, Petra indicated, had also provided staff with an opportunity to reflect upon the development of their thinking (Interview C2: 7-8 and 11).

As a result of their 'co-researching experiences' the school staff developed a number of shared beliefs about assessment and evaluation. They believed that:

- having a common and sound ideology they were better able to cope with, and make changes to, their classroom practices;

- learning was a shared responsibility and needed to include the child, the parent and the teacher;

- the teacher should not be the sole assessor but that this should be shared between all stakeholders in the students' learning;

- assessment needed to be manageable and should drive the curriculum (Archival document C9.8: 5).

The staff indicated that their roles and responsibilities in the classroom had begun to change. They indicated that their approach was more student centred and that children were now more involved in their own learning and had become active participants in the life of their classrooms (Archival document C9.8: 5).

Interviews conducted with other members of the staff of School C indicated that they felt a personal sense of achievement as they developed their new practices. Two teachers said they believed that, as a school, they were at the 'cutting edge' of change in assessment and reporting practices, a position that
made them feel good (Interview C3 and C4). As a consequence of the school's trialng process of many new ideas, they gained a certain notoriety within their school region and other schools began to seek out their advice (Personal Journal, June, 1995). The staff were asked by one of the Regional Directors to present their work to other schools at a Regional Conference (Personal Journal, July 1995). Further, the principal and Petra, the English K-6 Facilitator, were asked by members of the Faculty of Education at the local University, to present a paper on their assessment and reporting project through the development of a learning community, at the annual International Reading Association Convention in the United States of America (Personal Journal, June, 1995). These occasions not only provided the principal and Petra with valuable professional experiences but gave the staff a feeling of achievement and self worth (Personal Journal, June, 1995).

Reflecting on what they called the development of their 'learning community', Jan and Petra noted the following essential characteristics:

- 'collaborative learning through shared experiences;
- acknowledgment of the collective knowledge, skills and wisdom of the group;
- opportunities for teachers to make their beliefs explicit through involvement in reflection and sharing activities;
- exploration of new knowledge resulting in shared learning;
- supportive, visionary leadership;
- shared meaning and shared responsibility' (Archival document C9.8: 4).

All of these characteristics suggest that the process used by this school to understand and work with mandated change reflected a particular view about mandated change, professional development and school growth. The process reflected such beliefs as:

- An identification of a real collective need to change;
• The value of working as a team. This was evidenced in the process of staff meetings that were organized to provided teachers with the opportunity to share experiences as well as making their own decisions about what would happen next.

• The importance of sharing problems as well as the celebration of successes.

• The facilitator and principal, in leading the change process, were providing demonstrations of learning that were congruent with the school staff's beliefs about learning. These included time for reflection, making connections between their own experiences as learners and their students' experiences, working together to solve problems, taking risks and providing each other with learning support.

• The value of involving parents in the decision making process.

• The momentum for change as an ongoing process was sustained by continuous action, the collection of data, reflection and modified action.

School D: The principal of School D, John, reported that the lower school (Kindergarten to year two) and upper school (year 3-6) had very different perspectives about teaching and learning and about assessment and reporting. In the lower school he indicated that teachers had done 'a lot of in-service training', had far more experience of whole language, anecdotal records, natural learning theory and hands on experiences with profiles' (Interview D13(4): 200-201). He considered, therefore, that the lower school staff (K-2) would not have problems with the English K-6 Syllabus. Indeed the data indicated that many teachers in the lower school were taking their own initiatives to ensure that assessment and reporting processes would fulfil the obligations of the Syllabus (Interviews D5 and D6).

In contrast, John indicated that the upper school staff (Years 3-6) had very traditional beliefs about assessment and reporting. He noted that these teachers used traditional patterns of testing and formal report cards with marks and averages (Interview D13: 202). John qualified the use of these practices by saying that parents strongly favoured a more formal approach (Interview D13: 203-207). He described parents as showing a preference for 'an academic style of report' (Interview D13: 227). He felt that the staff of the upper school would
only change now because new approaches to assessment and reporting had become mandatory policy for schools. (Interview D13). Although expressing some concern for these teachers, John felt that the DSE training programs would provide the necessary information and support to initiate change in his school (Field notes D4).

One of the most important points to emerge from the first three vignettes, although they are only brief, is the integrated nature of professional learning, as mandatory change was implemented into their schools.

SUMMARY OF THEME ONE
This part of the results has focused on schools' responses to the English K-6 Syllabus and its implementation. Whilst the participants responses reflected many of the same reactions as those reported in the Eltis Report (1995), the participants in this study were far more critical than indicated in the Eltis Report about the design and organization of the training packages that were developed to support teachers in the implementation process of the Syllabus.

However, in providing responses to the English K-6 Syllabus, the participants in this study have described how they were responding to mandated change which in turn served to provide insights about the nature of and relationship between professional learning, school growth and change. The most significant of these insights in terms of this study can be summarised as follows:

Category 1: ODE and its perceived relationship with the English K-6 Syllabus.

- Learning new ways of talking about the change is an essential part of the change process.

- Teachers need to understand the reason for change, 'the big picture'.

- All curriculum change needs to be clearly justified and grounded in a sound theory of learning.

- Change requires the realignment between theory and practice and between curriculum, the School Management Plan and its organization and implementation. If a new theoretical approach was to be successfully
implemented then it was considered necessary to align all features of the school organization and management to this focus.

Category 2: Schools' Responses to the English K-6 Syllabus.

- Teachers need to feel a part and ownership of the change proposal

- Teachers indicated that a relationship exists between unpacking and articulating values and beliefs and their ability to accept mandated change (English K-6 Syllabus) and to make changes to their classroom practices.

- Schools that had an existing framework and ongoing commitment for action and change in their school seemed more likely to find external mandates coming into the school easier to cope with.

- It was seen to be essential if change at the classroom level was to happen that teachers needed to internalise the change and make it part of their own belief system.

- Children’s learning needs to be at the centre of any agenda for school change.

- Mandated change was not necessarily the catalyst for change. An important starting point was seen to grow out of the 'real' needs that teachers had identified for themselves.

Category 3: Schools' Responses to the Training and Development Program and Other Curriculum Support Materials.

- Training courses developed by the DSE to support change took little heed of how teachers learn and make changes to their practice.

- Training courses did not use an appropriate model of adult learning and thus did not provide appropriate support to teachers for the implementation of the Syllabus.

- Responses indicated that the successful implementation of the Training programs using local facilitators was heavily dependent on the knowledge and skills of these facilitators about the new theories of
language learning being presented, effective models of adult learning and the complexities of the change process.

Category 4: Schools' Responses to New Mandated Approaches to the Assessment and Reporting of Students' Learning.

- The importance of alignment between teaching approaches and practices to assessment and reporting on student's learning needs to be recognised and developed.

- The process of change needs to be a deliberate process and therefore needs to be planned for and supported. It is not a linear process.

- Commitment to and ownership of the change proposals by the teachers are an essential requirement of engagement in the change process.

- There is a need to engage in activities that challenge closely guarded belief systems.

- Learning was considered the cornerstone of all development in the school.

- Professional learning was considered an ongoing process that needed to be embedded in the everyday life of the workplace.

- The school community needed to take control of the change agenda so that change efforts were more purposeful and meaningful.

- The success of change was dependent on the development of shared decision making, shared meaning and a shared language.

- It was considered that multiple cultures operated within a school.

The next two parts of the results will focus on the case study schools' perceptions of the role that school organization and school culture played in the implementation of mandated change, professional learning and school growth.
THEME TWO: SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Whilst the initial focus of the data analysis was on the four schools' responses to and implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, two further themes emerged as significant in the process of change. As the participants from the four case study schools described what they were doing to implement mandated change, they emphasised the importance of the 'school as an organization' and 'school culture'. The nature of the 'school as an organization' forms the focus of this second part of the results. Participants from Schools A, B and C used the term 'community' more often than the term 'organization' but no distinction seemed to be drawn between the two. These results present the collective wisdom of the four case study schools.

From the descriptions of school organization offered by the case study schools, four major categories emerged as follows (See Figure 45):
### Figure 45: Structured overview for theme two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General characteristics</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Use of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>Knowledge of the big picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Positive leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuous learning</td>
<td>Good management</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunism</td>
<td>Relationships &amp; Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Concern for staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Open management &amp; shared decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>Negotiation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Organizational structures and activities</td>
<td>The school management plan</td>
<td>Ensuring ownership and membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The school council</td>
<td>Developing shared purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School and parent committees</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The school executive</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Staff meetings</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Supervisory meetings</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Peer debriefing</td>
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<td>Grade meetings</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Student Representative Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership and principles of management and administration</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Working principles of management and administration</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Leadership roles and responsibilities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Characteristics of leadership</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Alignment of collective beliefs with working principles and organisation</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- the general characteristics of the school as an organization
- the organizational structures and activities that the school set in place to initiate, support and/or sustain learning and curriculum change;
the style of leadership, principles and practices of management and administration employed to get things done; and

the importance attached to the alignment of beliefs with curriculum, organizational structures and practices.

The data indicated that each of these categories were seen as an integral part of the schools' efforts to implement the English K-6 Syllabus. From the schools descriptions of their schools as an organization/community, it was possible to gain insights into how the schools went about the change process and how their workplaces operated. The boundaries between these categories of school organization/community seem to be closely related in numerous ways to the third part of the results on 'school culture'. For instance, descriptions of relationships, whilst included as a major category under 'school culture', seemed also to constitute an integral part of the way the schools went about their business of being an organization.

Category 1: General characteristics of the four case study schools as an organization

In describing their schools as organizations staff offered a number of essential characteristics which they felt were important if change was to take place. These characteristics reflect both 'ideal' characteristics as well as descriptors of the nature of their own operations.

At my first meeting with David, the principal of School A, he described his school as an organization thus:

This organization is a moving mosaic...... That is the moving mosaic where you have a whole heap of interconnecting, overlapping networks within the organization. The boundaries are blurred and you can move from one network to another quite easily and learn from one and live with another. There's overlapping categories and its flexible, dynamic and responsive, but it's uncertain, vulnerable and contested, and this is the kind of culture I feel that we have here. It's a challenging and hard place to work. You can do some marvellous things but you're also very vulnerable. Anyone who decides they want to hurt somebody else they can do it quite easily and that happens to a lot of good people who say, "Why do I have to put up with this? I'm working my tail off.. I'm developing this sort of stuff for me and my colleagues and my peers
and anyone who doesn't want to be involved in it can sabotage it.". It's a very
very uncertain and contested environment in which to live, but I feel it's the one
that we should be looking at (Interview A1: 166).

David went on to say that,

'If the Department would let me and they won't, I would do what every other
decent organization in the world has done and that is to flatten out management
so that your management instead of being hierarchical, is a flat network, where
people are interrelating with each other' (Interview A11: 33).

When asked to describe the major characteristics of their schools as an
organization, the four principals and some of the teachers collectively offered
twelve characteristics. These included adaptability, flexibility, problem solving,
commitment, continuous learning, opportunism, collaboration, both collective
and individual empowerment, shared decision making, creativity, shared
purpose, shared vision, shared responsibility and a shared language. Whilst
these do not include all the characteristics that were mentioned, these emerged
as the most significant. All characteristics are not common to each of the four
schools but represent a collective view. The first eight were singled out for
special mention whilst the others remain embedded in participants' descriptions
of the schools' activities, practices and articulated beliefs.

Adaptability
Adaptability was seen as being able to identify priorities and being able to run
with them, temporarily casting aside other things as new priorities emerged
(Interview B12: 84). Participants in School B indicated that adaptability was a
prerequisite for coping with change.

Jan, the principal of School C, suggested that adaptability was essential. There
was no choice but to be adaptable as almost all of the directives and new
Syllabus documents coming into the school from the Department of School
Education were mandatory. Schools and their staff had to be adaptable to
change. This placed heavy demands on the teachers as mandatory change
initiatives seemed to be constant (Interview C12: 67-76). She added that
adaptability demanded a willingness to try new things and to be ever reflecting
and exploring. She felt that the staff at her school had always been willing to
'give things a go' (Interview C12: 85).
Flexibility
Both Alan and Jan indicated that whilst adaptability was related to being able to change quickly without fuss, flexibility related more to relationships and people. Alan, the principal of School B, argued that in an inflexible organization people have jobs to do whereas in a flexible organization, 'if that tight structure isn't as tight then you really depend on the people, their professionalism and you trust them to do the best job. What you tend to have then is that people don't have a task, they have a responsibility. And I've found that people who have that responsibility are more likely to have flexibility' (Interview B12: 85).

Jan, the principal of School C, emphasised that being flexible was all about responding to needs in a variety of situations whether these involved the students or teachers. She went on to say that flexibility was also about a focus on tasks and projects rather than positions and where ownership and membership, say of committees, was always changing. To be flexible, Jan suggested, was about not having things tied up tightly in boxes but rather where the boundaries were always loose and flexible (Interview C12:133-146). This was later evidenced in School C's description of their implementation of new approaches to assessment and reporting.

Problem solving
Problem solving was seen as a process of identifying problems and needs of the school and then finding collective solutions to these problems. David felt that since the Department had handed back much of the decision making to the schools, with particular reference to professional development and the implementation of curriculum mandates, the ability to be able to solve problems had become more important (Interview A14: 34). Jan indicated that problem solving was an integral part of the way her school staff worked together in their school. She commented that when problems arose they were usually solved through discussion and negotiation. She felt it was easier to do this in a small school (Interview C12: 107-112).

Commitment
Commitment was also singled out as being an important characteristic of effective school organization. Alan indicated that commitment was about involvement, participation, taking responsibility and the empowerment of staff (Interview B6). David noted that the commitment of the majority of his staff and the parent body to change had been the key to their progress and development as a school (Interview A2).
John, the principal of School D, felt that 'the personal lives of teachers, particularly the men, often impinged on their commitment to school business' (Interviews D7: 51). Commitment to change, John suggested, was a prerequisite for the successful implementation of new ways of doing things although commitment from all staff all of the time was an unrealistic expectation (Interview D7).

**Continuous learning**

Continuous learning was seen by participants from Schools A, B and C as an essential feature of how their schools worked both at the teacher and the student level. Jan, the principal of School C, indicated that it was through the continuous learning of the staff that a sense of community was developed and the outcome of this was school growth (Interview C12). This characteristic is described in more detail in the next part of the results on school culture.

**Opportunism**

Opportunism was considered by school principals and some teachers as an important part of the change process. They saw opportunism as the ability to take advantage of special activities, resources and funds that would support both individual and school growth.

In School C, for instance, Jan considered that she was opportunistic in the way she promoted the school within the wider community and used the activities and resources within the community to enhance the program offered to the students. Further, she reported that her school was always quick to take advantage of opportunities that arose for her staff. She encouraged her staff to become involved in projects sponsored by the Department, to 'get out there and be seen and to let others know what we are doing in this school' (Interview C12: 86-95).

In School A, two of the teachers talked of the way the principal was particularly good at acquiring and soliciting extra funds and resources from many different sources to support school projects (Interviews A14.1 and A4). It was reported that he was also adept at networking beyond the school walls. He kept in close contact with the local university and encouraged lecturers to form professional and research alliances and partnerships with the teachers from his school (Interview A5).
Collaboration
Collaboration was seen by principals from Schools A, B and C as an essential feature of both collective and individual growth. Jan described collaboration as 'sharing with people, helping one another' (Interview C12: 97). As well as an emphasis on building learning teams and helping people to do that effectively within the school environment (Interview B21: 92), both Alan and David felt that collaboration was also concerned with the ability to network, both formally and informally, outside the school (Interviews B12 and A1).

The principals also indicated that collaboration was an essential part of developing a learning community for everyone in the school community, including the staff, administrators, parents and students.

Empowerment
Libby, from School A indicated that empowerment was another essential feature of a school’s growth. From a personal perspective she had found that her work on committees and her promotion to an AST position (Advanced Skills Teacher) had increased her responsibility and commitment to the school and this in turn had made her feel needed and empowered. She felt she was an important part of the process of school growth (Interview A14.3:106). Libby also felt that self empowerment was important. She noted that 'if you have a go at something and succeed, you think, "Ah, I can do that", you know, and it's a self confidence booster and internal empowerment' (Interview A14.3). Libby concluded that with empowerment came a change in the perception of yourself and what you can do' (Interview A14.3: 109-111).

David, the principal of School A, emphasised the importance of supporting individual growth and Alan the principal of School B, talked of encouraging and supporting teachers to take responsibility and with responsibility came empowerment (Interviews A5 and B6). David pointed out that the concept of empowerment was one that could be applied to the whole school rather than just individuals. He considered that his school felt empowered to take control of the change agenda as they had developed their own set of values and beliefs about teaching and learning (Interview A5).
Category 2: Organizational structures, activities and working principles

School agendas are determined by state, regional and/or cluster priorities (Archival document B15.1). Both Alan and David indicated that whilst schools had little control or say over what was to be done, they did have control over how things were to be done in their schools (Interviews A1, B1 and B14). Alan, however, noted that external mandates made internal school structures and activities difficult to organize and manage as they often arrived with little warning (Interview B14: 3-10).

John, the principal of School D, suggested that, 'How you organize the school and the structures you put in place are part of the school culture. I think that the school's culture can dictate how you structure things' (Interview D12: 67). David, however, also stressed the importance of addressing both the collective and individual needs of the staff when determining the kinds of structures that needed to be developed. He said:

'These structures must be designed to encourage, support, protect and assist all personnel whilst ensuring that provision is made for accommodating the individual needs of students and fostering the professional development for all staff' (Archival document A11.2: 4).

David also emphasised that it was important 'not to start off with the structures' (Interview A17: 31-34) but rather indicated that,

'If you can develop a shared purpose in a school which is based on your beliefs then, and only then, are you able to set up structures to enable that shared purpose to occur' (Interview A11: 65).

David went on to say that everything they did in his school attempted to develop a shared purpose. He argued that shared purpose was best developed through 'immersion and demonstration', that is, 'immersion' in school activities and/or action research projects, and 'demonstration' by those staff who had clearly articulated and defined beliefs (Interview A10: 69 - 73).

David indicated that in each school community in which he had worked there were 'nattering nabobs of negativity' who actively went about resisting change and the development of a shared purpose through non-involvement in
activities and structures' (Interview A11: 73). Alan, the principal of School B, agreed that there would always be 'blockers to change' and suggested that,

'You're kidding yourself if you think that you can get every teacher to have the same aspirations for the school that you have. But at least I think it's possible to have all the staff, if not pulling in the same directions as you, not pulling in the opposite direction' (Interview B12: 31).

Both David and Alan suggested that an important outcome of school structures and activities was that they provided the opportunity for the development of shared dialogue and shared beliefs as well as the development of a shared language about what teachers were doing and why they were doing it (Interviews A11 and B12). John also felt that it was the development of a common language which best helped the school to develop a shared purpose and vision (Interview D13: 29).

 Principals in all four schools made connections between school structures and activities and their potential to help and support both individual and collective growth of the staff. Organizational structures, Alan suggested, allowed people to work together (Interview B1: 33). These structures and activities were described as both formal and informal in nature and catered for individual, small group and whole school learning and development. Composition, goals and membership of structured groups and activities were reported as constantly changing according to needs (Interview A11 and C12: 133).

 Some of the more formal and permanent structures and activities found in the schools included school councils, the school executive, staff meetings, grade meetings and supervisory meetings. Alan suggested that these were all interrelated and acted as pathways that allowed change to occur. He said,

 'These pathways, they're not diverging, they're converging pathways that achieve whatever the goal might be' (Interview B12:25).

 Alan made the point that change could be achieved through any one of the structures or all simultaneously.

 The principals descriptions of their organizations/communities indicated that activities were motivated by both school and individual needs and that these were realised through the development of the School Management Plan, work
with parent groups and collaborative research projects that often included participants from outside the school.

Research activities were common in three of the four schools. Some of these were short term action research projects like the one on 'reflective teaching' that involved small groups of teachers in two of the case study schools. This project formed part of a Regional initiative and involved staff from a number of schools (Field notes A12 and Interview B5). Another project focused on a collaborative action research project on early literacy learning and was being conducted by Petra and a language consultant from the Department of School Education (Interview C5). David felt that co-researching projects with local university staff and with the DSE were important activities for the growth of individual teachers as well as for school growth.

Other activities and structures were developed to support state or regional priorities and usually involved whole school action. These priorities required more long term structures to support their development (Interview C13: 40).

Staff from the case study schools indicated that the major formal structures and activities that had been developed formed the major infrastructure for the support and development of change. The most significant of these seemed to include:

- the negotiation and development of the School Management Plan,
- the School Council,
- participation in school committees
- the school executive,
- staff meetings,
- supervisory meetings,
- grade meetings, and
- Student representative Councils.
These structures and associated activities were described as follows:

The School Management Plan
The data indicated that an integral aspect of what the schools did and the way each school conducted business was based on a School Management Plan. This plan laid out the program of desired school growth for the year and the ways that the plan would be realised. The School Management Plan largely determined the content and extent of the formal staff development program (Archival documents A4.6, B1.3, B1.4 and B1.5). Whilst the School Management Plan was described as the basis of activities, it was also reported that external mandates often arrived at the school with little warning, which made modifications to the School Management Plan necessary (Interviews A1 and B1). The School Management Plan extended over a four year cycle to accommodate the introduction, trialing, implementation and evaluation processes of new syllabus documents. Each year the plan was reviewed and revised to accommodate new Departmental and school priorities (Interviews A1, B1 and D1).

The School Council
Two of the case study schools indicated that they had active School Councils. In School A, the School Council was involved with the staff of the school in the development of school 'exit' outcomes. They were also an integral part of the decision making process for the development of new policies on assessment and reporting (Interview A13). In School B, the School Council indicated that they were still not quite sure about their role or purpose as the principal was still new at the school and needed time to settle in (Interview B20).

It was indicated that the other two case study schools were struggling with the concept of a School Council and the purpose and function that it should serve. In School D, the principal was fairly new to the school and indicated that he was intent on developing relationships and structures within the school before extending his work to include the school community (Interview D10).

School committees:
The data indicated that in all four schools, committees were considered an important part of how the school went about its business. In Schools A, B and C the committees formed were said to be an essential part of how the school was organized and managed. In these schools it was indicated that the committees were developed as a result of changing needs. As a consequence of this the
membership, formation and responsibilities of the committees were ever changing and flexible. In School D, however, the structure of their committees was less flexible and had only marginal influence over school organization or management and rarely made any significant decisions on behalf of the entire school (Interview D9). This was the responsibility of the executive committee.

In School A, B and C, it was indicated that committees were formed to take responsibility for the introduction, implementation or evaluation of new mandated Syllabus documents, the development of new school policy, the procurement and management of school resources and the research and exploration of new ideas and projects. The scope, purpose and responsibility of these committees varied between schools but in all three cases these committees were formed as a result of whole school needs and priorities identified in the School Management Plan. The committees were seen to engage in a process of investigating and exploring issues which were then reported directly back to the whole staff at staff meetings and, in two cases, to the parent body as well (Field notes A12, B7, B15, B16 C6 and C14). In this way these committees were accountable to the school staff (Interview A10: 84 and Field notes B2, B3, B13 and C14). In Schools A and B the committees were allocated and responsible for their own budget. In Schools A, B and C it was seen that the committees had genuine decision making powers after a process of negotiation with the entire school staff (Field notes A15, B13, B15 and C14).

Three of the four schools had created a number of special committees and groups to discuss and recommend action relative to the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus. Committees for the development of new school policy on assessment and evaluation were common to three of the four schools. In School B, particular staff members were identified as the information and resource people on outcomes-based education and the development of school outcomes, an initiative that each of the principals from Schools A, B and C felt was necessary to support the English K-6 Syllabus. The promotional position of AST (Advanced Skills Teacher) were ascribed to teachers with special expertise in the area of English. These teachers became important players in school initiatives for the support of the English K-6 Syllabus (Interviews D6, B6 and A3).
In Figure 46, School A describes the purpose, function and support mechanisms for the operation of their committees. This figure also illustrates the relationship between the school committees, the staff, the executive committee and the parent body.

Alan described his thinking about school committees in this way:
'One way I do that is not to have one person responsible for a particular area but to have a group of people, maybe four or five people. The people in that group are across (the grades) from pre-school to year six. What I tend to do is to give them the responsibility. It's very easy for me to give people jobs, you do this and you do that, and then we'll be fine. I'm not giving them any responsibility in that regard. All I'm doing is giving them a job to do. That's not going to develop any sort of value as far as their own thinking is concerned. So what I hope I do is to give teachers responsibility. They determine what jobs or what roles are within that responsibility and I'm there to help or to take the lead or drop back whenever I'm needed' (Interview B1: 24).

Libby, a teacher from School A, described her perceptions of the relationship between the principal and the committees as follows:

'The principal passes, in a large way, his decision making powers on to the committee, then the committee is empowered. The principal still has the right of veto. He's not going to sit back and allow anything that's directly against departmental policy or whatever, right, so you still have a lot of guidelines to work within. But because he said, 'I am not going to veto what they do, this has been reached by consensus, the only way it can be changed is by consensus'. That's the empowerment of the committee.

So if you've got a problem, if someone objects to something that the committee is doing, well they come along to the meeting and they say so and then it gets looked at again. Or it's taken to the staff and the majority of people there sort of say 'I don't like this' or even if there are three or four people who are really strongly against it, okay, it goes back to the committee, it gets re-looked at, it gets modified, until we get a consensus, where you know, most people are reasonably happy with what we've got and if anybody isn't, then you know, they just have to decide whether they're going to keep fighting it or it's just not worth fighting over' (Interview A14.3: 105).

David and Alan both felt that one of the most important aspects about school structures and activities was the growth which they observed in the people who became involved in them (Interview A11 and B12). 'It's just that the people who are doing things (in the school) are growing whilst they are doing them' (Interview A11: 9). An example of this potential for learning and growth was also described by Libby where she recalled her own development when David
gave her responsibility and trust to head a committee to develop a new assessment and reporting policy for the school.

Alan noted that the committee structures also allowed him to focus on the people heading them. He felt it was important for the principal to provide constant support, feedback and encouragement to those people taking the lead (Interview B12: 29). He also pointed out that working on committees or in small research groups provided the opportunity for staff to develop relationships, respect, confidence, team building skills and trust in each other as well as creating positive attitudes and behaviours (Interview B12:30 and 63-65). He also felt that any structures that were developed needed to be flexible and adaptable. He noted that in some schools he had worked, committees had been stagnant with no real purpose and where staff had been given little responsibility for real decision making (Interview B12: 63).

Wendy, from School A, indicated that as well as developing positive relationships within the committees it was important to understand the connections that needed to exist between the school committees. She provided the example of the relationship that existed between their Professional Development Committee and the English K-6 Committee. She noted that the chairperson of the Professional Development Committee was also a member of the English K-6 Committee. When these committees were formed, this cross relationship needed to be considered so that the committees could work in collaboration with each other. Also, by reporting back to the whole staff, everybody was aware of what others were doing (Interview A6: 21-23). Alan, however, reported that in his school, having a separate committee for professional development had proved problematic as the overlap with the work of other committees was too great and that the staff had determined half way through the year that it would be better to integrate professional development into the work of all the other committees (Interview B14:104-108).

In Schools A and B the principals mentioned that they acted as floating members of the school committees, along with their deputy principals (Interviews A8, A1 and B12). This approach meant that executive support was always available to any group or activity in the school (Interview A8: 89-95).

In School C, because it was a small school, Jan, the principal, noted that although they had a few committees, most decisions were made by the whole staff. 'We work together as a team' (Interview C12:34-38). Whilst two of the
schools had only four or five school committees, another, School D, had twelve. The committees of School D did not have major decision making responsibilities and the scope of the committees remained static over the two years of my visits (Field notes D4). These committees had been responsible for writing school policies and making recommendations to the executive committee for the purchasing of resources (Interview D9: 70-87).

An important point voiced by the principals of Schools A, B and C, was the need to make committees flexible, ever changing, so they might accommodate and respond to changing needs and to ensure a changing membership so that everyone had the opportunity to become involved in the growth of the school (Interviews A6, B12 and C12: 133-144).

As well as school committees in School A, B and C, the staff had been working with parents to keep them informed about changes in school curriculum, outcomes, assessment and reporting. In School A, as has already been mentioned, after a period of work with the parents, the parents had been invited to form a committee, chaired by a member of staff so that they might become joint decision makers on issues relative to the reporting of their children's learning (Interview A13 and Field notes A12).

The school executive
In three of the four schools, membership of the school executives consisted of the principal, the deputy(s) and senior teaching staff. The roles and responsibilities of the school executive, across all schools, were different from the school committees. In three of the four schools the school executive had a more traditional hierarchical role in the school and were concerned with accountability for the supervision of staff to the system. It also served as a school management structure (Interview B12). However, in School A, all executive meetings were open to all the staff who were encouraged to participate.
The function and purpose of this executive committee was described in this way (See Figure 47):

'Executive staff are joined by interested, willing and enthusiastic teachers to form an extended executive which performs a "cabinet" style function. This is led by a Co-ordinator for executive development (never the principal) and performs the functions outlined in the model (Figure 47). This is one of the numerous organizational, communicating and support structures which ensure the organization, policy, staff and curriculum development activities are initiated, implemented and finalised as efficiently and as effectively as possible. Meetings are held weekly' (Archival document A11.2).
But this initiative was not popular with some of the teaching staff of this school who felt that it was not their job to be involved with this level of decision making (Interview A9). Alan noted that the different role of the executive from the other structures, like the school committees, often gave teachers different messages as they operated from different paradigms, a point he felt he should try to change (Interview B12: 84-86).

In Schools A, B and C executive meetings focused on everyday administrative matters, staffing requirements and finalising decisions that had been made by the whole staff. Few decisions seemed to be made in complete isolation of the staff. In these schools time was also set aside for discussion and reflection about future directions for the school, leadership and policy (Field notes A12, B16 and C16). Figure 47 shows the function of the school executive in School A but it also typified the purpose of the school executive in Schools B and C. These functions seemed to describe the characteristics common in both schools.

Alan pointed out that in his school, the relationship between the executive and the staff was very important, and that staff needed to feel that the executive were working to support the staff rather than 'manage' them. He noted that in many schools a 'them' (the school executive) versus 'us' (the classroom teachers) mentality existed and he felt that this was a natural outcome of a traditional hierarchy of power and control. But whilst he acknowledged that schools had to live with the hierarchical structures dictated by the system, the nature of the relationships between executive and the other staff need not be autocratic and authoritarian. He emphasised the importance of trust that needed to be developed at all levels within the school. Without trust, he suggested, there could be no dialogue and without dialogue there could be no growth and development (Interview B12: 30). Working within the structures of the school, he felt, provided opportunity to develop trust and dialogue although he observed that in his own school that it was 'very very difficult to really get them (the staff) to talk about and to say what they really think' (Interview B6:57).

In School C it was reported that executive meetings had the responsibility of 'pulling things together' that had been discussed by the whole staff. Petra said that often at staff meetings many ideas were expressed but final decisions were usually left to the school executive. She emphasised that the executive valued everybody's opinion (Interview C13: 58-60).
Staff meetings
In all four case study schools staff meetings were weekly occasions. The data indicated that in Schools B and C, staff meetings included the co-ordination of what was happening in the school, discussion of organizational details, advice about Departmental directives and new policy statements, social events, and general administration (Interview B19 and C12). Observations of staff meetings in School B showed that they were occasions when decisions were made regarding school policy and practice. For instance, the question of the re-establishment of a School Council was discussed with the staff. Apparently there had once been a School Council but this had not worked well. It was determined by the staff that the principal should compile a questionnaire for all staff to gauge their opinions before further discussion take place (Field notes B13: 6).

In School A, however, staff meetings were reported as 'staff development occasions' where the teachers, either individually or in groups, presented work/research in progress in their classrooms or presented information or advice on a specific topic (Interviews A8: 91, C13. Field notes A12 and C16). These meetings were seen as 'the overlapping element of numerous interlocking networks' and provided staff 'with opportunities to deliver professional input, share and clarify developments, request and provide feedback, communicate in all directions and celebrate successes with colleagues' (Archival document A11.2). Further, it was perceived by David the principal, that staff meetings should be 'a fast moving, professionally organized, informative and exciting event, providing all with opportunities to lead and follow in a display of support, encouragement and professional development' (Archival document A11.2). David added that staff meetings allowed for the constant process of negotiation and exploration of issues.

Supervisory meetings
Alan suggested that one of the mandatory roles of the school executive was to be involved in the supervision of all school staff and to provide support and assistance to individual teachers (Interview B12). The manner in which this supervisory role was carried out depended on the beliefs about this role of the individual executive member. Alan said that it was his experience that this relationship could stretch from 'snoopervision' or traditional clinical supervision, through to co-operation or to a genuine sense of caring, interest and professional collaboration on issues of mutual concern (Interview B12).
Alan suggested that one of the most important outcomes of supervision was that it allowed the teacher to receive 'feedback', something which he felt all teachers should have (Interview B12: 34).

**Peer debriefing sessions**

Debriefing between individuals or with groups was also identified by two schools as being an essential informal structure of their schools. For instance, in School B, resources had been made available for a group of seven teachers and the principal to attend a full day seminar on outcomes driven education. On their return, the group decided to meet to discuss their reactions and how what they had heard might apply to their own school's position and development of an outcomes driven approach. The principal facilitated these debriefing and discussion sessions. The group discussed their shared perceptions and understandings of the seminar, how their own beliefs matched those that had been expressed and identified areas where, as a staff, they needed to find out more. The outcomes of these debriefing sessions were shared at staff meetings (Field notes B11.1, B11.2, B11.3, B11.4, B11.5 and B11.6).

**Student Representative Council/ Kid's Council**

School B reported on the importance they placed on having a 'Kid's Council'. Alan said that it was comprised of a representative from each class and that all business relative to the playground, school rules, fund-raising days and special events were all discussed at these meetings. Whilst there was no participation in matters relative to the syllabus or curriculum, most other matters relative to school activities were referred to this council. The principal felt that it was important that students, as well as staff, should be involved in decision making, and should take ownership and responsibility for their school (Interview B14:122-124).

**Grade meetings**

All four case study schools reported using this structure as part of their organization.

Grade meetings were perceived by some teachers in School A to be more relaxed than staff meetings (See Figure 48). Libby suggested that it was here at the small group level that change really needed to be supported (Interview A14.3). It was the work and quality of these grade meetings, Wendy reflected, that had the potential to 'make change happen at the classroom level' (Interview A10: 113-116).
Grade meetings were reported to be times when teachers planned their work together, shared ideas and discussed and solved classroom related problems (Interview B12). In each of the four case study schools the grade meetings were convened by a grade co-ordinator, usually a senior teacher. Figure 48 illustrates School A's perceptions of the function of grade co-ordinators and grade meetings (Archival document A11.2). Unlike other schools, School A believed that the pastoral care of students was best developed at this level of school organization.
The attitude that most principals had about these more formal structures was that they could be as hierarchical or as flattened as you wanted them to be. Participation in school structures and activities ensured that staff were more committed to a collective school agenda through increased ownership of, and responsibility for, policies and goals.

Category 3: Leadership and principles of management and administration

It soon became evident, during the course of this study, that the principal played an essential role in how the school coped with change. Teachers indicated that the schools' success at implementing and adopting change was heavily dependent on the values and beliefs held by the principal about learning, teaching and change. These values and beliefs, it was suggested, also had an impact on the culture as well as the organization and how the school was managed. Participants talked about the importance of leadership, leadership roles and responsibilities. Also they described characteristics of leadership that were most valued and about principles of management and administration.

Leadership, leadership roles and responsibilities

The data yielded three perspectives of leadership; the principals' perceptions of their own leadership, their beliefs about how leadership should be exercised and teachers' perceptions of how their principals actually worked in the school.

It was suggested by Wendy that the principals' personal beliefs about teaching and learning, his/her interactions with staff, the degree to which the principal took ownership of the school's agenda and their interpersonal skills, had an impact on the way the school worked (Interview A5).

Three of the four principals had a clear idea about their leadership role and responsibility within the school. Of one principal I noted:

It seems to me that David has developed his own big picture about education and his leadership role. Whilst this picture has been developed over time and results from his collaboration with others, it is a vision that has acted as a catalyst and springboard not only for the processes he has initiated in his school, but the way he operates with the staff (Personal Reflective Journal July, 1994).
The four principals interviewed felt that their responsibilities included:

- the development of a shared purpose within the school community;
- the alignment of external ideas, 'the theories of others', with their own school philosophy, that is, fitting the new into pre-existing beliefs;
- helping teachers to make connections;
- coping with conflicts in beliefs;
- acting as custodian of school beliefs, expectations and goals;
- helping to create a healthy working atmosphere/environment;
- active participation and interest in all school activities especially those related to professional learning; and
- an acceptance that their leadership had a significant influence on the school culture.

Furthermore, the principals of Schools A, B, and C expressed the belief that schools should be 'a community of learners'. If the school is seen as a community, it was suggested by one principal, then the principal should be seen as an active learner as well as the staff (Interview A2). Petra, from School C, strongly supported this view by saying that it was not possible to develop a 'community of learners' unless the principal demonstrated a commitment and interest in learning alongside the teachers. Petra explained:

'It's so important for a principal to be part of the community, to show the staff that he or she is learning the same sorts of things that they are learning ..... So they (the principals) are getting the same perspectives that a teacher does .....' (Interview C9: 124-128).

Wendy, a senior teacher and member of the executive of School A, suggested that the principal should assume the role of 'head learner' (Interview A5).
Alan, the principal of School B, pointed out that if the school operated as a community of learners, then he, as the principal, had specific responsibilities. He said:

"If there wasn't that 'community of learners' concept and attitude through the staff then nothing would happen. This implies another responsibility that I've got as a principal where I've got to make sure there are structures in the school that allow what happens in the staff meetings to get to the classroom and then to make sure the teachers have the opportunity to get feedback on what they do" (Interview B1: 33).

Both Alan and David considered that as well as being a community of learners there should also be 'communities of leaders'. The data indicated that neither of these principals saw themselves as the sole leader of the school. David explained that if this idea of 'a community of leaders' was to work, then the staff needed frequent opportunities to lead within their schools and the principal needed to make sure that this happened (Interview A5).

Alan felt that sharing leadership was a way of acknowledging that 'all people on the staff have a contribution to make that's valued, that's going to be respected and that's going to have some influence on the final outcomes' (Interview B1: 21). At the same time, however, Alan acknowledged that not all staff wanted to be leaders and that it took time to develop the right kind of environment and culture in which all teachers might feel confident about contributing ideas (Interview B1: 23).

Alan shared an insight that he recalled getting from a book on management. The book had likened the executives of a school to eagles and ducks. The author explained that whilst lying on a lawn and looking up to the heavens he observed a flock of ducks flying overhead in a "V" formation. What he noticed happening was that the lead duck would peal off and then move to the end of the flock and then the next duck in turn would take up the lead. All the way through (the flight) ducks shared the lead position and in this way it made flight easier and the ducks progressed more easily than if they had flown individually (Interview B1: 16-17). For this reason Alan concluded that the school community needed to consider who might take the lead so that when changes occurred it was better that different people, at different times, took the lead. In doing this Alan felt that 'you could move the whole staff further, and quicker than if you acted like an eagle that maybe soars above and is always in
the lead and is always supposedly dragging the rest behind' (Interview B1: 16-17).

However, Alan also acknowledged that not everyone wanted to lead and this needed to be understood. He pointed out that:

'While you create the atmosphere or the environment, while you give them the opportunity, not all teachers are going to take it up in a way that you'd like. But that's not a problem. There'd be lots of teachers in schools that would reach the head of the 'V' in that flight and just peel off straight away, but that's OK. There's obviously something that they aren't confident about that's preventing them from taking that lead at that time' (Interview B1: 91).

David emphasised that whilst principals were called upon to be leaders he believed in Barth's (1990) definition of an effective school principal. Barth, emphasised that, 'The best principals are not heroes, they are hero makers' (Interview A5).

The data indicated that this sentiment was also supported by the principals of Schools B and C. The data provided a number of examples of 'encouraging' leadership and 'hero making'. For instance, Wendy reported on how the principal of her school actively looked for opportunities for teachers to take responsibility. She quoted instances where the principal had put forward her name to the Regional Office to take part in various regional projects and these had all involved returning to school to share her experiences with others and to take on leadership roles. Often Wendy was unaware of these initiatives until after the event. In school, she reported that the principal had spent a lot of time encouraging her to take initiatives, to try out new ideas and to take risks. Wendy revealed that she always felt reassured of the principal's support and that there was 'someone there to talk to'. She noted how much she had felt she had grown under his leadership (Interview A5: 123-126).

**Characteristics of leadership**

Besides the roles and responsibilities of leadership, specific characteristics were also identified as important. These included the use of power, knowledge and understanding of the big picture, positive leadership, good management, strong relationships, trust and a concern for the development of individual members of staff. These were described thus:
Use of Power: Whilst the issue of power might be categorised as a relationship, Sarah from School A, felt that teachers' and the principals' perceptions of power was an important concept when describing the leadership roles assumed in a school. She compared her previous work experiences outside the teaching profession with those she had developed as a teacher about perceptions of what constituted 'a boss'. She observed that many teachers had a stereotypical perception of a boss 'as a power person' whereas in other work situations she had seen people regard their boss 'in a different light, as just another co-worker' (Interview A14/4: 19). Sarah elaborated on these reflections by noting that:

'Some people perceive that they (the principals) have lots of power and really without the players in a team, the captain does not have much power on his own. So it's the people that do get to work and do what they want to do, that provide the power for the school to work, rather than, you know, having it imposed from above. I think a lot of people will always see power imposed from above and that's also reflected in their classrooms' (Interview A14/4: 19).

Another aspect of power, this time raised by Judy from School D, referred to the lack of information passed down to teachers from the executive in a school (Interview D5: 108-112). Another teacher from the same school suggested that the withholding of information to the teachers was a way of 'isolating people and exercising power and control over them' (Interview D9).

Knowledge, making connections and understanding of the big picture: David, the principal of School A stated that he considered that leadership required principals 'to be knowledgeable, have a clear vision for education, have a strong set of beliefs about learning and the ability to clearly articulate these beliefs to others' (Interview A2: 4-5). Libby, one of the teachers in this school described his understanding of the big picture thus: 'Everything he says he can back up, you know, it's not airy fairy. It comes from years of experience. It comes from the literature' (Interview A14.3)

Wendy, also a teacher from School A, extended this description by saying that her principal also had the ability to see 'how things fit together to form the big picture' and she felt that the whole staff benefited from this skill (Interview A5: 13). David, the principal, confirmed this by describing a diagram he had developed to summarise and clarify a seminar he had attended (See Figure 20, The Basics of Quality Performance). He said, 'I've just refined it into one little
model so that I can understand it better and so that other people can understand it better too' (Interview A5: 90). Documents collected from the school provided many examples of his ability to summarise, to clarify and to make connections explicit between theory, practice and his school's beliefs about teaching and learning (Reflections A2: 4-5).

**Positive leadership:** Alan, the principal of School B perceived that it was important that the principal should have a visibly positive and confident approach to his job, about the teachers and about the ways s/he went about working with the staff. S/he should also present a positive view about the school (Interview B12: 13-19). He said:

'I think positiveness is really important .... That you are really positive about what you are doing and what the teachers are doing and how the school is going. The perception of the principal always needs to be a positive one' (Interview B12: 15).

Alan also claimed that teachers needed to view their school in a positive way. He provided an example of a teacher who had a number of complaints about a change in school policy with regard to changing the playground from two separate areas (for upper and lower schools) to an integrated area for all students. Alan suggested to the teacher that as well as the negative things that might be happening, it might be 'more important to view it in a positive sort of way', taking note of all the positive outcomes. He concluded, 'Since that time, that teacher hasn't come back again with any perceived problems in the playground' (Interview B12: 15).

**Good management:** Alan noted that teachers needed to feel confident about the way the school was managed and organized and that they needed to feel part of the management decisions and processes adopted within the school (Interview B12: 16). Alan provided an example by referring to the question of staffing within a school. All staffing matters had been traditionally left to the executive to organize and were usually kept secret. Alan believed that 'staff should know how the school is staffed, the sort of staffing formula that is used and what the options might be as far as organizing the staff and the class structures in the school' (Interview B12: 16). He also stated that it was important that the community perceived that the school was being managed well. Alan felt that general confidence in the way the school was managed had
a positive effect on the whole school community including the students (Interview B12: 16-17).

**Strong relationships and trust:** David argued that leadership needed to be concerned with 'good connections with staff' and 'a connectedness with individuals' (Interview A5). Trust was considered to be an outcome of strong relationships. Alan described the importance of trust with his executive as an essential part of his leadership. He expressed this in the following way:

>'If you don't have that trust, especially with your executive, then you don't have the options that you would like to explore new ideas. When I say trust I mean things like, in an executive meeting, where you are looking at and exploring some of the broader picture. If in an executive meeting you trust the exploration and discussion of the kinds of initiatives that are going to lead the school into the future ......... So I trust them that what we talk about is confidential. I trust them that they're going to let me know what they really think and not just give me a view that is fairly superficial' (Interview B12: 30-33).

Petra from School C noted that an integral part of her development related to the presence of a 'significant other', in this case the principal, someone that she could confide in, with whom she could share her ideas without fear of reprisal and who could act as a mentor. These kinds of 'significant' relationships, it was said, were based on trust (Interview C13: 8-9).

**A concern for the development of individual members of staff:** It was reported by three of the principals that they felt it their duty and responsibility to be concerned about the professional development of individual members of their staff as well as the development of the school. They indicated that they felt it was their role to act as an adviser if needed. Alan felt that he also had a responsibility to assist and encourage teachers with the development of their careers (Interview B10: 161). Jan said that she always tried to be available to talk with staff, whether the matter was professional or personal. She added that teachers' personal lives sometimes had an impact on their professional lives and this needed to be recognised (Interview C12: 120).

**Principles of management and administration**
Participants indicated that the principles of management and administration that were used in their schools reflected the nature of the leadership style that
was exercised by the principal. Embedded in their descriptions of major principles of management and administration, participants provided examples of open management and shared decision making, the value and development of a shared purpose and vision, negotiation, ownership and membership.

**Open management and shared decision making:** From the evidence provided by Schools A, B and C it was seen that the teaching staff were involved in shared decision making for the school. David indicated that executive meetings in his school were open to all staff. In this way decisions were made openly and as he pointed out, "It's not a cabinet meeting!"

The data that described the way that the committees worked within the schools demonstrated the process of decision making. So too did the process of developing a school plan which involved, in these three schools, all the staff. Staff meetings were also occasions during which issues were discussed amongst staff and decisions taken (Field notes B16: 1-16).

Sarah, from School A noted that getting teachers involved in decision making increased the school's capacity to solve problems (Interview A14: 34). Glen, the deputy principal from School A, emphasised that if you wanted teachers to change then it was necessary to get them involved in the process of change which included trying things out, making joint decisions and taking a shared responsibility for the outcomes (Interview A8: 84 and 107). Alan added that all organizational decisions taken in his school by his staff were child centred (Interview B6). Petra suggested that where staff were involved in decision making then they were more likely to have a greater investment, ownership and commitment towards the change proposal (Interview C13: 52-54).

Two teachers from School D, indicated that decisions were only made by the school executive in their school which often resulted in staff knowing very little about what was going on. This was supported by teachers' descriptions of the work of the school committees that were also reported as having limited authority and responsibility (Interview D9: 14-22, 25-33 and 52-53).

Alan and Jan, the principals from Schools B and C extended the notion of shared decision making by emphasising the importance of children becoming involved in decisions that affected their life at school. They both felt that children would, like the staff, take more responsibility for their actions if they
became more involved in the decision making process (Interviews B23: 10 and C12: 178).

The value and development of shared purpose and vision: The principals of all four case study schools and some of the teachers in this research study talked about the importance of shared purpose as being an essential element of school growth. John felt that one of the most important aspects of having a shared purpose, or vision, was that during its development a shared language was also being developed amongst the staff which provided a common language for talking about beliefs and values, purpose, intentions and about children's learning (Interview D13:29-30). Alan suggested that the development of a shared and common view of learning lay at the heart of developing a shared purpose within the school (Interview B6: 41-42).

Wendy added that she felt that the staff development plan helped to develop 'a shared and common way of working and operating in the school', which also helped to develop a common purpose (Interview A10: 89). Petra felt that one of the roles of the executive was to make sure that a common purpose was clearly visible and maintained (Interview C13: 60).

But it was also acknowledged that it was unrealistic to expect everyone to have the same aspirations for the school all of the time. As has been reported before, Alan remarked that, 'At least I think it is possible to have all of the staff, if not pulling in the same direction as you, not pulling in the opposite direction' (Interview B12: 31).

Negotiation: Schools A, B and C reported using an open approach to solving problems through negotiation processes although Alan pointed out that when he had first arrived at his school there was a strong reticence to becoming involved in discussing and solving problems (Interview B6: 69). Both Alan and Jan felt that it was important to open problems up for general discussion amongst their staff (Interviews B6: 69 and C12: 110). Jan noted that sitting down and talking things through was an essential principle in the organization and administration of her school (Interview C12: 110).

Ensuring ownership and membership: The principals of Schools A, B and C all believed that it was important that the staff become actively involved in the way the school 'did business' for, they suggested, without their involvement and membership of working groups, teachers would not feel any ownership of
the problems and would therefore feel disinclined to seek for, and participate in, finding a solution.

Category 4: Alignment of collective beliefs with administrative practices

A recurring theme raised by many of the participants in this study, focussed on the importance of understanding the interrelationships and connections that needed to exist between the various elements of the school as an organization/community. When discussing alignment participants referred to the need for a philosophical match between the curriculum, assessment and reporting, teaching practice and organizational structures and activities. Further they emphasised the importance of an understanding of how action in any one of these areas might have an effect and impact on others.

Wendy pointed out that 'beliefs underpin everything that we do' in schools (Interview A7: 19) and that values and beliefs form the basis of our practice' (Interview A10: 56-58). Here Wendy suggested that 'practice' referred to teaching practice as well as the way that the staff went about getting things done in their schools. Furthermore, she indicated that the major activities and influences on schools, like curriculum, school culture and staff development, were all 'networked and interrelated' (Interview A11: 40). David believed that 'these factors must have a vehicle and the vehicle is the teachers values and beliefs' (Interview A11: 40).

It was pointed out by Sue from School A that she felt there had been a growing awareness amongst staff of the lack of fit/alignment between their values and beliefs and their teaching practice and this in turn had lead to general frustration and a desire to 're-organize things' (Interview A9: 11). Building on this observation, she suggested that schools needed to continually work to make sure that an alignment existed between practice and beliefs. Both Alan from School B and Glen the deputy principal from School A emphasised that this issue of alignment needed to be made explicit, showing how things connected and interrelated with each other (Interview A8: 40-42 and B1: 75-77). David supported this concept by saying that staff needed to understand how everything fitted together (Interview A2:3). He suggested that:

'Unless an organization understands these interrelationships and has mutual respect and has the willingness to learn and understand those valuable belief
In discussing the importance of understanding how things fitted together, participants made explicit a number of specific philosophical alignments and important interrelationships which they felt were crucial for professional learning and school growth as follows:

- Curriculum, it was suggested by David, should be based on a strong and explicitly stated view of learning (Interview A11: 61).

- David argued that all schools needed a clearly articulated theoretical and operational framework to guide their endeavours and to accommodate the plethora of innovations that came from outside the school. He advised that it was better to 'take innovations one at a time and to fit them into an already existing framework for action' (Interview A17: 11).

- With the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, both teachers and principals in the case study schools argued that new approaches to assessment and reporting, were an integral part of a profile approach (Interview B11:86) and that 'the teaching learning strategies needed to operate hand in hand with the assessment system'(Interview B1: 64).

- A group of teachers from School B suggested that a recognition that an 'outcomes driven approach' to education offered schools the opportunity to explore, re-examine and realign all the major school functions including curriculum (syllabus profiles and outcomes) teaching/learning practices (including assessment and reporting), professional development and school organization with beliefs and values and the school's exit outcomes (Interview B11; 10-11).

- Wendy, a senior teacher from School A, determined that the nature of the staff development and curriculum development determined the kinds of structures that needed to be developed within the school (Interview A7:21).

A senior member of staff at the Regional office who was responsible for the development of Training and Development initiatives in the region, summarised the importance of alignment in the following figure (49). In it she identifies the major elements that need to align with exit outcomes as well as with beliefs (Interview R3).
SUMMARY OF THEME TWO
The data have provided rich descriptions of the general characteristics of the four schools as an organization, principles of organizational management and leadership and the alignment of collective beliefs with administrative and management practices. It was the interconnectedness of the structures and activities using certain operating principles that seemed to create an appropriate culture in which learning could take place and where change and school growth occurred.

Category 1: General characteristics of the four case study schools as an organization

- In order to ensure that people interacted with each other, a flattened organization rather than a hierarchical framework needed to exist.
• The schools consisted of many interconnecting, flexible, dynamic and responsive networks whose boundaries were blurred. This resulted in an uncertain and contested environment. It was believed that this kind of environment was required if lasting change and school growth were to occur.

• School growth took place when the school community felt empowered and committed. Commitment and empowerment and continuous learning of the school community were seen as the most important characteristics of the schools as organizations.

Category 2: Structures, activities and working principles

• Structures and activities allowed people to work together and provided the opportunity for the development of shared dialogue, shared beliefs, a shared purpose and vision as well as a shared language about what teachers were doing and why they were doing it. It was from these developments that professional learning, school growth and change could happen.

• Participation in structures and activities were seen as having the potential for teachers professional learning and growth, the development of relationships, positive attitudes and behaviours, confidence and trust. It also ensured that staff were more committed to a collective school agenda through increased ownership and responsibility for policies and goals. As a result of these developments school growth was realised.

• Opportunities need to be organized that allow for teachers to receive feedback about their teaching.

Category 3: Leadership and principles of management and administration

• The values and beliefs held by the principal about teaching, learning and change and his/her interpersonal skills were seen to be critical in determining how successfully a school implemented mandated change.

• A clear relationship was made between teachers as active learners and the school's potential to grow and change.
• Besides developing a community of learners staff also need to see themselves as a community of leaders. Staff, therefore, needed to be provided with opportunities to lead within the school. This was felt to be a way of acknowledging and respecting the contributions that the staff made to school growth. By assuming leadership positions staff felt that they had some influence over the decisions that were made.

• A shared view of learning lay at the heart of school growth.

Category 4: Alignment of collective beliefs and administrative practices

• It was reported that interrelationships and connections needed to exist between the various elements of the school including curriculum, school organization, management, leadership, values and beliefs and the way of doing things within the organization. There was also a need for philosophical congruence to exist between these elements and teaching practices.

• Curriculum, school culture, the way the school was organized and staff development needed to be 'networked and interrelated'.

• Issues of alignment needed to be made explicit showing how things connected with each other.

• To cope with external mandates schools needed a clearly articulated theoretical and operational framework to guide their endeavours.
So far an analysis of the data has presented the responses of schools to the English K-6 Syllabus and the school as an organization/community. In this part of the results the focus is on the schools' collective perceptions of school culture although it has been suggested that school organization and school culture could not be clearly delineated. David argued that each of these themes was highly interrelated, and one could not exist in isolation of the other (Interview A1). Despite the interrelatedness of these themes, for the purposes of this analysis, they have been separated so as to access greater detail and understanding of the kind of environment, the context of situation, that was considered necessary to initiate and sustain learning, change and school growth.

In describing school culture, participants shared their understandings of what they thought their school culture might or should be and then, more specifically, talked about people, their attitudes, behaviours and relationships,
about change, about professional learning, and finally about their schools' traditions and rituals (Figure 51).

![Diagram of School Culture]

**Figure 51: Five categories of school culture**

**Category 1: Characteristics: Understandings of what was meant by school culture**

Many participants from the four case study schools reported that it was difficult to describe their own school culture. Alan, the principal of School B, described his dilemma thus:

'It's very difficult to talk about school culture because it's something, I mean I spoke to John (the deputy) about school culture. I said, "What's the school culture?" And what I found out is that there was a lot of hand actions and not too many words. It's a case of "you know its... it's a case of such and such" and the hands were moving much more than the words were coming out of the mouth, so it's a very difficult thing to be confident about, so this is what the school culture is. All I know is what I want the feeling of the school to be like. The culture of the place I guess is the feel of it; the feel of the place, the same as in the classroom. .......It's very powerful, it's very obvious, but it's difficult to articulate' (Interview B12: 23, 49 and 51-52).

Whilst Alan indicated that he thought school culture presented a feeling or a special environment (Interview B1: 91), there was general agreement from all four schools that it had a lot to do with people and their relationships with each other, how people responded to each other and how they reacted to their environment (Interviews A1, B17, C9, D7, D11, and D12). Alan added to this description by suggesting that school culture was the product of teacher's and parent's attitudes and values (Interview B12: 3).
Some teachers were more specific about school culture. Libby, a senior teacher from School A, suggested that school culture was developed as a result of the relationships between people, their personalities, people's knowledge and knowing where other people were coming from (Interview A14.3: 116). Sarah, another teacher from the same school, felt that an atmosphere of support both personally and professionally, described the culture of a school. She said, 'There's people that you are closer to than others, people that you talk to on the phone at home, people that you care about and you care about what happens to them' (Interview A14.4: 35-39).

David, the principal of School A, was more sure about defining school culture and offered the following borrowed quote as a good definition of school culture as follows:

'The integrated pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, and artefacts, and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations' (Deal and Kennedy, 1982: 4).

Libby, a teacher from David's school and the chairperson of the Assessment Committee, described the importance of culture as follows:

'I believe that in establishing a climate and culture within a school, many factors must be considered and the vision held which encompasses all elements necessary for organizational renewal. Such issues as leadership style, management of conflict and managing the change process need to be considered and built into the vision. The vision needs to be a shared vision, made explicit and supported by structures which need to be established within the school. There needs to be developed an awareness of the possible existence of multiple cultures and the distinctive attributes which these may possess, as well as the past histories and experiences of the people involved, as these may exert a powerful influence on belief systems, values and the establishment of trust and collaborative processes' (Archival document A2.1:3).

Alan, in an ongoing effort to describe school culture, talked of the evidence of a positive school culture. He talked of school growth being evident through improved attitudes of the students in the playground based on observations and fewer reported incidents; the increased level of participation in the peer support program and the way that year six students were accepting responsibility for group activities. Alan seemed sure that it was these kinds of...
visible signs that indicated that the climate of the school was healthy, one that was based on 'a sense of caring', trust, supportiveness and co-operation (Interview B21: 116 and B23: 5). Alan continued by saying that staff who were willing to make presentations at staff meetings and staff that would speak out, saying what they really thought, represented an atmosphere of trust (Interview B6: 69).

In making these observations Alan emphasised that culture was something that needed to permeate the whole school and therefore was not restricted to the staff and how they got along together (Interview B6: 120). He suggested that to maintain a positive school culture, certain conditions had to be present. Here he quoted Cambourne's 'Conditions of Learning' (immersion, responsibility, use, approximations, demonstrations, feedback, expectations and engagement (Cambourne, 1988) and indicated that whilst these conditions had been developed to describe the conditions that students needed to effectively develop as language users, they were applicable to any learners. It was these conditions that he had tried to develop within his school with both students and staff (Interview B6: 120).

John, the principal of School D, pointed out that culture was a complex issue because it constituted many different elements that were all highly interrelated. In describing this he said, 'It all gets mixed up like a great big cake mix. It's a big mixture, none having more importance than the other. It's just that all the ingredients go into a blender and what you get is a liquid culture'. By describing the culture as 'liquid', John indicated that it was always moving and in a state of change (Interview D12: 37).

John went on to suggest that culture was also demonstrated by 'the language of the school' (Interview D12 63). He said, 'How the staff talks amongst itself, how it talks to the community and their interactions in the staff meetings' are indicative of the culture of the school (Interview D12:65). John also added that he felt that 'the stories, the structures, how you organize the school' also indicated the kind of culture that existed within the school. But he also argued that the school culture could dictate how you structured things (Interview D12: 67).

Another interpretation of school culture came from one of the Senior Regional Training and Development Officers, who suggested that school culture was often bound up in the history of the school. In thinking about one particular
school, Caitlin reflected that this school was 'not used to change' and the leadership had been 'uninspiring for many years, a leadership that had not supported, encouraged or valued change'. The staff were permanent, 'a fairly static kind of staff situation' was also a contributing factor. However, she also suggested that 'even when a new boss arrived at the school he became so totally oppressed by the school's history that very little happened' (Interview R4: 132). In this instance, the history was one of conservatism and lack of change which became entrenched and an integral part of the culture of the school.

This view was supported, in part, by John. He suggested that 'traditions ...myths, the legends and the personalities that make up the place' form an integral part of the school culture. He added that in his school, there were, 'people who had been in place a long time and they're seen as the "organizational heroes". They exist and the celebrations or lack of, or what you do as celebrations all becomes part of the tradition of what you do in the school and its culture' (Interview D12: 30). John also maintained that the culture of a school was an outcome of the individual and collective beliefs of the staff (Interview D12: 3). He felt that, attitudes and values constituted an important benchmark of the culture of the school (Interview D12: 10).

John saw his school culture as very traditional. He described this culture as 'maintenance of the status quo regardless of what might be happening in the wider world'. He noted that the environment was one where 'teachers are mistrustful of each other and change', an environment that is 'product oriented', 'behaviourist', 'cynical', and has 'negative attitudes', where the community is 'uninformed' but has 'high expectations'. The school was also described as having a 'traditional, tight curriculum' and a preference for a 'hierarchical pyramid of power and control' (Interviews D5, D6, D7 and D9). In every way this description provided a totally different perspective of school culture than had been described by the other three schools.

The principals of Schools B and D stated that they felt that developing a positive school culture was based on having a community that was all heading in the same direction and having the same kinds of goals although both principals acknowledged that they had to become actively involved in rounding up the stragglers (Interview B6: 137 - 141 and D10). Alan described this as follows:
We've talked before about the ducks in their flying formation and how the leader peels off from the front but it goes further than that. I feel sometimes that I've got to duck around and pick up a few stragglers and get them back in line; that I can't just assume that they're going to stay together that way and I think this is part of the culture, that everyone is heading in the same direction but not always together in formation' (Interview B6: 141).

After describing the general characteristics of school culture, participants went on to describe some specific characteristics. One of the most important, they felt, related to the people and their relationships within the organization.

Category 2: People and Relationships
The data indicated that common to all schools was the participants' belief that school culture was, in part, a reflection of the kinds of people, their beliefs, attitudes, personalities, their human qualities and the nature of their relationships and interactions with other members of staff. The quality of relationships in schools, David suggested, dictated the extent to which the school was able to grow (Interview A11 and B12).

Alan pointed out that the students and their class groups, also formed an integral part of the overall school community and the relationships that existed within the school (Interview B12: 13).

Whilst most participants found it difficult to articulate how relationships affected school culture, collectively, they indicated that the following characteristics of relationships were an integral part of the school's ability to grow and change:

- how people behaved and interacted with each other;
- how people worked together;
- how people responded to and felt about learning;
- people who shared either resources or ideas;
- people who supported each other;
• people's attitudes and expectations, and finally,

• how all these things affected the workplace.

Participants emphasised the importance of developing ways to enhance school relationships. Collaboration, team work, forming partnerships and becoming involved in the day-to-day activities of the school were seen as important for the building of relationships. John suggested that positive relationships grew out of developing some 'common agreed purpose' and 'mission' within the school (Interview D13: 43). Alan suggested that relationships developed from shared values and understandings (Interviews B21: 106 and B5: 72 & 94), in particular, a shared common belief about learning (Interview A2: 119 - 125) and a common understanding of what teaching and learning were all about (Interview A3: 28).

Further, Alan suggested that developing relationships within the school depended on the way you worked with people. He said, 'what you try to achieve, if you don't have those positive kinds of relationships with people that will allow things to happen then it becomes a very different sort of place' (Interview B12: 57). Alan felt that the role played by the principal was important in developing 'a positive culture' (Interview B12: 15). He went on to suggest that 'positive relationships, were built on 'collaborative decision making and trust' (Interview B12: 29).

David expanded on the importance of collaboration and leadership by saying that,

'A collaborative culture, where there's sharing and trust and support and all of these things, are central to daily work. There's a family structure but it may be paternalistic or maternalistic; there's joint work and there's continual improvement but it usually relies upon some maternalistic or paternalistic figure' (Interview A17: 165).

Some participants felt that shared responsibility was an essential part of collaboration and positive relationships (Interviews A3: 144 -146, B1: 91 -93, B11: 4 and B21: 200 - 218). At the student level, this quality was actively promoted through the implementation of a 'Mentoring Program' (Interview D13(4): 147 - 148).
Relationships were referred to as also having an essential influence on an individual's desire and interest in learning and change. Petra from School C, talked of the importance of a 'Significant Other' (Interview C13:9). As mentioned before, Petra described a 'significant other' as someone in whom teachers could confide, explore ideas without fear of judgement, someone who would help them to see options and encourage them to follow through their ideas (Interview C13: 8-9). She continued:

'A Significant Other' can be between teacher and teacher and it can be between teacher and parent. Now I've got some very valued parents here who to me are Significant Others. ..... If I'm really wanting a parent perspective on something that I'm trying to put into practice in the school; I want that parent who I know will give me an honest viewpoint who will respect what I'm doing or try to see what we're trying to do as a whole. I can see the parent as being the Significant Other and that's probably something a little bit different because mostly I think teachers tend to look down on parents' (Interview C13: 11).

Wendy, when reflecting on her professional development, also indicated the importance of working closely with other people around you. She said, 'The more you get to know people and work with them, I think, the faster that person can grow' (Interview A10: 192). Elaborating on this idea, Wendy talked of the importance of:

• being around teachers who know more than you;
• watching the way other teachers teach;
• co-operation between teachers;
• taking risks without fear;
• sharing responsibility;
• having someone to talk to;
• working closely with another teacher as 'a way of relieving personal tensions or keeping a perspective about the task in hand'; and
• having a sense of humour (Interview A10: 137 - 185).
Alan noted that 'the way we do business is dependent on teacher's mindsets' which, he felt, made staff development and other activities important as they provided teachers with opportunities to explore, discover and make explicit the nature of their mindsets (Interview B12:73). Alan added that management structures and activities, like team building, also increased confidence, positive attitudes and behaviours' (Interview B12: 62 and 65).

Wendy suggested that staff development helped to develop a shared and common way of working and operating in the school (Interview A10: 89). By this Wendy was suggesting that the more people worked together, the better chance individuals had of developing commitment, responsibility and involvement as well as their working relationships with others (Interview A10: 90 and B12: 92).

Petra indicated that communities had subgroups and school communities were no different (Interview C13: 14). School cultures, she described as having many subgroups and subcultures but it was important 'to know where these groups or individuals are coming from' (Interview C13: 22 and 25). Libby also spoke about the sub-cultures of her school and suggested that they served to further complicate the 'sets of relationships and social interactions' that happened in the school (Interview A14.1: 13). Alan, also recognising the presence of sub-cultures within his school, warned that very often these groups might be actively engaged in counter productive activities. They might be splinter groups of 'blockers or whingers' (Interview B12: 6).

Wendy and Judy observed that people and subgroups with power could actively use this power to destroy other people (Interview A10: 80 and D9). The principals of both School A and School D provided some specific examples of the devastating effect these people, in most cases from middle management, had on teachers who were trying to promote growth and development within the school (Interview All, A14.3 and D9).

Petra reported that different kinds of relationships existed within a school. These included both personal and professional relationships. Yet, she pointed out that neither of these kinds of relationships develop within the school unless there is 'a caring and trusting environment' (Interview C13: 14). Libby attached great importance to having a special person in the school with whom you could develop a special relationship (Interview A14: 100). These kinds of relationship,
Libby suggested, provided the opportunity 'to share what's really on your mind'.... 'someone you could phone at home and discuss your problems and successes with' (Interview A14.3: 13). John also felt that having a special relationship offered protection and support' (Interview D11: 44).

Alan, in his leadership position, reflected on his days as a classroom teacher and talked of the importance of 'connectedness' between himself and the staff, and as a teacher between himself and each of the children in his class. Part of this connectedness referred to an understanding of personal needs but also a sense of shared responsibility and a sense of caring and trust. Alan suggested that in his current position as principal, this sense of connectedness between himself and each of the members of staff was equally important. He described this saying, 'It's almost like a web where the arms of the web are connected to every individual and you have the other end of those webs and you feel that they're with you that way. It's almost like a spider in the middle of the web, connecting all of the strands that go out' (Interview B12: 94).

Besides the need to develop special relationships and partnerships within the school, some participants emphasised the importance of developing partnerships between the school and outside bodies. Partnerships with parents were mentioned as they increased parents feelings of being at home and welcome in the school environment (Interview C12: 14 - 16, 39 - 40 and 159 - 163). Alan added that partnerships between parents, teachers and students working together on special projects and reading represented another important relationship (Interview B14: 91-124). David said that in his school partnerships that had been forged with the local school community, and with schools within the same geographical area (Interview A11).

Both Alan and David reported actively encouraging liaisons with personnel from the local university. Apart from student teachers coming into school, various research projects were reported between individual teachers and lecturers from the university (Interviews A1 and B6). The product of these partnerships had resulted in a number of joint projects, the attendance of teachers at both national and international conferences to present papers and the co-authorship of articles and chapters for books. David emphasised the value of these partnerships for the development of all concerned (Interview A1).
Whilst most descriptions of people and relationships focused on the collective well being of the staff, Sue from School A commented on a personal dimension saying that there was 'an expectation in her school that people would become better professionals' (Interview A9: 195). In becoming more professional, Sue noted that 'you became happier within yourself.... your self esteem rises because you have achieved' (Interview A9: 195 - 198).

Another facet of school culture described by school staff included the perceived importance of staff attitudes towards their students. Where staff had positive attitudes about their students then this was reported to have a positive effect on the students' behaviour and their attitudes about their school and their learning (Interviews B12: 36 -38 and C12: 40 - 41 & 47). In describing school culture, one principal observed that teachers were inclined to be confused about the term and would talk about student behaviour before anything else and thus make judgements about a school and its culture as a result of their perceptions of the children rather than the staff (Interview B12: 41 - 48).

Some of the participants indicated that an integral part of school culture concerned the way that the staff went about organizing and managing their school affairs. In schools where teachers were part of the decision making process, teachers felt empowered. In schools where teachers were empowered there was an atmosphere of 'involvement and caring' by the staff (Interview A14.3: 71 - 72). Empowerment was also said to increase an individuals confidence in themselves. Libby explained that empowerment had the potential to cause 'a change in the perception of yourself and what you can do' (Interview A14.3: 111).

Alan described a particular form of empowerment. He explained a process of encouraging and supporting staff to take an active role in presenting at the school Staff Development Days. Although teachers were often reluctant and nervous about this kind of involvement, with scaffolding and support the staff became involved in the presentations. The important part of this, apart from the potential for personal growth, was the potential to raise the profile and credibility of the individual teacher with the rest of the staff. Becoming credible with your peers, Alan felt, was an important form of empowerment (Interview B6: 100 - 104 & 134 - 136).
In describing people and their relationships as an essential part of school culture, participants from all four case study schools described the qualities that seemed to them to be the kind of person that most benefited the school community and its growth. They talked of people who were:

- non judgemental;
- caring of their colleagues;
- genuinely interested in other peoples ideas;
- there when support was needed;
- good teachers and really cared about children;
- willing to accept others ideas;
- able to understand the big picture;
- trustworthy; and who could
- be a mediator if necessary, and

Category 3: Change and School Growth
Both change and school growth were considered to be an integral part of a positive school culture just as a negative school culture was considered to impede change and growth.

Participants offered their general perceptions about change and school growth, about the pace of change and about resistance to change.

General perceptions: Libby emphasised that change was not an event but something that was going on all the time and formed an integral part of the school culture (Interview A14.3: 77). She suggested that the energy that was
required to generate and sustain change was created through the 'interest and commitment of individuals and groups, and so the school culture needed to consist of committed groups of people who share a similar vision' (Interview A14.3: 89).

Other members of the staff of School A had similar comments to make about what was needed if change was to happen at the school level. David, the principal, suggested that change was dependent on identifying and responding to the collective needs of the staff and on the quality of the personnel involved (Interview A11: 14). He noted that without quality people at the regional level and without the talented people in the schools, people who could work with people, know their subject well, then these mandated changes would never happen at the school level. It was 'the talents and commitment by people', he said, 'who really made change happen' (Interview A6: 95-103). David expressed the belief that schools were changed from within and that to do this, schools needed to 'use the knowledge and the interest and expertise of the people who are here to do this' (Interview A2: 79).

Sarah and Wendy, like Libby, also believed that the decision to become engaged in the change process depended on an individual's interest, energy and commitment to develop (Interviews A14.3 and A3: 174). As an example, Libby cited her own personal frustration with the lack of alignment between school assessment and reporting practices and what was going on in the classrooms (Interview A14.3: 73). This frustration and interest led to her involvement, commitment and leadership in developing new school policy on assessment and reporting practices.

David felt that change required 'a process of constant negotiation and exploration of issues with staff' (Interview A2: 6). He also felt that having a specific topic or curriculum area to work on provided 'the vehicle to change the people and also to change the atmosphere and change the relationships' (Interview A1: 179). As a way of explanation, David further suggested that, 'It's curriculum that hooks kids and hooks teachers too. That's what you have to get in place first of all and that's why we say, if you change curriculum, you must change people' (Interview A1: 195).

On the other hand Alan suggested that it was the children's' needs that were the main motivational force for the staff's engagement in the change process.
The closer the change can be directly tied to children's needs and teaching and learning, the more likely teachers seem to be inclined to become involved in the change agenda' (Interview B6: 84).

Petra drew a distinction between 'ordinary change', referring to the mandated documents stipulating new policy and practices that arrived in schools from the DSE, and 'significant change' where a new philosophical view was being mandated. The English K-6 Syllabus was considered to demand 'significant change' of both teachers' thinking and practice although Petra felt that many teachers saw change too simplistically. They felt that change meant the use of a Syllabus document rather than 'as a way of thinking pedagogically' (Interview C2: 3).

David indicated that, 'You can't change anything without changing the people in the organization. A change in evaluation, a change in curriculum, a change in anything means that you have to change the people who do it. You have to change their beliefs for a start. If you change their beliefs you change what they do' (Interview A1: 174 - 175). John confirmed this notion by saying that, 'the one thing that has come through is that the schools that are coping with change are the ones who have found ways to unpack their values and beliefs (Interview D12: 59).

The importance of changing beliefs before expecting changed practice was a recurrent theme. Petra felt that helping teachers to make explicit their values and beliefs was the starting point for change (Interview C2: 22). Alan noted, however, that getting teachers to talk freely and articulate their beliefs was not easy. He suggested that 'there's a change in attitude first before there's a change in their talk. Before you can get people to talk about what they really think there's got to be a change in thinking, a change of attitude' (Interview B6: 79).

David believed that as well as soundly based beliefs, school staff also needed a soundly based knowledge about learning. He pointed out that when the school had a basic model for operating, based on sound beliefs and knowledge about learning then it was possible to develop a framework which would accommodate all subsequent needs for additions and revisions that might be externally dictated as mandatory (Interview A2: 2-3 and 111).
He described the value of such a framework, or structure as he refers to it, in the following way:

>'As an outcome statement comes down and you have a structure within the school, you can see how they fit in. As a new policy or syllabus statement comes out and if you have all of this (values and beliefs) soundly based, you can slot them in; you don't have to establish anything new' (Interview A2: 111-113).

However, Libby noted that, 'Things don't always go as you expect even though people have similar philosophies and beliefs and share a vision. You still get lots of argument in a positive way. Lots of discussion about how to do things, you know, you still have to reach a consensus and that can be quite conflicting and it can take time, and sometimes you've got to shift from your own personal stance to fit the group vision, where yours isn't quite in line so you have to give a little bit (Interview A14.3: 98).

Alan noted that, 'Learning and change is surrounded by a certain degree of tension and anxiety' (Interview B6: 132). Judy, from School A, confirmed this adding that generally people did not cope well with change and that it was a painful process and 'letting go of the old' resulted in a 'certain amount of grief' (Interview A14.1: 18 - 20). Mary, from School B, said that she too had observed a certain amount of fear associated with change. She explained that change required you to go 'outside what's comfortable for you because you're going into new territory. It's a fear of the unknown. ....... Maybe fear is too strong a word but there is the unknown territory there and there might be a feeling of being uncomfortable for a while' (Interview B10: 91).

Many teachers described change as a fearful experience. Jane, however, said she had now lost her fear and said of her colleagues, 'We embrace change much more readily here because we are not afraid' (Interview C18: 8). When she was questioned about this Jane felt that they had got over their fear because they felt secure and knew that making mistakes along the way was an acceptable part of the process and negative judgements would not be made (Interview C18).

Alan went on to say that he saw his responsibility as a principal as not being concerned with the content of change but focusing on the needs of the people who were to implement change (Interview B19: 23). He continued to elaborate
on this by developing a diagram of aspects that, as principal, he would have to consider if the change process was to be activated (See Figure 52).

![Diagram of a principal's considerations for change](image)

**Figure 52: A principal's considerations for change (Interview B18).**

Both Alan and David felt that the principal's role was essential in developing the formal processes necessary to initiate and support change (Interview B19.3 and A14.3: 73).

David indicated that he agreed with much of what Roland Barth had to say about schools. In one of his books, David noted, Barth had emphasised that the relationship between the principal and the teachers was central to their development, as a school and as individuals (Interview A1: 183). In a more recent book by Barth, 'Improving Schools from Within', David reported that Barth had suggested that relationships within the school needed to be developed and that any projects that were initiated must be based upon real needs (Interview A1: 187). David felt that this was an important notion, a sentiment that many other participants from the case study schools also noted.

David's understanding of how change occurred was also influenced by an American called Decker Walker who saw change happening as a result of developing 'a platform of success'. David described it thus:

'You establish that platform of success and then from that platform of success you go through a stage of deliberation where people are saying "gee that's working in those rooms". What's going on, why is it working, why are the kids enjoying themselves, why do they want to come to school and my kids don't; all
these things happen. You go through denial, this is how Walker puts it. But finally after that deliberation you come up with a shared purpose and you come up with the renewal of the organization. You only do it by first of all establishing the platform of success but it can be a long, involved and difficult process' (Interview A11: 77 - 78).

In these descriptions of school growth and change, the participants have talked about how change and an interest in change is generated and sustained, about the tensions and anxieties inherent in the change process, about the need to change people's beliefs before change could be expected, the importance of the principals' role in the change process and the importance of identifying a real need and purpose for change.

**Pace of change:** With specific reference to the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, all four schools indicated that because of the complex nature of the changes required by the mandatory document, they would need to proceed very slowly and cautiously. Whilst a time schedule for implementation had been dictated, all four schools indicated that they would determine their own schedule by using their School Management Plan as a filter (Interview A17: 55, B1: 4, C12: 68 and D7: 59).

The English Facilitators in each of the four schools indicated that they were having to introduce change very slowly so as not to confuse teachers, to allow time for the staff to review their values and beliefs, to build up common understandings and to develop the language necessary to talk about the Syllabus and its implementation (Interviews A4, B8, C5 and D6). One of the ways that Petra found useful was to work with teachers using 'exemplary practices', examining the philosophy on which these practices were based, and then making comparisons between those displayed in the practice and the teachers own personal beliefs. Petra described this as follows:

'Well (looking at) exemplary practice doesn't have any value unless people value the philosophy behind the practice to start with. ...... If you can follow up the good practice with why it is good practice and get them (the teachers) to search their own beliefs and get them to consider why they believe it is good ...... and then align what they believe or they say they believe. When you've got that alignment then you are going to have good practice' (Interview C5: 90 and 96).
Judy, the English Facilitator from School D, reported that the staff in her school were extremely cynical about the new directions that the English K-6 Syllabus proposed. She suggested that the politics that had surrounded the development of the Syllabus, the false starts with trial drafts, the move towards learning outcomes rather than on teaching excellence and the move away from standardised assessment and evaluation to a more 'responsive' approach all contributed to their cynicism. They were said to have indicated that if they waited for a while the Syllabus would probably be changed (Interview D6). This provided their reason for not becoming too involved and committed to the implementation of the Syllabus. Unfortunately, just as this staff had predicted, a halt was called to all implementation initiatives until a review had been conducted and the recommendations published. The principal of this school described the staff as having gone into 'siege mode' (Interview D7).

But other participants in the study reported, that there were teachers in their schools that were also resistant to change.

Resistance to change: Each of the principals of the four case study schools conceded that it would be unrealistic to expect everyone to have the same beliefs and to be ready for change at the same time. However, it was indicated that whilst some members of staff were not ready for change there were others who actively worked to prevent change. David described 'long term personnel' as 'wounded operators' who, in his school, were actively resistant to change. They were engaged in harassing those that were trying to exercise change. He said that amongst 'the troops' (those actively engaged in change) there was a shared purpose but 'the troops were continually being isolated and harassed by the "nattering nabobs of negativity" (Interview A11: 20). David indicated that all you could do was surround these people with 'strength' and 'success' in the hopes that 'some of this will rub off on them and they will become less negative' (Interview A11: 22). David added that negativity was usually displayed in 'devious ways'. 'In any public forum it's not displayed but it's done through the back door. We agree on things and we establish policies and then they "white ant" it away' (Interview A11: 24).

In School D, the principal reported that his staff were experienced teachers and felt that things were going well in their classroom so they felt that there was no need for them to change. John said that 'the response of these teachers to change proposals was "Leave us alone, we know what works". He indicated that they were weary of constant system intrusion without the necessary
support' (Interview D1: 15). John added that a siege mentality was being maintained and outside people were expected to come into the school and 'prove' to these teachers that what was being proposed was better than existing practices. These teachers, it was suggested, were waiting for 'prescription' rather than 'advice' (Interview D1: 16). In this case, the principal conceded that change for these members of staff was seen as someone else's responsibility (Interview D7: 32).

John continued by suggesting that his teachers were 'driven by tradition, history and, to some degree, the geography of their school. 'Geography', he conceded, was 'probably not a great driver of how we actually teach children but it's got to play a part in the social interactions of the children and the social interaction of the staff because we are divided into three physical areas. ..... I think that this has some effect on the school culture and how we cope with change' (Interview D13: 125).

Alan, using the analogy of a horse drawn cart proceeding slowly down a road, described his circumstances and how he coped with the realities of change. He said,

'Staff are coming from a whole heap of directions and usually they've got a fairly wide range of different views about school and what their job is and what they're expected to do and how much they can do ..... We have a whole range of scenarios for those individual people. And I think perhaps what I do to try to get to know what that agenda is for that person . ..... I guess you can't force a person to jump up on the cart. I guess what I'd like to do eventually is that, I could stand back and look and say "well I've got as many people up on that cart as I possibly can. Those people that aren't there yet but at least they are still travelling in the same direction. ..... But the distance between them and the cart is getting greater and greater. So I guess it's almost like the shepherd at the end, hustling the people along. You tend to focus on those people more than the others but sometimes there's a problem because you tend to assume too much about those people that are already on the cart. You assume that they are going to stay on the cart and sometimes that doesn't happen. Sometimes they get off. So where a lot of time is spent with those people that are struggling behind, you've still got to be aware of what's happening on the cart' (Interview B19: 108, 110 and 112).

Of the stragglers, Alan noted that he couldn't 'grab these teachers by the scruff of the neck and throw them on the cart. ... I guess what I keep trying to do, I'm
not sure how yet, ....... is make that distance between them and the cart less and less' (Interview B19: 103). Asked how he would do this, Alan said he would focus on the nature of the relationship he had with each teacher. He felt it was important to build up trust with them (Interview B19: 118).

The next category arising from participants' descriptions of school culture and the change process included the notion of professional learning.

Category 4: Professional Learning
In participants' descriptions of school culture, they talked about the importance of both their individual and collective professional learning and development. Professional learning was considered an essential activity in a school's ability to cope with and sustain change. Libby argued that school culture should more accurately be described as consisting of multiple cultures and that one of the most important of these that existed in her school was 'a culture of learning' (Archival document A2.1:4).

Participants provided definitions and understandings of professional development, their perceptions of the purposes of professional learning and the processes by which learning happened both formally and informally in their workplaces.

Definitions and Understandings
The data indicated that all participants, when asked for their definitions of the words associated with professional learning, drew a clear distinction between the terms 'professional development' and 'staff development'. They saw 'professional development' as being limited to the development of an individual member of staff whilst 'staff development' was seen to refer to the collective development of the staff and where the focus of the activities revolved around school needs as identified in the School Management Plan (Interview A9: 107 - 117).

However, in general discussion, it became apparent that the term 'professional development' was also used in a generic sense, referring to any form of professional learning and growth. It was these descriptions of workplace learning that seemed to dominate and included perceptions of both personal and collective growth as being one and the same thing.

Chapter 5: Results - Theme 3
In describing aspects of this kind of professional learning or workplace learning, participants from three schools indicated that they were describing a special kind of culture that needed to exist if learning was to take place.

Sally, the English K-6 Facilitator from School B, provided a wider vision of what she felt was meant by professional development and how she felt it fitted into the grand scheme of things.

![Figure 53: Understanding the connecting features of school culture](image)

Her comments were derived from the development of a diagram (Figure 53) which was constructed in an attempt to better understand what relationships might exist between the main elements of school culture and professional learning (Reflective Journal, August, 1994). She indicated that the vehicle for school change and the nature of school culture, were the curriculum, having something specific to focus on, staff development activities and teachers beliefs and practices. The overall outcome or intersection of these elements, Sally felt, ought to be 'learning'. Furthermore, she said, 'When I look at this model it reminds me of what I understand about language learning' (Interview B8: 13). She continued,

'Because you've got the overriding culture and the specific situation in which you are in, this is your register. Register is made up of field, (which refers to) curriculum, tenor, (which refers to) teachers' values, beliefs and practice; and mode (which is) staff development. And so when a person within a specific context has made choices about what they will do then you have a text. That's
language. The text reflects, to some measure, the reconstruction of knowledge that's in the learner's head. To me when I look at that that's exactly what I see staff development as. It's a component of, I call it whole learning because I sometimes think that people don't move beyond the culture of the school. We live in a world culture, that's why I call it whole learning our values and beliefs are so much integrated with other cultures and societies through the media and technology that we really have to have a global culture as well. And when you come down to it curriculum should reflect that holistic thinking.

We have community culture because it means close to home and the school culture should reflect the community culture.

The other thing with learning is there are all different semiotic modes to learning and I don't think that that's been explored enough in curriculum. We have a curriculum pertaining to certain semiotic modes and that represents a certain way of looking at the world' (Interview B8: 15 - 18).

As a result of these comments the diagram was modified to include her ideas as shown in the next figure (Figure 54). Furthermore, in my reflective journal, following this interview with Sally, it was noted thus, "Sally's comments seem to broaden the definition of professional or staff development to the wider concept of learning, learning for all' (Reflective Journal, August, 1994).
These ideas expressed in Figure 54 are confirmed in an article written by David and another member of his staff. They noted that 'the elements which have been of significance in the creation of a culture, have led to the development of an holistic curriculum and professional learning is an integral part of this' (Archival document A11.2).

Here, rather than focusing on professional development, David perceived the curriculum as encompassing all learning within the school community. In this context, he argued, 'curriculum and staff development are synonymous, mutually supportive and self perpetuating' (Archival document A11.2: 2). He described the relationship thus:

'Curriculum is the total of the planned and unplanned learning experiences which occur within that learning environment. Curriculum development, including planning, implementation and evaluation, is an ongoing process which continually endeavours to provide a more effective learning environment for all participants. Effective curriculum development is a response to perceived needs
and often requires change if these needs are to be met .... "BUT, a change in curriculum is essentially a change in people!" (Booth, 1984)’ (Archival document A11.2: 2).

David, and members of his staff had developed their own Staff Development Program. Figure 55 outlines what they believed were the key components of

Figure 55: Features of the Staff Development Program in School A (Archival document A11.2)
an effective staff development program. In explaining the figure, David said that,

'The diagram acknowledges the essentiality of a learning environment which reflects the learning theory in which it is grounded. Furthermore, it should be noted that it is a common learning theory which forms the basis and framework of both the class and staff development programs. ... Understandings about individuals and learning should govern the development of a Staff Development Program' (Archival document A11.2: 11).

David made the point that 'A good school policy is a description of successful practice' (Interview A2: 73). In this Staff Development Program, David showed how Cambourne's conditions of learning (immersion, responsibility, use, approximations, demonstrations, feedback, expectations and engagement) (Cambourne, 1988) were applied to both student and staff learning and formed the theoretical basis of both the curriculum and the Staff Development Program (Interview A2: 82 & 88 and A9: 85 - 92). As David pointed out, 'If we believe strongly that this is how children learn and they're the conditions under which they learn and the environment under which they learn, why should it be that teachers learn in any different way. We believe in this learning theory for all the community' (Interview A2: 82 and 88).

The 'learning' indicated in Figure 55 refers to the 'strategies and structures which are necessary to ensure that the skills on the second outer ring are developed. These are the "nuts and bolts" which ensure purposeful, satisfying and dramatic teacher development when considered in the context of the other inter-related, interlocking elements of this model' (Archival document A11.2: 13). Structures and activities that this school considered important included collaborative planning, team teaching, staff meetings, grade co-ordinating support structures, committee structures, informal discussion, classroom and inter-school visits and membership of professional organizations.

The 'Social Environment', one of the features of this staff development program was, David said,

'the easiest to say but the hardest to achieve. It is the outcome of the elements mentioned ... coming together to create the social environment where there is an emphasis on co-operative and collaborative teaching and learning. Learning experiences, strategies and structures should be formulated, implemented and
evaluated in such a way that the social environment which results is one where the elements of trust, loyalty, sensitivity and credibility are dominant features and lead to the development of positive self concept and high self esteem in all participants within the environment' (Archival document A11.2: 17).

School A was the only one amongst the four schools that had a documented staff development policy. It seemed apparent from their policy that staff development, in School A, was not seen as an event but rather as an integrated concept of the life of the school and 'the way they did business' (Archival document A11.2). In summing up his understanding of staff development, David used language as analogous to staff development. He said,

'What the teacher has to understand though is, the teacher has to have an intricate, a massive understanding of the component parts of language and then through that knowledge of what the students' needs are, and the knowledge of the components parts, you then funnel down into the activities that you do which take into account all those things. Now that's exactly what we're saying about how staff development works. You have to have a very intricate knowledge of all the component parts but the way that you do it is whole learning, it's whole staff development. Senge talks about 'wholes within wholes'. If you talk about things in parts you're fragmenting things too much. Each part is a whole in itself and each whole is dependent upon the things that it's surrounded by' (Interview A11: 50-52).

Sue, a senior teacher at School A, was responsible for the professional development of individuals within the school. She highlighted what she considered was a flaw in the school Staff Development Program. She indicated that if a teacher was not interested in the school agenda for change but had another interest then that teacher could expect very little support either in time or money to pursue that interest (Interview A9: 136 -143). She felt the school Staff Development Program had too narrow a focus and this encouraged the stragglers to opt out of commitment and responsibility to change (Interview A9: 144). She felt that there was too great an emphasis on school priorities, on the collective good, rather than on individual development.

This view, however, was not shared by most other members of staff in School A. Wendy expressed the belief that most members of staff shared the same vision for the school and there were adequate opportunities for individual growth within the school's agenda for change (Interview A10).
In School B, Alan explained that his perceptions of what staff development meant were based on a specific model of staff development. He explained that this model had been developed by Jan Turbill (1993) for the Frameworks program and is described in the following figure (56).

Figure 56: An Interactive and Model of Staff Development (Archival document B1.6).

For teachers in schools, Alan explained, the 'theory of others' represents all the documents and policies that come into the school from outside and require attention and/or implementation. Currently this had included a new state Syllabus for English K-6, National Profiles and Outcomes across all the Key Learning Areas and information on outcomes-based education. Alan pointed out that,

'None of these will funnel through to the classroom until teachers have internalised them and made them their own, a part of their own belief system or paradigm, if you like, that drives what they do in the classroom. ....... what the teachers have to do is identify where they are at now, they've got to share this with other teachers in the school, they've got to bring back that mix of their own beliefs, the beliefs of others and then make that knowledge their own. They need to have clear personal interpretations and understandings of the concepts involved. They need to be able to clarify these understandings. Only then will the Syllabus become their own' (Interview B1: 6 and 13 - 14).
Alan suggested that it was their responsibility to plan staff development that would allow them to examine the theory of others and then to try and align this with their own set of beliefs. 'My job is to try and develop those (kinds of opportunities) in the school setting. ... I've got to make sure there are structures in the school that allow what happens, in discussions during the staff meetings, to get to the classroom and then to make sure the teacher has the opportunity to get feedback on what they do' (Interview B1: 14 and 33).

Participants from Schools A, B and C indicated that functioning as a learning community was part of their way of working, an integral part of their school culture. They spoke about belonging to their 'learning community' and saw professional growth in terms of the effectiveness of this learning community (Interview A10, B9 and C2: 71). In describing a learning community, Wendy suggested that it was where, 'everyone knows where they are going ... and what's happening. They also know what their role is in a 'learning community', Wendy added, 'everybody is important and has something to contribute' (Interview A10: 8).

Petra from School C mentioned that in their learning community, staff were very, 'accepting of other's ideas and of people searching one another's ideas, people exploring the ideas of others and seeing how they fitted in with what they believed themselves' (Interview C2:71). Petra indicated that this created 'a motivating learning situation' and she felt that creating learning communities was 'the only way professional development has to go' (Interview C2: 72).

**Purposes of professional learning**

David suggested that since an outcome-based approach to education had been introduced to schools in conjunction with the mandated curriculum outcomes, schools had the opportunity to get teachers involved in dialogue about student learning. He felt that schools had the mandate to reskill their teachers. He noted that in America, where he had visited many times as a consultant, they too were in the business of reskilling their teachers. He noted,

> The Americans are finding that they are now having to reskill teachers after a period of about thirty years when they went out of their way to deskill them because all they did was to turn their teachers into activity managers, organizing activities that someone else had formulated' (Interview A5: 54).
'Outcomes', David continued, 'are clear demonstrations of quality learning. ....The only way that you can get teachers to look at these is to educate them, to skill them to such a degree that they know what the markers are which indicate that learning has taken place. That's one of the things that we are looking at with our staff development initiatives' (Interview A5: 56 - 57). David also indicated that this meant that teachers were having to become active learners again.

David in describing his school as 'a community of learners' stressed that, 'as learners, staff members require a staff development program which will create an environment conducive to learning and professional growth' (Archival document A11.2: 11).

Other participants indicated that they had a number of perceptions and expectations of what an effective staff development program needed to do and be like. A staff development plan must, they said:

• assist teachers to make their beliefs explicit and to help them articulate them. (Interviews A7: 39, C2: 7);

• assist teachers to acquire and broaden their knowledge base as well as their skills, attitudes and values (Interviews A11 and D6: 177 - 179);

• support and solve the everyday problems of teachers that arise from classroom practice (Interview A10: 71);

• keep teachers informed about changes in curriculum and provide current information (Interviews A10: 73 and D6: 175);

• assist teachers to become 'a better professional where they are happier within themselves' (Interview A9: 196);

• support the staff 'through all the crises of the English K-6 Syllabus and outcomes and profiles' (Interview A9: 201);

• help teachers to maintain a sense of humour in times of extreme stress (Interview A9: 206);
• have a real focus, one which was related directly to improving the quality of students' learning (Interview D12: 43);

• develop a common purpose for the school (Interview D6: 189);

• help staff to develop positive attitudes and relationships (Interview D6: 190);

• help teachers to see the connections, to see how things fit together to form the 'big picture' (B14: 17);

• provide scaffolding for teachers' during the change process (Interview C5); and

• provide opportunities for staff to work with and value their colleagues (Interview D6: 190).

Sue from School A indicated that she believed that an outcome of staff development should be 'that all staff can work in an environment where they feel that they have achieved something, in a collaborative, collegial atmosphere' (Interview A9: 167). Consequently she believed that all professional learning should include the opportunity for 'team building so that people see they are all important in the group effort' (Interview D6; 187).

Processes of professional learning:
On learning, David said, 'The school should be a learning environment for all people involved in it. The teacher should be a learner, I should be a learner. We should be learning from each other (Interview A11: 13).

The processes of professional learning seemed to refer to how and in what ways schools developed learning experiences and an appropriate learning environment for the staff. Participants reported a number of ways in which they had been encouraged to become active learners and members of a community of learners. These included encouragement to:

• Take on responsibilities within the school.
  Teachers from Schools A and C talked of the ways in which their principals had played an active role in making sure that opportunities
were available for the teachers to join in the development of the School Management Plan (Interviews A5: 123 - 129 and C9: 119).

- Reflect on their practice.
  Mary from School B reported having been involved in a 'Reflective Teaching Techniques' research project with a group of other teachers from different schools in the area. Mary commented that it was her experience that teachers were not used to reflecting on their practice and thinking deeply about what they did and why they did it. Both Mary and Lucy, teachers from School B commented thus:

  'Two difficult issues arise; one because they haven't had practice to look within themselves to find out what it is they truly believe about learning and learners and how it applies to learning language. ....... They take an activity that sounds good but they haven't had the opportunity to look and say "Why am I using this activity" and "How does it fit in with my view of learning and the English Syllabus" with the theory of others as well as my theory' (Interview B5: 11).

  Mary indicated that she felt that reflection was an essential part of professional learning (Interview B5).

- Make explicit their values and beliefs about teaching and learning.
  It was suggested that the challenge for schools was to find strategies that would help staff to make their values and beliefs explicit. Unless teachers could do this, it was argued, then it would be unlikely that change would take place (Interview A7: 39). Petra suggested that the initial focus of this process should be on what teachers believed about the nature of learning and teaching (Interview C2: 21).

  But further, it was argued that having made values and beliefs explicit, teachers needed to be actively involved in aligning these beliefs with their practices (Interview B23: 12).

- Develop a 'wider school view' (Interview B23: 12).

- Evaluate the value of activities and if necessary modify them to make them more effective (Interview C22: 8).

- Articulate and pursue their individual interests.
David pointed out that whilst it was important to develop school needs, it was also essential not to lose sight of the individual needs of staff. Further, he noted that as part of the staff development plan there needed to be scope to allow staff to follow their interests within the school focus (Interview A5).

Glen pointed out that professional development, in its narrowest sense, was left up to the individual and the grade co-ordinators (Interview A8: 98 - 104). It was reported that grade co-ordinators were also supervisors. If handled in the right way, Wendy suggested that this helped teachers to develop a closer relationship with someone on the staff and provided someone with whom problems could be shared without fear (Interview A10: 67 - 68).

- **Negotiate a formal plan for staff development.**

Wendy emphasised the importance of schools' having a formal 'Staff Development Plan'. She said that this was important because every member of staff, 'needed to know what was happening and where to go if they had a problem ..... especially when you are new in a school' (Interview A10: 79).

- **Participate in school committees and other formal school structures.**

In Schools A, B and C participants reported that one of the most important aspects of their development was the opportunity and encouragement given to become involved in the activities of the school (Interview A2, A10: 84, A14.4: 5, B5 and C9). Judy said, 'Anyone has the opportunity of taking on a committee if they want to. They can be a co-ordinator and put their name on the top of the list or put their name on the helpers list, and I think that's really important' (Interview A14.4: 5).

Petra added that from involvement in these kinds of structured activities grew commitment (Interview C9: 119). Wendy elaborated on this point by suggesting that staff development and involvement helped to develop 'a shared and common way of working' (Interview A10: 89).

Lucy, from School B suggested that everyone needed to be encouraged to 'have a go'. Lucy described how things happened in her school in the following way: ' 
'Well people were involved. To start with, the committee, everybody on the committee did something on that day (the Staff Development Day) which showed other teachers that it's not just this one person out there standing there doing it again. They could see Joe Bloggs who isn't overly confident, standing up the front there talking about these things saying I'm not particularly sure exactly how I'm going about this, and if you want to contribute to it and help me in any way, please do. But it showed everybody else that they were willing to participate. Then other people were more willing to participate' (Interview B9: 64).

Wendy added that, 'Sharing with people on the committee and what they have been to and what they've seen and what they've heard is important. We are finding out that the more we cross reference information the more we might get something out of it!' (Interview A10: 196).

- **Seek and provide support from/to colleagues** (Interview C13: 37).
- **Become involved in the many informal activities/projects being explored within the school by members of staff.**
Participants from Schools A, B and C reported a number of informal activities that they said helped to develop their skills and understandings. Without exception, it was commonly agreed by all participants in these schools, that in order to develop it was necessary to unpack and examine their values and beliefs about teaching and learning. Activities that helped them to do this were considered of great value and included debriefing sessions, action research, reflection, co-researching partnerships, sharing as well as personal initiatives (such as university courses, professional association activities and regionally organized seminars and courses).

Debriefing was seen by many participants as an essential activity as it forced those involved to justify and think through their beliefs and understandings (Field notes B11.3 and Personal Reflections, October, 1994).

One example of debriefing sessions was provided by School B. Nine members of a staff had attended a seminar on outcome-based education. The seminar had made a significant impression on them, so, on returning to school, the principal suggested that they meet to discuss and share their perceptions and understandings of the seminar. In the first of these
debriefing sessions the group compiled a list of things which had been 'ah-ha' moments for them. This debriefing session led to another and another as the group explored each other's ideas and thinking. After some sessions the principal asked what implications their thoughts might have for students' learning in the school. During these debriefings the principal acted as a facilitator, asking questions, probing people's thinking and helping the group to focus, explore, discuss, question and refocus (Field notes B11.1, B11.2, B11.3, B11.4, B11.5 and B11.6).

As an outcome of these debriefing sessions a number of questions were raised by the group and included:

- 'How will we introduce these ideas to the rest of the staff?'

- What strategies do we need to put in place to develop what we want?

- What kinds of structures and how might we work for staff involvement, time, purpose, togetherness and ownership?' (Field notes B11.6: 3 - 8).

These debriefing sessions at School B became the starting point for some new directions in the school (Personal Reflections, October, 1994). On questioning some of this group after their debriefing sessions, they explained that they believed that change could not happen unless you got people actively involved and taking responsibility in the process of change (Staff Debriefing Session B11.6: 235).

Participants from other schools also mentioned debriefing as a valued activity. Petra from School C described it as a time for being asked the difficult questions but 'not in a threatening way. It's a probing way and if you're searching for an answer she'll just give you a little clue to take you along' (referring to Jan, the principal). That was something Belinda19 was good at doing. She could just lead you along, not putting answers in your mouth but just giving you a little trigger to think yes now that's really the way I want to go to answer that question' (Interview C2: 69).

19 Belinda was a consultant from one of the Regional Education Offices and had approached Petra with the purpose of doing some collaborative research.
Any activities, participants from all schools suggested, that encouraged teachers to talk, discuss ideas, question and justify their thinking were ways of helping them to unpack their values and beliefs. Lucy felt that many teachers found this quite difficult (Interview B9: 118). John regretted that during his experience as both a teacher and a principal that no-one had given him encouragement to express his thoughts and knowledge (Interview D11: 4) and this had limited his opportunities to explore his own values and beliefs (Interview D12: 45).

Petra recounted how it had been action research that had first helped her to ‘unpack’ her beliefs. She recalled that she had always been driven by questions like, ‘what am I doing, why am I doing it, why am I doing it this way and what am I going to do next’. But it was action research, she reported that had actually brought her thinking ‘to the surface’. Petra said, ‘I can't speak highly enough of action research as a tool for getting teachers to look inside themselves and discover what it is that they value about their teaching (Interview C2: 25).

Reflection was also reported as an essential feature of professional learning. Mary indicated that reflection was something she mostly did on her own but sometimes she needed other teachers advice and perspectives on things to help her think through something (Interview B9: 106 - 108). Both Mary and Lucy made the point, however, that in order to reflect with others,

‘You have to be an honest and open communicator with yourself as well as others. You have to analyse the situation in an honest fashion. It's interesting why certain people do that and certain people don't do that. Maybe the risk takers do more reflecting than the non-risk takers’ (Interview B9: 111).

Participants from Schools A, C and D talked about the social nature of learning and how it was important to talk through ideas to try and clarify them. Talking and sharing, it was reported, helped to develop working relationships with colleagues (Interviews C5: 62, D12:56, C2: 59 and A14.3: 98).

- Become acquainted with technology and discover what opportunities it might have to offer the learner at both a collective and individual level.
• Attend regionally developed courses and other staff development programs. Participants from all four of the case study schools talked of having used an externally developed program of staff development as a starting point for change. In three schools, the Frameworks Program (see Footnote 14) on Assessment and Reporting had provided background, motivation and helped staff to explore their personal values and beliefs before making decisions and implementing new policy and practices (Interviews A1: 133 - 144; A3: 29; B5: 18 - 19; B12: 58; C2: 70, 106 - 111 & 124 - 126; C3: 124 - 128 and C4: 8 - 10.).

• Use consultancy support provided by the Regional Education Office.

• Work collaboratively with their colleagues.

• Take an active part in staff meetings that are identified as 'staff development meetings' (Interview A8: 91 - 97). In School A, the deputy principal pointed out that their staff meetings were devoted to 'weekly staff development occasions'. Glen reported that earlier they had focused on general topics of interest but more recently their meetings had become more focused on issues related directly to the School Management Plan (Interview A8: 91 - 97). In School C, staff meetings provided teachers with a forum to discuss and present ideas and projects they were working on (Interview C9: 54 - 60).

Furthermore staff told of other important aspects of their learning which included:

• support from the school to locate and purchase appropriate resources and materials;

• support from the principal and the school executive to identify 'outside' opportunities/activities in which the staff might become involved; Petra noted that she had been involved over several months with members of the DSE Head Office in Sydney on some research in her classroom. Her co-researchers had made videos of classroom activities and Petra commented on the usefulness of this for it gave her time to focus on many aspects of her teaching that would normally go unnoticed. She also reported how useful it had been to have people to talk to.
Keeping a journal had also been very valuable. Petra said, 'I mean they were focusing me on something and it caused me to really think deeply about my practice and why I was doing things and how I was doing it and what I was going to do next' (Interview C2: 52).

- utilising the specialised knowledge of some individual members of staff in the school.

But what about members of staff who did not want to engage in any of these learning opportunities? Alan emphasised that it was important that everyone felt they had a valuable contribution to make to the school's growth, that their views would be respected and that they could influence what might happen in the school (Interview B1: 21). He also suggested that it took time to build up trust to a level where people were willing to 'have a go' and become involved (Interview B1: 22 - 25).

As well as acknowledging that everyone had a contribution to make in the school, Wendy considered that it was also important to acknowledge difference (Interview A7: 34). She noted too that even more important than this was, 'how you cope with those different beliefs' (Interview A7: 34). Alan elaborated on the notion of 'difference' by saying that a diverse range of values within the staff often created frustration. These differences, he suggested, also extended the overall expectations that teachers had of the school (Interview B21: 114).

Libby felt, however, that it was also healthy to have different values and beliefs expressed within the school because it caused one to 'reassess or justify one's own thinking and beliefs' (Interview A14.3: 20).

**Category 5: Traditions and Rituals**

Participants from each of the four schools indicated that rituals including ceremonies, rules and regulations and social events were an integral part of their school's culture. It was considered that these rituals demonstrated an aspect of how the school conducted its business and the emphasis and value ascribed to social interaction.

Alan suggested that celebrations and traditions often reflected the history of the school as well as its development (Interview B12: 117 - 122). Culture, Alan indicated was not a static thing and suggested that the actual celebrations in his
school hadn't changed but, 'its just the way that we celebrate that is changing' (Interview B21: 124). He then provided an example of how the staff celebrated achievement with the children. Traditionally the celebration of achievement had singled out individual children and presented them with a book for excellence like 'Top of the Class'. Alan reported that this celebration had now changed into an acknowledgment of all children's achievement. Alan observed that whilst there were still members of the community that felt 'we need to bring back book prizes', as many other members of the community were very happy that all children's achievements were being recognised and celebrated (Interview B21: 136).

Alan also noted that in school communities where there were differences of values and beliefs, amongst both teachers and children, then celebrations were a way that the school could acknowledge and celebrate these differences in a positive way (Interview B21: 140 - 148). Alan said:

'If you are accommodating difference I think that has an effect on climate, because if you are able to accommodate differences it's going to encourage a better commitment from the people because their views .... are valued .... and that they have a contribution to make. All these contributions together create the school. So they have a kind of wider school thinking if they can see their beliefs are accommodated into the everyday life of the school' (Interview B21: 146).

In contrast to this thinking, John revealed that the traditions and celebrations of his school were based on a 'traditional academic model, an expectation of excellence of product rather than process' (Interview D13: 68). John told of the long history the school had of success in competitions. He added that parents were very competitive and wanted their children to acquire a competitive attitude (Interview D13: 79 - 82). John emphasised the importance of rules and regulations within his school for, he argued, these helped students to understand 'the parameters in relation to behaviour, conduct, what sort of rewards, what sort of sanctions' were important in the school (Interview D13: 183 - 191). John also pointed out that the expectation of the community largely dictated the nature of the schools rituals and traditions (Interview D13: 227).

Field notes of staff meetings in three of the four schools indicated that social events at the staff level were a valued school activity. Arrangements were being made for a number of social activities which included a farewell party,
staff night out to include cocktails and dinner, a Melbourne Cup Day (Field notes B13), a staff barbecue at the home of one of the teacher's to celebrate a promotion (Field notes C16) and a farewell meal for a member of staff who was going to be away on a temporary basis from her school (Field notes A12).

SUMMARY OF THEME THREE

It was clearly established that the nature of the school culture was closely tied to a school capacity to change and grow. In describing the culture of their schools, participants also revealed many relationships that needed to exist if school growth and change were to take place.

- School culture was considered to be the product of the quality of relationships, attitudes, behaviours and interactions between all the members of the school community. Change and school growth were considered to be dependent on this kind of culture.

- A way of building and enhancing positive school relationships and trust was through activities that promoted collaboration, team work, the development of partnerships and common goals. Also there needed to be a shared and common way of working and operating in the school, ways that empowered people, developed commitment and saw people caring for each other and taking responsibility for change.

- Schools changed from within. Change was dependent on identifying and responding to the needs of the staff and on the quality of the personnel involved. Staff needed to be well informed, committed and able to work with each other. It was these members of staff who made change happen.

- Change required 'a process of constant negotiation and exploration of issues with staff'. Having a specific topic or curriculum area to work on provided 'the vehicle to change the people and also to change the atmosphere and change the relationships'.

- 'The closer that change can be tied to children's needs, teaching and learning the more likely teachers seem to be inclined to become involved in the change agenda'.

- It was considered that, 'You can't change anything without changing the people in the organization. A change in evaluation, a change in
curriculum, a change in anything means that you have to change the people who do it. You have to change their beliefs for a start. If you change their beliefs you change what they do'. Furthermore, it was suggested that schools needed to find ways to help teachers to unpack their values and beliefs.

- School culture was considered to be comprised of many cultures and 'a culture of learning' was seen as the central concept of curriculum change and overall school growth.

- Learning and change was considered to be surrounded by a certain degree of tension and anxiety, pain and grief as a result of 'letting go of the old'.

- It was considered that the relationship between the principal and the staff was central to the development of the school and of the growth of individual members of staff.

- Professional learning was identified as needing to be an integral part of the workplace and how it functioned.

- Change was seen to be dependent on how and in what ways schools developed learning experiences for their staff and the development of an appropriate environment in which learning could take place.
THEME FOUR: BENCHMARKS OF SCHOOL GROWTH

In an attempt to bring together each principal's perceptions about how they had developed or were developing a working framework to accommodate and implement mandatory change, in this case, the implementation of the New South Wales English K-6 Syllabus, they were asked to construct a diagram that reflected their personal benchmarks of school growth. In Schools A, B and C, the principals' diagrams initially set out to present what they thought the school should be doing but as the process developed, their diagrams presented a reflection of what their schools were actually doing to support change. The principal of School D, however, developed a diagram that presented his personal vision of how he believed the school should be operating to ensure school growth.

At the same time as identifying benchmarks of school growth, all four principals attempted to show the relationships and connections that they believed existed between the various elements at work within their schools.
Each of the diagrams also emphasised the juxtapositions of school organization, school culture and professional learning.

The Process Questions
To facilitate the summarising and synthesising process required to develop their diagrams, each principal was asked a series of questions. The first question to be asked of all principals was:

- What do you think is the main business of schools?

Without exception, all the principals indicated that they believed that learning was their main business. Three of the principals clarified this by saying that learning for all, for both students and the staff, was the focus of all their efforts (Interviews A17, B19 and C17).

Other questions were asked to facilitate the reflection process or to act as a prompt, if and when needed in the development of the diagrams. The questions were as follows:

- What are the major benchmarks indicative of school growth?
- What has changed in your school and how do you know it?
- Describe your school’s growth using the benchmarks you have identified as being important.
- Are there relationships and interconnections between the major elements of your diagram?
- What does your school do that makes a difference?
- What do individuals do that make a difference?
- If ‘learning for all’ is the focus of your school efforts, what things does your school need to do to develop and sustain this learning?
- Are there factors that seem significant in influencing the course of the restructuring process?
For the principal of School C these questions formed the organizational framework for her diagram. For others, the questions helped the principals unpack their own values and beliefs about change. Not all questions were used with all principals.

**The Development of the Diagrams**

The diagrams developed by each of the four principals where constructed over a period of weeks and represent their attempts to make explicit what they understood about change and school growth.

Alan prefaced the development of his diagram by suggesting that the kind of environment that needed to be created in the school, if it was to grow and develop, was no different than the one that teachers were trying to create in their classrooms. He suggested that there had to be a 'consistent alignment' between values and beliefs, everything that happened in the school and the manner in which it happened (Interview B17).

One of the limitations with these diagrams that all participants noted, was their two dimensional expression of multi-dimensional, multi-contextual and multi-levelled concepts.

However, the development of these diagrams, Alan and Jan indicated, helped them to explore and question their own values and beliefs as well as identify gaps, inconsistencies of alignment and problem areas within their own organization (Interviews B17 and C17). David indicated that the questions and the process of constructing a diagram had allowed him 'to start off from the theory and work up to the practical reality' (Interview A17: 45).

An analysis of the results of the process of developing the four diagrams will be presented as individual schools rather than a collective account.

**School A**

During the course of our discussions, David constructed four diagrams. The process involved David in the simultaneous exploration of what he knew about the theories of learning and change and what was actually happening in his school. What follows records David's 'thinking out aloud' as he tried to construct the diagrams.
Before starting with the development of the first diagram (Figure 58), David reflected on what he felt were the top priorities for any school to consider if it was to grow and develop a learning environment for all. To do this, he indicated that he was drawing on the theory he had read about and how he perceived these theories might look in practice (Interview A17). He suggested that a school needed to identify its needs and strengths, to develop a shared meaning amongst the staff and the community and to confront and collaboratively solve its problems. There was a need, he added, to be able to tap into networks and resources available both within and outside the school, to support change. Part of this was the necessity to keep in touch with where the money was so that special funds might be accessed to support special projects. David felt that the development of relationships and organizational structures were essential if change was to become part of a school's agenda (Interview A17: 1 - 4).

When considering the current agenda for change David noted that State priorities did not change a great deal from year to year. Curriculum content was the main variable. The 1995 agenda had included assessment and evaluation, implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus, parent involvement, the use of a standards framework through the statement of curriculum outcomes, and an introduction to the new Personal Development, Health, Physical Education Syllabus. To cope with all these mandates, David indicated that schools would need to come from a position of knowledge.

Figure 58: School A: The benchmarks of a learning and developing school?
In David's school region, there was a move to encourage and support schools to adopt an outcome-based approach (ODE). This approach, it was felt would help schools to make connections between the various agendas explicit. David felt that a move to an outcome-based education would not work unless schools had explored and developed a framework of understanding about teaching and learning. David felt that the principles of ODE had been part of schools agenda for some time but that concepts and understandings still needed to be developed (Interview A17: 5 - 9).

If schools were to grow, David emphasised that there was a need for them to look at their personal beliefs, theories and practices, and the beliefs and theories of others. Further, he suggested that schools needed to take innovations on one at a time and fit them into an already existing framework (Interview A17: 10 - 11).

Moving on, David then turned his attention to the questions and the development of a diagram that would reflect his personal benchmarks of school growth.

**What are the major benchmarks indicative of your school's growth?**

David indicated that everything that happened in the school was governed by the stakeholders values and beliefs. Within these, he suggested, there were three main parts, learning, demonstrated behaviours and relationships (Figure 58). Each part was described in terms of how teachers should be responding (Interview A18).

Collectively these factors, he considered, were the most important in a school that was changing and growing. He further expanded on these expectations by describing the kinds of qualities that he expected the teachers to display if all was going well within the school.

David suggested that, 'there was a need here to draw on 'the theory of others' (Interview A17: 12). In considering the benchmarks, he reflected on what he felt the teachers, the students and the structures should be like. Teachers, he felt, should:

- perceive themselves as learners;
• display a willingness to learn with and from others;
• want to know the theory of others;
• want to know about the practice of others;
• be beginning to define and make explicit their own beliefs and modify or change their own practices so that beliefs and practices were congruent;
• be focussed on the school itself - developing a shared meaning and shared goals;
• use language indicative of learning; teachers saying 'what are we going to do about this?' not 'You' or 'They';
• want to attend and justify their attendance at training and development courses;
• want to talk about students' progress - 'How do we deal with this';
• be talking about pointers of learning - celebrating students' learning;
• be discussing the learning environment;
• not blame but celebrate;
• share their ideas formally and informally; and
• have a go - take risks (Interview 17).

Students, David suggested, should exhibit similar characteristics to those expected of teachers (Interview 17).

David went on to say that, 'If we consider assessing organization and management, I think there would be a different set of benchmarks in every circumstance, I know that I had a totally different set of benchmarks in my previous school because I had a different set of circumstances. I know I operate in a totally different way here from what I did there' (Interview A17: 36).
Before continuing with the development of his diagrams David reflected on further questions I posed.

**What has changed and how do you know?**

With reference to the substance of change, David reflected about his overall experiences as a principal. Specifically he recalled the school he had been in before his current appointment. He said:

>'For years I worked in an establishment where the culture as described there existed (see Figure 58) and I had the personnel at all levels, community, students and teachers that enabled that to exist. We worked in an environment that fostered learning and I think the most important thing is with this one that where people were able to establish relationships and I think growth only comes through relationships. Growth doesn't come through attending courses, it doesn't come by doing artificially contrived exercises. Growth occurs when you and I have a problem to address and between us we address that problem, we solve that problem and whilst we've done it we've helped each other, we've learnt from each other and we have developed and growth takes place. That's the sort of scenario that you have to be continually setting up in a school where people have to work with each other to solve a problem. Now if in working with each other they identify the fact that they have to go to a Training and Development course which might answer some of their problems or they have to get somebody in which is going to help solve that problem, that to me is what valuable effective staff development is about. The establishment of relationships, people working together to solve real problems.

In my present situation here I've gone back to people saying 'I' and 'They' rather than 'We' and people trying to find someone to blame, trying to avoid the issue, trying to not attack the real problems because they're too hard and they don't feel in many cases as though they are safe in taking the risk. So in endeavouring to establish a culture which fosters learning I think if we lean back on people like Roland Barth and 'Improving Schools from Within' and Fullan and Hargreaves and people like that. I think we have so much to learn from them. I think that in order to foster this sort of change we have to identify what our needs and strengths are and find solutions through relationships' (Interview A17: 49 - 51).

Of his current school he admitted that progress had been very slow and that he had encountered difficulties with a group of 'Nattering nabobs of negativity'.
who were preventing others in their attempts 'to establish an environment and culture which fosters learning' (Interview A17: 53). He added that despite this, some teachers had come a long way 'marked by significant work (policy development) in assessment, mathematics, curriculum and welfare' (Interview A17: 55). But he suggested that there was still a long way to go.

What are the factors that seem significant in influencing the course of the restructuring process?
David provided the following factors as being important aspects of the restructuring process.

'Staff: Their perceptions of themselves;
Your perception of them; Are they leaders? Are they followers?
Do they see themselves as having low morale/self esteem? Down trodden? (This is sometimes a cop out);
Teachers perceptions of attitude;
Identify teacher expertise, teacher strength;
Focus on positive;
Being able to identify areas of greatest priority (Not the little issues);
Foster shared meaning of greatest priority;
Foster shared meaning of goal - what is going to happen in the future;
Set up structures;
Work with high fliers. Move with movers.

Change: There are 'enablers' and 'constrainers'. Develop and enhance enablers, eliminate (restrict) constrainers. 'A change in curriculum is essentially a change in people'.

Principal: Must maintain vision, be a significant person up front: encourage, redirect and maintain.

Vision: Need to know where we are going: Employ the expertise to enable people to get there' (Interview A17).
What are the factors that make a difference to literacy and language learning?

This question prompted David to develop two more diagrams (Figures 59 and 60). The first used an 'Ishikawa' format as a means of first identifying factors and the second diagram is an extension and clarification of the first.

![Ishikawa Diagram](image)

**Figure 59: Key factors in the development of students' literacy and language learning (Interview A20).**

In Figure 59 David identifies the opportunities for teachers to lead and follow, teacher involvement, their knowledge of language development, skilled ways of working with others, professional attitudes and behaviours and the alignment of beliefs with outcomes expected of the students, as the most important factors in the development of students literacy and language learning (Interview A20). David felt that students ability to solve problems was the key to their development and these factors, he considered, supported and developed this ability.

Building on the Ishikawa diagram of key factors in a students' literacy and language learning, David extends the focus to also show the similarities between and importance of both teachers' and students' learning (Figure 60).
Opportunities for Teachers to Lead and Follow in Different Situations
- risk taker
- creativity to ensure achievement of goals
- awareness of and commitment to beliefs
- support for initiatives
- coordinating
- maintaining momentum
- monitoring
- protecting
- pushing
- ensuring that success is experienced

Teacher Involvement
- valuing teachers
- recognising strengths/expertise
- areas for development determined by self or in conjunction with significant other/s
- encouragement of risk taking
- Praise for effort/results/outcomes
- including teachers in decision making

Alignment of Beliefs and Values with Teaching Practice and Outcomes
Community of Learners and Leaders who are:
- reflective practitioners
- researchers
- able to articulate beliefs
- display continual commitment

Figure 60: Key benchmarks in the development of learning for students and teachers (Interview A20).
To emphasise the important relationships between the various characteristics he had identified in his second and third diagrams, and in attempt to bring things together, David readjusted the third diagram to produce his final diagram (Figure 61). David believed that this diagram better emphasised the highly integrated and interdependent nature of the elements that supported teacher learning and students literacy and language learning (Interview A21).

Students should be able to solve problems leading to the learning of language and the development of literacy learning

Opportunities for Teachers to Lead and Follow in different Situations
Must have leadership (e.g. principal) who has vision:
- risk taker
- creativity to ensure achievement of goals
- awareness of and commitment to beliefs
- support for initiatives
- coordinating
- Maintaining momentum
- monitoring
- protecting
- pushing
- ensuring that success is experienced

Teacher Involvement
- Valuing teachers
- Recognising strengths / expertise
- Areas for development determined by self or in conjunction with significant other/s
- Encouragement of risk taking
- Praise for effort / results / outcomes
- Including teachers in decision making

Alignment of Beliefs and Values
- Shared Meaning
- Shared Purpose

Alignment of Beliefs and Values with Teaching Practice and outcomes
Community of Learners and Leaders who are:
- reflective practitioners
- researchers
- able to articulate beliefs
- display continual commitment

Skilled in Constructive Ways of Working With Others
- commitment to shared meaning
- collaboration - share expertise, value diversity
- development of planned structures which demonstrate the effectiveness of learning with and from others

Professional Attitudes and Behaviours
- perceive oneself as learner
- problem solver
- proactive rather than reactive
- commitment to learners and learning

Knowledge
About:
- learning
- learners (e.g. cultural differences)
- literacy (including Learning Outcomes in K - 6 Syllabus)

Figure 61: Elements that support both teacher learning and students' literacy and language learning (Interview A21).

School B
Alan went about describing what he felt were the benchmarks of growth in his school which he labelled 'the school learning environment' (Figure 62). 'Learning for all' was perceived by Alan as the main focus of school (Interview B19: 2). He identified school culture, the different contexts within the school, the structures and activities and leadership as the main benchmarks of his school community (Interview B21: 13 - 245). All these, Alan suggested, were interrelated and he perceived these to be a reflection of the values and beliefs of all the stakeholders within the school community (Interview B21: 10). In describing this Alan said,
'It's values and beliefs that tie all these things together. Its values and beliefs that determined the kind of leadership priorities if you like. Its values and beliefs that tie the culture to the contexts and the sort of activities and structures that go with them' (Interview B21: 11).

He pointed out, however, that values and beliefs were not fixed and therefore the learning environment needed always to be changing (Interview B21: 29). Alan was concerned that his diagram made things look too static whilst in reality there were simultaneous processes going on, everything in constant motion (Interview B21: 38).

Alan also considered that leadership was a critical element of school growth. However, he saw leadership as everybody's responsibility. The organization is seen as a team of people working together. Alan indicated that he felt that the organization had a flatter structure. Although some of the old hierarchical structures still existed, they now operated in new ways, by changing the ground rules (Interview B21: 109). Of his own leadership, Alan said that his focus was on people's values and beliefs, helping people examine their own, by making sure 'that people are able to clarify and hear what other people believe and to maybe adjusting their own after being influenced by that ...... so my influence as a principal of the school, on these contexts, is through changes here in values' (Interview B21: 89 & 91).

Another major point that Alan felt typified his leadership was his focus on the development of relationships within the school and his emphasis on supporting and encouraging people but not on the actual change (Interview B21: 77 - 82). He added, however, that 'this doesn't preclude me as far as making suggestions and maybe looking at how best to implement this change or whatever. But my main focus is supporting the people that are implementing change' (Interview B21: 95).
To further explore Alan's thinking and reasoning as he constructed his diagram, the following questions were asked:

**Describe your schools growth using the benchmarks you have identified as being important.**

In constructing his diagram (Figure 62), Alan tried to link his ideas both vertically and horizontally (Interview B21: 206). He went about describing his schools growth using each of the benchmarks he had identified.
'Growth', Alan indicated, 'is determined by a change in beliefs' (Interview B23: 27). Alan felt that a change in beliefs impacted on the culture of the whole school and that this was demonstrated by what they did and by the activities initiated and structures developed within each of the school contexts that existed (Interview B21: 261).

Of contexts, he identified physical contexts, like the playground and other informal contexts, and the stake holding groups within the school community. Alan suggested that informal contexts were different for every school. He noted a number of examples of how his school had grown. The playground, for instance, had become integrated after having being segregated into infants (K-2) and primary (grades 3-6) for a good many years. Alan reported that since its integration, very few playground incidents had been reported by either teachers or students (Interview B23: 29). How this integration had been managed, Alan added, was a reflection of the values that the staff had about children's needs (Interview B21: 15). Alternatively Alan suggested this change to an integrated approach in the playground might also in turn change values and beliefs (Interview B21: 58).

Alan also reported that there had been enthusiastic participation in a peer support program (seen as an informal context) and that year six students were more ready to accept responsibility as group leaders within this program (Interview B23: 30).

Alan noted that teachers' programs reflected more closely the specific needs of their students. Staff too, were more willing to share, discuss and participate in school activities. Alan indicated that discussion and sharing had become so important to the staff that they insisted that time be set aside for this to happen (Interview B23: 42).

Parents, Alan observed, were now more ready to take part in parent courses and had become more involved in assisting in the classroom with reading, craft and other classroom projects. Alan added that teachers too were more willing to let this happen (Interview B23:47).

Alan suggested that he felt that another indicator of growth was demonstrated by the increased levels of interaction and co-operation between support staff and the teaching staff. This had been seen when one of the support staff had initiated the 'Peacemakers Program'. Its successful implementation had been
dependent on the close interaction and co-operation between the support staff and the teachers and showed that the teachers also valued the initiative taken by the support staff (Interview B23: 48).

**What does your school do that makes a difference?**

Alan suggested that offering a wide curriculum for students had made a difference. He felt that the school had particular strengths in the areas of sport, gymnastics and choir.

He noted too that 'how we organize the school, the way we structure the place, is for kids, it's not to make it easier, necessarily, for teachers. So it's a child focus that we have in the way we structure the school' (Interview B23: 67). Alan also stressed the importance of celebrating success. He noted that acknowledging children's successes happened at many different levels and in many different ways. He also added that teachers successes were also an important part of the culture of the school (Interview B23: 68 - 69).

**What do individuals do that makes a difference?**

Alan indicated that he had many members of staff who were willing to take on responsibility. He said,

> 'They are really prepared to take different tasks and initiatives on board and to assume responsibility for them. They keep coming back for feedback from me and from other executive, but it is feedback not for direction ...... What they do and the way they do it really encourages and inspires other people to go with them' (Interview B23: 70).

Alan added that these people were very positive and confident; 'they're sure of what they're doing, they know we're heading in the right sort of direction and they're really positive that we're going to be successful' (Interview B23: 79).

'These people', Alan added, "take some risks ..... and model, without providing a show' (Interview B23: 81).

**What things does the school need to do to improve learning for all?**

Alan felt that the view of the school had been rather too narrow and insular therefore he wanted to develop a wider 'school view'. He also felt that he needed to examine the impact of the actions of individuals on the school and that these individuals needed to understand the impact they were having on whole school growth, or the lack of it (Interview B23: 90).
Alan also commented on the importance of 'accommodating and recognising differences' (Interview B21:145). He said, 'If you are accommodating differences, I think that has an effect on climate because if you are able to accommodate those differences, it's going to encourage a better commitment from the people because their views are valued and they feel they have a commitment to make...... its the bits of all those contributions that make a school' (Interview B21: 146). It was this development of recognising difference that Alan felt he needed to work on in a continuous way.

Most important of all, Alan stressed the need to keep moving towards the development of a 'community of learners'. He also wanted to work on 'aligning beliefs with practices' (Interview B23 : 91 - 92).

School C
In the development of Jan's diagram, she noted the external influences on the school plan but these, she suggested don't necessarily have an effect on the school culture. Jan indicated that external edicts were remoulded into something that was acceptable by the school community. An alignment process was often necessary, she indicated, to make external edicts congruent with internal shared beliefs. Jan made learning and school growth the overriding focus in her diagram (Figure 64). She indicated that there were strong connections between the school culture (values, beliefs, myths and attitudes), the physical environment, the people and their interpersonal relationships, their networks and the resources. Jan noted that the activities both structured and unstructured were also a reflection of the culture.

What are your personal benchmarks that would indicate that your school is growing and developing?
Before developing her diagram , Jan made a list of all the benchmarks that she felt were important for school growth. Whilst this is a long list, it provided a starting point for the development of her diagram. She identified the following benchmarks:

• Improved teacher attitudes towards:
  One another, the students and the system
  What is going on around them and in their classrooms
  Teachers' job satisfaction
  Enthusiasm
• Interpersonal relationships between staff:
  Collegial support, trust and helpfulness
  Willingness to learn from each other
  Ability to work as a team
• Environment/Culture:
  Non-threatening
  Atmosphere where all can move safely together
• Improved teacher performance in the classroom and teaching practice:
  More efficient
  Changed teaching practices to fit with changed educational theories
• Greater understanding by parents of:
  Schooling in general
  Role of schools and what schools are trying to achieve
  The combined effort that is required of parents working with the school
• Greater parent participation in children's learning
• Better management of school's resources:
  How they are used
  Their suitability in achieving current intentions/theories
  The nature of the purchasing eg. types of books - quality
  Use of technology and whether teachers are using what is available
• Improved self esteem:
  Attitudes, increased self confidence and responsibility
• Outside school activities:
  Seeking of outside expertise and response
  Collaborative projects/research
  Participation in regional projects
• Outside school support by:
  Showing interest
  Recognition by the system by valuing what is being done
  The 'Quality Assurance Project'
• Improved learning outcomes for all' (Interview C17: 3 - 43).

Through the use of the process questions Jan refined and clarified these initial thoughts so that they represented more clearly the benchmarks of her own school growth. This process involved the development of many draft diagrams as she tried to not only be more specific but also to reflect the relationships between the benchmarks she had developed (Figure 63).
What has changed in your school and how do you know it?

Having developed her initial list of benchmarks, Jan went on to describe evidence of change in her own school. She started by saying that the way that training and development activities were organized, presented and co-ordinated had changed markedly. She noted that these activities now focused on the priorities identified in the School Management Plan and had become part of the culture of the school and now included the parents (Interview C17: 45 - 48). These activities included workshops, co-learning, use of facilitators rather than 'know alls', observation and discussion between staff and their grade co-ordinators (Interview C17: 50 - 57). Jan added that teachers were more willing to participate in training and development activities and responded more positively to school activities and children's learning (Interview C17: 97).

Jan indicated that her school planning had changed and that she had developed a view of herself as a learner with the staff. She participated in all activities and had increased her personal knowledge of how children learned. She felt that being involved with change had helped her to remain vitalised and energised. She knew also that she had become more supportive and understanding of teachers and that it was important to recognise the development of the individual as well as the group (Interview C17: 58 - 73).

Jan felt that the nature of relationships had changed in her school and this was evident in how the teachers related to each other and to their children. There was mutual trust between the teachers, an air of collegiality, more sharing of resources and ideas and an increased willingness to help each other (Interview C17: 74 - 78).

Jan reported that she had observed and had feedback from teachers that children's behaviour in the classroom had also improved and there was a greater emphasis on learning. She had also noticed that children were taking more responsibility for their own learning (Interview C17: 79 - 83).

Finally Jan commented on the changing beliefs of the teachers. She had observed that these beliefs were coming together to form a set of shared beliefs particularly in the areas of assessment and reporting, children's learning and the roles of the parents in school life (Interview C17: 98 - 101).
How would you assess your school's progress towards school restructuring?

Jan was more positive about her school's process than the other principals but she pointed out that this might be attributed to the fact that hers was a small school so they could operate more like a family. She was particularly proud of the advances they had made in the area of assessment and reporting and said that they had become well known in the region for their initiatives. During the implementation of changes to reporting procedures, the school staff had worked more closely with their parents which had developed their relationship with them (Interview C17: 103 - 116).

What factors have seemed significant in influencing change?

Jan first mentioned that the most negative factor involved changes in staff. Jan suggested, however, that there were more positive than negative factors. She noted particularly, the expertise and commitment of the staff, their willingness to participate, and the recognition they had received by the region of their exemplary practices (Interview C17: 118 - 130).

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<th>Children's needs</th>
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<td>Lesson</td>
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<td>Parents and Children</td>
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Support

Examination of values & beliefs

Programs

Examining of values & beliefs

Balanced

To cater for all chn.

Relevant & interesting programs

Value of good literacy & language

A belief about learning

Value on-going learning

About equity

Assess. & evaluation

Figure 63: Benchmarks for the successful implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus (Interview C22)

What things does the school need to do to improve learning for all?

Jan felt that the most important thing that needed to be done was 'to evaluate (their) present program to see if it was working'. She indicated that it was now important for the school 'to reflect upon their new practices and consolidate
their current program and then build on them' (Interview C17: 106). This, she emphasised did not mean stopping the learning process. She felt it was important to continue with their training and development program and to increase parent learning (Interview C17: 106).

After identifying the benchmarks of change and discussing the substance of change, the evidence, the pace of change and the factors that seemed significant in influencing the course of the restructuring process in her school, Jan then began to develop a diagram, that focused specifically on the benchmarks of the implementation of the English K-6 Syllabus (see Figure 63). In doing so, she summarised much of what she had identified as important aspects of the change process.

Over a number of visits she created a new diagram (See Figure 64). She was surprised to find that although her arrangement was different the key benchmarks were very much the same (Interview C18).

Jan went on to say that the leadership in the school was also an important benchmark. She said that leadership should be clear and encourage input and allow for individual variation and ideas. She commented, 'Leadership should have a clear direction but not be blinkered, (it should) encourage a collegial atmosphere and a feeling that the individuals' ideas contribute to the whole. We should learn from each other' (Interview C18: 15).
Figure 64: School C: The benchmarks of a learning and developing school (Interview C23).
School D:

In the last diagram, constructed by John, the principal of School D, many of the same benchmarks appear again (See Figure 65). However, when I asked John to identify benchmarks of change he came up with a description that sounded like a series of Departmental policy statements (Reflective Journal, August, 1995). They were presented as follows:

- 'Planning:
  Aspects of the development of school
  Classroom practices
  Curriculum
  Student Welfare
  Leadership Management
  Organization
  Priorities and needs of the school

- Strategies: The things that one would do to try and put the school plan into practice.
  Curriculum: Implementation of English K-6 Syllabus
  Staff meetings
  In service

- Outcomes: What you achieved at the end of your cycle of planning and strategies (Interview D9).

After this discussion I make the following observations in my Reflective Journal (August, 1995): 'When John responded to my request for benchmarks of change he suddenly became very confident and authoritative. He sounded like a visiting superintendent of the old school'. In the following interview, however, I asked him if these benchmarks were his own personal opinions and ideas. He was surprised by my comment and said that he thought I wanted 'the Departmental line'. He was even more surprised that I might be interested to hear what he personally felt were the benchmarks of growth. He was not sure whether all his personal benchmarks would be the same as the 'Departmental ones' (Interview D10). He commented that he'd had limited opportunity to discuss such things but started again and presented the following personal benchmarks:

- 'General vibes of the place
• Staff open and willing to talk and discuss things

• Playground: the tidiness as an indication of caring for the place

• Displays of quality work being done and the kind of work being done

• Classrooms
  Atmosphere of sharing and celebrating work
  Displays of children's work
  How children are organized (physical layout)
  Teaching style philosophy: whether it is a reflection of current thinking in education and at the cutting edge of learning theory
  Children responding in spontaneous ways

• Staff
  Professional talk
  Sharing of ideas and problems
  Consultative behaviour to problems
  Positive talk about and interest in children
  Professional behaviour, dignity, respect for each other's point of view and trust
  Positive professional attitudes, positive towards each other, collegial, to parents
  Positive reactions to change proposals' (Interview D10: 4 - 33)

After this interview my personal journal notes the differences between these two lists and how the second 'clearly reflected John's own voice' (Reflective Journal, August, 1995).

Next came the construction of a diagram which reflected a series of rough ideas that John had been thinking about. He found it difficult to get started so I used the questions as possible prompts.

What has changed in your school? How do you know?
John reported that over a twelve month period there had been indications that staff were becoming more willing to embrace change in a positive way. This, he suggested, had become evident through their attendance at in service courses and more informal talk and interaction between staff about the English K-6
Syllabus, programming to outcomes, profiles and about functional grammar (Interview D10: 35 - 38). John also indicated that there was evidence of better planning and more consultation (Interview D10: 44).

**How would you assess your school's progress towards school growth?**
John commented that the pace of change had quickened and 'the acceptance of change (was) no longer such a threat to some people' (Interview D10: 40). He had observed that staff seemed more prepared to try new things. Whilst he noted that about fifty percent of his teachers were still resisting change, the others had become more interested and were getting involved in school activities (Interview D10: 41).

**Are there factors which seem significant in influencing the course of the current mandated change process?**
John felt that the manner in which the English K-6 Syllabus had been developed and introduced to schools had a particularly negative effect on the teachers. He felt that there had been so many changes and so many political manoeuvres with the theory of the document that his teachers had become very cynical. He reported that the teachers felt that the Syllabus was surrounded by too much uncertainty to be taken seriously and these factors had provided some staff with the perfect reason not to change (Interview D10: 43).

**What things does the school need to do if it is to grow and develop?**
John commented on his own leadership. He said that it had been difficult not to be 'caught up in the status quo of how things had always been done in the school' (Interview D10: 46). He knew, however, that a different style of leadership was needed if significant change was to take place. He felt that he should move towards a system of joint decision making, that there should be more consultation, more involvement of all the stakeholders and that a school council should be formed (Interview D10: 47 - 51). He also felt that the centre of control and responsibility should be shifted so that these were shared by more people in the school (Interview D11: 2).

John also referred to the importance of sincerity and being able to share in an open way what was on one's mind but he realised that this was only possible in a caring and trusting environment and he knew that he needed to work towards achieving this (Interview D11: 3). From this co-researching experience John had come to realise the importance of being able to talk about 'what is in our heads rather than just articulating a 'party line' (Interview D11: 4).
knew had implications for the staff too. John indicated that he had begun to realise the importance of developing a strong and positive school culture and this, he felt, was essential if the school was to grow (Interview D11: 5 - 6).

What are your personal benchmarks of school growth and development?
John began to construct a new diagram to show his understandings of the benchmarks of change (Figure 65). He noted that he now had the opportunity, 'to clarify his thinking and to be more specific about what he meant'. Also he reported that the construction of the diagram helped him 'to organized his benchmarks into some headings and show the relationships between his ideas' (Reflective Journal, August, 1995).

![Figure 65: School D: Benchmarks of school growth](image)

During the process of constructing the diagram 'John talked his way to understanding' (Reflective Journal, August, 1995) and identified 'people', 'contexts' and 'culture' as the major benchmarks of change. All these, he emphasised, were influenced by people's attitudes, values and beliefs (Interview D12: 2 ). These observations were very similar to the benchmarks that had been identified by the other three principals. Further, John emphasised
the effect that external influences had on his school and the way it operated (Interview D12:10).

John suggested that the culture of the school was shaped by all the beliefs held by the people in the school. Based on collective beliefs, a mission statement needed to be negotiated (Interview D12: 4). Relationships, John added, were also an important aspect of culture and had a great influence on the school. He said there was a close connection between values and attitudes and relationships. He noted that 'sometimes we bring baggage along, positive or negative experiences, history ...that gives us an unconscious agenda or belief, value or attitude' and this in turn, John suggested, affected behaviour and relationships (Interview D12:15). Values and beliefs provided 'frameworks for thinking and ... frameworks for action' and it was the actions of people that influenced school culture (Interview D12:16). In turn, it was indicated, the culture also determined the way the school was structured, that is, the kind of management style that was used, the leadership and the activities that were organized (Interview D12: 17 - 19). Culture was perceived to be in a constant state of change. Just as contexts, circumstances and demands were for ever changing so too, John believed, was the school culture (Interview D12: 22 - 27).

John also pointed out the influence of 'traditions, myths, the legends, the personalities that make up the place' on the school culture. The community was also perceived to have a significant influence on the school culture (Interview D12: 32). John continued by saying that all these factors were highly interrelated and when one changed shape everything else was affected (Interview D12: 37).

John suggested that 'the language of the school' was another feature of the kind of culture that existed. 'How it talks amongst itself, how it talks to the community' were all seen as important indicators of culture (Interview D12: 63 - 65).

Finally, the school culture, John indicated, dictated the way activities were structured and organized in the school. He noted, however, that sometimes too many structures could also dictate culture. He told of the problems associated with the physical layout of the school; how it had been separated into two schools one for Infants (Kindergarten through to grade two) and the other for junior aged students (grades three to six). Since all schools had been integrated into K-6 primary schools, John reported that the same barriers still seemed to
exist between the lower and upper primary sections and these barriers extended into all aspects of school life (Interview D12: 69 - 73).

**What things does the school need to do if it is to grow and develop?**

John suggested that professional development was an essential element of change and the school needed to provide more opportunities for teachers to make their values and beliefs explicit so that they could better examine them (Interview D12: 47). He felt that until he could provide the same learning opportunities for all his staff it was unlikely that he could get them to work towards collective goals (Interview D12: 57).

**SUMMARY OF BENCHMARKS**

Each of the descriptions offered by the principals in this final part of the results, presents the story of their schools' efforts to respond to mandated change. Their diagrams provided a guide to the ways they perceived that change and growth took place and the key elements of the process. Their dialogues also indicate where they felt they were up to and/or where they needed to go. The diagrams are also an expression of the principals beliefs, their thinking and their actions. They also provide a summary of all the results presented earlier in this chapter.

The most distinctive finding from the analysis of the data was the similarity of the principals descriptions of the benchmarks of change. There were no significant differences in their accounts although the permutations of the relationships between learning, school growth and change varied.

The major points could be summarised thus:  

- All four accounts emphasised the importance of the values and beliefs held by individuals within the school community. It was perceived that these values and beliefs were important in a number of ways:
  
  * They were seen to have a significant impact on demonstrated behaviours, learning, relationships, leadership, the physical contexts within the school, the structures and activities that were initiated and the school culture. Indeed values and beliefs were seen to be reflected in everything that was done in the school and also in the way in which things were done.
* It was considered that school growth and development were determined by changes in values and beliefs.

* It was believed that values and beliefs needed to be made explicit before change in practice could be expected.

* There was perceived to be a need for teachers to align values and beliefs with classroom practice.

- There was considered to be inextricable connections and relationships between learning, school growth and change. Without learning and knowledge both school growth and change would not occur. Learning and interpersonal relationships were considered an integral part of school culture.

- The history and geography (the physical environment) of the school were considered to have both positive and negative effects on a school's potential for growth.

- One of the main purposes of change was considered to be learning for all.

- The values and beliefs of a school and the resultant elements that expressed these were considered to be in a state of constant motion. Nothing, it was considered, was fixed or static.
When you reach down into the universe and pull something out, you find that it is attached to everything else.  
John Muir

Finally the last chapter. It represents a grand conclusion of everything that I have learnt, a synthesis of the knowledge gained during an arduous research journey, from 'iteration to redundancy' as Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe it. However, as time has passed it became ever more apparent that in Strauss and Corbin's (1990:235) words 'no manuscript is ever finished' and as Lewis Mumford suggests, 'The sum of all our days is just our beginning' and so it is with this study. This is both a frustrating as well as a challenging notion. As every question was explored a myriad of others emerged and so it went on.

Whilst recognising these limitations, however, the purpose of this chapter is to pull together all aspects of the study into a coherent whole, by presenting an 'inductively derived grounded theory' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), one that has emerged from the data and thus can be said to be grounded in that data.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest that a grounded theory should be 'well structured' and meet four central criteria for 'judging the applicability of theory to a phenomenon'. These include 'fit, understanding, generality and control'. Further they argue that:

'If theory is faithful to the everyday reality of the substantive area and carefully induced from diverse data, then it should fit that substantive area. Because it represents that reality, it should also be comprehensible and make sense both to persons who were studied and to those practising in that area. If the data on which it is based are comprehensible and the interpretations conceptual and broad, then the theory should be abstract enough and include sufficient variation to make it applicable to a variety of contexts related to that phenomenon. Finally, the theory should provide control with regard to action toward the phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:23).
Hence my task now is to present a 'well structured' theory, one which not only meets the above criteria but that makes sense and has the potential to be useful in furthering understanding about mandated change and professional learning. It may have the potential to be applied to other contexts where mandatory change is demanded.

It needs to be clarified here that I am drawing a distinction between 'generalisation' and a 'naturalistic generalisation'. A 'generalisation' is rationalistic, propositional, lawlike - a term/concept that is part of scientific discourse. A 'naturalistic generalisation' is, on the other hand, more 'intuitive, empirical, based on personal direct and vicarious experience' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:120). In naturalistic research Lincoln and Guba (1985:110) maintain that 'The only generalisation is: there is no generalisation'. Instead they suggest the concepts of 'applicability', 'transferability' and 'fittingness' (1985:124). Whether a working hypothesis, or more appropriately described by Whetten (1989:492) as 'propositions' developed in Context A might be applicable to Context B, they suggest, is a matter of empiricism, that is 'the degree of transferability is a direct function of the similarity between the two contexts, what we shall call 'fittingness'. Fittingness is defined as the degree of congruence between sending and receiving contexts. If Context A and Context B are 'sufficiently' congruent, then the 'propositions' from the sending originating context may be applicable in the receiving context (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:124).

A grounded theory, therefore, might provide information that guides school staff in what action could be taken in regard to the implementation process of mandatory change.

I will, therefore, proceed by first providing reflections upon some of the key connections that were made throughout the research process as this provides the platform from which the grounded theory emerged. Secondly I will present an overview of my grounded theory about the relationships between mandated change, professional learning and school growth. Thirdly I will present a proposal for this theory in action.

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20 Whetten (1989) felt that 'propositions' was the more appropriate term as 'propositions involve conceptual relationships whereas hypotheses require measured relationships' (Pandit, 1996). Grounded theory focuses on conceptual rather than measured relationships.
Having articulated this grounded theory I will then present a set of implications from this NSW context for others who may be interested in the implementation process of mandated change. Finally I will identify challenges for educators in the future.

TOWARDS A GROUNDED THEORY

As stated in Chapter One, the main purpose of this study was to develop a grounded theory of the relationships between mandated change, professional development and school growth. From this I hope to provide insights into the processes involved in implementing mandatory change.

Specifically, this study monitored the implementation of a new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus into four New South Wales Public Schools. From this monitoring process, a number of recurring patterns of behaviour and practices were evident in the schools which in turn provided a 'text' about how teachers learn and make changes to their practice. It is from these patterns in the data that a grounded theory emerged. This theory presents a 'unique configuration' of personal values and assumptions that have become intertwined with the data and which represent the complexities of the phenomena we call 'schools' (Peskin, 1988). It is based in the real world of four schools, the teachers, their classrooms and student learning.

Three major knowledge bases were analysed as meaning was constructed. One was concerned with the analysis of the literature (Chapter 2), the second involved piecing together and recording the socio-political context from which the English K-6 Syllabus evolved (Chapter 4). The third involved an analysis of the behaviours, practices, experiences and perspectives offered by the participants during the time they were going about trying to understand and implement the new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus in their individual settings (Chapter 5).

The review of the literature was not a separate activity from the research process, it was an integral part of the process. It involved constant comparison between the literature and the experiences I was having. Constantly I was asking myself what was similar and what was different (Eisenhardt, 1989). The review then, evolved in such a way so that it became a reflection and confirmation of my experiences in the schools. In order to control my
subjectivity, sometimes what was found in the literature became a starting point for further investigation. On other occasions it was the experience which helped me to construct personal meanings from the literature. As issues emerged, so the literature was checked. What became apparent during this process of experiencing and cross checking was that I had to search widely and deeply to find confirmation and/or clarification of my ongoing observations. As a result of this it occurred to me that there was a need to:

- identify and challenge the underlying theories of the various descriptions of professional learning, school growth and change that I was encountering in the literature;

- seek for connections between the theories and ideas;

- identify interrelationships; and to

- look for new configurations.

So I argued in the review that a new configuration of theories needed to be explored in order to understand that professional learning and change was the outcome of many different and complex processes. This new configuration then resulted in an amalgam of theories. These theories combined to form a different kind of configuration and thus a fresh way to explain and understand the implications of mandated change, professional learning and school growth.

The literature takes for granted that we, 'the profession', are clear about the relationships between professional development, school growth and change. Assumptions were being made that change was the automatic outcome of staff development initiatives. As I found in the data, this was not the case. The initiatives taken by the bureaucracy to support and develop the implementation of the new mandatory English K-6 Syllabus and the anticipated changes in teaching practice were, on the whole, considered by the staff of the four case study schools, to be unsuccessful.

Furthermore the literature did not provide any explanation of possible differences between change as a natural evolving process and mandatory change, a change forced on teachers by external agencies.
As the data were gathered it became clear that theories of change and/or of learning did not have tight boundaries and on their own only provided a limited perspective of the characteristics of school growth and change. The data, as opposed to the literature, seemed to be presenting a far more complex set of processes taking place. Whilst change theory and learning theory have been commonly used to examine and describe professional learning, the data suggested that there were other theories underlying practice which seemed to be important contributors to an overall understanding about workplace learning. The data indicated that many of the traditional values and beliefs about professional learning were not representative of a new paradigm.

Fullan (1990) has argued that we cannot mandate what matters. This study contests this argument. Mandated curricula is a reality for Australian schools. There is no escape, no way that schools can ignore policy directives. It is therefore imperative that schools are able to respond to these mandates in a way that results in both personal and collective growth within the school community and enhanced learning for students. Mandated change for schools is not a new phenomenon. It has been part of the way Australian schools have been managed and controlled for many years. What is new is the pace of mandated change and the speed with which schools are required to respond. It is this accelerated pace of change that provides the challenge. No longer can teachers hide in their classrooms and hope that change will go away.

As I have described in the results of the data, mandated changes in curriculum have the potential to provide a valuable focus for whole school interest and involvement. It offers opportunities for the school community to reconsider their values, beliefs, assumptions, ideas, knowledge and experiences and to reconstruct and renegotiate some shared understandings and goals. Curriculum change also has the potential to encourage questioning, collaborative exploration, and, if appropriate, the integration and re-alignment of new ideas with existing beliefs and practices.
A GROUNDED THEORY OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANDATED CHANGE, PROFESSIONAL LEARNING AND SCHOOL GROWTH.

This grounded theory is presented as a set of internally valid generalisations that explain the relationships between mandated change, professional development, or more appropriately professional learning, and school growth in the four case study schools.

The grounded theory which has emerged from the data, whilst illuminating what the four case study schools were doing to implement mandatory change, also sheds light on the nature of their professional learning and what they perceived needed to happen if professional learning was to become an integral part of the teachers' work. The grounded theory thus provides a set of characteristics that both explains and describes the interrelatedness of professional learning with school growth and mandated change in these four schools.

This grounded theory has been expressed in diagrammatic form (see Figure 66) although it is recognised that a two dimensional model seems totally inadequate when trying to convey the complexities of the four schools and how they operated.

Boundaries between the important characteristics should be seen as blurred, overlapping, integrated and interrelated. Whilst reading this diagram, what also needs to be recognised is the multi-dimensional nature of the case study schools, the constant ebb and flow, the fluidity of activities, structures, processes and strategies, the changing points of balance and the tensions that existed in the four environments that were in a state of growth and change.

Bearing in mind the obvious shortcomings and limitations of a diagram, I present a rather static, linear and structured diagram (see Figure 66), one that shows the grounded theory of the relationships between mandated change, professional learning and school growth in the case study schools. It highlights a set of characteristics that seem to be important when understanding the way the case study schools went about implementing and sustaining mandated change.
VALUES AND BELIEFS HELD BY THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY

ONGOING PROCESSES

- Critical reflection & introspection: making explicit personal values and beliefs about teaching and learning.
- Constant alignment/repositioning of all these elements with each other in order to achieve congruence.
- Developing a clear shared understanding about how children learn.
- Identifying clear purposes for learning and change.

GUIDING PRINCIPLE

The development of improved learning for all students

FOCUS

Mandated curriculum change or other school identified agenda

STRUCTURES, PROCESSES & BEHAVIOURS

SCHOOL CULTURE

- Developing Structures & Activities
  - Formal & Informal
    - Staff development
    - Curriculum committees
    - Individual and group projects
    - Formal study programs
    - Collab. investigations
    - Action research
    - Grade meetings
- Operating Processes & Behaviours
  - 'How we do business'
    - Shared meaning and decision making
    - Shared responsibility
    - Collaborative action
    - Shared leadership
    - Trust, caring, support & participation
    - Shared language
    - Shared purpose

Development of School Cultures

Social culture
Learning culture
Organisational culture

OUTCOMES

PROFESSIONAL LEARNING, SCHOOL GROWTH AND MANDATED CHANGE

- Empowered teachers
- Active learning communities
- Improved learning in students
- Implementation of mandatory directives for policy, management and curriculum
- Individual as well as collective growth

Figure 66: A grounded theory of the relationships between mandated change, professional learning and school growth.
In what follows I will explain each of the identified characteristics and describe the dynamic relationships that seem to exist between them. For convenience I shall work from the top to the bottom of the diagram (Figure 66).

Values and beliefs
It has been argued in the literature review that everything that happens within a school is a reflection of, and embedded in, the values and beliefs held by members of the school community (Argyris, 1992; Retallick, Hill, Barton, Cocklin, & Sparrow, 1994). The values and beliefs of individuals, it was said, had an impact on behaviours, learning, relationships, leadership and the structures and activities that were initiated and that together these things constituted the school culture (Gluck, 1985; Kelly & Cochrane, 1984).

In this grounded theory it is also values and beliefs of the school community that are seen to be a reflection not only of everything that is done in the school but also the manner in which things are done. These values and beliefs are not fixed or static, but in a state of constant motion.

As Alan, the principal of School B in this study indicated:

'It's values and beliefs that tie all these things together'. It's values and beliefs that determined the kind of leadership priorities if you like. It's values and beliefs that tie the culture to the contexts and the sort of activities and structures that go with them' (Alan: Interview B21:11).

Guiding principle
This characteristic I have referred to as the 'guiding principle'. Whereas there might be a range of values and beliefs in a school community, it seems that a common guiding principle, such as 'the development of improved learning for all students', is paramount. In terms of this grounded theory, the schools who were accommodating and implementing change in both theory and classroom practice, were those where there was a strong sense of the need to improve student learning. This principle becomes the driving force and the raison d'etre of change. Thus teachers have a clear purpose for change. At the very core of change is a shared concern for the students' learning and their special needs. Everything done in the school relates to this clearly articulated principle. It seems that the closer that change is tied to students' needs, teaching and learning, the more likely teachers are to become involved in the change process and become active learners themselves.
Focus
Whilst having a guiding principle is paramount, a specific focus needs to be identified for action to take place. This grounded theory strongly implies that if change is to occur then some content needs to drive and sustain involvement and participation in the change process. This focus may be an external mandatory curriculum document or a project identified by the school as a focus of interest or concern. Having a focus, therefore, seems to provide a challenge which in turn generated energy, interest and engagement in a process of discovery and learning.

The process of change was perceived to be a deliberate process and therefore needed to be planned for and supported. It was not seen as a linear process. Change required, it was said, 'a process of constant negotiation and exploration of issues with staff' (David, Interview A1). Having a focus, be it a specific topic or curriculum area to work on seemed to provide 'the vehicle to change the people and also to change the atmosphere and change the relationships' (David, Interview A1). David argued that:

'You can't change anything without changing the people in the organization. A change in evaluation, a change in curriculum, a change in anything means that you have to change the people who do it. You have to change their beliefs for a start. If you change their beliefs you change what they do' (Interview: David, A1: 174 - 175).

When the focus is clearly identified then this theory suggests that certain structures, processes and behaviours can be put in place that allow for the exploration, implementation and support for a particular change proposal.

Structures, processes and behaviours
In order to activate the particular change proposal through exploration, implementation and support, this study found that certain structures, processes and behaviours were necessary. Here the grounded theory describes how the school environment 'works' and how people behave and develop the overall school culture. These are considered of critical importance to the implementation of change be it externally mandated or school generated. Fullan and Hargreaves refer to this as 'the way we do things and relate to each other round here' (1991: 37). The grounded theory strongly supports this notion.
Structures, processes and behaviours, this theory suggests, are synergistically related characteristics that encompass three components. These include:

- structures and activities both formal and informal;
- particular kinds of operating processes and behaviours; and
- certain kinds of school cultures.

Each component has the potential to inhibit or enable the other and thus are highly interrelated. Again the nature of the strategies, processes and behaviours are a reflection of the values and beliefs of the community they serve and continue to be governed by the guiding principles and the focus.

**Structures and activities:** Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that it is the structures within the school that galvanises the creativity and energy of the participants and this should be implied from the grounded theory.

**Structures** within the schools were designed specifically to explore, develop and manage the identified individual school focus. Such structures included committees that took on the responsibility for examining, say, a new Syllabus document, charting the journey of implementation and identifying the necessary support needed by the staff so that they might successfully engage in the change process. There were other important structures too which included committees that monitored and managed the school budget or the selection and purchasing of resources to support the change proposal. The important point here is that these structures were ever changing to respond to needs.

The grounded theory here implies that through increased ownership and responsibility for the development of school policies, practices and goals, teachers become more committed to a collective school agenda. Furthermore, participation in school agenda structures has the potential to develop feelings of self worth, positive attitudes, confidence, trust in others, responsibility and commitment.

**Activities,** on the other hand, were developed around the more personal interests, needs or concerns of individuals or groups. These activities included action research projects, formal study, mentoring projects or collaborative
investigations between staff or between staff and others outside the immediate school community.

The grounded theory indicates that participation in activities encourages people to work together and provides opportunity for shared dialogue, to receive feedback about their teaching as well as their thinking, to make beliefs explicit and to develop a shared purpose/vision.

It is through participation in structures and/or activities that the community seems to be able to develop a shared language to talk about change. Both structures and activities are flexible and ever changing. The grounded theory shows that they promote and encourage collaborative action and professional learning in the workplace. Interests related to the collective agenda can often become individual agendas. When this occurs the distinction between structures and activities seems less obvious.

Participation in structures and activities in the schools was voluntary and ever changing according to the school or individual focus. The kinds of structures and activities needed were identified and developed by the staff and responsibility for their operation was shared. There was a concerted effort to ensure that everybody had a chance to become involved and the 'timid' or 'faint hearted' given support and encouragement to participate. Risk taking was applauded and encouraged and classroom research shared and discussed.

The flatter the organization, that is, the less hierarchically structured the organization, the easier it seemed to be able to develop structures and activities that were flexible and in which everyone could participate.

Although most schools maintained the old hierarchical structures of the bureaucracy that controlled them, it was possible for them to operate in new ways, by changing the ground rules and thus the roles people played.

**Operating processes and behaviours:** The grounded theory indicates that the kinds of processes and behaviours used to get things done in a school seem to dictate the kinds of structures and activities that are developed and the kind of school culture that prevails. As shown in the diagram, the operational processes and behaviours include shared decision making, shared responsibility and shared leadership along with collaborative team work. The participants indicated that these ways of working empower people and
develop a sense of caring within the community as they learn to take personal responsibility for professional learning and change.

The literature supports the grounded theory here by indicating that these ways of working change the nature of the relationships within the community and foster involvement and commitment (Biott & Nias, 1992) and have the potential to equalise roles (Garston, 1989).

Besides developing a caring, committed and responsible community of learners, it was felt that staff must also see themselves as a community of leaders. Participants felt that by assuming leadership roles they were developing the confidence and knowledge and that they had some influence over the decisions that were made within their school community. Developing leadership roles was also a way that the schools had of acknowledging and respecting the contributions that staff could make to school growth. Leadership roles, one of the participants suggested, provided opportunities for the development of a personal voice as well as personal growth and professional learning.

The development of school cultures: There is a great deal of literature that focuses on the importance of the relationship between school culture/climate and professional learning (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 1995; Lieberman, 1988; Lieberman, Falk, & Alexander, 1991; Owens, 1991; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sarason, 1971). Furthermore reference is made for the need to develop a culture of learning/inquiry (Garston, 1989; Lieberman, 1986) or, as it is alternatively described, organizational learning (Honey & Mumford, 1995; Marsick & Watkins, 1990), if change is to take place. However, three distinctly different kinds of cultures are highlighted in this grounded theory (See Figure 67), a learning culture, an organizational culture and a social culture. It is important to understand how each of the three cultures operate, and how they are interrelated.
The development of a **learning culture** within the schools, this grounded theory strongly shows, is an essential ingredient not only for the development of professional learning but also for school growth and change. It was learning that generated a flow of knowledge and it was this knowledge that became the source of energy so necessary to sustain professional growth and change. If the school were to be described as an engine then it is learning that is the dynamo.

This grounded theory indicates that learning needs to be seen as a valued activity both for and by the whole community. In a learning community people work together to explore issues and find solutions to problems that may crop up in either their classrooms or in their school. In particular it is the way that people learnt together that is important. It was clear in the case study schools that working collaboratively allowed for professional dialogue and for teachers to clarify and articulate their understandings.
In this grounded theory teacher learning is closely allied to student learning. Fullan and Hargreaves support this by suggesting that teacher and student development are 'reciprocally related' (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991:82). The kind of learning culture required in the classroom, the data revealed, is the same as the learning culture that needs to be developed in the whole school community.

An organizational culture refers to the way that things get done in the school. It is about everyone knowing the organizational structures and decision making processes so that each person has a sense of 'how things get done around here'. There are no mysteries. Power and politics are not used to cut people out but rather to demystify how things are done in such a way that each member feels that s/he can make a difference, can be involved, have a sense of power and share the power.

Shared leadership is also an essential feature of organizational culture and enables staff to share responsibility and develop a sense of commitment to school agendas and become actively engaged in school growth.

As the grounded theory indicates, another critical factor in the successful development of the schools' organizational culture is the role and leadership style of the principal. Whilst shared leadership and shared decision making is advocated, the personal commitment of the principal to both individual and collective growth within the school community, to perpetual learning and to a culture of collaboration, was essential. Further, the principal's way of working with the community, the behaviours that were modelled (for example the notion of the principal as lead learner), the ability to facilitate, to share and negotiate the development of a shared vision, to the accessing of resources and the extent to which the principal valued, respected and placed trust in members of the community, could make or break the development of a positive school culture.

This study found that principals who genuinely used language related to the whole school community like 'our' and 'we', rather than language that describes personal aspirations like 'my' or 'I', reflects leadership which, whilst being shared with others, provides the nurturing, support and professional acknowledgment that is necessary for ongoing learning and change within the school community.
A social culture reflects the way people interact and relate with each other. It is about the social activities that are developed to sustain positive relationships and the development of trust amongst the staff. It is under the banner of social culture of the school that learning and working together can be publicly valued and acknowledged and where both student and staff achievement can be celebrated. Rituals and occasions of recognition are essential components of the social culture of a school. The learning culture of a school is enhanced by a healthy social culture. A strong social culture goes a long way to providing an environment in which it is safe to learn, to make mistakes and to take risks and it is likely to make team work and collaborative enterprise more effective.

Whilst school culture in the literature is defined as the values, beliefs, attitudes and myths held within a group as well as their ways of behaving (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991), this grounded theory maintains that school culture is also about a 'mix 'n match' of social, learning and organizational cultures. There exists a delicate balance of interactions and interconnections between each of these three cultures. In this sense the school culture can be viewed as 'multicultural' in nature. There also exists a symbiotic dependency between each of the them. Each culture has the potential, if developed, to support and sustain the other.

In summary, as indicated in the diagram, it is the interconnectedness of the structures and activities, the operating processes and behaviours and the three specific kinds of cultures that seem to create an appropriate overall school culture, one in which professional learning can take place and where change and school growth can occur.

Ongoing processes
On the left hand side of the diagram (Figure 66) a box indentifies a number of critical 'ongoing processes'. If the 'structures, processes and behaviours' are seen as the engine of the school's development, then the 'ongoing processes' can be described as the fuel that keeps the engine in a continual state of moving forward. In this way, the grounded theory suggests that there is a symbiotic resonance between the 'structures, processes and behaviours' and the 'ongoing processes'. The ongoing processes become an integral part of the way that members of the school community work, learn and develop. It is the ongoing processes that help people to challenge, refine and justify their mindsets. They are activated by members' involvement and participation in the structures and
activities, processes and behaviours and the cultures of the school. Without this active process of challenging mindsets very little would change.

These ongoing processes include:

- critical reflection and introspection which includes the making of our values and beliefs explicit;

- making sure that alignment is being maintained between the guiding principle, the focus and the organizational/operational structures, processes, behaviours and cultures;

- developing clear understandings about how children learn; and

- identifying clear purposes/goals/benefits for learning and change.

Critical reflection and introspection are essential behaviours, we are told in the literature, that are associated with learning and the change process (Galbraith, 1991; Mezirow, 1985; Schon, 1983). This grounded theory also supports the importance of constant reflection and introspection of theory in action. Specifically, this process is an integral part of ongoing workplace learning.

One aspect of critical reflection and introspection that seems to be of prime importance at a whole school level, is that teachers are encouraged to articulate and make explicit their values and beliefs about their personal theories of learning and teaching. This theory purports that it is only when teachers become aware of how their personal theories drive their practice, can they revisit, question and maybe modify, change or develop their theories of teaching and learning. Such a process involves the need for teachers to internalise the change and make it part of their own belief system. The process of critical reflection and making values and beliefs explicit are, therefore, enhanced through active participation in the highly focused everyday structures and activities of the school.

Constant alignment between the guiding principle, the focus and the operational/organizational structures, behaviours and processes, the grounded theory strongly maintains, is an essential ongoing process. It is important to regularly audit the degree of congruence being maintained
between the guiding principle, the focus and the nature of the activities and structures developed.

More specifically two kinds of alignment seem important in this grounded theory. The first relates to the theoretical alignment or congruence between what is believed and what is practised. The second refers to the need for alignment between the school outcomes and the management and organization of the school. This includes an alignment between what is done and how it is done. In other words, there has to be consistent alignment between values and beliefs, everything that happens in the school and the manner in which it happens.

The grounded theory shows that like values and beliefs, issues of alignment have to be constantly revisited and made explicit, showing how things connect to each other. Change requires the regular re-assessment and re-alignment between theory, practice, curriculum, the School Management Plan and its organization and implementation. If a new theoretical approach is to be successfully implemented, then it may be necessary to align all features of the school organization and management to this focus.

This grounded theory suggest that if schools are to cope with external mandates they should have a clearly articulated theoretical as well as an operational framework to guide their endeavours. Furthermore, curriculum, school culture, the way the school is organized and staff development, should be 'networked and interrelated'. In this way external edicts can be remoulded into something that is acceptable by the school community. The alignment process, this theory indicates, is a way to make external edicts congruent with internally shared beliefs so that the school remains in control of the change agenda and process rather than the external agencies maintaining the control.

Developing a clear understanding about how children learn, this grounded theory indicates, is tied to the guiding principle concerned with the improvement of students learning. These understandings, the participants indicated, were developed through an examination of the values and beliefs that were held by individuals about the nature of learning itself. Teaching and responding to students' needs could only be informed by knowledge about how students learn and, just as the participants values and beliefs needed constant scrutiny, so too did the knowledge that teachers have about the nature of learning.
Identifying clear purposes for learning and change, the grounded theory urges, needs to be constantly articulated. If members of the community do not see the value of change then they cannot be committed or become involved in the process of change. Teachers need to know why changes are being made and from where or how the change originated. Understanding the 'big picture' provides a context for change.

The outcomes

It is the synergy that is created between the 'ongoing processes' and the 'structures, processes and behaviours', governed by the guiding principles and focus, that is likely to result in positive outcomes for all members of the school community.

Teachers in the case study schools who involved themselves in the structures, activities and processes of everyday life within the school, became real stakeholders in whole school growth. They felt empowered, more in control and an integral and essential part of school growth. Case study schools who were managing the implementation of mandatory change were therefore those that recognised that school growth was about increasing the collective power of individuals. This meant the recognition and use of personal capabilities, respecting difference and empowering individuals so that they had a real and personal investment in the change proposal.

Professional learning and the development of new knowledge, the grounded theory indicates, occurs when it is seen as a perpetual activity. Quality professional learning is the cornerstone of change and school growth and as such needs to be embedded in the everyday life of the workplace.

The notion of ongoing and contextually based professional learning as an integral part of the workplace cannot be separated, they suggested, from the other major characteristics that have been identified. This suggests that professional learning is a far more powerful concept than the current notion of professional development. This theory strongly indicates that it is not an event but rather a fluid concept and effective outcomes come about through participants' involvement in how the organization manages itself, how it functions and how it maintains and refines alignment between its elements.
School growth, this grounded theory indicates, takes place when the school community feels empowered and committed. Schools consist of many interconnecting, flexible, dynamic and responsive networks. School growth is determined by changes in the values and beliefs of the members of its community. This often results, the participants suggested, in an uncertain and contested environment. It was believed that this kind of environment was healthy and necessary if lasting change and school growth was to occur.

Mandated change: This grounded theory is consistent with Barth’s view (1990) that schools change from within. In this grounded theory, change is seen to be dependent on how and in what ways schools develop learning experiences for their staff and how an appropriate environment in which learning can take place is developed. In this respect the schools in this study drew very little distinction between change and change that had been mandated. To be able to successfully cope with mandated change, the participants suggested that they must take control of the change agenda and accept such mandates as a challenge. Furthermore, they must take responsibility for the development of support networks, activities and structures that support themselves in an ongoing way, as well as within a time schedule that is appropriate and 'doable' in their particular context.

It was evident in the case study schools that teachers who made change happen felt a part and ownership of the change proposal. They were teachers who could clearly articulate their needs, were well informed, committed and able to work with each other.

This grounded theory maintains that all the essential elements of the change process are highly integrated and interdependent and emphasise the importance of both the cultural and social contexts of school change. Change is about the manner in which the community supports, encourages and celebrates its own learning, regeneration and growth.

In summary, the grounded theory indicates that if schools are to not only effectively cope with mandated change but to also grow as a result, then the notion of professional learning needs to become an integral part of the workplace and its culture. For this reason the development of the school as a learning community becomes of prime importance and is dependent upon:

- a focus on learning and learners, both for students and teachers;
• developing an appropriate and shared language to talk about the change proposal;

• developing ongoing dialogue about learning and learners needs;

• time to critically reflect on thinking, actions and behaviour, to learn about the thinking of others and to engage in ongoing dialogue about teaching and learning;

• making values and beliefs explicit and negotiating common goals and a shared purpose for change;

• all members of the community working as collaborating teams;

• the development of relationships and social structures to support change;

• the development of language which is non-judgemental and inclusive;

• a sense of caring and concern for each other as learners and people;

• engagement in workplace structures and activities as a means of engagement in the change process;

• the development of both an operational and theoretical framework; and

• the development of shared commitment and reciprocal responsibility.

It is my personal view that this grounded theory presents a number of possible implications for Public schools in New South Wales.
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE VARIOUS STAKEHOLDERS (NSW CONTEXT)

As a result of this study, my review of the literature and interpretation of the data, there are a number of points which I feel have emerged and may have important implications for different stakeholders within the public education system of New South Wales.

Implication 1: Making learning the primary focus of schooling for all.
This implication seems so obvious to me but, whilst most stakeholders would see learning as the primary focus of schooling, much of what is done in schools has tenuous links to this focus. It is my experience that few schools have a focus on learning for all. Whilst student learning is uppermost in most teachers minds, how schools go about making sure that outcomes are being achieved is often limited to individual effort. Without a strong ethos or culture of learning for the whole school community it is unlikely to grow.

- Systems need to know more about the contexts of teaching in order that they can provide more appropriate support for ongoing professional learning of teachers in their particular contexts.
- Schools need to constantly remind themselves of the purpose of schooling as this will help to keep them focused and identify and establish priorities for action.
- It is imperative that schools try to organize themselves into learning communities.
- By making this focus constantly explicit school communities have a better chance of developing a shared goal and vision for the school.
- This study has shown that the concept of professional development is limited and surrounded by a language that is from a past paradigm. A more encompassing concept is that of professional learning which should be seen as integral to the workplace and an essential kind of culture.

Implication 2: Providing opportunities for the school community to make values and beliefs about teaching and learning explicit.
The findings of this study seem to place great importance on the need for teachers to have opportunities to make explicit their values and beliefs about
teaching and learning. This notion is also strongly supported in the literature but despite the wealth of knowledge available, this process seems to go almost unheeded in schools. In three of the four schools involved in this study, teachers and principals alike stressed the importance of talking together about what people thought was important. As well as unpacking our personal beliefs it is important to know how others feel. Without this sharing of beliefs it is difficult, it would seem, to develop shared understandings and goals. As a consequence, the following key points seem important:

- When systems develop new curriculum/syllabus documents it seems important that they should make explicit the theory on which their change proposal is based. If curriculum changes are presented then a theory and raison d'etre needs to be made explicit to teachers so that they may more easily align new theory with their existing understandings. I believe that teachers will find change easier to accept if they understand where it came from and why it is important.

- Schools may need to develop structures and activities to provide teachers with ongoing opportunities to critically reflect on their personal theories and practice.

**Implication 3: Ongoing review of the role, purpose and desired outcomes of training and development initiatives.**

The grounded theory would seem to highlight the complexity associated with the development and maintenance of professional learning in the workplace. It may be important then that the role and purpose of professional development/learning is constantly reviewed and modified according to the desired outcomes. It may also be important that the processes used by both the system and the schools to support learning and the change process are also reviewed.

It has become apparent in this study of four schools that what systems do in the name of supporting schools to implement mandated change is incongruent with the literature on adult learning and the change process. It would seem that the system has tended to adopt a patriarchal role towards the case study schools and communicated edicts in ways that make negotiation and collaboration redundant concepts. This study has indicated that System initiatives to support mandated curriculum change have included training and development 'one size fits all' packages for schools. I believe that the
assumption was made that these would adequately prepare and support teachers in making changes in their thinking and classroom practices. However, the review of the literature and teachers' responses in this study indicate the need for learning/professional development initiatives to be contextualised. The 'one size fits all' philosophy clearly is at odds with the notion of contextualised learning.

Hence my interpretation of the results lead me to believe that for the case study schools the following points are important.

• At the system level ongoing reviews of the role, purpose and desired outcomes of professional development initiatives are essential.

• If effective learning is about 'knowledge', 'understanding' and 'life use' (see Figure 41: The Basics of Quality Performance as interpreted by David, the principal of School A: Archival Document A4.2), then maybe it should be recognised that systems' contribution can only focus on the dissemination of new knowledge and this is only a very minute part of the process of change. This study clearly demonstrates that ultimately the school carries the responsibility for change. As this is the case then schools may need to be provided with far more support from the system (finances to provide time and resources at the school level), to carry out and exercise this responsibility.

• Systems need to review their own values and beliefs about how teachers learn. Their current training and development initiatives have been shown in this study to reflect a very limited and dated understanding of adult learning and the change process. If systems are committed to providing schools with support then ongoing reviews of their efforts should become an integral part of their modus operandi. Systems spend little time and money on formative evaluation about the effectiveness of their training and development initiatives. There needs to be constant reviews and changes made to future offerings in response to feedback from the schools.

• Regional offices also have an important role to play. These offices are in a position to provide more focused and context specific initiatives. These might include consultancy, networking between schools to collaboratively examine common concerns and technical support to organize and plan for
'understanding' and the implementation of 'changed practices'. This might assist schools to adapt and modify directives to suit their own particular school contexts.

- For professional developers and others involved in the provision of training and development activities, a greater understanding of how these fit into the whole collage of professional learning may need to be considered.

- Schools may need to spend time reviewing the effectiveness of the processes they have adopted in trying to achieve identified purposes and outcomes of professional development/learning.

**Implication 4: Raising sensitivity to factors related to time and timing**

Whilst time isn't highlighted as a particular characteristic in the results of this study, time seemed to be an all pervasive factor of the life of the four schools. I am reminded of Fullan's comment about having to work smarter rather than harder and I believe this concept relates directly to use of time.

- Systems may need to be more sensitive to issues related to the time it takes to develop new conceptual understandings, a new language and changes in classroom practice. A lack of time allowed for the implementation of the new English K-6 Syllabus meant that the case study schools felt they had lost control over how mandated change would be introduced and implemented in their own school contexts. Time pressures resulted in a great deal of stress amongst teachers.

It would seem that time for implementation has to be realistic and is better determined by those directly involved. The System, including the Board of Studies that is responsible for curriculum development, whilst already providing schools with both long and short term goals may also need to present these in terms of a time schedule so that schools might develop realistic and 'doable' School Management Plans. In this way priorities could be identified, time scheduled, organizational changes made and structures and activities refocussed in order to provide adequate support for the proposed change agenda.

Currently many schools seem to lurch from one priority to another in immediate response to whatever change agenda is being issued by the
System. This lurching from crisis to crisis seems to indicate that little planning takes place in an organized and systematic way. Support structures that might happen to be in place remain fixed whether they support the change or not. Without the necessary infrastructure of structures and activities that focus on the implementation of change, then the school may limit their potential of taking control and responsibility for the mandated change. If this were to happen then they would remain disempowered puppets of the System.

If all new curriculum documents are to be mandated then it seems important that systems should provide more support to schools to implement their directives. The system seems to make the assumption that as well as a full time teaching load, the teachers, of their own volition and in their own personal time, will do all the necessary work that is needed to make changes in understandings and practice. Money for teacher relief time is essential. A system initiated discussion paper called 'A Community of Learners', distributed to all schools, suggested that teachers should work collaboratively, should talk with each other, should critically reflect on their practice and many other things. The literature also strongly supports these processes as do the results of this study but time has become a real issue ensuring that these things happen in schools. The system would be well advised spending less money on telling teachers how to think and more on helping them to develop their understandings within their individual school contexts.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR THE BIG PICTURE**

So what have I learnt from this experience. It is my personal point of view that this study offers an alternative way of seeing, an epistemology, about the relationships that exists between the implementation of mandated change, professional learning and school growth.

I believe that if schools are to become learning communities and successfully respond to changing socio-political agendas and the pace of new educational mandates, then maybe it would be useful to consider more effective ways of learning, thinking and seeing, organizing and doing (Figure 68). It is my personal belief as a result of my experience in four schools that it is only when there exists interaction between each of these that change, professional learning
and school growth take place. But what do I believe each of these processes involve?

A new way of learning
Knowledge about teaching, the curriculum and student learning seem not to be the only important aspects of professional learning. It is the engagement in the learning process related to all aspects of school life that seems to be important; learning how to work with others, how to negotiate and develop shared meanings, how to take responsibility, how to take control of one's own learning and how to help others to learn that share equal importance. Accompanying the concept of learning as a member of the school community are the skills of being able to articulate one's values and beliefs, making explicit how and why we do things the way we do and being able to negotiate solutions to common problems. Learning needs to be an integral part of the every day life in schools and the focus of all efforts. If this is to be a reality, schools need 'to establish an environment and culture which fosters (and values) learning' (Interview A17: 53).

CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY

A way of learning

A way of thinking and seeing

A theory of change, professional learning and school growth

A way of organising, behaving and doing

Figure 68: A possible agenda for action.
A new way of thinking and seeing

Senge (1990b) emphasises the importance of developing a new 'mindset' about the way we interact and engage in professional activities. Fullan (1991) talks about the development of a 'different mind-and-action set'. Not only do we need to 'think' about professional development in new ways, as continuous learning in the workplace, but also to see school growth and mandated change as a challenge and opportunity for learning and growth rather than a form of control and management.

It is our values and beliefs that determine the way we think and, as Galbraith (1991) suggests, praxis and critical reflection that lead to different ways of thinking and working. A new paradigm of professional development will require us to confront, critically reflect, review, clarify and justify our practices.

A new way of organizing, behaving and doing

We need to understand the potential of processes related to how we organize our workplace in terms of professional learning and the way that behaviours, values and beliefs determine how 'we do things and relate to each other around here' (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991:37).

Collaborative action, developing skilled ways of working with others and thus being able to effectively work as a team, taking reciprocal responsibility, actively engaging in curriculum and school activities, supporting other learners and sharing leadership and decision making are crucial to school growth and the implementation of mandated change.

It is important that each of these ways of being and doing come together to form a community of the mind, one which brings people together by identifying common goals and shared values and beliefs.
FUTURE CHALLENGES

As a result of this study I believe that the major challenges for us in the immediate future are to:

- Look at wholes (the entire operation that we call school), the whole ecology of a school rather than small parts like professional development, staff development, school culture or leadership in isolation. In order to develop one part we need to consider the nature of the interactions between all the parts and how this creates a whole. In this way our perception of what professional learning means, and the language we use to describe and understand it, may provide new perspectives and solutions to old problems.

- Learn new ways to construct bridges between old and new cultures.

- Incorporate opportunities into our workplaces that will encourage stakeholders to question hidden assumptions and identify contradictions as this is the first step in breaking away from an old paradigm.

- Develop classroom centred research activities that will provide opportunities for shared dialogue.

- Change the somewhat artificial events of staff development and/or professional development into natural processes which integrate ongoing learning into the everyday business of schools.

- Learn new ways of talking about change as an essential part of the change process.

- Develop structures and activities and processes and behaviours that will provide opportunity for people to be given real responsibility, empowerment and experience of working with others.

- Build coalitions and partnerships rather than democracies.
• Work on developing opportunities for **collaborative action** so as to
develop **collective resonance** and **interdependency** within the community.

I have come to believe that school growth comes about as a result of the successful 'conspiracy of individuals', goals, structures, activities, processes, behaviours and cultures. If the main business of schools is learning then connecting the learning in classrooms with the learning of the school community needs to be on the top of the agenda for the whole school community. This lends particular importance to the development of a learning community based on the same precepts for both students and school personnel alike. Change is not about restructuring but about transforming the whole by helping both teachers and students to actively engage in the development of new mindsets and new ways of thinking, learning, organizing, behaving and doing.

**POSTSCRIPT**

Because of the arduous nature of doing a PhD it seems appropriate to return to life once again with a reminder about reality and the real world. Therefore, with regard to the sanity of both the researcher and the reader, I cannot help but offer the following quote as a finale to my research journey.

> Since everything is but an apparition
> Perfect in being what it is,
> Having nothing to do with good or bad,
> Acceptance or rejection,
> One may well burst out in laughter.

(Longchenpa, a 14th Century Tibetan Buddhist)
REFERENCES


References


Tagiuri, R. (1968). The concept of organizational climate. In R. Tagiuri & G. H. Litwin (Eds.), *Organizational Climate: Exploration of a Concept*. Boston: Harvard University, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration.


APPENDIX 1: Fieldnotes

*B.15: Staff Meeting 5.12.94

3.17pm Neville talks about recycling bins for paper that will be distributed to every classroom. He provides details of the kinds of paper that can be recycled and how the bins will be distributed.

3.22 Another teacher talks about the plans being made for the staff 'night out'. She informs the staff that there will be a fee but that this will include cocktails as well as eats.

3.23 Lesley talks about the final arrangements being made for the staff luncheon on Friday, 16th December. Lesley informs the staff that it will take place between 12.30 and 2.00pm and that the food is to be catered and will be delivered to school.

3.25 Alan briefly made comment about some general maintenance details.

3.26 Alan went on to talk about the new School Management Plan for 1995. He outlined the priority areas that had been established by the central office of the Department of School Education (DSE) and the Regional Office. He went on to read a letter from the DSE outlining some of the mandated directions that would need to be considered for the following year (Off-line Doc. 15.2). Alan then led discussion with the staff to decide what support committees would need to be formed to support the directives. He then asked the staff to volunteer for positions on the group of their choice. There followed further discussion amongst the staff and the moving of staff into the committee groups identified. Some members of staff raised questions about the DSE letter and then discussed whether all points in the letter had been covered by the proposed committees formed.

Alan then introduced the new draft of the HSIE Syllabus (Health, Science and the Environment). A survey had been sent to all school that staff were asked to complete in order to provide the Board of Studies with feedback on the draft document. There followed some heated discussion on the extent to which the teachers would have to trial the draft Syllabus with their classes before it would be possible to adequately respond to the document. Other problems including the issue of time were also raised and discussed. Groups then focused on the area they were interested in and were asked to fill out a proforma sheet they had been given to outline the the focus priorities for their respective committees. The headings that were used included staff development, resources, and a schedule of activities for the year. A chairperson for each committee was also identified.

4.30pm The meeting was closed.
The following provides an example of the transcript I typed up from the tape recording after each interview. At this stage it has not been prepared for entry into the NUDIST data base neither have chunks of meaning been identified. The initiat code letter indicates the school, in this case School B. The number following indicates the number of the interview. It is the twelth session I have conducted at this school. Notice that on the right hand side space has been left for me to identify queries or questions that will need to be followed up during the next visit.

B.12: Alan

B: So we'd decided to talk about culture today hadn't we?

A: Yes. I was thinking about that in the car this morning because I knew you were coming today. All I came up with is that culture, the important ingredients as you might say, the most important bits are attitudes and values of the teachers and parents. The assumption is that those sort of attitudes and values will be with the kids if they're with those two main groups. And together, I guess, that's what makes the culture because that's what determines what the place is like.

B: So what is it about schools that hinders or constrains the development of positive attitudes?

A: I'm still trying to work that out and I still don't know. I'm still trying to work out what it is that gives parents confidence in this school and I mean sure it's the teachers in this school, sure it's the executive and the sort of decisions that the school makes and sure it's how they make those decisions and just how things are involved it it. But the parents perception of whether it's a good school or not, strangely enough, are based on probably different criteria than what a teacher would say.

B: Does the culture of a school determine whether it's good or bad?

A: Is it determined by the culture?

B: Yes.

A: Well I don't know whether it's a symptom aor a cause. It's the chicken and the egg type of stuff. It just seems, I know the principal plays a pretty important part in it.

B: What kind of part?
APPENDIX 3: Summary of Interview

*A1, David, 22.3.94 Model of curriculum development

*Summary: Over the past three years the school staff has developed a set of thematic units (two parallel sets to account for composite classes and repeats). The purpose of this task was to ensure a KLA balance and a developmental approach for the whole school. These units are largely 'all encompassing' that is each unit covers each of the KLA areas. At times, however, there may be exceptions to this where integration for integration's sake doesn't work, particularly in the upper grades, as some KLA's have their own specialist agendas and skills eg. Music, Movement and Maths. In these cases a parallel program needs to be developed.

The process of curriculum development: The curriculum is described by an initial statement of each of the key learning areas under Processes, Knowledge and Attitude. Following this the teachers identified the specific language outcomes that might naturally match each key learning area, using as a basis the National Statement and outcomes plus the NSW Syllabus documents again under the three areas (Processes, Knowledge and Attitude). The purpose of this exercise was to develop a framework or structure that would allow them to bring together all the various official departmental document guidelines but at the same time provide a sense of direction and the balance that was necessary across different KLA's. From the outcomes the teachers could then develop their own teaching/learning activities and experiences based on their students individual needs.
APPENDIX 4: Questions on the Benchmarks of Change

What is the main purpose of school? (Additional question)

'What are your personal benchmarks that would indicate that this school is growing/developing?

What has changed? How do you know (evidence)? [Substance of change]

How would you assess your school's progress towards school growth/restructuring? [Pace of change]

What are the factors that seem significant in influencing the course of the restructuring process?' (Prestine, 1993)
Each 'chunk of meaning has been started on a new line.

*A1, David, 22.3.94 Model of curriculum development

D: What we've done is to develop a set of units for each year in the school.
B: Thematic units.
D: Yes and we've had to develop two lots though. An (a) year and a (b) year because we have so many composite classes and kids repeating years and so on. To make sure they're not doing the same work the following year we've developed two sets of parallel units.
B: What's the purpose of developing a thematic approach right the way through?
D: To ensure that we get the curriculum KLA balance so that the kids are having fair exposure to all of the KLA's right across the year and a developmental approach to from K-6 and a balance in developmental approach.
B: So they're integrated units are they?
D: Yes.
B: So Maths and Science and all the KLA's are encompassed, would be encompassed in that thematic approach.
D: The older kids get the more difficult it is to integrate everything.
B: How do the teachers respond to that kind of an approach?
D: They're the ones that suggested it.
This one explains it. We believe that language is the core of the curriculum.

We believe also that in order to integrate successfully you can't do it from a basis of content but you have to do it from a basis of learning skills.

They come to the realisation that even the things that you have to know are based upon processes rather than upon content and knowledge but we do acknowledge and we identified some time ago, the learning processes that we thought should be developed in children.
D: Out of those attitudes..........unless they're in place the rest doesn't work. But we did acknowledge too that there are specific skills, particularly as kids get older, that you can't force into the structure of a theme or unit. There are specific Mathematic skills, specific skills with regard to music and in particular moving skills. It's possible we will have to run another program parallel rather than force it under the umbrella of the theme.

This is what we've done so far (See Doc 1.1 Units of Work: Gold (4.2) and Spring (K.9) What I got this for was to show you what we've done so far with regard to developing the curriculum. A statement of the key learning areas. That's the statement of the direction that we're going to take. We're going to cover that. Now the learning outcomes then are specified here. At the end of the time the children will know and understand such and such.
B: Who developed those outcomes?
D: The teachers.
D: Yes.
B: Over what length of time?
D: This has been going on for three years now.
This one here is the one that I developed in my former school and that was over a longer period of time but it's the same sort of principle.
B: And you came up with outcomes as well?
APPENDIX 6: Final categories

CONCEPTUAL

CURRICULUM

SCHOOL ORGANISATION

SCHOOL CULTURE

Categories

Sub-categories
APPENDIX 7: Sort and retrieve text of the same category

The category retrieved here is the subcategory, school committees which in turn is a subcategory of structures and activities.

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W I think, if I remember, we were going to talk about things to do with
well it's not so much, I don't think it will ever prevent individual
personalities from showing themselves, but if it has been developed from
the very beginning where you involve everybody and it was done on
negotiation level where this was and then come back to the staff and
refine and come back to the staff and refine through say a committee,
then people like that can be reminded that if you have a concern or feel
that, then this is the way we're going to deal with that.
++ Text units 84-84:

B So what happens when all the courses are over for English K-6. I mean
you've got three or four members of staff who haven't made any changes to
any of their practices in the classrooms?
W That's when it starts. That's when it really starts.
B That's when professional development really begins?
W Well because otherwise, I don't mean that it hasn't already started, I
mean at a whole school level, because um people can relax a little bit
and then work within the structures of their grades and in the committee
to inform, support, work with and that will take time.
++ Text units 113-116:

There's not as many quality operators as we had there, but the same sort
of basic structures have been set up. They haven't been pushed along as
far but you wouldn't expect that.
B: Do you mean the committees?
D: Yeah, the structures are exactly the same as you read in that article.
The curriculum is the same, the product is quite different but the
process is the same.
++ Text units 31-34:

Structures:
* These need to support the needs. To establish this it is necessary to
collect data and information on what those needs might be.
  Perceived needs - data gathering - shared meaning/purpose - structures
  and artefacts.
  It is important not to start off with the structure.
APPENDIX 8: Conceptual and Base data categories
APPENDIX 9: 'Curriculum' categories

DRAFT 7

CURRICULUM

Policy
Planning
Design
Implementation
Programme Evaluation
English K-6
Definitions
Big Picture

24.10.96

Appendices 410
APPENDIX 10: 'English K-6 Syllabus' categories
APPENDIX 11: 'School organization' categories

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

External Structures

Structures Activities

Administrative Principles

Leadership

Alignment

Descriptions

Problems

Appendices 412

(see attached)
APPENDIX 12: 'School culture' categories

DRAFT 7

SCHOOL CULTURE

Characteristics
  1
  2

Professional Development
  1
  2

People & Relationships
  4

Traditions & Rituals
  5
  1
  2
  3

Change
  6

Appendices 413
Appendix 13: All conceptual and base categories/subcategories

Q.S.R. NUDIST Power version, revision 3.0.5.
Licensee: Bridget Barton.


(1) /Conceptual
(1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum
(1 1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy
(1 1 1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/Sp Progs
(1 1 1 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE
(1 1 1 2 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Dev of Outcomes
(1 1 1 2 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Dev of Outcomes/School
(1 1 1 2 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Dev of Outcomes/Analysis
(1 1 1 2 4) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Dev of Outcomes/A & E
(1 1 1 2 5) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Definitions
(1 1 1 2 6) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/General
(1 1 1 2 7) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Interpretations
(1 1 1 2 8) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/OBE/Negative case
(1 1 1 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/External Mandates
(1 1 1 3 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/External Mandates/Pressures
(1 1 1 3 1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/External Mandates/Pressures/Mandates
(1 1 1 3 1 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Policy/External Mandates/Pressures/Personal Lives
(1 1 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Planning
(1 1 2 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Planning/Sch Plan
(1 1 2 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Planning/Processes
(1 1 2 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Planning/OBE
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(1 1 3 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Design/Model
(1 1 3 2 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Design/Model/Thematic
(1 1 3 2 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Design/Model/Integration
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(1 1 4 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Implementation/Teach Activs
(1 1 4 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Implementation/Stdnt Learning
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(1 1 6) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6
(1 1 6 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods
(1 1 6 1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Intro K-6
(1 1 6 1 1 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Intro K-6/Prof & Ocs
(1 1 6 1 1 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Intro K-6/Problems
(1 1 6 1 1 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Intro K-6/Comp Mods
(1 1 6 1 1 4) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Intro K-6/Other Mods
(1 1 6 1 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Expectations
(1 1 6 1 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training
(1 1 6 1 3 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Fac Selectn
(1 1 6 1 3 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Model
(1 1 6 1 3 3) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Responsbly
(1 1 6 1 3 4) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Program
(1 1 6 1 3 5) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Changes made
(1 1 6 1 3 6) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Presenters
(1 1 6 1 3 7) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Fac Training/Support for
Facilitators
(1 1 6 1 4) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Gen Organis
(1 1 6 1 4 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Gen Organis/Union
(1 1 6 1 4 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Gen Organis/Support for I
Implementation
(1 1 6 1 5) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Eval Comts
(1 1 6 1 5 1) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Eval Comts/Model learnng
(1 1 6 1 5 2) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Eval Comts/Change
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(1 1 6 1 5 4) /Conceptual/Curriculum/Eng K-6/T & D Mods/Eval Comts/Gen Org
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Appendices
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(1 3 6 6) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Context
(1 3 6 7) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Content
(1 3 6 8) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Inhibitors
(1 3 6 9) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Personal Benchmarks
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(1 3 6 9 4) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Personal Benchmarks/Indiv makes diff?
(1 3 6 9 5) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Change/Personal Benchmarks/Improv learn for
(1 3 7) /Conceptual/Sch Culture/Negative case
(2) /Base data
(2 1) /Base data/School
(2 1 1) /Base data/School/A
(2 1 2) /Base data/School/B
(2 1 3) /Base data/School/C
(2 1 4) /Base data/School/D
(2 2) /Base data/Interviews
(2 2 1) /Base data/Interviews/Principals
(2 2 2) /Base data/Interviews/Key teachers
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