

**CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE CLASSROOM:
A TEACHER-BASED INQUIRY**

By

Connie Morrice ©

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the degree of
Master of Education: Lakehead University**

December 1994

ProQuest Number: 10611492

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10611492

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346



National Library
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file *Votre référence*

Our file *Notre référence*

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-612-09229-1

Canada

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Hope A. Fennell of the School of Education, Lakehead University, for acting as advisor to this study. In particular I express my appreciation to Dr. Fennell for her support and encouragement over distance and the extended time taken to complete this study as a part-time, off-campus student.

I thank Dr. Fiona Blaikie and Dr. Tom Puk for their thought-provoking feedback as members of the advisory committee; and I convey my gratitude to the Ontario Educational Research Council for their approval of funding, which also substantially supported my efforts.

Finally, to my family--Sandy, Sharon and Ron, who provided emotional and motivational sustenance, my deepest affection and gratitude.

Abstract

This is an ethnographic study of six elementary classroom teachers in a large southern Ontario school board of over 100 schools. The study addresses the problem of reconciling commonly assumed theories in the field and the theories-in-action that guide the daily practice of teachers in their classrooms by attempting to ascertain what teachers' practical and theoretical knowledge looks like, and how it is applied in the arena of educational change. The main purpose of the study is to develop an in depth understanding of the teachers' personal and professional stance with regard to curriculum change in the classroom. Qualitative methods are employed for exploring the teachers' perceptions of change. Interviews are used primarily for data collection. The study indicates that the teachers deal with multiple changes within commonly-defined elements of program. They approach change through four dispositions or frames of mind: the procedural, practical, personal and perceptual. A conceptual framework is developed that represents an organizer that is immediately applicable and relevant to the classroom. Implications for teacher-practitioners are to build capacities for focussing on the manageable aspects of change through the four dispositions. Theorists need to acknowledge an expanded role for teachers as decision-makers, self-directed learners and leaders. Therefore, implications for the field include support through resource allocation, personalization of staff development, flexibility of choice and structure, and integration of theory with practice.

Table of Contents

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	..
LIST OF FIGURES.....	..
CHAPTER	
1 THE PROBLEM.....	3
Introduction.....	3
Purpose of the Study.....	5
Need for the Study.....	6
Personal Ground.....	8
Design of the Study.....	10
Definition of Terms.....	11
Limitations.....	13
Delimitations.....	14
Assumptions.....	14
Overview of the Thesis.....	14
2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	16
Introduction.....	16
Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Change.....	16
Teachers and Models for Change.....	21
Teachers as Change Agents.....	25
The Paradoxical Role of the Teacher.....	25
Rhetoric and the World of the Teacher.....	26
The Legitimacy Debate.....	28
Personal Views of Curriculum Change.....	34
Summary.....	40
3 DESIGN OF THE STUDY.....	42
Introduction.....	42
Selection of the Research Site.....	42
The Site.....	42
The Sample.....	43
Data Collection.....	44
Interviews.....	45
The Professional Information Form.....	47
The Open-Ended Survey.....	47
Data Collection Procedures.....	48
Ethical Concerns.....	50

Data Analysis.....	51
Field Notes and Printed Material.....	54
Documentation of the Research.....	55
Phase One: Planning and Engaging in the Field Entry..	56
Phase Two: Actions and Decisions Related to the Data Collection.....	58
Phase Three: Steps in the Initial Analysis and Preparation for In-Depth Analysis.....	62
Phase Four: Follow-up Stages and Post-Data Analysis.	65
Summary.....	68
4 PRESENTATION OF THE DATA.....	70
The Research Site.....	70
The Site and Contexts for Change.....	70
The Sample.....	71
Teacher Responses about Types of Changes Related to Program and Focus.....	75
Program and Focus.....	75
Types of Changes.....	83
Teacher Responses about How They Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes.....	93
Prioritizing and Organizing for Change.....	93
Carrying Out Change.....	95
Teacher Responses Regarding How They Relate Personally to Professional Change.....	99
Student-Teacher Relationships.....	101
Teacher as Learner.....	104
Personal Views.....	107
Perceptions Related to Change.....	110
Teacher Responses about Personal and Professional Positions on Change.....	114
Reflection.....	114
Curriculum Theory.....	116
Professional Development.....	117
Givens.....	119
Statements of Belief.....	120
5 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA.....	123
Environmental Concerns: Characteristics of the Site and Sample Related to the Research.....	123
Board Initiatives.....	123
Situational Factors.....	124
Cultural Norms.....	125
Staff Allocation.....	126

Relationships Between Elements of Program and Focus, and Types of Changes.....	126
Aspects of How Teachers Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes.....	130
The Procedural Disposition.....	132
The Practical Disposition.....	133
Relationships Between Personal Views and Curriculum Change.....	136
The Personal Disposition.....	136
The Perceptual Disposition.....	138
A Conceptual Framework: The Teachers' Personal and Professional Stance.....	140
Summary.....	145
6 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....	147
The Purpose and Design of the Research.....	147
Environmental Concerns: Characteristics of the Site and Sample Related to the Findings.....	149
Board Initiatives.....	149
Situational Factors.....	150
Cultural Norms.....	151
Staff Allocation.....	152
The Sample.....	153
Discussion of the Findings:.....	153
Relationships Between Elements of Program and Types of Changes.....	154
Aspects of How Teachers Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes.....	158
The Procedural Disposition.....	158
The Practical Disposition.....	160
Relationships Between Personal Views and Curriculum Change.....	163
The Personal Disposition.....	163
The Perceptual Disposition.....	170
A Conceptual Framework: Teachers' Personal and Professional Stance.....	171
Implications of the Study.....	173
Implications for Teacher-Practitioners.....	173
Implications for the Field.....	175
A Conceptual Framework for Research on Curriculum Change in the Classroom.....	178
Implication for Future Research.....	178
Conclusion.....	180
REFERENCES.....	184

APPENDICES.....	195
A.01 Open-ended Interview Form.....	196
A.02 Analysis of Interview Questions.....	197
A.03 Professional Information Form.....	198
A.04 Open-ended Survey.....	199
A.05 Field Notes: Considerations.....	200
A.06 Cover Letter.....	201
A.07 Consent Form.....	202
A.08 Summary: Results Related to Sample Selection.....	203
A.09 Question Development.....	204
A.10 Context Categories From the Interview Transcripts.....	207
A.11 Context Category Combinations.....	209
A.12 Decision-Making Language of the Teachers.....	210

LIST OF TABLES

4.01 Staff Distribution by Number of Teaching Years at Present School.....	72
4.02 Staff Distribution by Number of Years of Experience.....	73
4.03 Distribution of Teaching Experience by Levels Taught.....	73
4.04 Changes in Teaching Assignments from Previous Year to Present.....	74
4.05 Summary of Teachers' Decision-Making Language.....	94
4.06 How Teachers Expressed Carrying Out Change.....	97
4.07 Types of Reflections and Reflective Comments.....	115

LIST OF FIGURES

3.01	Schedule of interviews.....	58
3.02	The research process: a comparison of proposed and actual..	59
4.01	Types of changes the teachers experienced with scheduling...	85
4.02	Types of changes the teachers undertook as new units were introduced.....	86
4.03	Types of changes the teachers undertook as units were adjusted of extended.....	87
4.04	Types of changes the teachers carried out with regard to strategies.....	89
4.05	Types of changes undertaken by the teachers with regard to resources.....	92
4.06	Types of personal and professional changes that were experienced by the teachers.....	100
4.07	Metaphorical language patterns related to the teachers' change efforts.....	111
5.01	Elements of program.....	127
5.02	Summary of the types of changes.....	129
5.03	A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom: overlay of elements of program and types of changes.....	130
5.04	Characteristics of the teachers' procedural disposition.....	132
5.05	Characteristics of the teachers' practical disposition.....	134
5.06	A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom: procedural and practical dispositions.....	135
5.07	Characteristics of the teachers' personal disposition.....	137
5.08	Characteristics of the teachers' perceptual disposition.....	138
5.09	A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom personal and perceptual dispositions.....	141
6.01	A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom.	172

CHAPTER ONE

The Problem

Introduction

A significant body of literature has emerged during the last decade that addresses the gap that exists between theory and actual classroom practice (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Fullan, 1982; Glickman, 1990). In their summary of issues concerning curriculum implementation, Park and Fullan (1986) state, "there appears to be general confusion concerning the business of curriculum development versus curriculum implementation" (p.4). They observe that teachers view guidelines that are developed for implementation as merely restatements of philosophy and theory, rather than plans for action. In order for teachers to take action and for change to take place, Park and Fullan suggest that curriculum development and implementation needs to be integrated and supported at the board and school level. Although it is generally agreed that the target for implementation is the classroom and the learning outcomes of each student (Fullan & Park, 1981; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1990), teachers and curriculum theorists do not seem to be working in conjunction with each other toward that goal (Leithwood, 1990; Wood, 1990).

This issue is compounded by a perception in the field that teachers are not usually portrayed as developers of curriculum. Educational research casts teachers as craftspeople, using their professional skills to implement the developed curriculum in the practical world of the classroom (Fullan, 1982; James & Franq, 1988; Loucks, Newlove & Hall, 1975; Porter & Brophy, 1989; Showers, Joyce & Bennett, 1989; Rowell, 1985). On the other hand, curriculum theorists are portrayed as those who pursue educational thought and develop curriculum from the world of theory; namely, ministry personnel, board administrators, university faculty members, researchers, policy-makers, philosophers, curriculum writers, and community stakeholders (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Guskey, 1990; Milburn, 1987). Research reports imply that teachers and theorists can be seen as operating across two polarized spheres of understanding with regard to educational change. Indeed, an interpretive disjuncture exists between teachers as practitioners and subgroups of curriculum theorists as to exactly how educational change or reform is to be carried out (Duke, 1989; Harste, 1990; Schwab, 1983).

The specific nature of this disjuncture takes the form of disagreements among theorist stakeholders, misunderstandings about the realities of classroom practice, tension between practice and theory, and collective versus individualistic perceptions of curriculum experiences (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Milburn, 1987; Sarason, 1982). The essence of this disjuncture is reflected in educational literature by an approach to curriculum change in the field that separates the implementation of curriculum from its development (Bonser & Grundy, 1988; Jenkins & Houlihan, 1990; Tuthill, 1990). In turn, this approach presents a problem for the teacher, who, as implementer, is expected to carry out a curriculum

innovation, as developed, without apparent involvement in its development.

Through macro-level studies, theory in the field reflects a surface understanding of change, and is ineffective in responding to teachers' needs for autonomy as practitioners. Through action research, the field is recognizing the wealth of practical and theoretical knowledge held by teachers (Oja & Smulyan, 1989; Schubert, 1989). However, research needs to address the problem of ascertaining what that knowledge looks like in order to reconcile commonly assumed theories in the field and the theories-in-action that guide the daily practice of teachers in their classrooms. Significantly, inquiry must be designed to probe and acknowledge in depth how teachers apply this knowledge in the arena of educational change.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to develop an understanding of the teachers' personal and professional stances toward curriculum change in the classroom; in other words, how teachers personally and professionally 'think, say, plan and do' change as part of the practical and theoretical knowledge they bring to their overall program.

The following questions guide the research process:

What are teachers' personal and professional stances with regard to change?

- (a) What types of changes do teachers choose to activate that are related to their overall program, or to particular areas of focus within their program?
- (b) How do teachers prioritize, organize and carry out these changes?
- (c) In what ways do teachers personally relate to professional change?

Need for the Study

Teachers close the classroom door and exhibit a non-conformist position on system-wide innovation models for program implementation. However, curriculum developers in the field depend upon these innovation models as a strategy for measuring levels of program implementation, especially in the context of a single, identified innovation (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin & Hall, 1987). This systems-model approach is met with limited success primarily because it oversimplifies what teaching is all about. (Fullan & Park, 1981; Porter & Brophy, 1989). Teachers choose to engage in the types of changes that are relevant to the many practical realities that fall within their daily responsibilities of carrying out a program in the classroom. Because teachers are required to make instantaneous curricular decisions and simultaneously address many innovations (Guskey, 1990; Labinowicz, 1980), more research is needed that responds to teachers' needs for a model that promotes choice and flexibility.

Research conducted by theorists on curriculum implementation primarily addresses planned change in the sense of a collective, system- or school-wide approach (Park & Fullan, 1986; Fullan, Anderson & Newton, 1986; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1987; Lezotte & Jacoby, 1990). A search of the literature indicates a dearth of research conducted by teachers about teachers, especially studies that focus on the world of the classroom and how individual teachers cope with both planned and unexpected change. Teachers in classrooms, and classrooms as environments of curriculum change need further exploring (Anderson & Burns;

1989). In this context, data must be gathered that generates a change framework that is applicable and relevant to the daily efforts of each teacher. The results of this inquiry may serve to bridge the implementation gap that exists between school- and system-wide models and actual classroom practice.

Research on teachers as decision-makers signifies teachers' roles as agents of curriculum change (Glickman, 1990; Mitchell, 1990). However, studies by theorists attempt in vain to determine clearly how teacher prioritize, organize and carry out curriculum change as the ultimate decision-makers in their classrooms. Teachers already collaborate in research and curriculum development as problem-solvers, but limit their interpretations to decisions related to their own class (Apple, 1983; Oja & Smulyan, 1989). The results of research involving teachers must break the privacy of the closed classroom door and give rise to research controlled by teachers toward a theoretical awareness that creates an impact across many different classrooms. If that is the case, then it is important that this study produces a collective knowledge about the specific nature of teachers' personal and professional decisions about change, and how such decisions are made and carried out.

A stance on curriculum change as practised in the classroom is not cohesively articulated from the viewpoint of teachers, and therefore is not yet significant as a legitimized theme in educational literature. Teachers need to come to change situations with a strength of their own history of research and curriculum documentation. However, a position in the collective sense is complicated by the idiosyncratic ways in which they cope on an individual and personal basis with change in the daily operation of the classroom. Studies need to contribute more

breadth and depth of knowledge about teachers as learners and planners; more specifically, aspects of their personal and cognitive developmental levels that contribute favourably to curriculum development and implementation (Barth, 1990; Berlak & Berlak, 1979; Sparks, 1989; Strachan, 1990). This study may contribute to that knowledge. In addition, knowledge of what is perceived by teachers as curriculum change will help teachers to organize and establish a conceptual framework of change and to assume a personal and professional stance. The results of this study will address the interpretive disjuncture by contributing toward a more in depth, genuine understanding in the field of how teachers carry out change. Findings from this study may have broader application for educators in program implementation. The identification of inclinations, attitudes and behaviours as a stance that inhibits or fosters curriculum change in the classroom environment could be explored in other classroom settings through further research.

Personal Ground

The idea of systematically approaching change was imposed on me as a presentation on change assignment for a Primary/Junior Methods course. At this point, change was something I just coped with as a teacher, and I had not really thought of it in any organized way. The presentation on change required course candidates to share something from the curriculum and to focus on how the change was carried out. I decided to analyse a curriculum innovation involving a whole language 'Buddies' program (Morrice & Simmons, 1991) that a colleague and I were

implementing. At the time, we were also in the process of organizing this curriculum innovation for staff development presentations and workshops, as well as for eventual publication.

Drawing upon my learning experience from a qualitative research methods course, I created a conceptual framework on our innovation strategy. I reflected on patterns, directions, influences and outcomes, and ended up with three elements that I thought might be common or applicable to any curriculum unit or program within a classroom setting: (a) shift in mindset related to concept or meaning; (b) decisions that gave impetus to the overall program; (c) specific concerns that were addressed in one area of focus. These three elements of concept, program and focus emerged due to reflection after the implementation of the Buddies innovation. I began to question - what would happen if these elements were deliberately applied at the onset of a change in teaching practice?

As my colleague and I shared information on our change strategies, concerns about implementation were discussed frankly among many teachers. I was struck by those teachers who indicated that they felt inadequate about attempting a similar innovation. Their main inquiries were directed at how we could change so much in such a short period of time. The implications of what we accomplished seemed overwhelming to them, and yet we felt we had just been well-organized. I had also naively assumed that the more enthusiastic participants in our workshops would automatically take the ideas developed from the conceptual framework and implement them. I believed that all of these teachers were perfectly capable of the same accomplishment; but what was needed was a way of prioritizing and organizing their efforts at change. I began to wonder if other teachers think in

terms of concept, program and focus when undertaking change. Can these elements be applied as a conceptual framework to teaching in a broader sense? I also began to realize that our Board's model for Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI) was too general and removed from specific changes in the classroom. The model delineated expectations in terms of observable behaviours, but not the process for fulfilling those expectations. The teachers I met were certainly concerned about the process of change in the light of many initiatives undertaken by the Board. Beyond that, there was no guide or model for specific efforts at the classroom level that teachers could identify with. Furthermore, if a framework or model were developed, teachers would have to agree on some sort of position on change in order for the model to be professionally credible. To find out what would constitute credibility, I went to professional literature and read about attempts at staff development and change. Based on my reading and the concerns of teachers during our workshops, I felt that an organized approach to change would have to consider the following: (a) students and teachers as learners; (b) the realities of organization in the daily operation of the classroom; and (c) the teacher's individual efforts and eventual accountability for curriculum improvement through a board-wide implementation model. Consequently, to find out how teachers interpret and accommodate an organized approach, I would have to get into their classrooms, into their change situations, and ultimately, into their thinking.

Design of the Study

This is an ethnographic study of six elementary classroom teachers in a large

southern Ontario school board of over 100 schools. The research is qualitative, and research methods follow the naturalistic paradigm (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Patton, 1980, 1987). The design allows for the meanings of the participants to emerge and direct the focus of the research, the data collection, and analysis and interpretation of the data. Data collection is conducted mainly through interviews (Merton, 1990; Seidman, 1991), as well as through a professional information form and an open-ended survey. It is context-bound, taking into consideration the normal school year and existing school culture, and takes place in the natural setting of the participants; namely, the immediate school and classroom (Guba, 1982, Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions are applied:

Teachers: are professional practitioners working directly with students in the classroom. Connelly and Clandinin (1988, p. 87) assign "the form of actions" to practitioner, as a "doer" of curriculum, and use the terms teacher and practitioner interchangeably, as does this study.

Change: Extensive research supports the concept of change as a transformation of reality; a process of continuous development used for the sake of creating, sustaining and substantiating a dynamic educational climate; a dynamic process of interacting variables over time (Fullan, 1982).

Curriculum: Connelly and Clandinin (1988) interpret curriculum as "something experienced in situations" (p. 6), a process by which persons and things interact in

a temporal and directional context. In its official capacity, the Ministry of Education for Ontario regards curriculum as "including all those experiences of the student for which the school is responsible...all human interaction in the school..." (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1988, p.10).

Innovation: Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p. 19) state that "Innovations are less a source of rational ideas, and more an array of possibilities". In order to accommodate the experiential range of the respondents in the sample, the term innovation is used in the sense of whatever in the possibilities of implementing curriculum one personally perceives as new.

Stance: As adapted from the Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (Guralnik, 1984), stance is used to mean an attitude or posture for dealing with a particular situation.

Activate: As adapted from Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (Guralnik, 1979), activate is used to mean something that causes a person to engage in activity; and in relation to this study, encompasses teacher thought, intent, and planning at the initial stages of considering a change.

Subsequent to the initial decision to engage in change, the expression "carry out" is used to describe teacher action, as teachers put into practice their change(s).

Implement: is used only when it is clear that the change is embedded in practice, or "the extent to which change actually occurs and is sustained" (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 9), and distinguishes between what really happens in practice and what is supposed to happen.

Disposition: As adapted from Guralnik (1984), disposition is used to describe the teachers' inclination, tendency or frame of mind that puts in order or arranges the

affairs of change. This term also carries with it the connotation of "power of authority" (Guralnik, 1984, p. 407).

Perceptual: As adapted from Guralnik (1984), perceptual is the adjectival form of perception, which means the understanding, mental grasp or knowledge got by *perceiving an idea, or the impression so formed*. For example, the perceptual disposition in this study means the teachers' inclination that creates and arranges impressions so formed about change.

Limitations

The following constitute the limitations of the study:

1. The validity of the information about the teachers' choice of change efforts within the framework of their program is dependent upon their willingness to respond honestly to the open-ended survey and questions on the open-ended interview form.
2. The validity of the knowledge of the teachers' organization of change efforts within the framework of their program is dependent upon their willingness to respond honestly to the questions on the open-ended interview form and to questions in subsequent focussed interviews.
3. The validity of the knowledge of the teachers' roles in carrying out changes, and of their personal and professional stances is dependent upon their willingness to respond honestly to the questions on the open-ended interview form and to questions in subsequent focussed interviews.

Delimitations

The following items delimit the study:

1. The site is limited to one school with a teaching staff of 31 in one large suburban school board in southern Ontario.
2. The final sample is limited to six teachers on staff at the site.
3. An open-ended survey, open-ended interview, questions in subsequent focussed interviews, and field notes are the only means of collecting information about teachers' choices and organization of change efforts, roles in carrying out the change process, and personal and professional stances.
3. Teachers responded only once, in one session, to the open-ended survey.

Assumptions

1. The validity of researcher interpretation is dependent upon the assumption that the teachers were honest in their responses to the open-ended survey, to the questions on the open-ended interview form, and to the questions in subsequent focussed interviews.

Overview of the Thesis

The purpose of and need for the study, definitions of terms, limitations, delimitations and assumptions are discussed in Chapter One. In Chapter Two, a review of related literature is presented, current to the completion of the study.

The design and documentation of the research, the data collection structures, and the procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data are discussed in Chapter Three. In Chapter Four, the data from the research are presented, while the analysis and discussion of the data are presented in Chapter Five. The findings, implications and conclusions are presented in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

Reviewed in Chapter Two is the literature on understandings about the process of curriculum change, with reference to four research perspectives that focus on the teacher. The first section outlines the nature of teacher involvement in curriculum change. Literature about teachers and models for change is presented in the second section. The third section identifies three themes that explore teachers as change agents. The fourth section provides characteristics common to teachers regarding personal views of curriculum change.

Teacher Involvement in Curriculum Change

Literature of the past decade is based on the realization that implementation of curricular innovations is a dynamic process of change centred on human action (Park & Fullan, 1986; Clark, Lotto & Astuto, 1984). Fullan (1982) exemplifies the Rand study of Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change as a project of "...learning by doing" (p. 61). The Rand study examines the theme of how the people on school staffs go about implementation, rather than focussing only on the

content of the innovation. Fullan notes that "change requires social energy directed at sustaining interaction and staff development throughout the entire process" (1982, p. 67). Eisner conceptualizes curriculum change as human action in his foreword to Connelly and Clandinin (1988): "It is more important to understand what people **experience** than to focus simply on what they **do**" (p. x). The "human face" of change is also the theme addressed by Evans (1993, p. 19). Research based on teachers' narratives of experience suggests that teachers not only learn **by** doing, but actually learn **while** doing (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). An in depth and clear picture of the application of learning while doing is incomplete in the literature on change.

Miller and Seller (1985) regard curriculum as part of a process that is rooted in interprofessional relevance and interaction about what schools should do, and that it is governed by an "...interdependence of phenomena that reflects the web of relationships that surround it" (p. 3). They reinforce the notion that change is a process of human involvement; individuals, roles, complexities, capacities, and actions that are related to facilitation, adaptation, and variation. This notion is also supported by Wildman and Niles (1989), who base their study upon what teachers do together as professionals, and also how they think. Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) refer to this condition as "interactive professionalism", the key to changing teachers' mindsets about change (p. 63).

In earlier research, the principal is regarded primarily as initiator or facilitation agent for change (Fullan, 1982; Hord & Hall, 1987). However, throughout the 1980's another influential role is also considered--that of teacher participation (Billings, 1989; Blendinger & Jones, 1988; Bonser & Grundy, 1988; Eisner, 1991;

Milburn, 1987; Schwab, 1983). The actions of teachers significant to their change efforts is linked to further clarification, specification and development or refinements in their programs. In raising the issue of teacher involvement in curriculum change, Apple (1983) stipulates, "teachers often are asked to do little more than to execute someone else's goals and plans and to carry out someone else's suggested activities". Apple maintains that the result is a "deskilling " of the workforce, evidenced by teacher-proof curricula and a change process that separates curriculum development from implementation (p. 323).

Teachers' perceptions of their involvement in change takes shape as a professional issue in terms of personal relevance (Cuban, 1993; Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992; Lipman, 1991; Showers, Joyce & Bennett, 1989; Sparks, 1989). Park and Fullan (1986), in exploring issues in professional development, reason that teachers do not bother to implement board guidelines "because the documents were not in response to what the teacher perceived as being required to produce the needed changes in the classroom" (p. 4). Thus, guidelines are left to sit on the shelves. The authors point out that teachers need to see innovation working in terms of student learning outcomes before taking action and becoming further committed. They conclude that teachers have limited power in the change process, and consequently do not acquire ownership of implementation. The field remains open for inquiry to focus on what teacher involvement looks like when teachers exercise choice and ownership over what is required to produce change in their program.

Guskey (1989) states, "experienced teachers seldom become committed to a new program or innovation until they have seen that the new practices work well in

THEIR classrooms with THEIR students" (p. 58). He further supports the notion that teachers in most cases, become personally committed to new practices only after they actively engage in using them in their classrooms. He cites three principles governing teachers' commitment to change: it is gradual, requires regular feedback and continued support/follow-up. These principles are central to contemporary literature of this decade (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1985; Robbins & Wolfe, 1989; Steffin & Sleep, 1988; Vaughan, 1987).

Porter and Brophy (1989) suggest that teachers are receptive to changes if those changes make sense to them. They also reveal that most teachers believe that they are doing an effective job, and therefore, they may not see the need for making substantial investments that would be required to alter teaching practices. The authors assert that although the research is quick to identify various factors that prevent stable permanent changes, it tends to underestimate the teaching energy required to effect change as well as "consider[ing] only one segment of the teacher's professional life at a time" (p. 73). They go on to suggest that attention needs to be focussed on "what is required to teach effectively all day, every day, year after year". Labinowicz (1980) refers to this issue as the need for educational authorities and teachers themselves to understand "the complexity of the teaching act" (p. 277). The literature reflects a need for research designs to centre more specifically on what this complexity entails.

Wise and Hammond (1989, p. 31) discuss "negotiated responsibility" as a way of addressing the interpretive disjuncture between teachers and administrators. They propose that the two groups can act together to improve the quality of instruction. This approach represents a shift from a polarized to a participatory

attitude toward assessment and evaluation practices, and implies more collaborative action in dealing with change.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) state that there is a "dilemma and tension running through the educational change literature in which two different emphases or perspectives are evident: the fidelity approach and the mutual-adaptation or evolutionary perspective". The fidelity approach is based on the assumption that an already developed innovation exists and the task is to implement it faithfully in practice - that is, to use it as it is "supposed to be used" as intended by the developer (p. 38). The mutual-adaptation approach stresses that change often is a result of adaptations and decisions made by users as they work with particular new policies and programs, mutually determining the outcome. Their theme underscores the openness of the mutual-adaptation approach, and the need for defining change as it occurs over a period of time in terms of the three dimensions of materials, strategies and beliefs. Accordingly, Guskey (1990) recommends the mutual adaptation approach in the context of integrating innovations. In arriving at a qualitative understanding of change, Fullan and Stiegelbauer suggest we consider the following:

The most beneficial approach consists in our being able to understand the process of change, locate our place in it, and act by influencing those factors that are changeable and by minimizing the power of those that are not. All of this requires a way of thinking about educational change that has not been characteristic of either planners or victims of past change efforts (p.103).

This approach demands further inquiry into a stance by teachers that is possibly governed by their understandings about the process of change, how they locate their place in it, and how they act upon it.

Teachers and Models for Change

Information is largely absent in research of the past decade about types of changes that teachers choose to activate or initially engage in as part of their program. Instead, curriculum change in the form of program is documented primarily through innovation frameworks that address implementation collectively and focus on a single innovation; rather than addressing the implementation of an individual teacher and focussing on the multiple changes in that teacher's classroom. Examples of frameworks that have been developed by researchers and adopted by school boards to promote and monitor innovations carried out by teachers are: the Curriculum Development, Review and Implementation Cycle (CRDI) (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1988); the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Loucks et al, 1975; Hall, 1979); Levels of Use profiles (LoU's) (Leithwood & Montgomery, 1987); and Key Concerns (Dow, Whitehead & Wright, 1984). As such, these models of implementation are criticized for being oversimplified, and assuming the teacher as the eventual recipient and deliverer of curriculum (Elmore, 1992; Fullan, Anderson & Newton, 1986; Goodlad, 1992; Porter & Brophy, 1989). Levine (1991, p. 391) refers to "mandated components", "impersonal mechanisms of control", and "linear programming", as the elements that comprise unsuitable frameworks for change. He concludes that implementation projects need to avoid the bureaucratic processes characteristic of educational systems and consider the context of participating classrooms. Furthermore, research reports that interpret these projects provide only a surface portrayal of teachers' efforts.

In response to the issue of the individual teacher and classroom changes, Hord

et al (1987) add another dimension to their CBAM, that of an intervention taxonomy and "game plan components" (p. 75) that offer more specific strategies for change facilitators. These researchers also expand the role of change facilitators to include teachers "whose roles were less formalized, but whose help was substantial and sought by their peers" (p. 85). However, there is little indication in the literature that these models have been used directly by individual teachers as implementation tools for conducting their own changes in their own programs.

Staff development is being promoted to address implementation according to the models discussed, but is being met with limited success (Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Hirsh & Ponder, 1991; Park & Fullan, 1986). Teachers have little time and opportunity to interact with and reflect with colleagues in instructional matters. Staff development activities need to move away from one-shot system-wide attempts, and more toward an ongoing, personalized approach that addresses individual choices for change and unique classroom programs. Studies acknowledge that implementation models lay out the expectations for teachers; but in effect, do not reflect teachers' unique expectations for themselves and their students as part of their *modus operandi* (James & Franq, 1988; James & Hord, 1988; Holtzman, 1993). In other words, the models prescribe overt behaviours and not implementation as a metacognitive process, which could enhance a more in depth understanding of teachers' thinking about their efforts at change.

In order to move away from system applications toward a school-based construct, Lancaster and Oliver (1988) present a holistic model for staff planning and implementation that consists of six subsystems: philosophy, programme,

procedure, professional development, public relations and future direction. They maintain that a holistic curricular approach is "...predicated upon the six subsystems in a dynamic, interactive format which involves thinking, goal setting and articulation rooted in total staff input" (p. 25).

Models that include reflection and the teacher's needs as learner in the adult life cycle are surfacing. Oja and Smulyan (1989) investigate the planning, acting and reflecting cycles of action research as an alternative to linear models of research and staff development. They reason that both university researchers and teachers feel that linear models represent theory and practice which is unrelated to each other and therefore unaffected by one another. Action research in particular offers a different kind of educational theory, which is grounded in the problems and perspectives of the insights of practitioners as researchers, as they use a range of social scientific, intuitive, and practical methods to deal with their program changes. The crux of the issue is to legitimize this type of theorizing, and produce more research that substantiates teachers' theories-in-action. Educational theory can thus be redefined to include teachers' understanding of the problems and practices in their classrooms and schools, and hence connect theory with practice through their generalizations. The authors also investigate the influence that teachers' stages of development have on the form and quality of their participation on action research teams; namely, different roles, perspectives and experience outcomes.

Lezotte's Model for Planned Change (1990) based on effective schools research, lays out five stages in a cyclical improvement planning process. Lezotte states (1989) that "many people have the notion that improvement can start today

and end at some specified time; they don't realize that improvement is a continual process...never ending. The good news is that you can start right away..the bad news is you will never finish" (p. 6). Another tenet held by Lezotte is that the people inside the school are in the best position to improve the outcomes of that organization.

The work of Oja and Smulyan on action research and by Lezotte on effective schools explores constructs that are immediately adaptable by small groups of teachers, and extend to the daily requirements for change in the classroom program. Current research suggests that rational planning models do not work. There still is a tendency to represent models in a graphic, linear fashion incorporating incremental stages or cells. However, the following researchers suggest that newly-developed structures need to be fluid and flexible. Anderson (1993) describes this experience as "'Brownian motion", going back and forth from one stage to another on the path toward an ideal situation"(p. 14). Joyce, Wolf and Calhoun (1993) write about "'rolling' models of change" in the light of research on staff development as an "innovation in itself" (p. 16). Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) synthesize research studies that argue for the "nonrational" world of school systems. They suggest that planning takes into account the integration of change factors and conditions, a medium to short range scheme, and the use of both qualitative and quantitative data (pp. 96 - 98, 108). As discussed, more recent models have been aimed at school-based change and have incorporated teacher choice and collaboration as part of the overall thrust. What remains vague is the teachers' position in the process as viewed by the teachers themselves.

Teachers as Change Agents

Researchers seek to understand the context within which teachers prioritize, organize and carry out change (Fullan, 1982; Hirsh & Ponder, 1991; Lieberman & Miller, 1992; Leithwood, 1979; Leithwood, Holmes & Montgomery, 1979; Schwab, 1983). This search for understanding is revealed through three underlying themes: (a) the paradoxical role of the teacher; (b) rhetoric and the world of the teacher; and (c) the legitimacy of the teacher as an authority in the process of change.

The Paradoxical Role of the Teacher

One significant theme about teachers as change agents is the paradoxical role of the teacher in the course of system-wide change (Cherry, 1991; Glickman, 1990; Mitchell, 1990). Leithwood et al (1979) conclude that innovations seem to work well when pilot situations are carried out in small groups of peer-related activities. However, when the innovation goes system-wide, the relationship among the team is perceived to change from collaborative to more bureaucratic. This change process indicates the possibility of an inverse relationship--one that actually stifles the innovation. The authors also stipulate that collegial relationships among teachers promote readier acceptance of change, but conversely appear to promote only marginal and insignificant changes.

Fullan's study (1982) on factors dealing with implementation does not consider the impact of the teacher as a change agent in an in-depth way, and exemplifies

another role paradox. On one hand, Fullan (p.91) stipulates that in order for change theory to evolve into practice "it requires individual implementers to work out their own meaning"; and yet, on the other hand, the teacher as an individual change agent in the classroom is only one of 15 significant factors affecting change. A distinct 14 out of 15 factors deals with system-wide influences, as apart from school- or classroom-wide. These factors suggest that the teacher is a key agent, who, paradoxically, is not in a position to control most of the strings.

This paradoxical view of the teacher's role is also supported by Glickman (1990, as he challenges the inconsistent practice of "endors[ing] democracy in society but be[ing] skeptical of shared governance in our schools" (p. 74). He criticizes schools as "models of authoritarian rule", and also cautions that when managing change, there are seven ironies to school empowerment that take the form of "paradoxical sequels to sustaining school success" (p.70). Accordingly, Mitchell (1990) observes that teachers are being offered the freedom "to fly" (p. 23), but in contrast are compelled to operate defensively, "frozen in tradition" (p. 26), because of a lack of understanding about the roles across the system. Studies accept teachers as change agents, but offer scant insight as to how teachers work out their own role as affirmed in the change process.

Rhetoric and the World of the Teacher

A second theme that remains consistently current is that the concept of the teachers' world has been misconstrued by layers of theoretical, university-based rhetoric (Bullard & Taylor, 1993; Goodlad, 1992; Joyce, Wolf & Calhoun, 1993).

Leithwood, Holmes and Montgomery (1979) conclude that "ideological rhetoric and whimsical philosophy regularly serve in place of systematic analysis, rational development, and careful evaluation as stimulants to educational change" (p. 67). The authors recommend that researchers and practitioners move beyond their own spheres of understanding and form "teams [that] incorporate collaboration between persons with practice- and inquiry-oriented capabilities" (p. 67).

Rhetoric creates interpretive inaccuracies and assumptions with regard to defining teacher agency (Anderson, 1993; Bennett, 1993; Glickman, 1990; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Guskey, 1990; Lieberman & Miller, 1992; Rowell, 1985; Tye, 1992). Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991) suggest that rhetoric is at the root of new requirements in teaching that are "described in terms too general for teachers to use" (p. 69). Tye (1992) advocates a move away from rhetoric that "ignores the complexities of schooling" toward more "descriptive research to determine what expectations are guiding school practices" (p. 13). Tye suggests further that this type of practical research would offer a language of empowerment that enables teachers and principals to make curriculum decisions in their schools. Thus, the intent shifts closer to addressing the problem of reconciliation of theory between the field and the classroom, which currently persists.

More recently, Darling-Hammond (1993) illuminates the interpretive disjuncture between teacher practitioners and curriculum theorists as a "...major [source] of conflict in the history of educational research in this century" (p. 758), and reflects that the cause may be inherent in the way in which knowledge is exchanged and responsibilities defined between these groups. As well, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) assert:

... the strategies commonly used by promoters of changes, whether by legislators, administrators, or other teachers, frequently do not work because they are derived from a world or from premises different from that of the teachers. Innovations are "rationally" advocated from the point of view of what is rational to the promoter, not the teachers. (p. 130)

Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) also speak of fragmentation in perceptions of the purpose of staff development and they infer that teacher agency should carry with it a notion of choice or control:

Many staff development initiatives take the form of something that is done to teachers rather than with them, still less by them. (p. 17)

The Legitimacy Debate

A third theme in the literature takes the form of an ongoing debate as to the extent and legitimacy of teachers as authorities for prioritizing, organizing and carrying out change. In a summation of this issue, Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) acknowledge that "the wisdom of teachers is often considerably undervalued compared to the wisdom of researchers and administrators" (p. 24). Studies explore the capacities of teachers with regard to responsibility, inquiry and research, decision-making, and voice and leadership.

Responsibility. Research remains undisputed in emphasizing that the teacher is deemed ultimately responsible for putting innovation into practice (David, 1991; Eisner, 1991); and as implementers, teachers must work out an individual interpretation of change (Park & Fullan, 1986). More practical research is needed about what teachers consider or ask themselves when they prepare to assume responsibility for implementing a proposed change (Bullard & Taylor, 1993; Fullan &

Park, 1981; Guskey, 1989; Holtzman, 1993).

With further regard to teacher responsibility, a polarity exists between the standardized expectations of the educational bureaucracy and the teacher's need for relative autonomy in implementing change (David, 1991). Wise and Hammond (1989) state, "Bureaucratic...accountability direct(s) the teacher's attention to uniform administrative requirements, while professional accountability directs the teacher's attention to the varying needs of individual students" (p. 30). Thus, fulfillment of responsibility pulls a teacher in two directions, and the meaning and intent of the implementer as an individual is unclear.

Inquiry and research. In support of the teacher as inquirer, Berlak and Berlak (1981) state:

...there is a presumption among educational administrators, researchers and segments of the public, that teachers, particularly teachers of younger children, do not have the capacity for engaging in inquiry. There is ample evidence that researchers often fail to grasp the complex, intellectual and social problems of daily school life (p. 233, 236).

They contend that these studies draw erroneous conclusions that attribute professionalism to the use of the rhetoric that surrounds education, instead of attributing professionalism to teachers as being experts about teaching.

Another view in this debate is that teachers collaborate in research and curriculum development as problem-solvers but cling to their own immediate solutions once back within the walls of their own classrooms (Francis, Hirsh & Rowland, 1994; Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992). Apple (1983) stipulates that curriculum is not only an individual act, but a social act as well. His guidelines for lasting changes include training relevant to the change and teacher decision-making

that counteracts classroom isolation (p. 325).

In an attempt to move in closer to the teacher's sphere of understanding, and accommodate a grassroots approach to inquiry, micro-level research has been conducted at the classroom level. However, results of studies at this level have been summarily interpreted by macro-level researchers, and teachers appear to take on a passive role in the research process itself (Poplin, 1992; Rowell, 1985). For example, Connolly and Clandinin (1988) question whether action research genuinely defines the teacher's role as that of inquirer, or "merely the research assistant for the developer and implementor" (p. 153). They go on to provoke thought about who actually controls the process, and whether the teacher is "educated" or "merely trained" as part of an implementation setting. If inquiry is designed so that the teacher has control as researcher, then, action research can in fact "...tell the story of who [teachers] really are" (p. 153).

Recently, action research exhibits teachers' legitimacy as inquirers into educational change (Bennett, 1993; Calhoun, 1993; Calvin & Crouse, Hirsh & Ponder, 1991; Johnson, 1993; Lieberman & Miller, 1992, Oja & Smulyan, 1989). Oja and Smulyan (1989) probe educational change and challenge the more traditional linear research paradigms that "...possess closed definitions of theory and inquiry processes which do not relate to nor satisfy the teacher's experiential perspective" (p. 204). One of the concerns in their action research study is that if the teachers on the research teams stop short of probing their applications, sharing insights and comparing them to an existing body of knowledge, they would be merely problem-solving as opposed to true collaborative action research. In order for the research to be considered valid, the process must lead to new educational

theory, a change in practice, and personal and professional growth.

Bennett (1993) reports that the teacher-researcher role is not seen as a permanent one by teachers, and connects the role distinctly to classroom-based change:

The notion of teachers as researchers is based on the assumption that school change is most effectively promoted from within the classroom; teachers who have systematically reflected on teaching practices become agents of change. (p. 70)

A type of action research based on "teacher lore" (Schubert, 1989) is gaining credibility throughout the profession via published works that are being assimilated into classroom practice as tried and true recipes that support the notion of teacher inquiry into change efforts. Notable examples are the works of McCormick Calkins (1986), Schwartz (1987), Cambourne (1988), Routman (1989) and Wasserman and Ivany (1988). By contributing their "teacher lore", the work of these authors exemplifies research and theory-building in the daily development of the teacher's practice. However, similar additional studies as a substantial body of research in a Canadian or provincial context is lacking.

Decision-making. The debate also strongly links the notion of teacher-as-decision-maker to planning and the inquiry process. Connolly and Clandinin (1985) invite the reader to "...understand curriculum planning as curriculum inquiry" (p. 185) and to "...see how curriculum change occurs in a classroom through an individual teacher's curriculum inquiry" (p. 185). As the teacher in their case study makes decisions, she works out new practices as expressions of her personal practical knowledge. Matlin and Short (1991), in addressing the issue of teachers controlling their own inquiry, observe teacher study groups as "...taking

responsibility for their own decision-making, not simply accepting the words of 'experts'" (p.68). Monson and Monson (1993) describe an inquiry model that addresses a need for teachers "to make decisions about the ways in which curriculum manifests itself in the classroom" (p. 19).

A significant body of literature extends the notion of teacher as decision-maker in the contexts of site-based management, restructuring, and school reform and team building. Site-based management (SBM) takes an organizational approach, and focusses on decentralization, or shifts in the paradigm of teacher as follower of others' decisions toward increased teacher participation in decision-making situations (Ambrosie & Haley, 1991; Mitchell, 1990; Monson & Monson, 1993; Taylor & Levine, 1991).

Restructuring examines the teacher as a decision-maker in relation to the system in terms of ownership, empowerment, attitude, involvement, autonomy and quality of thought (Cherry, 1991; Darling-Hammond, 1993; Glickman, 1990, 1991). For example, Cherry asserts that teachers "...do not wish to 'control' the school in which they teach. They simply want to be involved in the important decisions that directly affect them and their students and to feel appreciated for their efforts" (p. 38). Glickman challenges the assumption of teachers as "...mindless automatons" who carry out "...a set of generic practices". He notes that teachers affirm their professional knowledge through decision-making in the classroom:

Effective teaching...is a set of context-driven decisions about teaching....teachers...constantly reflect about their work, observe whether students are learning or not, and then adjust their practices accordingly. (p. 6)

Writers of school reform and team building reveal more specific characteristics

about the role of the teacher in decision-making as a school-wide process (Huddleston, Claspell & Killion, 1991). Articles address skill-building and group dynamics (Jenkins & Houlihan, 1990; Maeroff, 1993; Pajak, 1992), as well as zones of authority and influence (Conley, 1989). Most specifically, Schoeppach (1992) asserts that the role of the teacher as decision maker, is no longer limited to "...the use of discretion by the classroom teacher to the most mundane minutia such as...gum chewing" (p. 100). He goes on to portray teachers as active in such matters as prioritizing budget items, determining the appropriateness of curriculum materials and strategies, organizing student groupings, and recommending program implementation. He concludes:

At the centre of the decision making processes ...are the very teachers who will be responsible for carrying out those decisions...The implementers are the decision makers. (p. 101)

It follows that researchers would do well to probe further into the characteristics of the role of the teacher in decision-making as a classroom-based process.

Voice and leadership. Fullan's work strengthens the theme that lends voice and authority for "change in practice" to the classroom teachers because, as he asserts, "this level is closest to instruction and learning" (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 37). Glickman (1991) suggests that "teachers be given equal voice in all decisions about teaching and learning" (p. 8). The notion of voice and an expanded role for teachers as leaders is also supported by Gitlin and Price (1992). This voice has yet to assume a solid place in terms of legitimized teacher authorship in the educational journals of the field.

For the past three years (1991-94), the Ontario Teachers' Federation has been involved in a province-wide initiative known as "Creating a Culture of Change".

The philosophy behind the project is the conviction that teachers "...take charge of their professional growth and actively participate in the change process" (p. 1).

Project Facilitators are seconded to help in creating a network whereby teachers may engage in inquiry, support decisions, and share knowledge, experiences, and expertise. This Project is committed to providing opportunities for teacher-leadership in carrying out change.

Personal Views of Curriculum Change

A clear position by teachers on curriculum change is complicated by the idiosyncratic ways by which they accommodate change in the daily operation of the classroom:

Teachers are legitimately preoccupied with coping with the everyday demands of classroom and school life. Discipline, extra-curricular duties, meetings, marking tests, planning the next day's or next week's lesson, covering the curriculum can easily take all the teacher's energy. (Fullan & Park, 1981, p. 26)

In an effort to articulate the complexities of the schooling process, a study by Berlak and Berlak (1981) develops a set of concepts known as dilemmas that represent a range of positions on education and are tied to the practical issues that teachers face. Huberman's study (1988) discovers four distinct stages in the career cycle of teachers, which may have some bearing on their capacity to cope with change.

Doyle and Ponder (1977-78) conclude that teachers exercise their practicality ethic when making decisions about change. They go on to suggest that in order to alter beliefs, teachers need to be prepared to move beyond coping and accept some

of the responsibility for professional growth. In an attempt to develop an understanding of teachers' efforts at change, Bascia (1993) suggests that "public conflict between the Ministry [of Ontario] and teachers' organizations" with regard to reform initiatives could be allayed by an effort on the part of both groups to clearly articulate a coherent philosophy and position on the issue, and consequently "...help to legitimize the reform process" (p. 9). A growing body of research is beginning to imply a position emerging from the personal revelations of teachers as they carry out curriculum change.

Teachers, both individually and collectively, possess certain common characteristics that become significant personal factors when dealing with curriculum change:

Teachers develop a common language which will bond them to the innovation.

Judith Warren Little (1982), in her study of work practices in six urban schools, mentions that teachers engage in "frequent, continuous and increasingly concrete and precise talk"; and by doing this, they build up a shared language that defines and supports new practices, and that may become a bonding factor in teacher networks. (p. 328). Networks are a similar focus for discussion in Calvert and Crouse (1987, p. 21); Lieberman and McLaughlin, (1992); and Steffin and Sleep, (1988, p. 15). Coaching is also a phenomenon which, according to Showers (1989) "develops the shared language and set of common understandings necessary for the collegial study of new knowledge and skills" (p. 189).

Lezotte (1990) adds that people who work in a school need a common language

that is a language of improvement, and furthermore, everyone should be "schooled" in that language. Schools in change need to be able to articulate the change process. (p. 7).

Teachers display a wide range of attitudes toward innovation. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971), in their landmark study of human behaviour in the context of innovation, came up with a range of adopter categories that is generalized across different occupations. Their study draws attention to adopter subgroups, from the risk-taking enthusiasts to the semi-isolate antagonists. The study holds particular significance for change agents, development planners and administrators who face implementation. Similarly, Sarason (1982), in his study of the adaptation of federal programs, supports the existence of adopter categories by grouping people into "good guys" (supporters), "bad guys" (resistors), and "no interest" (p.80).

Schwab (1983) reinforces the notion of the interpretive disjuncture when he writes about a barrier that consists "on the side of scholars, of snobbery toward nonspecialists, often expressed as a benign and irritating patronage of teachers,...and consists, on the teacher's side, of subservience to specialist status" (p. 253). He recommends strongly that teachers must be significant members of curricular groups and acknowledges social science theory that supports the variant behaviours and attitudes of teachers in the classroom toward change and learning. As well, he suggests that various types of teachers must be representative in the curricular group, such as problem-solvers, users and subject specialists. Because the individual concerns of teachers vary within any group, Schwab suggests that it is necessary to personalize staff development activities as much as possible.

Fullan (1982) suggests that it is not level of education or years of experience

that matter so much as district and school conditions in which teachers spend their time. Depending on the conditions, innovators and hard-core resisters are found among all ages and levels of education.

Teachers vary widely in their competence and readiness. Thus, they undertake curriculum change in varying degrees. On one hand, a step in the process of an instructional strategy may be adjusted; whereas on the other, textbooks may be replaced by a growing resource base of children's literature. As needs are met, new concepts are accepted and philosophies modified. This notion is supported in a synthesis of adult learning theory by Calvert and Crouse (1987) who state that:

Adults come to the learning situation with a wide range of experience. These experiences are an enormous resource in the learning situation and should not be ignored. They provide a wide base on which to build new learning. (p. 11)

Variations in teaching experience as a factor in competence and readiness is directly related to what has been referred to as the "teacher's sense of efficacy" (Fullan, 1982, p. 72). This trait is found to have a positive correlation with staffs who place an emphasis on school-wide goals and improvement in student learning.

Teachers find satisfaction in contributing to as well as using new knowledge about curriculum. Teachers need to move from adopting the innovation, to conceptualizing and living it in their own way (Glickman, 1990; Grimmet, Rostad & Ford, 1992; Maeroff, 1993). For example, J. Harste (1990) describes teachers as moving through four stages when coming to terms with Whole Language as an innovation: (a) jumping on the band wagon, with no ideas of the proper theory or methodology; (b) trying out models and theories of experts in the field; (c) generating their own perceptions and ideas into the curriculum; and (d) gaining confidence with the innovation as it is stabilized, using the classroom to develop or

extend a new theory, and solving problems with colleagues.

Good teachers constantly adjust their goals and techniques as they work, and demonstrate leadership in the process. Park and Fullan (1986, p. 4) note that "Teachers are repeatedly demonstrating their leadership by continually negotiating and solving problems within the classroom. They must be prepared to make mistakes and learn from them if they want to get on with educational change." Calvert and Crouse (1987) portray the classroom as a "living laboratory requiring experimentation and risks, moving from the comfort of the known to the discomfort of the unknown...It may mean getting worse before getting better" (p. 33).

In a review of research from 1975 to 1989 that explores the problem-solving behaviours of teachers as they set goals and make decisions, Fullan (1991) describes in detail the "daily subjective reality" of the classroom:

...teachers must deal with constant daily disruptions, within the classroom in managing discipline and interpersonal conflicts, and from outside the classroom in collecting money for school events, making announcements, dealing with the principal, parents, central office staff, etc.; they must get through the daily grind; the rewards are having a few good days, covering the curriculum, getting a lesson across, having an impact on one or two individual students (success stories); they constantly feel the critical shortage of time. (p.33)

Teachers are adult learners in the various stages of the adult life cycle.

Teachers move from exploring new career options during their twenties to a bid for professional independence in their late thirties. Career-related goals become significant after the late thirties, when the adult sees either promotion or professional independence as a marker of success. Essentially, the individual attempts to "make sense of and draw connections between concepts formed and the realities of life" (Calvert & Crouse, 1987, p.8).

Knowles and Associates (1984) present the "andragogical model" as applied to adult learning, that consists of elements such as climate setting, self-directed learning, contract learning, individualized instruction, experiential learning, process designs, peer helping, self-diagnosis, self-evaluation and reflection (p. 417). An essential characteristic of the model is flexibility, as it need not be applied totally, nor without modification. Knowles et al perceive that the andragogical model satisfies a construct for the natural way in which adults learn, and can be applied to address the "...accelerating pace of change owing to the knowledge explosion and the technological revolution," and the resultant necessity that adults become lifelong learners in order to avoid "becoming obsolescent" (p. 422).

In the context of the adult life cycle, the notion of staff development as linking both personal and professional growth for teachers is supported by several researchers (Calvert & Crouse, 1987, p.5; Lipman, 1991, p. 26; Matlin & Short, 1991; MacKeracher, 1984; Park & Fullan, 1986, p. 13). Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) add a personal dimension to their view of teachers by noting that "teaching is bound up with their lives, their biographies, with the kinds of people they have become" (p.25). In a June 1993 keynote speech, Fullan summarizes the key factors in the making of a teacher as "the adult life cycle"(personal), "the career stage"(professional) and "gender".

The vision statement issued by the Ontario Teachers' Federation (1993) for the "Creating a Culture of Change" project incorporates the position of teacher as follows:

Teachers are committed to lifelong learning and as such interact and collaborate in the transformation of curriculum, program, practices and behaviours to ensure success for each and every learner. (p.1)

The links between teachers, adult learning, curriculum change, and student success are evident. A coherent position on the issue of curriculum change that derives from teachers' personal beliefs and values remains obscure.

Summary

This chapter is organized according to four perspectives in research focussing on the teacher. First, change is rooted in human thought and action that specifically involves the teacher. The nature of teacher involvement is illustrated through personal and professional relevance, and the interdependence of phenomena surrounding change efforts. There is an implication that it is crucial for teachers to understand the process of change itself.

Second, with regard to teachers and models for change, innovations at the classroom level are profiled through system-level frameworks or implementation models. Literature is examined that probes the suitability of such models, which appear to address collective implementation and a single innovation, rather than an individual teacher and multiple changes in the classroom. School- and teacher-based constructs are also emerging, focussing on teacher inquiry, goal-setting, and articulation of classroom practice. Researchers question the use of rational models as guides for the non-rational world of teaching.

Third, teachers are being recognized as change agents, as they prioritize, organize and carry out change. Three underlying themes in the literature are explored. One theme is the paradoxical role of teachers in change situations in terms of pilot projects, collegial teams and control over decisions. A second theme

is the rhetoric that misconstrues the teacher's world with regard to the reality of practice. The third theme is an ongoing debate as to the authority and legitimacy of the teacher as an influence in the course of change.

Fourth, professional change is shaped by personal views unique to teachers' experiences. As well, there are common characteristics among teachers, evident in positions and conclusions publicized by theorists in the field. There are attempts to define teachers' attitudes and positions based on teachers' personal revelations about issues and idiosyncracies of daily practice. These characteristics are evident across research studies in relation to language of articulation, range of attitudes, variations in competence and readiness, knowledge base, and approaches to goal setting and techniques. In addition, andragogical theory connects the personal and professional dimensions of teaching to staff development through knowledge about adult learning and the adult life cycle.

CHAPTER THREE

Design of the Study

Introduction

Discussed in Chapter Three are the methods used to access and analyze the personal and professional experiences of participants in the study. The selection of the research site and the participants that form the sample are presented in the first section. The second section deals with data collection; data analysis is traced in the third section. The fourth section comprises a brief explanation of the field notes and printed material. The fifth section documents the research.

Selection of the Research Site

The Site

The school board is situated in a densely-populated urban and suburban area of similarly large school boards in southern Ontario. The size of the elementary school

site allows for both stratifying and clustering the sample and making generalizations to particular subgroups (Leedy, 1989, p. 118; Patton, 1980, p. 105). The school reflects a range of teaching experiences and qualifications, equity of proportion in overall male-female staff ratio, and staff-student balance in each of the Primary, Junior and Intermediate Divisions. Therefore, selection of a cross-section of the teachers on staff is feasible, and suits the researcher's purpose of investigating common patterns of attitudes and behaviours. Further characteristics of the site are included in Chapter Four: Presentation of the Data. The unit of analysis focusses on the teacher in the classroom and thus requires "the natural setting as the direct source of data" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982, p. 29) as integral to the qualitative design. The research process takes place over the school year in order to parallel the rhythm of the curriculum cycle (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988, p. 76; Guba, 1982; Seidman, 1991).

The Sample

The theme of the study is broad, namely, change in the classroom. The research design is open-ended, and from a broad exploratory beginning the researcher moves to more directed data collection and inductive analysis. Bogdan and Biklen (1982, p. 59) note that "the data collection and research activities narrow to sites, subjects, materials, topics, and themes". The researcher applies this principle to the initial sample selection in the school, narrowing this to a final cluster sample in an attempt to start in a broad-based way, and move to a more direct and focussed study. Consequently, the criteria for sample selection is such

that the researcher attempts to maintain a reasonably representative teacher population within a manageable focus. Because selection of the final sample is dependent upon the initial part of the research process and design, and emerges as a result of the preliminary data collection, the criteria and details of this procedure are described in Documentation of the Research: Phase One.

Bogdan and Biklen point out that sample size is determined by the size of the population to which one wants to generalize, the expected amount of variation in that population, and the amount of error one is willing to accept. Accordingly, the final sample is expected to represent a cross-section of elementary teachers with a reasonable variation across three Divisions and grades K - 8, limited to the size and nature of the school site under study. The researcher anticipates that replication of the research design at other similar sites would either generalize, confirm or negate information that emerges from this study.

Data Collection

Information was collected mainly through interviews, as well as through a professional information form and an open-ended survey. These methods are found by Anderson and Burns (1989) to be "the major source of evidence used in studies of teachers" (p. 270). The researcher also kept field notes and collected printed material to supplement and verify verbal information.

Interviews

The open-ended interview form can be found in Appendix A.01. This interview was designed by the researcher as a preliminary method of addressing the purpose of the study, which is to provide data about the nature of teacher-initiated change efforts. In conceptualizing the interview, the researcher referred to Patton (1980) as an expert in the field. Consideration was given to the types of questions, as well as wording, sequencing, clarity and format. Feedback on the quality of the questions and their relevance to the purpose of the study was also sought from the thesis supervisor before a final draft was submitted as an appendix to the thesis proposal.

The interview consists of seven questions directly related to the research questions proposed in Chapter One. For example, questions #4, 5 and 6 inquire about how teachers prioritize, organize and carry out change, deal with program and focus, and how they track progress. Each question is open-ended to allow for a free flow of discourse, and generic to maintain the themes of the principal research questions across the responses in the sample (Merton, Fiske & Kendall, 1990).

Bogdan and Biklen (1982) caution the researcher against controlling the content of the interview, and advise the researcher to form open-ended questions to encourage the subject to talk in the area of interest. The researcher can then "probe more deeply, picking up on the topics and issues that the respondent initiates" (p. 135). In accordance with this premise, the questions are arranged logistically to establish a comfort zone during the early stages of the interview.

between the researcher and respondent. Thus, respondents are given the opportunity through question #1 to talk about changes articulated previously in their responses to the open-ended survey--changes of which the researcher is also aware. In addition, question #1 also provides for a noncontroversial response related to the types of changes that teachers choose to carry out (Patton, 1980, p.210). The interview structure gradually shifts to questions that require more detailed information and personal opinion.

As each interview was completed, the responses were charted as a frequency count. The content of the responses was tracked throughout the frequency count to validate the consistency of the information and interpretation of the questions across the initial sample.

Additional focussed and final interviews were designed in order to explore in detail and extend responses from the first round of open-ended interviews. The questions for these interviews emerged from the data of the open-ended interviews, and were in essence part of the research process (Wolfe & Tymitz (1977).

Space was allotted on the interview forms for recording notes particular to each interview respondent and situation, such as overt behaviours, time of day, and context surrounding the arrangements made for each interview. With a view to the quality of participants' responses, all interview questions were analysed according to Patton's (1980, p. 210) " Matrix of Question Options" to ensure that all areas of inquiry within the scope of study were covered. This Matrix is displayed in Appendix A.02 as the "Analysis of Interview Questions". The entire interview process is discussed under Documentation of the Research.

The Professional Information Form

The professional information form can be found in Appendix A.03. This form consists of four sections designed to gain information about the school staff about teaching experience, professional qualifications, current and previous teaching assignments, and extra-curricular/committee responsibilities. Time was set aside for staff to complete the form immediately following the initial presentation that introduced the thesis project. In general, the professional information form is meant to provide the researcher with data that would confirm the researcher's perception, after prolonged engagement on site, of the experience base and culture of the school staff in a professional context.

The Open-Ended Survey

The open-ended survey can be found in Appendix A.04. This survey addresses in part the research question: What types of changes do teachers choose to activate that are related to their overall program or particular areas of focus within their program? The six questions formulated by the researcher in this survey are based on the assumption that all teachers at the site are carrying out their program within the expectations explicit in the performance descriptors of the Teacher Performance Appraisal manual distributed by the Board of Education of the school under study. Accordingly, the survey questions allow for response variations related to scheduling, unit and theme planning, strategies, use of space and use of resources.

The purpose of the survey is to identify substantial changes that staff members intend to carry out, and thus act as a criterion in the initial sample selection process. Through the survey, prospective participants would be articulating what they choose and perceive to be change efforts within their program. Their individual responses in this survey would be a starting point for inquiry, discussion and data gathering.

Data Collection Procedures

Procedures related to field entry and decisions affecting the collection of preliminary information are presented in Documentation of the Research, Phases One and Two.

Interviewing was the dominant strategy for data collection. The open-ended interview was conducted with 13 participants between January and March. One interview was only partially completed due to time constraints and this data was put aside. The remaining 12 participants became referred to as the initial sample. Discussion surrounding question #1: "Tell me about the change you have in mind", was initiated from responses in the open-ended survey on the premise that the participant already had a particular change in mind. This premise had been agreed upon by both the researcher and the participant when the interview had been booked.

Interviews were conducted as a combination of the interview guide approach and a standard, open-ended approach (Patton, 1980). This meant that all questions were asked of all participants in order to obtain similar information across the initial

sample. It was important that a common body of information emerge from the 12 interviews in order to use it as a basis for narrowing the sample. Open-ended questions were used as a guide, and probes were used to elicit more detailed responses, or to clarify. For example, a probe following a response to the question: "What methods will you use to organize/keep track of this change?" was, in one case: "How do you organize from unit to unit?"; and in another: "How do you act upon your reflections?"

After the open-ended interviews were completed, the sample was narrowed to six participants and this sample became referred to as the final sample. The selection process and criteria related to the final sample is described in Documentation of the Research: Phase One.

Focussed interviews were conducted with the final sample of participants, and were followed up with a round of final interviews. One participant out of the six undertook a combined focussed/final interview due to scheduling cancellations and conflicts. The focussed interviews took place in the participant's classroom at the researcher's request, in an area of the room comfortable to the participant. The purpose of the focussed interview was to probe for details related to the participant's change efforts. The researcher intended that the participant's classroom be used as an immediate reference point, or area whereby the participant could produce or indicate concrete examples during the course of the interview. The final interview was arranged and took place whenever and wherever convenient, as the school year was drawing to a close, scheduling was very tight, and contacts tended to be last minute. The purpose of the final interview was to cover any areas left untouched by the focussed interview, and to individualize the

questioning so as to saturate common information related to the principal research questions across the final sample.

All interviews were audio-taped, transcribed verbatim, and organized in files according to type of interview. With reference to closing data collection, Patton (1980) points out that "there is no definite point at which data collection stops and analysis begins. Over the course of the fieldwork one process flows into another" (p. 184). Bogdan and Biklen (1982) view this stage as "data saturation", or "the point ...where the information you get becomes redundant" (p. 64). The researcher decided to close data collection in June of year two primarily because it was a natural break in the school year and a time when teachers were reflecting on their efforts. The researcher also noted that data saturation was indeed evident, as the interviews were beginning to produce repeats of information (Kirby & McKenna, 1989. p. 138). As well, categories of talk were emerging from an on-going analysis of the transcripts as they were being produced.

In general, the data collection resulted in over 400 pages of field texts. These texts were in the form of transcripts of 23 separate interviews, written observations, diagrams and reflections by the researcher, and responses from the information form and survey.

Ethical Concerns

All interviews at the initial stage were conducted in the same manner and took place in the researcher's classroom, in private with the door closed, at a table at

the back of the room. The researcher took particular care to avoid disclosing any information that would lead staff members to gain knowledge of who was participating in the interviews. Therefore, no one knew, unless of their own volition, who else was involved in the study.

As well, consent was obtained from all participants to tape record the interview. At the beginning of the interview, the researcher carefully outlined the following procedures: (a) all information would be kept confidential; (b) the researcher's role was to be impartial during the questioning; (c) individual quotes in the written report that might implicate or identify the participant would be used only with the consent of that participant.

Data Analysis

The constant comparative method was used, (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982), meaning that as the study proceeded, emerging categories were re-defined according to additional data. In a similar vein, Patton (1980) describes the process of inductive analysis, which means that "the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data" (p. 306). The constant comparative method is appropriate for a research design that incorporates multi-data sources, and involves the combination of data collection with analysis. A variety of participants and classrooms was studied, and coding was ongoing. New material was integrated into the developing theoretical categories until their dimensions were exhausted to the point of theoretical saturation.

The researcher assumed a speculative approach to analysis in the field (Bogdan

& Biklen, 1982, p. 155) by planning data collection sessions in the light of previous ones; by writing notes that directed theory formation; by exploring literature for relevant perspectives; and by mentally playing with concepts.

First, descriptive matrices were set up based on itemized responses to the professional information form and the open-ended survey. Information was ordered along comparative axes according to the development of the sample selection, as well as by school Division. Key words written by the respondents were entered into the appropriate cells. The purpose of the matrices was to define the characteristics of the sample and to portray the extent of the changes that were being considered by the teachers at the start of the school year.

Second, as transcripts from the open-ended interviews were completed, the researcher initiated a preliminary analysis by listing emerging categories of talk. These categories were re-defined as additional transcript data was compiled. In developing category systems, the researcher consulted Guba (1978, p. 53) and looked for recurring regularities in the data that could be sorted according to two criteria: "internal homogeneity" and "external heterogeneity". Guba explains that the first criterion "concerns the extent to which the data holds together" (p. 53) and the second criterion "concerns the extent to which differences are clear" (p. 53).

A descriptive matrix was then set up based on the categories of talk and ordered according to each participant. Frequency counts were graphed on this matrix, to inspect the categories for thick description; to use content as one of the criteria for narrowing the sample; and to address empty cells of information through the formation of questions for the focussed interview. As the first round of

interviews was being completed, the researcher coded the categories of talk numerically and began to apply the code to loosely-defined, context-bound units of information directly on the interview transcripts. The final sample of six was selected, and the transcripts from the 'outliers' (the remaining six) were set aside.

Third, a composite descriptive matrix was set up as an ongoing process that included data from the rounds of focussed and final interviews. This matrix acted as a check to ensure that a common information base across the final sample was being maintained through the interview questions. The researcher continued to code units of information in the transcripts numerically by categories of talk, until all transcripts were completed and filed. Source codes were then determined for specific units of information that fell within the context categories of talk. These units are referred to as "bibbits" by Kirby and McKenna (1989):

Bibbit: a passage from a transcript, a piece of information from ...[a] snippet of conversation recorded on a scrap of paper that can stand on its own but, when necessary, can be relocated in its original context. (p. 135).

Specific criteria for defining the units is discussed under Documentation of the Research. Copies of the transcripts were cut up and the 'bibbits' arranged into category sets.

Fourth, the researcher decided at this point to take a two-prong approach to data analysis. The interview transcripts were subjected to a **context analysis** and a **content analysis**. The context analysis was applied to determining the category sets of talk. The content analysis consisted of extrapolating and highlighting comments from the transcripts that related directly to the research questions.

Finally, all information from the context and content analysis was transposed via

word processor to print form summary sheets, which included key words, researcher interpretations, and verbatim statements and phrases. This resulted in 43 pages of text in reduced print size. From the summary sheets, the researcher further analysed and synthesized the information into appropriate data presentations, which include descriptive and role matrices, graphs; classification, interpretation, and verbatim charts; quadrant plots and graphic flowcharts.

A further discussion of the daily procedures and decisions particular to the data analysis is presented in Documentation of the Research. Data displays specifically related to the outcome of the study are offered in Chapter Four, Presentation of the Data.

Field Notes and Printed Material

Fieldnotes were kept in a diary, and notes were entered and organized as descriptive, personal, methodological, theoretical, or related directly to the research questions. An example of this organizer is found in Appendix A.05, as "Field Notes: Considerations". Patton (1980) points out that the ideas formed during data collection are in fact " part of the record of field notes. Whether one is doing in-depth interviewing or observations it is important to keep track of these analytical insights" (p. 297). Notes were written on informal conversations with participants related to their change efforts; references made by staff to curriculum change during meetings; comments made by staff in the staffroom during recess and lunch breaks, related to the change efforts described in the open-ended survey and in

interviews. In addition to the anecdotal notes, the researcher sketched in detail, diagrammatic representations of three of the participants' classrooms and included any changes that took place over the course of the year. Printed materials were requested when they were relevant to the emerging data, were sorted, and set aside. Examples of collected materials were: minutes and agendas of staff, division and Curriculum Growth Team meetings; samples of participants' schedules, long range plans, daybook pages, and unit plans; weekly staff communiques; student work samples; and daily reflective notes on teaching. Generally, the field notes were utilized to confirm information and set direction at the start of the study. The collection of printed materials served as verification of information and researcher interpretation throughout the interview stage, as well as a reference point for further inquiry and clarification.

Documentation of the Research

Documentation of the research forms part of the audit trail through which the research process could be replicated (Kirby & McKenna, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1985). Merriam (1985) refers to several authorities who define the audit trail as a "chain of evidence" left by the researcher that is "detailed enough to ...allow an external auditor to ascertain the credibility and reasonableness of the findings" (p. 211, 212). Specific analysis and synthesis procedures that may have had an influence on the outcomes of the study were logged in a separate journal, adapting the qualitative analysis documentation (QAD) Form (Miles & Huberman, 1984). The content of this section is derived primarily from the notes in this

journal. Discussion of the documentation will be organized in four phases: phase one, planning and engaging in the field entry; phase two, actions and decisions related to the data collection; phase three, steps in the initial analysis and preparation for in-depth analysis; and phase four, follow-up stages and post-data analysis.

Phase One: Planning and Engaging in the Field Entry

The researcher accepted a teaching position on the research site, and simultaneously arranged the support of the Principal for the express purpose of carrying out the study. The Principal also requested that the researcher agree to be the Co-ordinator of the Curriculum Growth Team (CGT) as part of a school-wide initiative. The researcher agreed with the notion in mind that the position would aid in getting to know the culture of the school with regard to change (Seidman, 1991). Although Bogdan and Biklen (1982) advise against this approach, the researcher was not already "...intimately involved in the setting" (p. 57). Upon assuming teaching duties, the researcher had not been previously acquainted with any other staff member in the school.

The first year (year one) was utilized for establishing credibility through "prolonged engagement" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 302). Support for carrying out the study was solicited through informal conversations about the researcher's involvement with graduate courses, development of the thesis proposal, and preparatory comments during staff and CGT meetings. Ease of access to the site enabled the researcher in year two to merge with the school culture, converse and

take notes fairly unobtrusively, and shape the research design to fall in with the norms of the school year. Because the design required frequent individual and intermittent contact with teachers on staff, the researcher later found it advantageous to be on-site for scheduling last-minute interviews. In June of year one, written permission was obtained from both the Principal and the Area Superintendent to carry out the study according to School Board Policy.

The cover letter, consent forms and professional information forms were distributed and collected on a Professional Activity (PA) Day in September of year two. These forms were then arranged according to consenting and non-consenting staff, and filed. The cover letter and consent form is displayed in Appendix A.06 and A.07, respectively. On a PA Day in October, staff filled out the open-ended survey. At this time, the researcher pointed out that the responses on the survey would be used to establish a topic for the first round of interviews. Completed forms were collected by the researcher on the spot; some were returned to the researcher's school mailbox; others, the researcher followed up on by personal contact and reminder memos. Throughout December and January, all returned forms were collated, filed, and coded to ensure anonymity. All information contributed by participants was coded using pseudo-initials, and was not made available to any other participant in the study. A summary of consents and non-consents and the process related to sample selection is found in Appendix A.08. Four consenting participants were deemed ineligible for the following reasons: pregnancy leave; death in the family; difficulties in establishing an interview time; team-teaching with the researcher. A profile of consenting participants was compiled to graphically set up and maintain a representative sample, with gender

and teaching Division as the critical attributes. Through the selection criteria and eligibility conditions, the sample was reduced to 12. Thus, the researcher decided to go with this group as a viable initial sample with which to conduct the first round of interviews.

Phase Two: Actions and Decisions Related to the Data Collection

A scatterplot given in Figure 3.01 illustrates the overall interview schedule from January to June of year two.

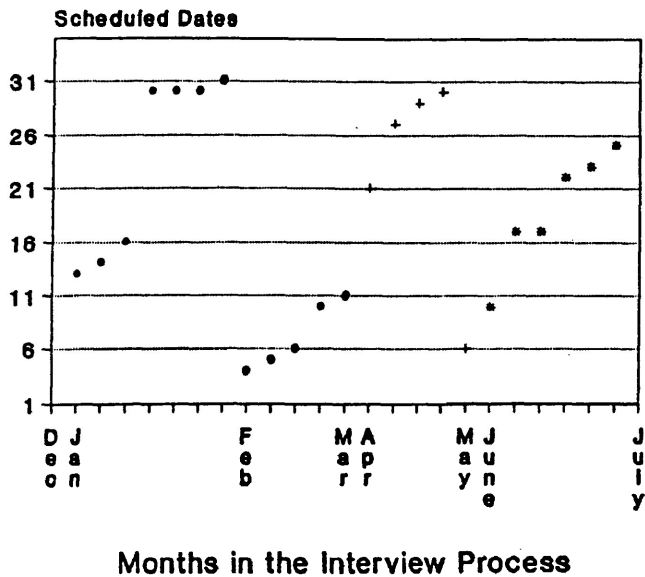


Figure 3.01. Schedule of interviews.

Note. Type of Interview
 • Open-ended + Focussed * Final

All interviews were scheduled during natural breaks, such as before and after school hours, during lunch hours, or scheduled prep periods. The interviews ran from 15- 30 minutes in length, and the researcher confirmed the availability and comfort of each participant with this time consumption before and during the interview process.

Twelve interviews were conducted with the initial sample from January to March. Five interviews were carried out with the final sample throughout April and May. Six interviews completed the process in June, with one of those being a combined focussed/final interview. A temporal flowchart, Figure 3.02, of the research process depicts adjustments that emerged between the proposal and the actual plan.

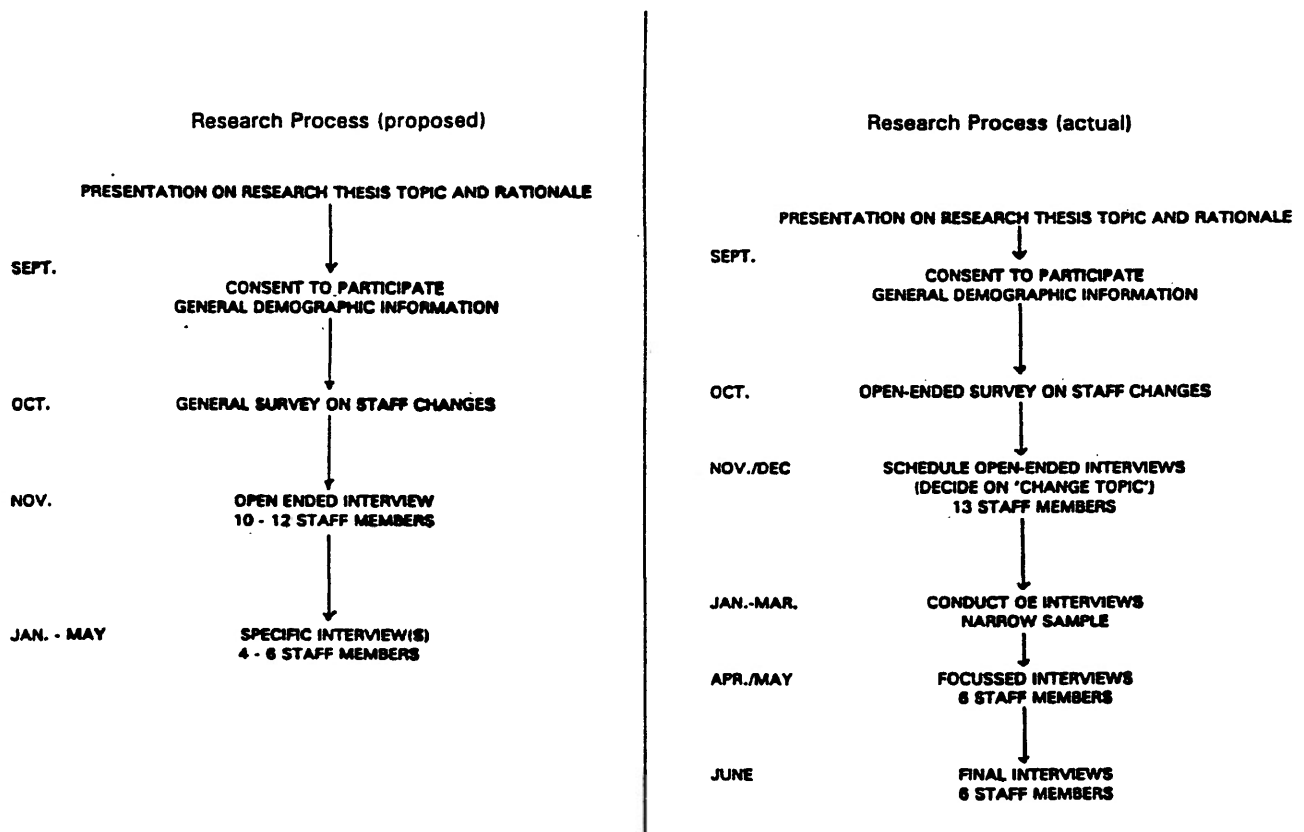


Figure 3.02. The research process: a comparison of proposed and actual.

Interview schedules were affected by several interruptions in the daily life of the staff, and what resulted was a progressive delay of the research process that was dependent upon the ebb and flow of the school year.

The open-ended and focussed interviews were set up using a form which facilitated note-taking while in progress. These notes aided in raising queries about clarification, interpretation, or probes for more details during the course of the interview. Each participant was also given a copy of the form, with questions only, as a visual reference. After the interview, the researcher used the back of the form to add notes that reflected the context of the situation, the approach taken by the participant, or the direction that the next interview might take. The procedure for the final interviews differed only in that the researcher had compiled questions specific to each participant that had emerged from the data and previous interviews. Therefore each participant was not given a generic set of questions as a visual reference.

The accuracy of the verbal data was verified through member checks during the course of the interview situations. Interpretations and conclusions by the researcher were clarified with participants as part of the dialogue, and thus, according to Lincoln and Guba, "...put the respondent on record as having said certain things and having agreed to the correctness of the investigator's recording of them" (p.314). By carrying out three rounds of interviews, the researcher made every effort at obtaining narratives of thick description to allow for transferability. In other words, an extensive data base was compiled "to enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.316). Seidman (1991)

also supports the use of multiple interviews because the process checks the "internal consistency"(p. 17) of what the participants had to say.

A thesis log was initiated as a computer file by the researcher to supplement the field diary. This log kept track of actions and decisions related to the daily reflections and brainstorming that shaped the direction and focus of the study. For example, memos included references to acquiring recent research literature or contacting people; or to interview schedules and adjustments in the research process. In addition to the interview and computer notes, the researcher made notes on the transcripts in the form of reflective comments, queries that would elicit more detail, and verification checks across the participants' transcripts, or the different sources of printed information. All of these notes eventually replaced the field notes, as the researcher moved more into the interview data, analysis and verification, and away from collecting information about the site, its culture, or the direction of the methodology. The researcher decided in February to discontinue the field diary, due to lack of opportunity to observe other relevant situations involving the participants during the more focussed stage of the study.

Questions for the focussed and final interviews were emergent in the sense that they were based on the reflective notes from the transcripts, the frequency counts, and emerging categories of talk; and constantly checked for relevance against the principal research questions. The development of the interview questions and their relationship to the overall study is illustrated in a reverse dendrogram in Appendix A.09. A dendrogram usually moves from specific units of information to a general concept (Miles & Huberman, 1984). The researcher adapted this format in constructing the dendrogram in reverse, in order to demonstrate how the inquiry

moved from the general research questions to the specific. The questions had to maintain the theme of the study and yet remain true to the unique perceptions of the participants. Therefore, the move to individualized questions elicited the thick description necessary for credibility and data closure.

As the interviews were completed, copies were made of the transcripts to allow for preliminary analysis, which included determining and coding the categories of talk, and writing researcher notes. Two main sets of the transcripts were organized and filed according to type of interview, under Categories of Talk and Reflective Notes. All transcripts were filed according to type of interview and date to ensure accuracy of reference in presentation of the data as quotes or vignettes. In order to preserve the anonymity of the participants, the researcher decided to omit the year in the reference code.

Phase Three: Steps in the Initial Analysis and Preparation for In-Depth Analysis

Data from the professional information form and the open ended survey was organized into composite matrices according to the development of the sample selection along a horizontal comparative axis, and along a vertical axis to fit conditions according to the items on each form. For example, cells were constructed from the professional information form to illustrate teaching experience, years at present school, levels taught, present teaching assignments, changes in assignments, qualifications and courses, at variance with the sample selection axis. Cells related to the conditions from the open-ended survey were designated as: schedule, units/themes -introduce, adjust, extend,

strategies/approaches, space, and use of resources. The matrices were organized so that the researcher could isolate one condition and display it as a chart possessing self-contained relevance to the concepts and constructs emerging from the interview data.

From the interview data, context categories of talk were shaped and refined to a list of 18 categories as the transcripts were scrutinized by the researcher. This list of context categories is found in Appendix A.10. The process involved reading through one transcript and attaching a definitive word to a category of talk that seemed to repeat its theme throughout the dialogue. As the list increased, the category definitions were either confirmed or subsumed into other categories by the data present in the transcripts that followed. The researcher also attempted to find the most accurate definition for that category as the data supporting it increased. For example "setting priorities" eventually became the "decision-making" category; and "methodology", "strategies", and "routines" became subsumed under "methodology".

Once all of the transcripts had been coded for categories of talk, the researcher began to define the units of information, or bibbits. Again, the researcher read through the transcripts and ruled off bibbits according to any of the following criteria:

1. each unit is context-bound; that is, it can stand on its own in terms of meaning;
2. each unit is based primarily on one category of talk, assuming that other categories interface with that pattern of thought;
3. each unit may be distinguishable through conjunction cues, such as

"and", "but", "also", "although";

4. units may be tied by causal cues, such as "so", "if", "because";

5. units may be bound by the repetition of key words within a passage, e.g., repeats of "organization";

6. a unit may be a general statement with supporting details or examples.

As the unit coding was completed, the researcher cut out all of the bibbits and sorted them, according to context category, into 18 manila envelopes that were labelled with each category. The contents of each envelope were then transferred, using peel-off tape, on to large context category charts and sorted into sub-categories if the information lent itself to this procedure. This method gave the researcher a good deal of flexibility with which to massage the data, as the units could be moved around on the charts as meanings and relationships were explored. This preparation represented the context analysis strand of the two-prong approach to analysis of the data.

Simultaneously, the researcher undertook a content analysis directed at extrapolating language from the transcripts that referred to: (a) types of changes; (b) actions through decision-making; and (c) metaphorical or figurative language used to describe the change efforts. The language that fell within each of these three content areas was color-coded, hilited, and superimposed on the two main sets of transcripts in order to avoid dealing with multiple sets and an overabundance of paper. The purpose of the content analysis was to create a data set directly related to the principal research questions. For example, actions through decisions was expected to offer information that would fulfill the question: How do teachers prioritize, organize and carry out these changes? The researcher

decided to inspect for metaphors because this type of language represents a personal frame of reference through which people view phenomena. The notion of metaphors in teachers' narratives of experience with curriculum planning is developed by Connelly and Clandinin (1988), as they investigate teachers' personal/practical knowledge. Hence, it is expected that metaphors help to fulfill the research question: In what ways do teachers personally relate to professional change?

All of the data analysis procedures were also carried out with the outlier transcripts; that is, the six participants who had been part of the initial sample and the open-ended interview. It was the intent of the researcher that information from the outliers would act as a feasibility check and part of the "referential adequacy" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 313) in comparison to the data of the final sample.

Phase Four: Follow-up Stages and Post-Data Analysis

Following the closure of data collection in June of year two, the researcher moved from preliminary analysis into post-data analysis. An interim period at the beginning of year three (September to December) marked the preparation of the data through the initiation of the context and content analysis. Data from both analyses were summarized on the computer and printed out on summary sheets, as described in Analysis of the Data. Data common to four or more out of the six participants in the final sample represented a majority, and was considered to be a significant finding.

To elaborate further in the context analysis, the bibbits on each context

category chart were scrutinized for patterns of thought, repetitions, clusters of meaning, logical sequences, and accordance across the sample. As well, the units were grouped for possible sub-categories of thought. A summary page was created for each category, which represented the researcher's inspection within each category. These summary pages were then used as the data-reduced sources for an inspection across categories. Rather than choosing category combinations at random, the researcher had earlier identified and tallied category combinations of the teachers' talk from the transcripts during the first coding process. A summary of these category combinations is found in Appendix A.11. This summary was used as a basis for choosing the category combinations for inspection across categories, as it manifested what was already present in the data. Throughout this process, the researcher considered a combination from the tally, pulled out the representative summary sheets, and created a cross-classification comparison chart between the categories. In searching for relationships, the researcher used the following x/y construct as a guide to gaining meaning and filling in the cells:

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Strict Inclusion | is a kind of |
| 2. Spatial | is a place in |
| 3. Cause-Effect | is a result of |
| | is a cause of |
| 4. Rationale | is a reason for doing |
| 5. Location for Action | is a place for doing |
| 6. Function | is used for |

7. Means-End is a step(stage)in

8. Attribution is an attribute of

The researcher decided that the relationships that became evident in the context analysis via this synthesis process would be used in confirming interpretations and concepts arising from the other forms of data analysis in the study.

The summary sheets for the content analysis consisted of a verbatim transfer of the hilited data, organized according to each respondent. One exception was the types of changes, which were partially verbatim, and partially a close interpretation by the researcher within the surrounding context of the interview dialogue. The units of information in each of the three content areas lent themselves very much to sub-categorization and clustering. The researcher also searched for central tendencies in the form of themes across the clusters of categories, and also running through the sample. For example, the types of changes that the teachers talked about appeared to be layered and interfaced with many other simultaneous changes. Therefore, the researcher considered the plausibility of clustering the changes. With regard to metaphorical expressions, the researcher noted a central tendency that depicted a perceptual approach to each teacher's changes. Actions through decisions that were common across the majority of the sample were re-arranged from the summary sheets, grouped and identified. The identified actions appeared to fall within an operational sphere of strategies. The researcher then considered the plausibility of a relationship between the three areas of content, once analysed and reduced to meaningful concepts. The figures and findings of this in-depth content analysis is displayed in Presentation of the Data.

The researcher made every attempt to incorporate verification methods as an ongoing measure from the onset of data collection. Consideration was given to the process detailed by Patton (1987, p. 162). As a part of post-data analysis, verification methods included an ongoing check of all units of information for feasibility with the outlier portion of the sample; a comparison of emerging data between the context and content analysis, which represents two types of processes; and confirmation checks of interview data against field notes and documents. References to the change efforts were traced back repeatedly to the information first contributed on the open-ended survey. Dialogue about multiple changes was confirmed as well through the professional information form and the open-ended survey. Accuracy of context, as data was reduced to summary sheets and matrices, was checked by referring back to the cut-and-tape units of information on category charts, and to the original transcripts. Representation across the sample was traced throughout data reduction by entering or organizing units of information with their source codes.

Summary

Selection of the site is discussed in terms of the site and the sample. Data collection includes a description of the the instruments utilized, as well as their purpose and relevance to the study. Next, procedures are outlined that govern the integrity and extent of the data gathering. Data analysis using the constant comparative method and inductive reasoning is presented with regard to note-taking, reflection and categorizing of information. It is noted that in-depth analysis was carried out through a context and content analysis. The use of field notes and

printed material is explained.

The research process is documented through four phases: planning and engaging in the field entry; actions and decisions related to the data collection; steps in the initial analysis and preparation for in-depth analysis; and, follow-up stages and post-data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

Presentation of the Data

The Research Site

The Site and Contexts for Change

With reference to curriculum and program change, the school board has developed a model known as Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI). This model is an adaptation of innovation profiles used by other boards. The LOPI model is included in the data because two teachers are using it as a reference. As a major initiative, the school board is implementing co-operative learning across all schools. It is also expected throughout the Board and by each Principal that some curriculum planning will take place in conjunction with the Ministry's Partners in Action document (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) . Both co-operative learning and Partners in Action are not singled out as topics for discussion on change, but emerge from the interviews as a reference when teachers are discussing curriculum planning.

Data from the field notes and printed materials reveals the presence of certain norms of privacy (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991) at the school that embody how the

staff copes with curriculum change. Outside the classrooms, conversation about curriculum change takes place in a very incidental, casual manner, or in most cases, not at all. Moreover, the teachers tend to do their more structured planning by themselves in their own classroom, or in small peer groups. In keeping with these norms, the change efforts articulated by the teachers on the open-ended survey are derived from individual perceptions, or are the result of planning with one or two other teachers. Reference to their change efforts does not appear in any of the school-wide documents related to weekly communiques, or staff or Division meetings.

The Sample

The sample consists of a cross-section from 34 members of a teaching staff in a suburban school with a student population of about 600 Kindergarten-Grade 8 students. The school is part of an area of 13 schools under the administration of a Superintendent of Schools. The area is one of seven areas in the school board. The school is administered by a full-time Principal and Vice-Principal, with informal positions of added responsibility provided by the teaching staff through Division Chairperson roles.

The initial sample consists of thirteen participants, twelve of whom completed the open-ended interview. The data from the one incomplete interview is set aside. As explained in Chapter Three, the final sample is narrowed to six respondents, two male, four female. These respondents are identified by the following pseudonyms wherever vignettes as direct quotes are used to display data: Bev, Mary, Tom,

Laura, Claire, and Ed. Data that represent four out of six of these respondents is taken to mean a majority. Data from the remaining six respondents will be referred to as the outlier portion of the sample.

Particular characteristics of the final sample as representative of the entire school staff are displayed in Tables 4.01 - 4.04. Table 4.01 indicates that all respondents have worked five years or less at the school, and represent all three Divisions.

TABLE 4.01

Staff Distribution by Number of Teaching Years at Present School

STAFF DISTRIBUTN (31)				INITIAL SAMPLE (13)			FINAL SAMPLE (6)		
Yrs.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.
0 - 5	3	5	5	3	4	3	1	3	2
6 - 10	3	2			1				
11 - 15	1								
15+	2	1		1	1				
TOT	9	8	5	4	6	3		3	2

NOT REC'D: 9

NOTE: Staff distribution is by number of teachers in each of the Primary, Junior and Intermediate Divisions.

Table 4.02 indicates that teaching experience across the final sample also covers the staff range from 2 to over 15 years, with this range represented by 3 out of 6 respondents teaching at the Junior Division level at the time of this study.

TABLE 4.02

Staff Distribution by Number of Years of Experience

STAFF DISTRIBUTN (31)				INITIAL SAMPLE (13)			FINAL SAMPLE (6)		
Yrs.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.
0 - 5	2	2		2	1		1	1	
6 - 10	1	4	2	1	3	1		1	
11 - 15	2		1			1			
15+	4	3	4	1	2	1		1	1
TOT	9	9	7	4	6	3		3	2

* NOT REC'D: 6

NOTE: Staff distribution is by number of teachers in each of the Primary, Junior and Intermediate Divisions.

Table 4.03 represents the range of teaching experience related to levels taught.

Generally, the teaching experience of the final sample covers all of Kindergarten to Grade Eight. This experience is especially prominent at the Junior and Intermediate level.

TABLE 4.03

Distribution of Teaching Experience by Levels Taught

Level	STAFF DISTRIBUTN			INITIAL SAMPLE			FINAL SAMPLE		
	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.	Pr.	Jr.	Int.
K	√	√		√	√		√	√	
1	√		√	√		√			√
2	√	√	√	√		√			√
3	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√
4	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√
5	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√
6		√	√		√	√		√	√
7	√	√	√		√	√		√	√
8	√	√	√		√	√		√	√

NOT REC'D: 11

NOTE: Distribution represents the combined experience according to staff allocation in each Divisions.

Table 4.04 displays teaching assignments that represent changes from the year previous to data collection.

TABLE 4.04

Changes in Teaching Assignments from Previous Year to Present

Level	STAFF DISTRIBUTION		INITIAL SAMPLE		FINAL SAMPLE	
	Present	Change	Present	Change	Present	Change
SpEd	5	2	3	1		
K	3	2				
1	2	2	1			
2	2		1			
3	2	2	1			
Split	3	1	1			
4	1		1			
5	1	1				
6	2	1	2		1	1
Split	3	2	1	1	1	1
7	2	2	2	2	2	2
8	2	1		1		
Split	2					
Total	30	16	13	8	6	5

NOTE: Distribution is by number of teachers teaching at each grade level.

For example, of the 5 teachers that represent staff allocated to Special Education current to this study, 2 teachers are experiencing a change in teaching assignments. As well, within the final sample, 5 out of 6 represent a change in teaching assignments for the data gathering year. It should be noted that 16 out of 30 positions, or approximately 50% of staff are undertaking changes in teaching assignments at this time.

Teacher Responses about Types of Changes Related to Program and Focus

Data is presented in this section that fulfills two strands of the research question: first, program and focus; and second, types of changes.

Program and Focus

Data about program and focus emerge from the context analysis within the category of planning. The following elements that the teachers express as common to elements of program are discussed through vignettes, or direct quotes.

Board Guidelines and Long Range Plans. When planning for new curriculum, all teachers in the Final Sample initially refer to the Board's curriculum guidelines for that subject area and/or grade level. They state that they draw up Long Range Plans at the beginning of the school year, based on their knowledge of the Board guidelines. Each teacher's Long Range Plan mainly lays out themes and monthly timelines. A variety of formats and organizational structures are used, from flowcharts, lists and charts, to separate sheets for separate themes. The teachers also hold differing views about the development and use of their Long Range Plans: Bev and Claire use the plans of other teachers as ongoing references:

And then, I actually do my Long Range Plan as I go along...I use the samples [of Long Range Plans from other teachers] for planning of what I'm going to be doing....(Bev, focussed interview, 1,3-04.21)

When I was doing occasional stints, I'd be working from other people's long range plans, and that was excellent. I'd take a look and

see what they did, and oh, that works well, that looks good, that's easy, that's concise. Actually I picked up some ideas from doing that. (Claire, final interview, 6-06.10)

Mary and Laura see the plan as a flexible guideline:

Long Range plans to me are something that I do because I sort of feel that they should be there, but you know, they're a guide, and if I feel I want to make lots of changes, and usually I do....(Mary, focussed interview, 1-04.29)

In fact, in my first year, I didn't have any long range plans, until all of a sudden it was my evaluation and the Vice Principal said, "So tomorrow I'd like to see your long range plans." And I went, " Oh no!" So that's why I'm sort of doing them in August...One thing that's happened this year is I'm behind in my long range plans, but they're supposed to be flexible....(Laura, focussed interview, 1,4-05.06)

Tom prefers to move from a general thematic plan to more specific needs:

Your long range plans eventually have to be tailored to the students. But, the planning that revolves around one scope, that revolves around themes, I don't see any reason to change the themes... at least in September, I wasn't worried about making rapid changes until I got to know my kids. (Tom, final interview, 2-06.25)

Ed uses the curriculum guidelines as an organizer for his plan:

It was my first year, so I went through the curriculum and put down the core subjects, or the core topics that we're required to do and try to space them out so that I got the right timing according to them. (Ed, focussed interview, 1-04.27)

Units. Using their Long Range Plan as a flexible guide, the teachers indicate that they pay attention to what they refer to as topics, units or themes, and plan

more specifically within these structures. A variety of strategies are employed for fleshing out the unit so that learning opportunities would take place in the classroom. Four teachers have their own personal processes for strategic planning.

Bev and Mary start out by brainstorming:

What I do when I'm preparing for a unit, is I make up the theme on paper, and I do all that stuff on how I can relate things, and then I take it from there. And then afterwards I transfer it to this... [emerging long range plan]. (Bev, focussed interview, 4-04.21)

I usually do a lot of personal brainstorming, and I have a big sheet in front of me, and I web it out myself, put the topic in the centre..I talk about introduction, how I'm going to stimulate the class to get them into this particular unit, and my method is usually the same, I mean, give or take a little bit. (Mary, open-ended interview, 8-02.06)

Tom uses past curriculum experience as an organizer:

I mean, the way I do things is I would pick a theme, and you plan it really roughly and then once you've got those ideas, you try...And, in curriculum planning, I was part of Partners in Action, and ... being part of the Partners in Action curriculum group, got me, sort of helped me advance in my unit planning. (Tom, focussed interview, 3-04.30)

Laura synthesizes information from various Board guidelines:

I always look at, the first page in mine is how many minutes I'm supposed to be doing with each subject. Then I look at the Board's suggestions for topics, and this Board doesn't really provide much of a skills continuum, but I've looked at old documents and sort of got an idea of what sort of skills need to be covered at this stage. (Laura, focussed interview, 4-05.06)

Bev, Mary and Tom use board planning templates to develop their units, and samples of these units are kept on file by the researcher.

As well, Claire and Ed state that they rely directly on the Board guidelines, which gives them strategies that are specific and practical enough to apply directly

to the classroom:

One way I was doing it for awhile was, I would list the topic and then any resources that I knew existed already, and I'd write that beside it, and then another one was I would just put out a whole grid for the whole year, each month, and then just put down what I hoped to accomplish in that month, or every six weeks, for that matter, for a unit. A lot of the stuff I used was very practical in the [new] course. (Claire, final interview, 1,2-06.10)

The curriculum was a big help. It's really set out quite well. As far as progression of lessons, materials you will need, the objectives of the lesson and that sort of thing. They give you - there are four themes that you have to do. (Ed, open-ended interview, 5-03.11)

Five teachers indicate an unsureness about the pacing throughout a new theme. They know generally where they are headed, but are unsure about how long it would take. This is especially evident with Bev, Tom, Claire and Ed, who are all experiencing new grade assignments:

I can't do thematic units on every single thing we do just because it's impossible and I'm working as much as I can right now, and so I'm trying to do a good job with some of them, and next year I can extend into other areas. And it is taking us quite long to do these units, too.... (Bev, open-ended interview, 2-01.14)

...even now, you know, my plans are not complete... I still spend about ten hours a day at it, and, you know, by the time you're catching up on the daily stuff, there still hasn't been enough time to do all the long range planning...I was trying to get around to it and nibble at it every once in a while, but I wouldn't say that I've had the time with, to do the job I'd really like to do. (Tom, focussed interview, 19-04.30)

...I had no idea how long, really, everything would take. The outline said that should take one period, that should take two periods, and so on; and of course when I go monkeying around with changing it too, everything took a lot longer than I thought. (Claire, final interview, 2-06.10)

...for the first one, it took longer than I thought it would. So we're not going to have as much time for the last one [unit] as I thought we would. But I followed the same order that I set out at the beginning... I think that when you start anything, the timing will be the main thing

that you're going to screw up. (Ed, focussed interview, 2-04.27)

Four teachers also draw upon resources that they already possess, as well as past experience. For example, Bev and Tom adapt previously planned units:

You start getting comfortable as the years go on and then you have lots of units already made and kind of extend from that, right? When you're starting off with the beginning of a new program and everything is so new to you, you don't have things to fall back on....(Bev, open-ended interview, 1-01.14)

Well, for instance, in language arts right now, I plan to do the Read All About It with TV Ontario as a visual model. That's going to accommodate a lot, a whole range of interests. I've done this before with the kids and it seems to really work...(Tom, open-ended interview, 20-01.16)

Mary refines a process to suit a variety of planning needs:

I guess just that -- pulling a unit together today, after seventeen years of experience, you know --you learn a few short cuts. You learn that you can use that same process whether it's a topic on plants....And it's not just sitting down from scratch. It's --you have all that background experience that you can pull ideas from. (Mary, open-ended interview, 14-02.06)

Progress with the newly-planned units is monitored in different, informal ways. Bev writes profuse notes:

Oh, it's all written down, and I make changes too. Often I will think of something else that I never thought of before - the children will, and I just write that down, so it's all written...I write in my daybook. If something's not working I write that down, or if there's a better way to do it I will write that down. (Bev, open-ended interview, 14-01.14)

Mary reflects mentally:

So I make these little mental notes to myself so that I can not only look back and evaluate it sort of mentally, myself at the end of it; but, at a quick glance, next year or whenever I'm going to do it again, I can see what I did. (Mary, open-ended interview, 8-02.06)

Ed uses jot notes sparingly, as well as mental notes, "pretty well in my head":

Basically, just by noting in the curriculum ...how this worked, did I need any more time for it, was it worthwhile...And materials that are readily available, too..I try to make a list of what I need, what I didn't have for this year that I should order for next year...how they're working in groups...I don't go around with a thing checking these things off...any extraordinary things, then I make physical notes up. (Ed, open-ended interview, 13,14-03.11)

When commenting on what is used specifically to monitor their progress in a more formal way as they are implementing their units, none of the teachers make spontaneous reference to the Board's Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI) model, nor is the LOPI chart evident in their classrooms, although there is one chart posted in the school office. However, Tom is observed in his classroom one day making reference to the LOPI chart, and in a follow-up interview he states:

I have tried to use it (LOPI) as a guide. I know it seems to be de-emphasized but I guess the sheet itself was - the reason I was borrowing it was I was checking myself off to see where I stood on it. And I knew we used to do it as a staff a few years ago, and I wanted to see if there - if I'd grown at all from when I was evaluated four years ago. And I felt that I had, at least according to that continuum. I had moved much more away from the awareness and toward to renewal. I was implementing a lot of those ideas. And it was basically just - to touch base, that sort of thing. Tom, focussed interview, 11-04.30)

Tom also mentions that he had received the LOPI chart from Mary. Mary's response about the LOPI is similar to Tom's view:

Well, I realize that all teachers are at different levels in the continuum, and I guess we should keep referring to it to make sure we know where we are, and whether we're progressing on to the ultimate end of possible...it's where you are at the end of the chart and where you're going. ...it was truly a personal thing.....and of course there's always great mixed feelings about the whole thing because of people's backgrounds and how they feel about that, but anyway, I can't say I'm referring to it consciously all the time, but I'm aware of the different levels and where we should be striving to be. (Mary, final interview, 4-06.23)

It is evident that both Mary and Tom use the LOPI primarily as an occasional reference and check on their levels of progress.

When talking about direction, four teachers indicate that they do not think about where specifically they are heading next. Bev faces constant adjustments:

I like to know where I'm going and then I change as the week goes on. But I hate this day to day -- I can't stand that, it drives me nuts. I need to have some direction. (Bev, focussed interview, 20-04.21)

Tom expresses the need for guidance:

I'm using a lot of the sort of the library research skills and incorporating that into the language and environmental studies...but I really find there's a lack of guidance, and I really feel that there should be some more concrete, laid-out things. (Tom, open-ended interview, 7-04.30)

Laura states that she relies on "instinct":

You just go with what you've been given and take it as far as you can, I guess. (Laura, final interview, 6-06.22)

Claire assumes a direction alongside her students:

I think you have to be a good planner for a new curriculum...and even if you don't know all the answers, you can find them yourself, too, even if you're finding them at the same time they [the students] are. (Claire, final interview, 28-06.10)

As the teachers move through their units, they all state that they check for student interest, acquisition of skills, and consumption of time.

Focus. Particular to each unit, all teachers articulate areas of focus that fall into any of the categories of skills, content/knowledge or attitudes. Bev checks knowledge, and focusses on a skill for her own professional growth:

And lots of times too, what I do is I start off with brainstorming with the children to see what they do know and what they don't know. (Bev, open-ended interview, 4-01.14)

Usually I do start by thinking about what the objectives are in a particular unit, and some things that we could do, skills that I want

taken care of...I really feel this year I'm focussing a lot on the reading part of it, because this is new for me. (Bev, focussed interview, 11,19-04.21)

Mary and Laura focus on correlations between skills and themes:

And I usually do have my focus on a few things that I want to do. I might want to, say, introduce paragraphing in this unit, or a great time to do fantasy stories, or whatever... it depends on the unit, and what I feel lends itself to that particular thing.... (Mary, open-ended interview, 9-02.06)

I think some topics just naturally go with certain skills. ...But I do concentrations, like at one point I concentrate on drama skills, and at another point right now I'm concentrating on short story writing. (Laura, focussed interview, 5-05.06)

Ed focusses on changing attitudes:

I'm trying to get them back to thinking that [this subject] can be an enjoyable experience. I won't say anymore about that. That has been one of the biggest challenges this year...A lot of things, the hands on stuff - activities where they're not just you know, working in a book or something... It'll kind of build a little confidence in them, you know, that they are seeing some results from what they are doing and that you know, I concentrate on that quite a bit, because that was stressed for me - that that was a thing that I had to do. (Ed, open-ended interview, 10-03.11)

Throughout the process of planning program, five teachers mention that additional modifications involve changes in grouping, and accommodation of special needs students. Through Co-operative Learning strategies, Bev experiments with grouping:

...sometimes I'll regroup some children that have difficulty with children that are more capable, and they can help them out with it. (Bev, open-ended interview, 5-01.14)

Mary describes how she accommodates her students:

I have about five or six special needs kids in my room. They can't go through all the processes...they go through the processes but they...the expectations are certainly different for some of them, and some of the children cannot handle working in the physical set-up of the room if it's very noisy. And they won't request going outside to

work, in the hall, or in the library, or at a table that's set out from the classroom. So, there are those little accommodations that I have to make. (Mary, open-ended interview, 7-02.06)

The vignettes demonstrate that the majority of the teachers consider the following elements as common spheres of reference to their program: Board guidelines, Long Range Plans, units, and focus. More specific considerations at the unit level include strategies, pacing, directions, resources, past experience, monitoring, as well as program modifications.

Types of Changes

The types of changes experienced by the teachers are presented in the context of their classrooms, and in relation to the elements of program. Data about types of changes emerge from the content analysis of the interview transcripts. Teachers are consistent in discussing types of changes that they also indicate on the open-ended survey at the start of the study. Examples of changes common to the survey and the content analysis were all or part of: program modifications, grouping, new classroom or grade assignments, dealing with new curriculum, unit planning, specific themes, classroom management, co-operation, increased use of library, access to resources (materials and personnel). Changes also parallel the six conditions in the survey: schedules, introduction of units or themes, adjustment and extension of units or themes, strategies or approaches, use of space, and resources. These conditions are similar to what the teachers identify as elements within their programs, and therefore the changes evident in the data can be seen as related to program.

Types of changes that teachers choose to engage in are deemed by the researcher to be **planned**; whereas, changes that are dealt with as part of the spontaneity of related classroom activity are deemed as **incidental**. Both planned and incidental changes are contextualized as **internal** and **external** to each teacher's classroom. This configuration is displayed along the horizontal and vertical continuums in Figures 4.01 - 4.05. The types of changes represent the range of changes across each of the contexts determined by the four quadrants, and each change is not necessarily common to all teachers in the sample.

In each Figure that follows, quadrant one presents types of changes that are planned and internal to the classroom. Quadrant two sets out changes that are planned and include a context external to the classroom. Quadrant three deals with changes that are incidental (unplanned) and internal to the classroom and quadrant four with changes that are incidental in a context external to the classroom. The changes within each category are discussed in terms of their arrangement within the quadrants, and affirmed through relevant quotes by the participants.

Scheduling. In Figure 4.01 changes that are planned tend to be connected to the logistics of timetabling and schedules. For example, Claire bemoans the little opportunity she has to get to know her homeroom students (quadrant one): "Sometimes I don't see my kids for more than forty minutes a day. They come, they go, they're gone!" (final interview, 22-06.10). As well, Laura states that the Partners in Action (quadrant two) is "a nightmare to schedule" (final interview, 1-06.22). All changes in the incidental quadrants (three, four) tend to be directly related to planning curriculum and programming.

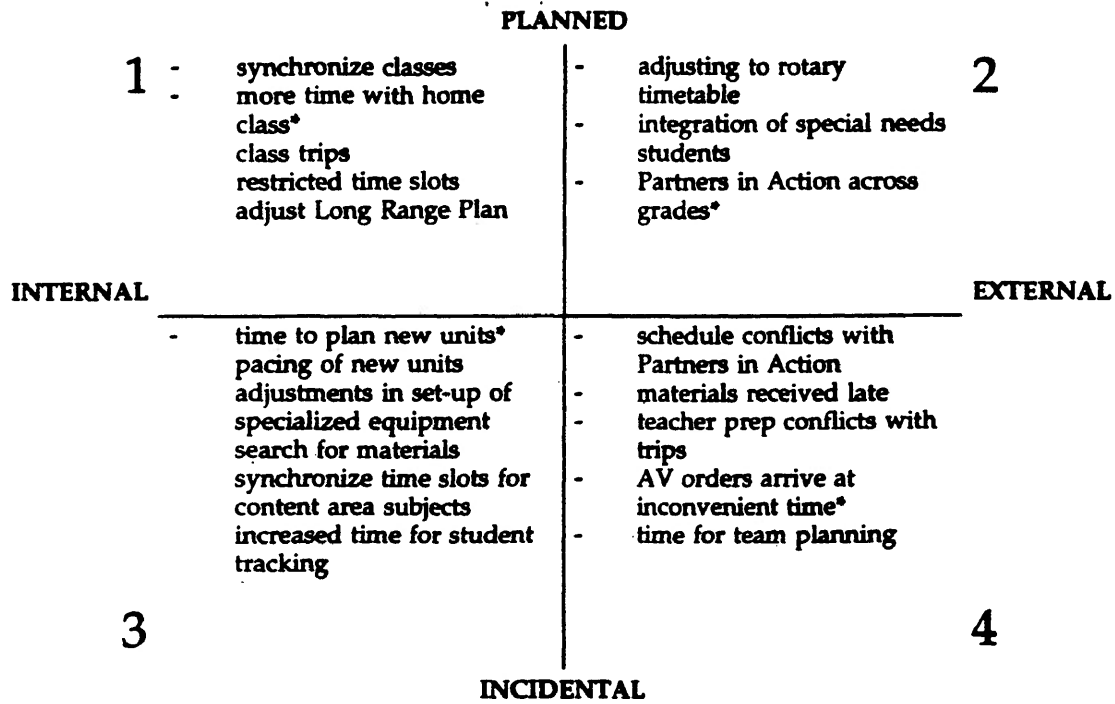


Figure 4.01 Types of changes the teachers experienced with scheduling.

Note: Items marked with * are discussed as vignettes in the text.

To illustrate, Ed (final interview, 10-06.17) exhibits frustration with the "hours and hours making the unit up" (quadrant three), and Bev prepares impromptu activities when a film order arrives at an inconvenient time (quadrant four): "I had no idea what this film was about...if they really seemed interested in it, and it was a good one, then we'd do some type of follow-up" (focussed interview, 22-04.21).

New units introduced. In Figure 4.02 most of the changes internal to the classroom tend to be related to long range planning (quadrants one, three).

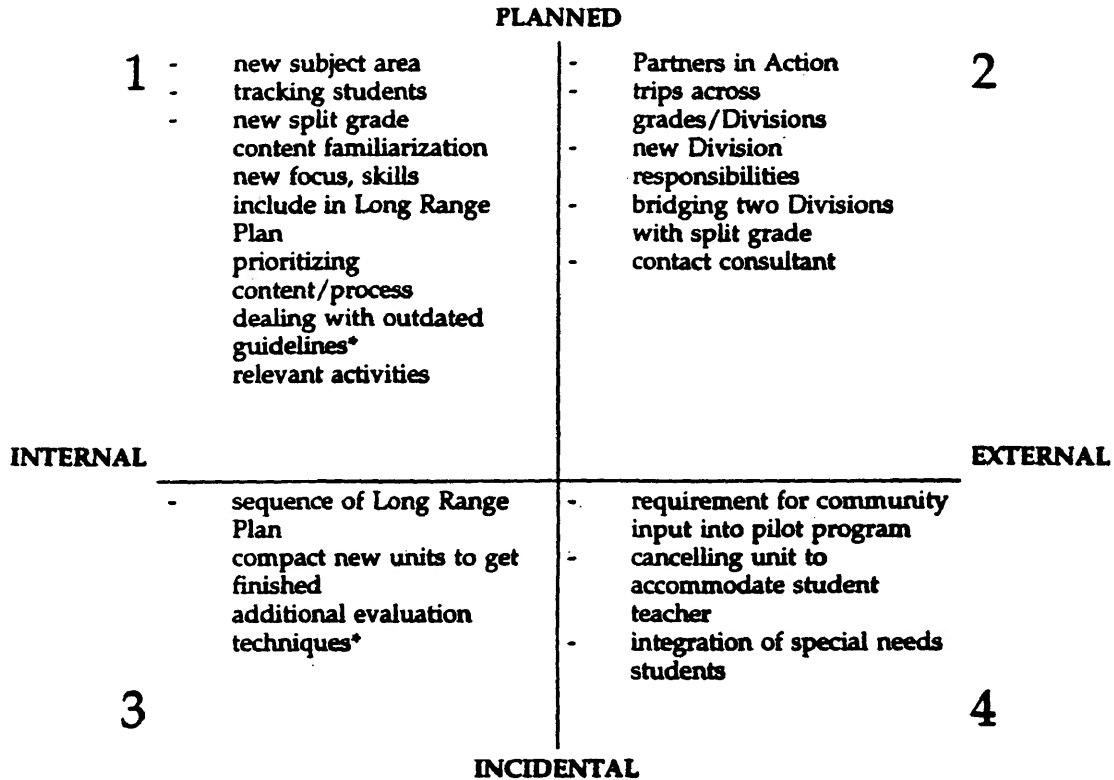


Figure 4.02 Types of changes the teachers undertook as new units were introduced.

Note: Items marked with * are discussed as vignettes in the text.

For example, Claire is faced with outdated guidelines (quadrant one): "It's about three hundred years old. That one is not updated and is not really wonderful" (final interview, 15-06.10). Bev experiments with new evaluation techniques in tracking the students' progress (quadrant three): "I tried doing it with a list on the board, or on the wall...and then they'd be making mistakes by checking off someone

else's..." (final interview, 2-06.17). External changes are varied and involve making connections with different groups of people (quadrants two, four).

Units adjusted/extended. All four quadrants of Figure 4.03 mention changes that address special needs students.

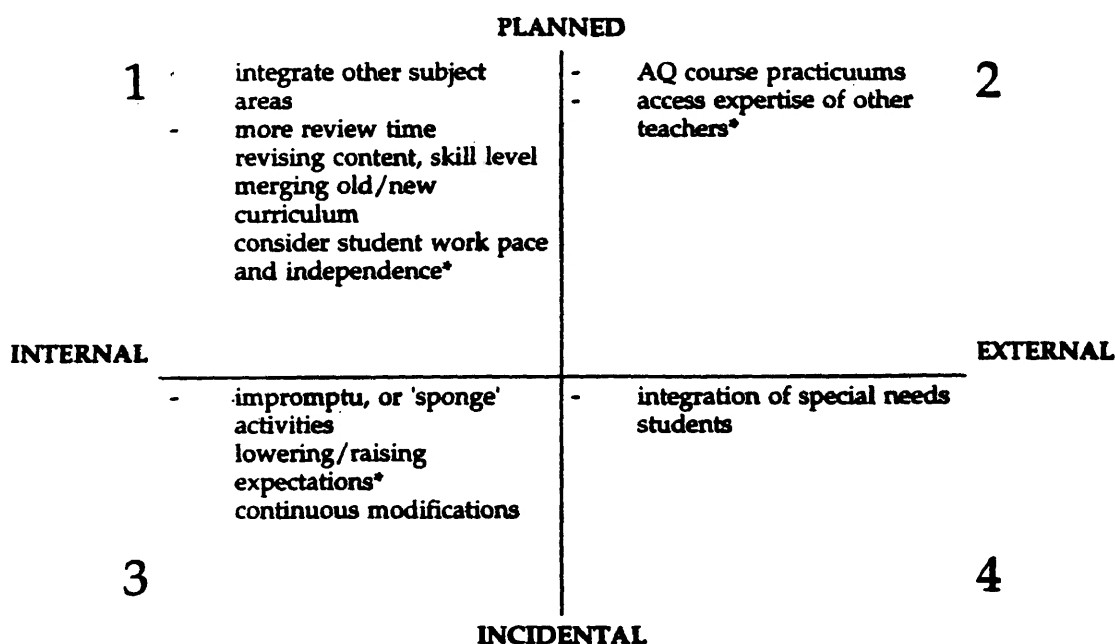


Figure 4.03 Types of changes the teachers undertook as units were adjusted or extended.

Note: Items marked with * are discussed as vignettes in the text.

Bev adjusts her reading program (quadrant one), "...trying to find enough on that subject that is for their level, and a variety of levels so that I can help the little ones having some difficulty" (open-ended interview, 15-01.14). Laura accesses the

expertise of another teacher through a Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) Unit, in order to set up smaller groups and serve the needs of special students integrated into her class (quadrant two): "You've got ten kids in there. You can give them individual attention. Plus one of the teachers is much more of an expert in this area, so just having her expertise has been great" (focussed interview, 3-05.06). Tom faces frustration with a new grade level of students during the first term in adjusting and lowering expectations (quadrant three): "... I'm, you know, also caught up in that conflict, and you don't want to bring them to tears and you don't want to drive them too hard" (open-ended interview, 19-01.16).

Strategies. In Figure 4.04 internal strategies tend to relate to new approaches and student contact, whereas external strategies are directed toward planning and teacher contacts.

Claire's changes can be traced through all four quadrants, as she tries new strategies. As a new approach, she allows more student choice (quadrant one):

And then they came up with some ideas and I took them to Don, and we incorporated not all of them but a little bit. And I think when they felt that we were actually listening to them...Well, we gave them more choices. (final interview, 19-06.10)

Student contact is a problem when fitting groupwork into restricted timeslots (quadrant three):

If we had a double period, it would be more productive. They just get started and it's time to pack up and away they go...they just get into their groups, by the time they've finished their tiny little bit of socializing;...and there just isn't time to get into anything. (final interview, 3-06.10)

She borrows ideas from other colleagues when planning (quadrant two):

When I was doing occasional stints, I'd be working from other

people's long range plans, and that was excellent. I'd take a look and see what they did, and oh, that works well, that looks good, that's easy, that's concise. Actually I picked up some ideas from doing that. (final interview, 6-06.10)

Teacher contact for team planning is restricted (quadrant four):

As always, there has to be time for teachers who team-teach to have to get together to plan it. Don and I plan in the hall. You know, how are you, I'm fine, what are we going to do today? (final interview, 30-06.10)

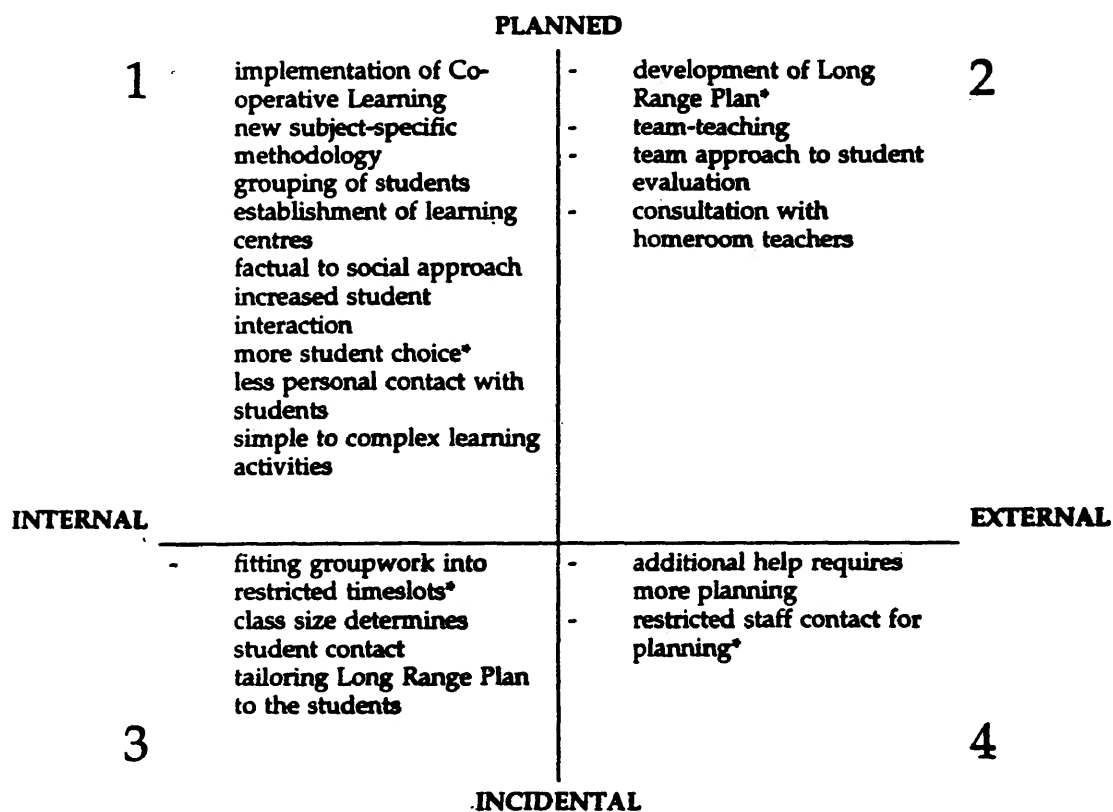


Figure 4.04 Types of changes the teachers carried out with regard to strategies.

Note: Items marked with * are discussed as vignettes in the text.

Space. Changes in the use of space are confined to the classroom and are not displayed as a Figure. Planned use of space includes adjusting for the use of specialized equipment, organization of supplies for a specialized subject area, or location in a new wing of the school because of a change in Division responsibilities. For example, Ed describes how he copes simultaneously with a hands-on approach, limited space for new equipment, and a restricted schedule:

...I try to set it up so that we can work on it and then take it down. But you can't, you just can't put it up and take it down, a lot of this stuff - you have to leave it up, ...The schedule just doesn't work that way, and it's unfortunate because it would make things a lot easier to have three classes of [the same] in a row.... (open-ended interview, 12-03.11)

Planned use of space is indicated also as part of methodology, as four of the teachers change their room arrangement two and three times during the school year. Diagrams of three of the classrooms support the data from the transcripts.

Bev plans for co-operative learning and centres:

...I would prefer a bigger room. I can't believe I'm going to be having twenty-seven children next year. Appropriate space, I think, for my type of room I need a carpet, and that you should be able to get any tables that you need, for the setting up of your classroom. (Bev, focussed interview, 21-04.21)

Mary plans for productive interaction:

So I decided to put a little bit of space between the kids, so I ended up, instead of having groups of four, groups of two..I didn't feel comfortable with the row look and it was too hard to do the activities and for the children to move about the room, so then I ended up having groups of four again, but we moved to the perimeter of the classroom and we left a big open space in the middle...and the children liked the change. (Mary, final interview, 5,6-06.23)

Tom focusses on class dynamics:

This week we changed the seating plan, arbitrarily on a whim of my own, and it was, I'd say I got, kids were, about three or four kids didn't like it and weren't impressed, the rest of the kids accepted it.

And some thought it was kind of neat. (Tom, focussed interview, 17-04.30)

Laura adjusts for effective instruction:

...for [one] unit I had it set up in two large groups where they were facing each other...for various activities we will either move our chairs or move our desks so we're facing each other. (Laura, focussed interview, 12-05.06)

Incidental use of space is reflected in Claire's approach to dealing without a home room, plus a new teaching assignment in two subject areas, and having to constantly change class locations:

I'm either in the Art room, Graham's room, or Don's room, or the Library...or the ...change room. Yeah,...twice we had to use the ...change room...I've got a box of stuff that I cart around with me, when I know I'm going to be in Don's room. (Claire, final interview, 29-06.10)

Resources. With regard to Figure 4.05, all teachers mention that they take on the initial responsibility for gathering, bringing in, collecting, organizing, searching for, and ordering materials and resources. For example, Laura indicates the efforts typical of this endeavour:

...I just kind of took things here and there and I put them all together, and..so that was one of the sample units from the Board, but some of the others, well, just simply, the photocopy is so bad you can't read them. So...and some of them again, there's not a lot of information, so I have to go searching for information...I would like a package of information. (Laura, open-ended interview, 6-01.30)

Human resources external to the classroom that are contacted include other teachers, the teacher-Librarian, consultants, and teachers from other schools with similar responsibilities. Bev illustrates how readiness is a significant factor leading up to consultation:

I like having professionals in like that....art, I wouldn't mind calling her in for some other type of unit that we're on. And I know the Co-operative consultants wanted us to call them, so I may..for

something. But I don't really want to call them in this year yet. I really wanted to try a lot of things on my own, and get a good feel for it. I didn't feel I was ready to have them in yet. (Bev, final interview, 8-06.17)

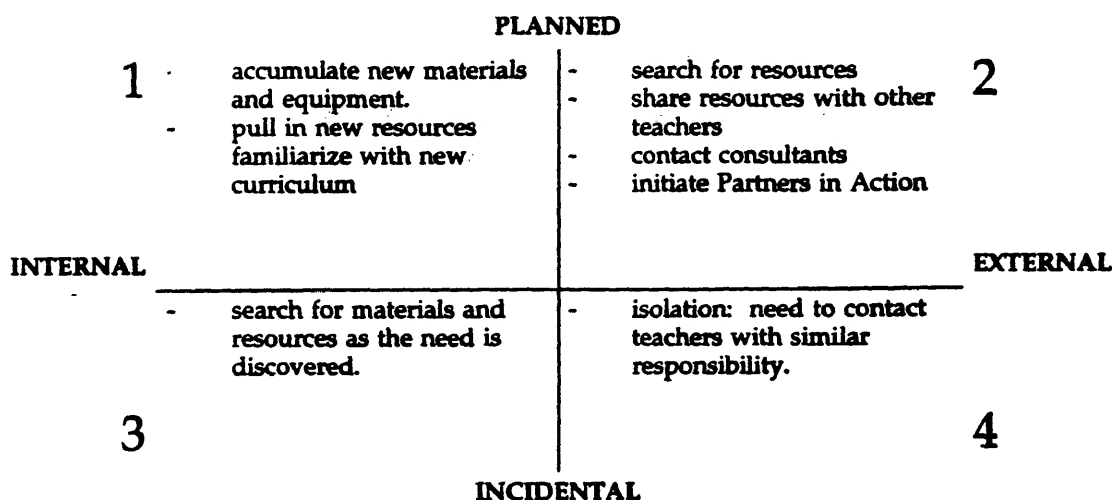


Figure 4.05 Types of changes undertaken by the teachers with regard to resources.

The content analysis on types of changes indicates that the teachers collectively experience multiple changes in six categories: scheduling, new units introduced, units adjusted or extended, strategies, space, and resources. A seventh category, personal changes, is discussed further in this chapter as types of personal and professional changes (Figure 4.06).

Teacher Responses about How They Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes

Data is presented in this section that fulfills two strands of the research question; how teachers prioritized and organized for change, followed by how their changes were carried out.

Prioritizing and Organizing for Change

Data about actions related to prioritizing and organizing emerge from the content analysis of the interview transcripts. The decision-making language of the majority (4 or more) of teachers across the final sample exhibits three strands of thinking that suggest courses of action: **structuring**, **shaping**, and **integrating**. The details within these strands that detail the types of decisions common across the majority of the final sample is found in Appendix A.12. These decisions are also supported by information from the field notes and samples of unit plans and daybook entries.

The structuring, shaping and integrating language is summarized in Table 4.05. "Structuring" encompasses organizational thoughts about the use of bounded entities. Specifically, the teachers structure the implementation of their innovations by referring to curriculum guides, units, plans, lists, groups, and time, as mental and concrete entities. "Shaping" includes talk about actions that bears upon the innovation as it is developed and carried out. Most of the expressions are analytical in nature and 'shape' in whole, or part, the progress of the change. The teachers,

therefore, shape their change efforts by focussing, adding, deleting, highlighting, separating, working out ideas, switching, as well as setting parameters for expectations, direction and assessing.

Table 4.05. Summary of Teachers' Decision-Making Language

STRUCTURING	SHAPING	INTEGRATING
looking at curriculum guides	expectations	collecting resources
topics - considering, picking, finding, writing down themes	direction	learning - along with the kids, as I teach it
units - establishing, making, taking, buying	focus	skills, cognitive areas
following same order, format, process	pick and choose	modify, give individual attention
rough plan - mental, sketch, update, as I go	switching, reorganizing, juggling	extend, accommodate range, supplement, change pace
listing needs	add and delete	combine
how to approach differently, activity	put aside - forget about it, skipped stuff	connect - relate, tie in
setting up - centres, situations, taking down	highlight - sections, the meat of it, what was important	adapt, adjust
grouping regrouping, co-operative learning	separating - no overlap, put it away	transfer, use in another unit, situation, time
time in advance, took longer, spending a lot, did right away	working out - keeping track, what works, what doesn't	incorporate
look at - samples, class, curriculum, resources	assess the students - what they know/don't know, suitability, identify	other people - ask, talk to, discuss, work with, get stuff from
		research - read up on it, know content, dig for information
		thinking it through - mental notes, objectives, personal feelings

The language about "Integrating" represents the types of decisions that bring together elements that make the curriculum change balanced and whole. For example, collecting resources, researching and learning new content, and talking to other people serve as a check on the appropriateness and base of expertise.

Considerations related to combining, connecting, adapting and transfer add meaning and relevance across the teachers' learning and teaching experiences. Modifying and extending represent decisions that are directed at the particular needs of all students.

Carrying Out Change

The teachers' language related to carrying out change emerges through personal statements about (a) preference, (b) practice, and (c) impact on practice.

Preference. Five out of the six teachers exercise personal preference as they prioritize, organize and carry out changes. For example, Bev and Claire act on personal interest:

I guess, just whatever seemed to appeal to me. It seemed interesting for kids...I don't know what I did. Yeah, I think what I thought would be interesting for them. And maybe different, like I wouldn't want to do the same type of thing every time I was doing a unit. I like the different ideas. (Bev, final interview, 9-06.17)

I guess it's my own personal feeling on what's important. This is what the Board thinks is important, and if I have to narrow it down within a time frame, then I look at my own personal feelings on things;... And just things I feel socially would benefit the kids. (Claire, final interview, 23-06.10)

Mary explains a personal preference that is related to her own professional growth:

I always like to try one new thing that I haven't worked on, say, either for a few years, or haven't worked on at all. And although I've

had a little bit of exposure to that I just figure I might as well, I try something new.... (Mary, open-ended interview, 3-02.06)

Personal preference is supported by Tom as a teacher's "style":

...like everybody has a different style and a different strong suit....they can be themselves, they can teach their style. And I think it's run into a lot of problems with forced change, at least, even if your evaluation every four years you have throw together the semblance of you 'doing the right thing'. (Tom, focussed interview, 11-04.30)

Practice. From the context analysis within the category 'Decision-Making', the teachers talk about the decisions they make with regard to initiating change efforts, and how it eventually leads to adoption or non-adoption in their practice. The language of all teachers in the final sample, as well as the outliers (data from the other six teachers that are put aside) takes the form of personal statements that fall within definite patterns of connected thought. These patterns are realized through statements that express concerns or conditions of **belief, intent, need, attempt, and practice**, as displayed in Table 4.06.

Verbal language related to **belief** takes the form of expressions such as: "I like/feel/think"; to **intent**: "I want to/hope to/would like to/I'm going to"; to **need**: "I need", "you have to"; to **attempt**: "I try to/have used"; and to **practice**: "I did/do/will do/not do/make/look at". Although these statements are not always articulated in the particular sequence from belief to practice, the patterns can be traced through the interview data not only for one isolated innovation, such as co-operative learning, but also for multiple changes undertaken by any one teacher. Table 4.06 displays the statements of three respondents, Bev, Ed, and Laura, as they express carrying out change, or the belief/practice pattern during the implementation of co-operative learning. As well, statements are also provided for

an additional change effort by Laura with regard to Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982).

Table 4.06.

How Teachers Expressed Carrying Out Change

Bev: C.L.

Ed: C.L.

Laura: C.L.

Laura: P in A

BELIEF:

I feel that I've always been doing CL...I just think that they're learning more from each other when they're in a group.

I think that the CL one ...is something you're able to take back from there and apply immediately. And they made a good point, too. We took four days to do that.

...the research shows that many students are much happier and less stressed if they can work with a group or a partner.

I think....it's nice also to get other teacher's feedback on the students and see if you've got the right idea about them.

INTENT:

I'm going to put them into groups, and rotate through the groups...When I was picking things I was adjusting it by seeing whether it would be a good idea to use CL to do that particular thing.

[I will continue] if the kids seem to respond to it. And if they don't respond to it, there's no sense in doing it again.

Sometimes it ends up with a perfect partnership, and hopefully, they're realizing that this is working even though it's not their friend. Maybe a little while down the way they'll start choosing people that are just good to work with...

...there were a couple of things that I would like to have changed... I switched all my order and the end of the year I'm doing again a Partners unit with a different person..I had no idea I was going to be doing all this partnering...

NEED:

There was one thing I was forgetting a lot of the time, was to do that 'identity' part of it...and then I realized that I needed this little identity thing...

If you want to go back and do things in the classroom as far as curriculum goes, then they have to train you thoroughly, and it gets so frustrating when you go in and they give you all these great ideas, but they don't give you the pitfalls about them. they don't teach you how to use them. They say, here are the ideas - go back and do them.

And the fact that we actually tried CL together and it worked. Although I'm always a little leary about that because things work very well with teachers and not always so well with students...You have to lower your expectations a bit...it's nice to know what kind of group you're getting...

The resources, I think, that...we need access to them... it's got to be easy to schedule, or else I'm not bothering.

(table continues)

Bev: C.L.**Ed: C.L.****Laura: C.L.****Laura: P in A****ATTEMPT:**

I just try to get them involved...and I try not to make a big issue of it...I try not to give them their roles before, because they all want to be recorder.

We're not in formal groups in this class, but we have used techniques, mixing the groups up, developing new groups, instead of having one group for the whole year ..so when we use a Co-operative strategy, we usually develop new groups each time.

So, at that thing, I thought well, I'll not try [paper crumple] with this group again, they can't handle it.... And so I've been trying [groups] and seeing really good results, especially with poor readers, or just poor students.

I might try it again if I saw some changes... So this next unit...there's three teachers dealing with thirty kids instead of three teachers dealing with sixty kids....

PRACTICE:

And I'm now using the roles. That way everybody's active...Recently we just did this, which was researching symbols of Easter...

The jigsaw work - we used that in our [class] this year...we did that last week, where there's an inside circle and an outside circle and they have thirty seconds or something to respond to a question and they switch.

We do a lot of group reviews for instance...you have the two circles, and they're facing each other, and then one circle only moves, and you keep asking the questions.

...and the marking, I'm collecting it as the group leaves, so I'm not leaving it all to the end like we did for the [other] unit.

Note. C.L. = Co-operative Learning

P in A = Partners in Action

Impact on Practice. Five teachers in the final sample had attended co-operative learning institutes by the end of the data gathering year. They comment on the impact of this innovation on their practice as they carry it out in their classrooms.

For example, Bev draws a comparison between theory and application:

I just thought it was excellent because they give you ideas right then that you could use the following day, and they had you go through it. You're not just sitting there listening to some old lecture about things. They gave you the things to take right into the classroom to do, and you had already tried them out yourself.... (Bev, final interview, 4-06.17)

Laura assesses the benefits for both teacher and students:

And so I've been trying it and seeing really good results, especially with poor readers, or just poor students...it doesn't even have to be pairing up with a strong student, just somebody else there that they can ask questions to. It reduces my workload, because they're not all coming up to me and asking. (Laura, focussed interview, 7-05.06)

Ed also affirms co-operative learning as immediately applicable:

I guess the most influential would be co-operative learning. The one I did last year. There was a four-day workshop that was really quite in depth and the people who were doing it were excellent. ...Quite a few techniques that I learned in that I use...I think the co-operative learning one is specific, is something you're able to take back from there and apply immediately. (Ed, focussed interview, 8-04.27)

Three of the five teachers mention that they feel they have actually done

co-operative learning before, only did not realize that the process is termed

'co-operative learning':

I feel that I've always been doing co-operative learning, but I never really gave them roles. And I feel that it's great. And I'm now using the roles. (Bev, focussed interview, 14-04.21)

I had done a fair bit of co-operative learning in the class already with different strategies, and some of them I didn't even realize they were actually called co-operative learning and that indeed had been. (Mary, focussed interview, 9-04.29)

...I try to use it a lot...the co-operative learning techniques. Interesting enough, I think I was probably using some of them before, not knowing what they were called. But now I find having gone through the proper workshop, things that I found a problem before, I have some tools to fix them up. (Claire, final interview, 11-06.10)

Teacher Responses Regarding How They Relate Personally to Professional

Change

A set of changes emerges from the content analysis that does not fall within

any of the six conditions in the open-ended survey, and are not directly related to program and focus. Instead, this set tends to depict professional changes that are personally oriented. Figure 4.06 displays these as types of personal and professional changes.

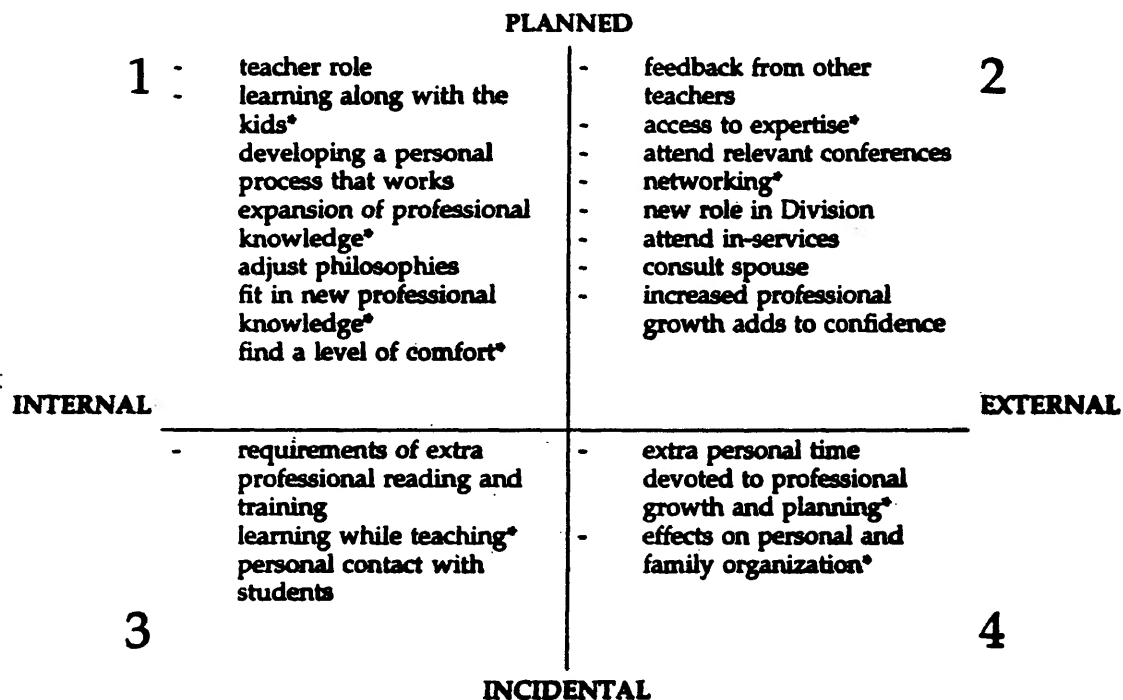


Figure 4.06 Types of personal and professional changes that were experienced by the teachers.

Note: Items marked with * are discussed as vignettes in the text.

Several of these changes interface with the data from the context analysis, and will be discussed as part of the following presentation:

Data about how the teachers relate personally to professional change emerge from the context analysis through four categories of talk: (a) student-teacher

relationships; (b) the teacher as learner; (c) the personal dimension; and (d) perceptions about change.

Student-Teacher Relationships

The student-teacher relationship surfaces as a category of talk with regard to two conditions: (a) gauging the success of the change, and (b) determining the teacher's role during a change effort.

Gauging success. When talking about the effectiveness of their changes, all of the teachers state what they do, or could do to ensure success of their efforts, in the context of their relationship with and knowledge of their students. For instance, Claire stresses relevance:

...I think it's really important to plan it so that it's interesting to the kids,...I think it's important to try and make it as pertinent to their lives as possible. So I try to pick things out of the curriculum that would suit the kids. (Claire, final interview, 8-06.10)

Mary emphasizes a basic knowledge of children:

You have to be aware of what they're capable of doing and then the typical responses...You have to be aware of the stages of development, or you may set yourself up for kids just not being able to cope.... (Mary, final interview, 13-06.23)

Teachers' self-evaluation of the success of their change efforts as carried out at the program level centres primarily around the affective progress and feedback of the students. The comments of all of the teachers refer directly to student excitement, enjoyment and motivation. This is illustrated in how Mary and Bev assess their experiences with co-operative learning:

...both Marion and I were totally amazed at how well it worked for the very first time, because neither of us had done this exact type of

thing before. The kids seemed to really enjoy it, and you know, the fact that we threw in a little skill, like learning how to blow up a picture from a book,...just sort of was the icing on the cake for them. (Mary, focussed interview, 12-04.29)

I try to get some evaluation from them on what we've done and how we've done it. And they're pretty honest. And they did like the co-operative learning. I asked them specifically, you know, "what did you think. This was done differently -- did you like it?" And they loved it. (Claire, final interview, 22-06.10)

As well, Laura provides an affective reaction about Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982):

They like it...They'll come back and they'll say, "Oh we did this here", and "this class is really fun", or they'll say, "look how much work I did in this class." And Terry has been telling me they've been coming up in the year to her and talking.... (Laura, focussed interview, 14-05.06)

Tom and Mary respectively mention the importance of getting "into their heads" and "seeing what makes them tick", and thereby getting a feeling of success from the success of the students. Tom explains how progress and a relationship is developing with students as part of a new teaching assignment:

Well, that depends, I think it has a lot to do with working as a group with the class, feeling that we're in synch, having that sort of, that sort of feeling that everybody is, you know, not everybody, but the majority of them are excited learners and they're all feeling successful and when they feel successful I'm feeling more successful, and I get a lot of my feeling from them.... (Tom, open-ended interview, 19-01.16)

Mary remarks that the students are "very vocal about changes I might make", to the point where serious consideration takes place about the success of her teaching preparation and practice with that class:

I found out that at least half of my kids, if they had a choice, would not come to school. So, it really bothered me, because I've spent so much time trying to make this an interesting place, and you know, to find out they don't like it...After talking with one other teacher about, I decided that maybe I should really put a lot of work to these kids -

this is your work (laughs) - this is what you have to accomplish before you go home today, and make them realize how great this class was before. I don't know, I really haven't come to grips with that yet,..because uh...I was kind of, you know, moved by it all. (Mary, focussed interview, 24-04.29)

In addition, Laura and Ed comment on student response as related to their own feelings about their efforts:

I'm enjoying it because I find students basically enjoy it. They enjoy learning these new facts, and they really enjoy things like projects and designs. (Laura, open-ended interview, 11-01.30)

Well, number one, if the kids seem to respond to it. And if they don't respond to it, there's no sense in doing it again. I guess, whether they seem to learn something from it, get anything from it. (Ed, focussed interview, 9-04.27)

Determining the teacher's role. With regard to role definition, also presented in Figure 4.06 (quadrant one), four teachers out of the six describe changes in their role when faced with a different age group as part of a new teaching assignment:

Bev moves from observer to participant:

...I like being with the older kids because of their independence and creativity...I'm sure they're very happy that I'm participating in a lot of things with them, when I go to gym, often I play with them. And often, I think they see that I have fun...that makes them comfortable when I'm not always just standing and observing and directing. I'm often involved. (Bev, focussed interview, 15-04.21)

Tom adjusts from facilitator to overseer in order to provide more structure:

I think my role will be to be an overseer with the editors....I'll be the person with the checklist, and I'll be the tracker. I'll be the leader in so far as planning the ideas...I mean with other classes, they get so inspired that they've been able to just even come up with ideas I hadn't thought of. With this group, less capable, I think that's going to require a little bit more teacher involvement to produce something that's acceptable. (Tom, open-ended interview, 21-01.16)

Claire foresees increasing importance as a caregiver:

Sometimes I guess I'm their mother (laughs). Oh gosh, that's really

hard...yet it shouldn't be hard...I try to see where they're coming from as people...So I just try to interact with them as I would my own kids, I guess at home...it's hard, though, when you don't have them for a long period of time during the day. That's one thing I really miss...You don't get to know them nearly as well. You don't have the same personal interaction with them. (Claire, final interview, 21-06.10)

Ed foresees increasing importance as a counsellor:

I guess...you're trying to guide them...I try to help them co-operate with other teachers, they see other teachers aren't the same...As sort of an intermediary, keep track of what they're doing in other classrooms. I guess they're sort of like your kids. They become, they're your kids, and what they do reflects on you. (Ed, focussed interview, 14-04.27)

Apart from those undergoing a grade change, Mary anticipates a role change from lecturer to facilitator as part of planning an introduction to a new unit of study:

My initial work with this unit going back as I said several years ago, was basically, stand in front of the class, and this is a little lesson, and I did the experiment, the kids watched, and...now what I will probably do is set up some learning centres and have it as an active learning type of activity where the kids are going to be more involved, and I'll play a lesser role by just being there with the things they need to help with the experimentation and direction. (Mary, open-ended interview, 3-02.06)

Teacher as Learner

When dealing with new curriculum, the majority of respondents indicate that they learn right along with their students, of taking one day at a time. (also in

Figure 4.06: quadrants one, three). Two cases in point are Bev and Laura:

Now see, I've still got a lot of learning to do. I don't have all my units made up. I've been taking one day at a time so..the children want more. I'm enjoying it, and it's just growth for me, too. (Bev, open-ended interview, 7-01.14)

I certainly learned a lot this year because ...I've been looking at total new units, so I've had to learn it before...I've learned it as I've taught it...Your ability to wing it... (Laura, final interview, 3-06.22)

Laura also remarks that increased competence is marked by the ability to "wing it".

The majority of teachers record their own progress by noting, either mentally or in written form, what is working and what isn't. This internal monitoring process is exemplified by Ed:

... I'm learning a lot of this stuff along with the kids, and I learn it and then I try to get it through to them the best I can, so I guess you can say I'm a learner that way. I'm also learning how to teach it, learning what works and what doesn't work, and that sort of thing. (Ed, final interview, 3-06.17)

Learning styles of the teachers range from individual to interactive. Laura tries to compensate for her learning style when implementing co-operative learning:

Personally, I'm an individual learner. I've always liked to, as a student I've always like to do things on my own. Even as a teacher, I've always preferred to do things on my own. But the research shows that many students are much happier and less stressed if they can work with a group or a partner. And so I've been trying it and seeing really good results, especially with poor readers, or just poor students. (Laura, focussed interview, 7-05.06)

Conversely, Mary interacts with both personal and professional resources:

I guess I continue to read, to read professionally. Personally, I enjoy meeting people that are going to be able to give me more ideas, whether it be in my school life, my work life, my personal life, and I guess I tend to focus around those kind of people that are continuing to learn themselves. (Mary, final interview, 12-06.23)

The majority familiarize themselves with new curriculum by reading up on it, or by looking at guidelines and resources, as indicated earlier in their 'structuring' language. Other approaches are more unique to each individual. For example, Bev is concerned with a method that would give her access to the 'how' (also in Figure

4.06, quadrant two):

I wanted to go and observe a grade__ teacher. Actually I did. There was someone else that I wanted to see but I didn't get to go. I wanted to go and see Frank. I need to go and see him again beforehand...observing others that have the philosophy. (Bev, focussed interview, 25-04.21)

Bev also expands her professional knowledge through her own collection of professional literature (Figure 4.06, quadrant one):

That Reading one, it really helped me on my language program and being able to give them a full language program. [Without the literature] I think it wouldn't be as full. I'm not sure I'd have all those ideas, myself. Especially coming into a grade you've never worked with before. ...that helped me out a lot by looking at that, and also getting to know my kids. (Bev, final interview, 11-06.17)

Similarly, Mary and Ed, as interactive learners, network with other teachers (Figure 4.06, quadrant two):

And then I think you have to talk to other teachers who have experimented in that particular area, and see what their successes have been, what their failures have been, and maybe why. (Mary, final interview, 13-06.23)

We did talk to somebody else about what they were doing....and, you know, where do you get this sort of thing. You know, you're sort of in isolation when you're in a school...things like that I think it would be more worthwhile talking to somebody that's doing the same thing you are. (Ed, focussed interview, 10-04.27)

Laura, the individual learner, stresses the need for time (Figure 4.06, quadrant four):

I would like time. Like, I would like the summer to know about it. ...Then I'd possibly be visiting Queen's library,...I need a big picture... (Laura, final interview, 20-06.22)

Claire points out the importance of reaching a personal level of comfort (Figure 4.06, quadrant one):

I feel most competent when I actually have time to go through that as if I were one of the kids, and I did that for some of the things, but

some of the things I just didn't have time for. And I wasn't finished doing it and they had to start. You know, because it's all brand new to me. So, certainly, if I'm familiar with the material to the point of feeling like I'm an expert at that so I could talk about it very comfortably, without having to look at notes, or textbooks, or anything else. And there were times when teaching the ...curriculum when I did not feel I was in that position. (Claire, final interview, p. 27-06.10)

Tom transfers professional knowledge from a different life experience to an area of the curriculum that is new to him (Figure 4.06, quadrant one):

I also think life experience is- so often will translate into how you set your curriculum. And, again, with this [new unit], my experience running a [business] gave me a sort of insight into advertising and marketing. And so, I sort of gave that more emphasis than most ..teachers would, simply because it was a life experience that made an impression on me and those things really shape curriculum. (Tom, final interview, 9-06.25)

Personal Views

Personal views are explored mainly through responses to the question in the open-ended interview: What are your personal feelings about this change?; along with probes in the subsequent interviews. By their comments within this category, the six teachers reveal a range of emotions and attitudes in their personal make-up that set the tone in the adoption of their changes. For example, Tom and Ed are resistant:

I think it's extremely stressful...I don't think it's doing my health any good...I don't think that a person can continue doing, in the front lines year after year. (Tom, open-ended interview, 22-01.16)

At the beginning I had to be shoved into it. Once I'm there, I'm happy...You know, that's the way I am at home, and that's the way I am at school... I didn't know what it was about, or I didn't know how I'd like it, so I didn't try it. I'm not a risk taker.... (Ed, open-ended interview, 16-03.11)

Bev is cautious and apprehensive:

I was so scared, when, I just felt like I didn't know what was going on in the summer time, there. I was just, I don't know, I just wasn't sure what to expect...This makes me a little bit uncomfortable this year, because I don't know exactly, right? (Bev, focussed interview, 20-04.21)

Laura is selective and critical:

...I sort of have a one-track mind... I have to do it well, or I don't want to do it. (Laura, final interview, 10-06.22)

Claire holds an open opinion:

It hasn't frazzled me...I guess I'm fairly relaxed, even at the beginning I don't pretend I'm something I'm not... this is who I am, this is the way I am, this is the way I want to run the program, and I hope we can run it this way cause I find it a much more comfortable situation. I try to be just myself. (Claire, final interview, 21-06.10)

Mary is receptive:

I don't have great problems with change...I think it's stimulating for me, and stimulating for the kids, and I just don't like doing the same thing all the time. I like change, actually, and I think it's important for my growth as well as for the kids. (Mary, open-ended interview, 13-02.06)

The teachers' personal feelings toward the educational purpose for their changes are translated into different emphases. Tom challenges expectations:

I really resent the fact that, with all the other things that I have to do, I'm expected to prepare curriculum, when we've got fifty consultants working for this board...we've got OISE, we've got the Ministry, we've got all these people, that aren't in the front lines, and we've got more experienced people, that, they don't even have to invent it, all they have to do is find out where in the world it's working best, and buy it.... (Tom, open-ended interview, 23-01.16)

Ed searches for a sense of fit:

If you can manage, you can always adapt yourself to the curriculum

and whatever it is, but if you don't get along with the people, if you're unhappy coming, then you'll be miserable. But as I said, I fit in with where I like a good number of the people and I seem to fit in with what they're doing. (Ed, open-ended interview, 15-03.11)

As one of the associate teachers in the school, Mary adapts to program

interruptions:

...especially when you have changes that are taking place kind of, without a lot of warning ahead of time. I didn't know I was going to have this girl [student teacher] until, oh..just prior to March Break. I was asked if I would take her. So you do have to remain flexible and open to modifying the program and making some changes when necessary. (Mary, final interview, 1-06.23)

Claire focusses on social issues:

...It really boggles my mind that in this day and age there's still some really stereotyped ideas...I want to get them to be more open-minded and have a better understanding just of where people are, and to look at them in a more humanistic way of thinking. So, basically I'm aiming at a much more socialization of their attitudes. (Claire, open-ended interview, 2-01.13)

All participants in the final sample state that change efforts become part of their personal life beyond the regular school day (Figure 4.06, quadrant four). There are differing degrees of how this is handled and to what extent change efforts influence the organization of their personal time. For example, Bev uses personal time to read professional literature:

It's usually during the summer. Because I take courses and everything during the winter, there's just no time. So it's during the summer. (Bev, final interview, 5-06.17)

Tom and Mary search for a balance of personal and professional time:

...The [_____] Board is misguided in the sense that's to say that teachers should be curriculum designers at the same time, because I don't think that people with families have the energy to do it, and the time. (Tom, open-ended interview, 8-01.16)

To me, it's not a big issue. I know when enough is enough and my own life as to sort of take over, but certainly a lot of my personal

time over the years has been spent in classroom activities and improving the quality of time that I will spend with the kids. (Mary, final interview, 4-06.23)

Laura's comment is typical of all teachers in the sample:

I spend most evenings, yeah, marking...this year I've been better at planning next day here before I leave, but it's a lot of marking. (Laura, final interview, 11-06.22)

In addition, referrals to family and family roles are significant when the teachers' professional experiences are accommodated by aspects of their personal lives. Ed is one of four teachers in the initial sample who seek feedback from their spouse:

I probably wouldn't have taken the step had I not been asked. I probably still would have been [other Division] because I don't like change, and ...my wife keeps telling me I'm very happy when I know what I'm doing and where I am, and change to me is scary, so that's why I stayed at one school for fifteen years. (Ed, open-ended interview, 1-03.11)

Claire draws parallels with her own children:

So I try to just interact with them as I would my own kids, I guess at home...I try to look at them as people who come from problems, within the school problems, and I know if my kids at home are acting really off the wall, there's usually a really good reason for it. (Claire, final interview, 21-06.10)

Perceptions Related to Change

Metaphorical expressions from the content analysis illuminate the perceptions that the teachers hold related to their change efforts. These metaphors reflect the more connotative meanings behind the teachers' talk, and form patterns of thinking across the sample that are phrased as **challengers**, **progressors**, and **organizers** directed at change. Figure 4.07 presents these metaphorical language patterns, as

well as the particular nature of expressions within these patterns.

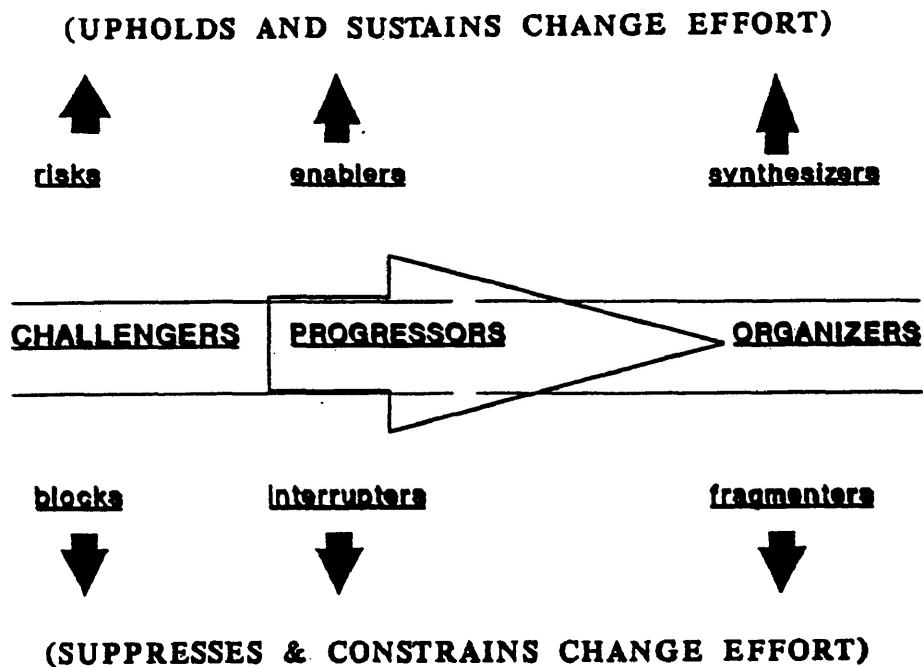


Figure 4.07. Metaphorical language patterns related to the teachers' change efforts.

On one hand, **risks**, **enablers**, and **synthesizers** tend to depict forces that uphold and sustain change efforts. On the other hand, **blocks**, **interrupters**, and **fragmenters** tend to describe forces that suppress and constrain the efforts.

Challenger. A challenger statement represents a teacher's perception of a condition that makes an impact on situational information that calls for a change effort. These conditions are perceived either as risks or blocks. For example, a challenger that is a risk is expressed by Ed as "this looks really dry" (open-ended

interview, 4-03.11). Although this is Ed's first impression of a new curriculum, he does go on to take the risk and work his way through it. A challenger that is a block is perceived by Ed as a "bomb" or "pitfall" (focussed interview, 12-04.27), and is grounds to discontinue the effort.

Progressor. A progressor statement represents a teacher's perception of a condition that makes an impact on the pace or movement of a change effort, from its initiation to its implementation. For example, Claire describes her effort at proceeding with new curriculum in terms of an enabler, "jump right in and do it"(final interview, 7- 06.10). However, she also relates through an interrupter, how the students "flying in and out" (final interview, 30- 06.10) breaks the flow of her program.

Organizer. An organizer statement represents a teacher's perception of a condition that makes an impact on the integrity or completeness of a change effort. An example is given by Bev, as she describes, using a synthesizer, the "common thread" (open-ended interview, 11- 01.14) that holds her planning together. In contrast, Ed describes scheduling difficulties that break up his planning with a fragmenter, stating that his classes "get out of synch" (focussed interview, 5- 04.27).

To provide a more complete picture of the depth and breadth of their metaphorical language patterns, vignettes of three teachers follow:

Laura tries Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) Units for her first time:

challenger:

block: It was a **nightmare** to schedule

progressor:

enabler: Your ability to **wing** it.

interrupter: It just sort of **faded** off and we never did finish it.
 organizer:
 synthesizers: I'm **building** units up, collecting resources

Mary introduces co-operative learning to her class:

challenger:
 block: It's such a **heavy** topic, and there's so much reading...
 progressor:
 enabler: we decided six different areas...that we would like to **tackle**...
 interrupter: I think you have to make yourself available to try some of these things...[instead of]...got my head in **the sand** type of attitude...
 organizer:
 synthesizer: It's sort of **implanted** a little more than just having it written down in a book...
 fragmenter: it's easier to learn in a whole rather than separate little **parcels** of information...

Tom faces a new age level and new curriculum expectations:

challenger:
 risk: If I go much further I'm going out on a **limb** too far...You don't want to be **out of step**.
 block: We're a **loose and sinking ship**, and we've got to start filling in the **holes** with... some mandatory skills ...
 progressor:
 enabler: I'm looking to see, you know, **lights come on** in their heads, and you see if they're having success with what they're doing.
 interrupter: I was trying to get around to it and **nibble** at it every once in a while...
 organizer:
 synthesizer: It has a lot to do with working as a group with the class, feeling that we're in **synch**...
 fragmenter: Everything seems to be part of a whole and everything seems to make some sense, rather than working at putting one piece of the **puzzle** together and not knowing what the **puzzle** is going to look like...

Aspects of the metaphorical language patterns hold true for the outliers as well as the final sample.

Teacher Responses about Personal and Professional Positions on Change

Generalized statements about the teachers' positions on change emerge from the context analysis and are found to be inherent in five categories of talk that centre on: (a) reflection, (b) curriculum theory, (c) professional development, (d) givens, and (e) beliefs.

Reflection

Reflective comments fall within a response framework developed by Surbeck, Han and Moyer (1991). Table 4.07 illustrates the framework and examples of the types of responses contributed by the teachers that tend to fit each category.

Reaction. Reaction responses are positive or negative expressions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the way the teachers themselves are initially coping with change. Report statements reveal neutral facts about self- or student progress; whereas, personal reaction range from feelings of success to apprehension.

Elaboration. Elaboration responses are mostly concrete, detailing many aspects of the program, with reference to two initiatives, Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) and co-operative learning. Comparative statements tend to be directed toward units, approaches, and social skills as carried out within the classroom; whereas generalized statements tend to be observations about the students.

Contemplation. Contemplation responses represent a combination of reaction

and elaboration mainly as a professional focus, and are based on methodology.

Table 4.07.

Types of Reflections and Reflective Comments

REACTION:

- Positive:** -coming together a bit better
 -kind of got used to it now
 -got a routine that really works
- Negative:** -will not spend as long
 -isn't much of a way else
- Report:** -done the ground work this year
 -haven't done that before
 -students don't like to be changed, if they're comfortable
 -change my expectations
- Personal:** -totally amazed at how well it worked
 -changing is hard for me, would be a good thing
- Issues:** -----

ELABORATION:

- Concrete:** -Partners in Action
 -experiment learning centres
 -activities with trees
 -Co-operative Learning study strategies
 -looking for materials
 -Co-operative Learning writing groups
 -routines
 -Partners in Action:research
 -review of skills
- Comparative:**-one unit with others
 -social skills over the course of the year
 -old approach versus new Co-operative Learning approach for a unit
- Generalized:**-incredible that nine-year olds know all these things
 -identity seems to make a difference with some children
 -kidwatching as assessment tool

CONTEMPLATION:

- Personal:** -once I'm there, why didn't I do this before?
- Professional:**-responses to previous units
 -advantages of large group activities re: spec. needs
 -have tools to fix up grouping problems
 -advantages of a change of pace
 -random choice in grouping to avoid socializing
 -ideas better when shared with other teachers over years
 -using previous plan to extend future
- Social/Ethical:**-reasons why kids don't like school

Note: from Surbeck, Han & Moyer, (1991).

Curriculum Theory

When responding about their knowledge of curriculum theory, the participants refer to reading lists of experts at education courses, standardized tests and subsequent data, Board curriculum guidelines, publications by teacher federations, Board directives for implementation, resource collections of professional literature, and Master's programs.

The six participants are split three/three when offering opinions, beliefs and concepts about the theory-practice connection. One group expresses theory as enhancing practice. Within this group, Mary's comment is most comprehensive on how theory must make sense to the practitioner:

Well, I guess the whole language theory certainly makes sense from all the courses I've taken. It certainly makes sense I think, to take one topic and pull as much from it as you can and do as much as you can across the curriculum.... You can usually adapt it to art and creative ideas, and to me it makes your planning make sense....Yes, in the things that I agree with, or I feel is applicable to me and my situation, in my class at the time. (Mary, focussed interview, 17-04.29)

The other group expresses theory as misrepresented in practice. These teachers generally state, as does Laura, that "theory doesn't always work out in practice" (focussed interview, 9-05.06). To emphasize this point, Tom offers a more in-depth rationale:

I guess I have a fear. I think that the theorists tend to - they become very opinionated and they're promoting something that they - the line between scientific research and subjective opinion is often blurred with educational theory. A lot of the stuff happens and tends to get passed through the pipe not necessarily, uh...it doesn't really seem to have convincing results.

...I think that often, the powers that be buy into things prematurely, that you have to give it more time in the research stage ...I do see a lot of the 'Emperor's New Clothes' happening. You look at the king

and he's not wearing a thing, and everybody applauds him cause you think he's got the best set of clothes going. I think that happens in education too often. There's too many yes men and not enough people who will stand up and be able to say, you know, call a crock a crock. (Tom, focussed interview, 11-04.30)

All five respondents who attended co-operative learning institutes integrate theory with practice. Laura captures the perceptions of the other four teachers with her comment:

Well, the research they quoted about how a lot of people learn better if they don't have the stress of being on their own...and the fact that we actually tried it together, and it worked. (Laura, final interview, 10-06.22)

These teachers reiterate throughout the interviews that they can take back the ideas behind co-operative learning and apply them immediately with a measure of success.

Professional Development

Most frequently mentioned across all respondents as being influential in the adoption of innovations in the classroom are workshops, presentations, in-services, and contact with other teachers in an area of interest. Specific reasons are unique to each teacher's needs, but generally suit four criteria: (a) choice, (b) applicability, (c) access to people and (d) access to materials.

Choice. The notion of choice is exemplified by Mary's recollection about receiving a smorgasbord of ideas:

When she was our Board consultant she did something that I thought was really really good...She took a grade a year and focussed on all aspects of that grade, everything from language arts ideas to organizational tips, resources, and throughout that year she would just fire to the school whenever she had time, a new unit on

something that might be related to the reading materials or language arts materials that were available from a new publisher, and I thought they were really terrific because they covered things across the Board, curriculum-wise. (Mary, focussed interview, 15-04.29)

Similarly, Laura recommends autonomy of selection, but from an approved guideline:

I think it should be really specific, but something you don't have to follow. But I think it should be specific just, especially for a new teacher. A new teacher comes in, without - they don't know a whole lot. You can't learn it all in one year of teacher's college. And unless it's there, laid out, you've got somebody doing this, and somebody doing something totally different.... (Laura, final interview, 15-06.22)

Applicability. In addition to the co-operative learning institutes, all teachers see professional development as offering ideas immediately applicable to their practice.

Having attended several workshops during the year, Bev explains what is effective for her:

I really like workshops. And I like the sharing...I like things to be well written out for me. I don't want just a theory listed. I like it to be explained well and examples - that's the type of learner I am. so that way, workshops and sharing through booklets or whatever. Writing everything down more in depth instead of just listing something. (Bev, final interview, 12-06.17)

On the other hand, Ed illustrates what is ineffective for him:

They put it on the overheads and you're sitting back there in a hot warm room, and you're going to sleep, and they go through it... Sure, it's a wonderful work, and they made it really dry and boring. (Ed, final interview, 12-06.17)

Access to People. All of the teachers mention that contact with other educators represent a solution as to the 'how' of implementation. In particular, Tom and Ed advocate different forms of networking:

What I should do is network more with people that know more than myself. And be a bit more free on the phone and be able to...talk to

people throughout the whole area because, I just-- everybody has got their limitations and you haven't got time to be an expert on everything, but I think we have an obligation to be able to know where to find out.... (Tom, focussed interview, 10-04.30)

Let the teacher develop it [curriculum]. Let them do it in their classrooms, and then, either have those teachers in small groups meet with other teachers, or have them go and look at what's going on in their classrooms. (Ed, final interview, 12,13-06.17)

Access to Materials. Statements across the sample indicate that the teachers feel the onus is on entirely on them to gain access to materials and resources.

Laura illustrates this continuous press for resources by her comment:

I think it helps if you have a good knowledge of where the resources are, and how to get them, and I think the more you're in the board, you learn about this area you can find things, or this expert and that kind of thing. Because that's my main problem, is resources. I mean, they hand you, they tell you to do this unit, but it's--and you could go to the store or whatever, and buy a unit, but there's never information with it. So, it's the resources, I think, that..we need access to them. (Laura, final interview, 4-06.22)

Givens

When talking about what they expect as givens when undertaking change, responses again target access to materials. The teachers also expect guidelines that are structured yet offer a choice from specific ideas. Ed provides a response typical of the teachers' position:

The curriculum laid out... more made-up units... Things that you can use... and you can pick and choose, but it's structured in a way that you can see how one thing follows the other, but that is-- a looser approach. (Ed, final interview, 11-06.17)

Claire illustrates the dilemma of the five teachers facing new grade or subject assignments:

OK, there should be all the necessary resources so that when the topic is approached, ...then there should be more than one textbook that has those issues dealt with. There should be enough resource material that I don't have to go scrounging around, begging and pleading and looking for enough resources so that the kids can actually do that unit properly. (Claire, final interview, 24-06.10)

Laura brings the issue to a head by stating, "we work with what we've been given....Why should we all be starting at zero?" (final interview, 5-06.22).

Statements of Belief

Beliefs brought to the change efforts centre on three themes: (a) teacher responsibility, (b) approaches to curriculum, and (c) students and their learning.

Teacher responsibility. Five teachers contribute beliefs about teacher responsibility that support the notion of a proactive role. Bev talks about gaining the readiness essential for doing an innovation on her own. Claire advocates being "top guy" when making curricular decisions about planning classroom programs (final interview, 24-06.10). Ed recommends following the models set by other successful teachers. Mary senses a shift in paradigm by stating, "I guess you just have to be open to wanting to try something different from how you've been doing things" (final interview, 13-06.23). Tom focusses on accountability:

I think that we're--if we don't start becoming more accountable, we're going to really run into a publicity fight or public opinion might turn against us. (Tom, final interview, 14-06.25)

Approaches to curriculum. The teachers' comments illustrate the unique perspectives that show a kind of transformational thinking behind the way each teacher shapes their own curriculum. Mary looks at different angles:

You'd have to look at it in a number of different ways, and I probably

wouldn't just abandon it, just because it didn't work out the first time. I think it would be interesting to see why and go at it in maybe a different approach another time. (Mary, final interview, 2-06.23)

Tom shapes his curriculum to experiences:

I also think life experience is--so often will translate into how you set your curriculum. (Tom, final interview. 9-06.25)

Laura and Claire shape their curriculum to their students:

Maintaining interest. It's important that the kids are excited about what they're learning. (Laura, focussed interview, 15-05.06)

...I think it's important to try and make it as pertinent to their lives as possible. So I try to pick things out of the curriculum that would suit the kids. (Claire, final interview. 8-06.10)

Ed creates a merge of the old and new:

There are a lot of good things about the traditional way of teaching, but there are also good things about the new way of teaching, sort of having a balance of the two. (Ed, final interview, 4-06.17)

Students and their learning. Claire and Bev offer beliefs about student

learning that affirm the advantages of groups and co-operative learning:

I think they learn skills from each other. And again it's a social thing. (Claire, final interview, 20-06.10)

I just think that they're learning more from each other when they're in a group. (Bev, focussed interview, 12-04.21)

All of the teachers express beliefs about student learning that focus on students' affective needs. For example, Bev believes in reinforcing a sense of readiness:

I think they need to know what they're doing before they go to it. (Bev, open-ended interview, 5-01.14)

Claire values a solid self-concept:

I think they need to learn that you don't need to have to be a sexual being every minute of the day (p. 20)...the influence you have on them at school gets undone when they get home... (Claire, final

interview, 9-06.10)

Tom aims for student responsibility:

...the theories of ...giving them ownership for a lot of their problems, and making them take responsibilities for what they are supposed to do - I really ascribe to that. (Tom, focussed interview, 14-04.30)

As a brief summary, general statements by the teachers that fulfil in part the principal research question about a personal and professional position on change, are inherent in five categories of talk. Reflective comments centre primarily on methodology. Comments about curriculum theory challenge the theory-practice connection in terms of applicability; but theory-practice integration was evident to the teachers who participated in the co-operative learning institutes. Comments about professional development emphasize teacher choice within professionally acceptable guidelines; as well as applicability. In addition, teachers indicate that they have to be responsible for accessing people and materials as resources. Comments about givens again emphasize that the teachers expect the right of choice over selection of curriculum ideas, and access to resources. Finally, statements of belief echo teacher responsibility for undertaking change. In addition, the teachers believe that approaches to the curriculum require engagement that transforms curriculum into relevant experiences; and that student learning is influenced by their affective and social needs.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion and Analysis of the Data

Environmental Concerns: Characteristics of the Site and Sample Related to the Research

Certain characteristics of the site and the sample are related to the research with respect to four conditions: (a) Board initiatives, (b) situational factors, (c) cultural norms, and (d) staff allocation.

Board Initiatives

The board initiatives at the site related to this study are the formation of School Growth Teams, various models of Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI) across several curriculum areas, co-operative learning and Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982). The organization of the School Growth Team was initiated by the Principal and was mandated by the Area Superintendent. As a result, the staff is being exposed to literature on change and collaborative practices, as well as a shift in the decision-making responsibilities within the school. Teachers who consented to participate in the study are those who are aware that change is an expectation and are prepared to consider and possibly act upon it.

The Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI) model is not being actively used

by staff as a guide for program change. As is the case in the sample, only two teachers perceive it as an occasional professional evaluation tool. Therefore, this lack of use determines the need for understanding how the teachers 'frame' their attempts at change in their classroom programs.

The Board's initiative on co-operative learning is gaining momentum, and teachers are experiencing effective applications in the classroom. This condition explains the consistency of the data emerging from five out of six teachers in the final sample who have been to co-operative learning institutes. As well, this initiative is current to the research study and represents voluntary information in terms of the teachers' choice of changes in their program. Co-operative learning is supported by the Principal and Vice-Principal of the school, and both administrators have recommended teacher-teams for the institutes.

A new teacher-librarian was hired during the year of data collection, with the intention of giving more impetus to Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982). This teacher actively influences teachers' choices of change efforts by soliciting planning time for resource-based units. All of the participants in the final sample are at any one time, involved in a Partners in Action unit with this person, this experience being new to three out of the six in the sample.

Situational Factors

Situational factors tend to shape the rhythm of the school year and the timing of the research process. Family crises, pregnancies, school maintenance, and events controlled and managed by parents all represent interruptions that directly

affect teachers' pacing, direction, decision-making, prioritizing, and hence, the quality of their programs. This particular school is characterized by a large subgroup of teachers nearing retirement, and another subgroup in the midst of family planning. The staff is very congenial, and therefore personal events are an integral part of the professional atmosphere. The researcher has to be sensitive to these conditions and conduct the data collection when the teachers are ready to focus on talk related to the study. As well, data of a personal nature may be influenced by these conditions when the teachers are translating feelings about change efforts.

Cultural Norms

Norms of privacy that determine meetings, conversation, planning, information distribution and teacher/teacher contact deem crucial the interview method of gathering data. The researcher abandoned the intention of taking field notes through observation because actions and talk related to curriculum is tacit and confined mostly to private planning or co-planning sessions. Printed materials from group meetings and staff communiques reveal scant data that relates directly to the research questions. However, print samples arising from the interviews and collected from the participants offer details and supportive data.

Decision-making norms about curriculum change are personalized and individualistic, and emerge from the interview data through participants' descriptions of their own processes and their references to co-planning.

Staff Allocation

Due to pregnancy leaves, retirements, and a declining enrolment in the immediate community, staff allocation results in major shifts each year. Sixteen out of thirty positions represent new teaching assignments within the school staff; eight out of thirteen in the initial sample, and five out of six in the final sample. It is possible that the 83% shift in the final sample may contribute to data on types of change efforts that would not be representative of the 50% shift in total staff. However, within the final sample, three teachers represent a shift to a new Division. One other person teaches a split grade, having previous experience in one grade; and another teacher now spends full time with one grade, shifting from a split. Therefore, other than facing the task of new curriculum responsibilities in a familiar grade, the allocation in the final sample actually represents 50% new assignments in the Division shifts.

The nature of the staff allocation at the site tends to be aligned with the general population shifts across the Board. Areas of massive suburban expansion, along with inner city and rural areas of declining enrolment are typical. Teachers are aware that new allocations are possible on a yearly basis.

Relationships Between Elements of Program and Focus, and Types of Changes

The elements of teachers' programs displayed in Figure 5.01 are common as referents to all participants in the final sample. Organizational and planning strategies within each of the elements are personal and unique to each teacher, and

represent one aspect of their personal views about curriculum change.

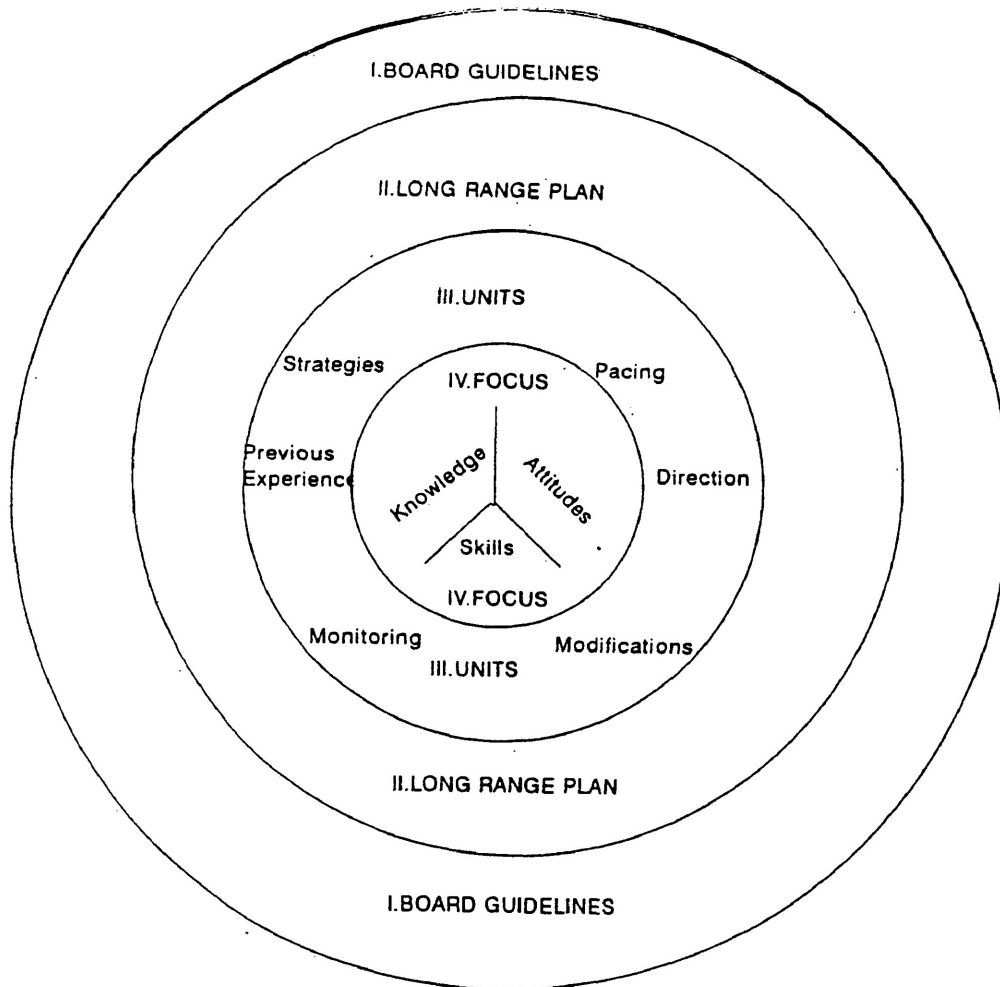


Figure 5.01. Elements of program.

Teachers move from general (I) to specific (IV) when addressing program, but also make changes within all elements while moving through the planning process.

Therefore, there does not appear to be an incremental direction to their planning.

Rather, movement is dependent upon many situational variables, such as readiness, comfort, experience, structure, complexity, and the nature of the class itself. All

levels of planning across the elements are narrated as being flexible and open-ended, and do not appear to have definitive outcomes. This is evident in teachers' comments about focus, pacing, direction and monitoring, and is linked in their talk through the notion of learning as they go. Their sense of focus is generalized, rather than an articulation of specific skills, knowledge and attitudes as student outcomes within a particular unit of study. This lack of specificity is implicit in Tom's and Laura's expressed need for a skills continuum or package of information.

The types of changes discussed through Figures 4.01 to 4.05 are found to be consistent categorically across the interview data; affirmed by the responses to the open-ended survey; and parallel to the six conditions in the open-ended survey and the Board's Policy on Teacher Appraisal. As well, these types of changes are integrated with the teachers' expressions of elements of program. However, each particular change is variant and not consistent for each teacher across the sample. To elaborate, the particular change required for dealing with outdated guidelines is unique to Claire and Laura, and not an experience common to all teachers in the final sample. The presence of an additional category, that of personal changes (Figure 4.06) affirms another aspect of the personal views about curriculum change, and is explained later in this chapter.

Throughout the study, it is found that changes that the teachers initially choose to engage in, stand to become either subsumed or split by the conditional and contextual factors. For example, new curriculum units that are initially proposed by two of the teachers never take place, due to other changes such as the presence of a student teacher, that influence the course of events within their program. As well, changes that are broad-based, such as dealing with a new area of curriculum,

or a new age level of student, also stand to become split and explode into additional constellations of changes within the conditional and contextual factors. Therefore, the graphic organization of the types of changes realistically portrays the status of the change efforts, once the teachers put them into practice.

The types of changes depicted by Figures 4.01 to 4.06 are summarized and presented in Figure 5.02.

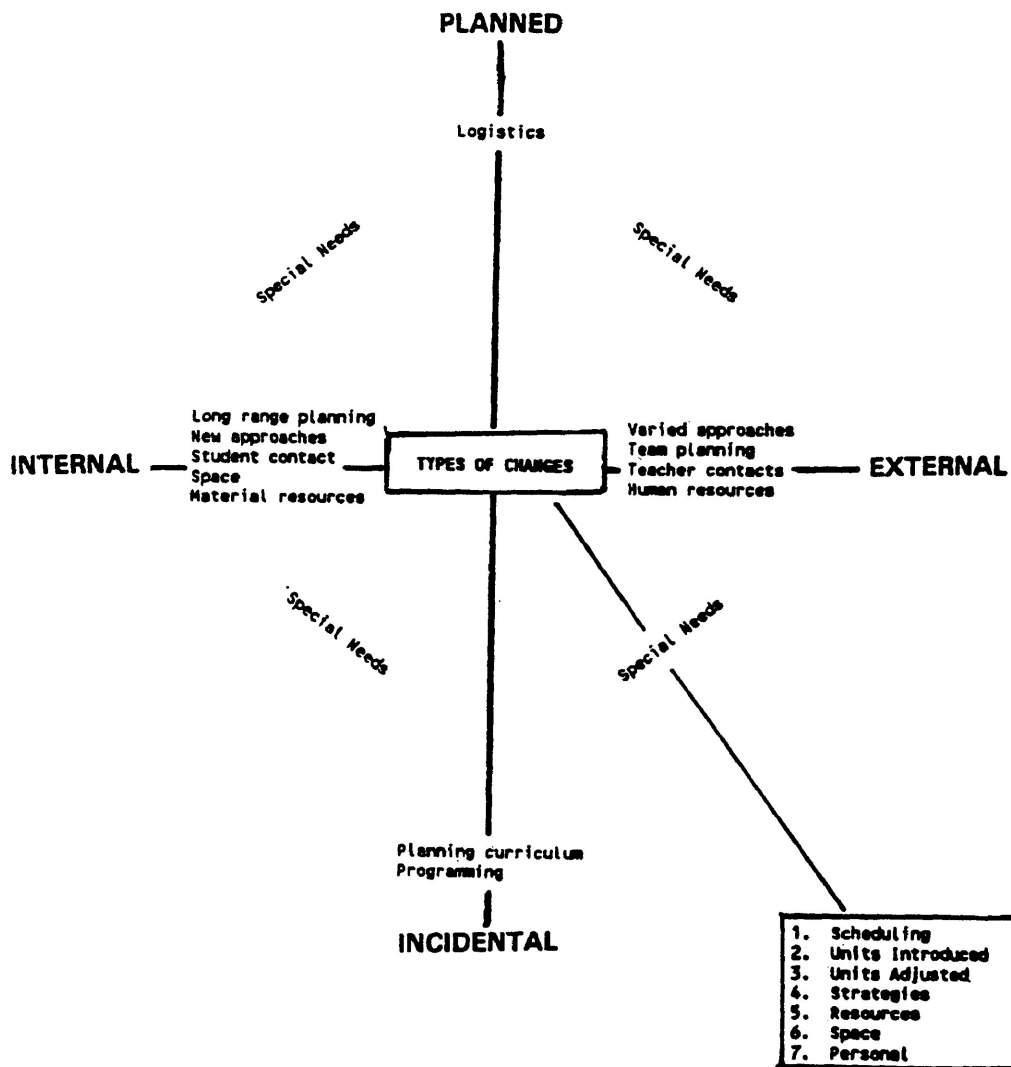


Figure 5.02. Summary of the types of changes.

This summary offers the range of multiple changes that are the realities of each teacher's classroom. It indicates that addressing special needs students is significant across all contexts and conditions. Strategies in terms of new and varied approaches are mentioned both internal and external to the classroom. Changes related to planning curriculum and programming are incidental, and may be due to the teachers' capacities for dealing with change itself. This perspective is decidedly different from a study that examines a single, planned change in a collective context.

The relationship between elements of program and types of changes is depicted by Figure 5.03, which in effect is an overlay of the two constructs, keeping in mind the notions specific to each. The principle underlying the representation is that the elements that the teachers deem as part of their program encompasses the types of changes that they experience, both planned and incidental, internal and external to the classroom. Figure 5.03 also forms the core of a conceptual framework that begins to emerge from the data analysis about the teachers' attitudes and positions toward change.

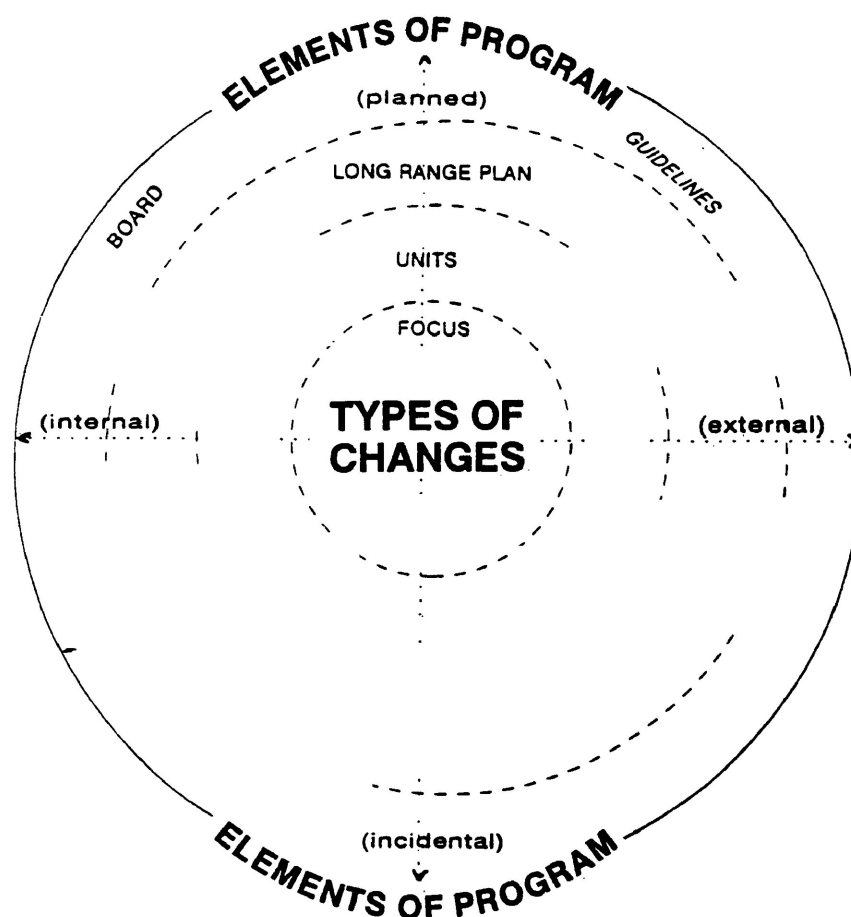


Figure 5.03. A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom.

Note. An overlay that depicts the relationship between elements of program and types of changes.

Aspects of How Teachers Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes

Data presentations about prioritizing and organizing are summarized and synthesized into the conceptual framework as a procedural disposition, collectively on the part of the teachers as they cope with change. Data about how the teachers' carry out change is summarized and synthesized into the conceptual framework similarly as a practical disposition.

The Procedural Disposition

Figure 5.04 presents the characteristics of the procedural disposition, as rooted in the decision-making language of the teachers (Table 4.05).

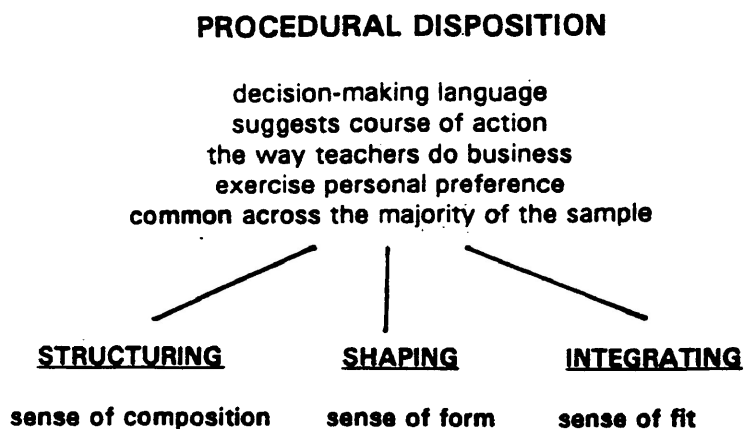


Figure 5.04. Characteristics of the teachers' procedural disposition.

The procedural disposition suggests courses of action that define the teachers' sphere of operations, or the way they do the business of their teaching. This disposition is comprised of decision-making notions that are common across the majority of the sample, although the teachers state that they exercise personal preference in terms of appeal, choice, teaching style, and extent of involvement.

The three strands of thinking--structuring, shaping and integrating, present central tendencies that define a sphere of operational strategies that teachers bring to bear upon their change efforts. Decisions that are structuring in nature use bounded entities and give a sense of composition to the change. This is most evident in Bev's process of structuring her long range plan around the samples of other teachers. Decisions that are shaping in nature analyze the process and progress of the change and give it a sense of form. A significant example is Claire, as she struggles to work through her new curriculum, picking, skipping stuff, jumping in, highlighting, and examining as she goes. Decisions that are integrating in nature attempt to bring balance and wholeness to the change, and ultimately, to satisfy a sense of fit into the overall program. Mary, Laura and Tom attempt to fit modifications that accommodate special needs students through changes in their curriculum related respectively to co-operative learning, Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982), and self-esteem.

The Practical Disposition

The data from Table 4.06 about how teachers express carrying out change, is summarized in Figure 5.05 as a practical disposition. The underlying principle of the practical disposition is that it is comprised of a pattern of personal statements that lead to the adoption (or non-adoption) of a new practice, as indicated by Bev, Ed, and Laura earlier. Comments on the impact of co-operative learning as an initiative lend theoretical coherence to the practical disposition, because it is evidence that affirms teacher beliefs, and their thinking processes toward

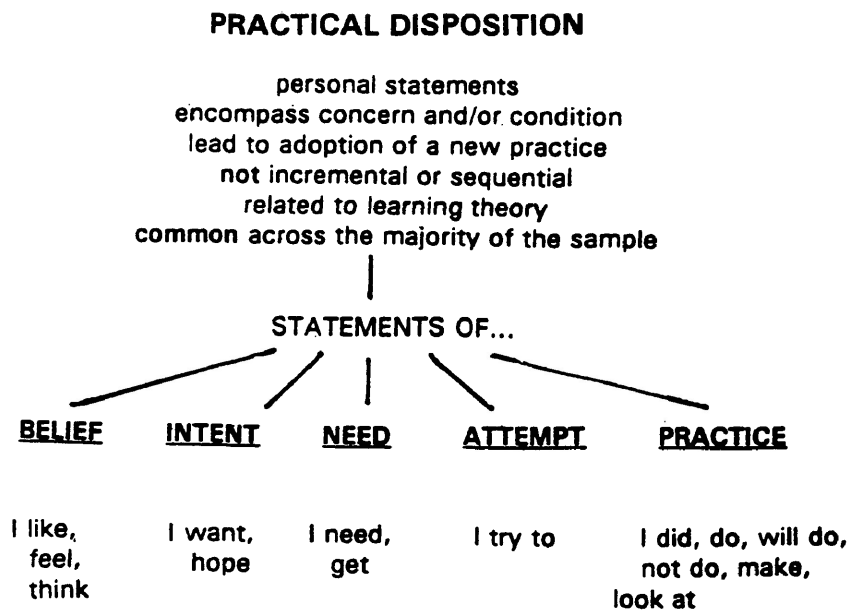


Figure 5.05. Characteristics of the teachers' practical disposition.

application of the change in the classroom. The nature of the statements encompass a concern and/or condition that the teachers bring to their efforts in dealing with change in their program. It is found that the pattern is not necessarily incremental nor sequential from belief to practice, at least in the way the teachers express themselves, although the types of statements are common categorically across the majority of the sample. The practical disposition as a belief/practice construct also bears resemblances to the CBAM Stages of Concern model (Hord et al, 1987). As well, it links to learning theories, which will be discussed in Chapter Six as part of the findings.

Although both dispositions essentially address how the teachers deal with

carrying out change, there is a distinct difference between the two that derives from the way in which the data emerges from the analysis. Data related to the procedural disposition is the result of the content analysis, and takes the form of procedural, or action-related language only. Data related to the practical disposition is the result of the context analysis, and is manifested through a category sort of personal "I" statements that form a meaningful pattern. In Figure 5.06, the types of changes are seen to permeate all elements of program, as it is graphically simplified to form the core of the conceptual framework. As well, the two dispositions are distilled and added, to represent how teachers pose action and personal meaning via common procedures and practice upon changes in their programs.

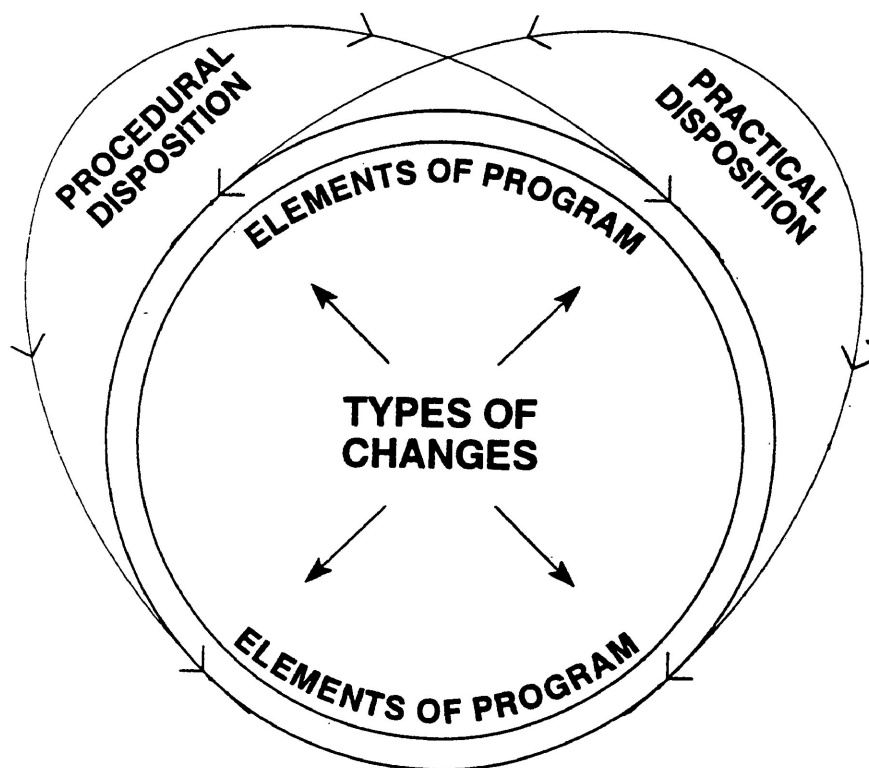


Figure. 5.06. A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom.

Note. Procedural and practical dispositions are added.

Relationships between Personal Views and Curriculum Change

Several aspects of personal views about curriculum change have already been discussed; namely, planning personalized strategies within the elements of program, types of personal changes as a change category, personal preferences as part of the procedural disposition, and personal statements that pattern meaning as part of the practical disposition. Additional data emerging from the context analysis lend support to the notion of a personal disposition among the teachers toward change. Yet another set of data distinguishes a perceptual disposition arising from the content analysis.

The Personal Disposition

A significant part of the data presented in Chapter Four refers to how teachers personally relate to curriculum change, and is summarized in Figure 5.07 as a personal disposition. The principle underlying the personal disposition is that it is idiosyncratic to the change process. In other words, the personal indicators that the teachers bring to each of the professional contexts bear such a complex and indirect relationship that commonalities across the sample were not evident. To elaborate, the teacher's role is contingent upon the student-teacher relationship, which, in turn, is contingent upon respective age, maturity, needs, personalities, learning situation, number of students, and more. The teacher's learning style is individualistic according to age, experience, schooling, preferred mode, and more. The teacher's personal life is translated situationally and contextually through the

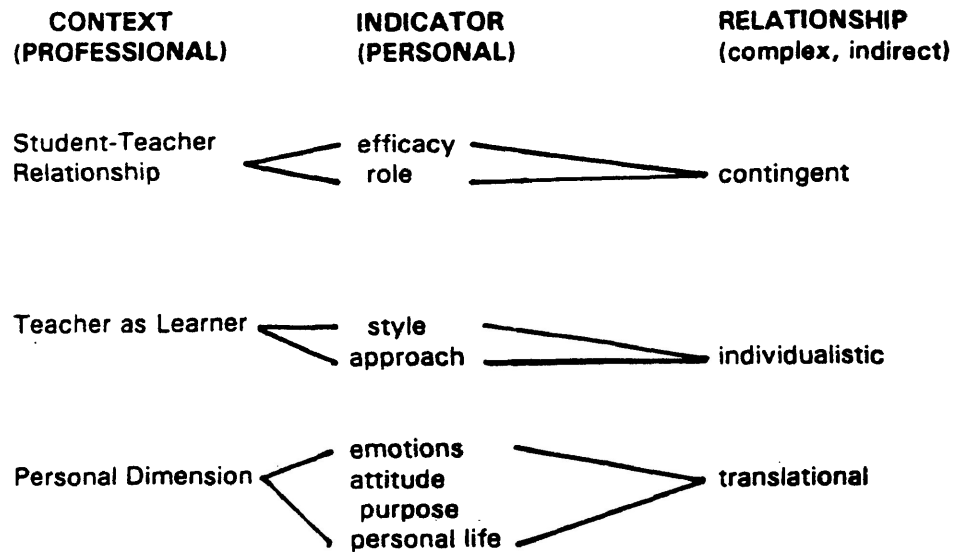


Figure 5.07. Characteristics of the teachers' personal disposition.

curriculum experienced in the classroom, and as Tom mentions, shapes that curriculum through the teacher's personal dimension. The personal disposition suggests strongly that there can be no complete separation of the personal and professional while dealing with change. An exception to the idiosyncrasy, is that regardless of style and approach, the teachers learn on the go during their change efforts. Most idiosyncratic is the translational relationship between personal views and professional change, which reveals unique interpretations by each teacher in the sample.

The Perceptual Disposition

The metaphorical language patterns categorized in Figure 4.07 about how teachers personally relate to professional change is extended theoretically in Figure 5.08, and is depicted as the teachers' perceptual disposition. Perceptual is used to mean the teachers' understandings, as expressed by their impressions formed through their mental grasp of the change situation.

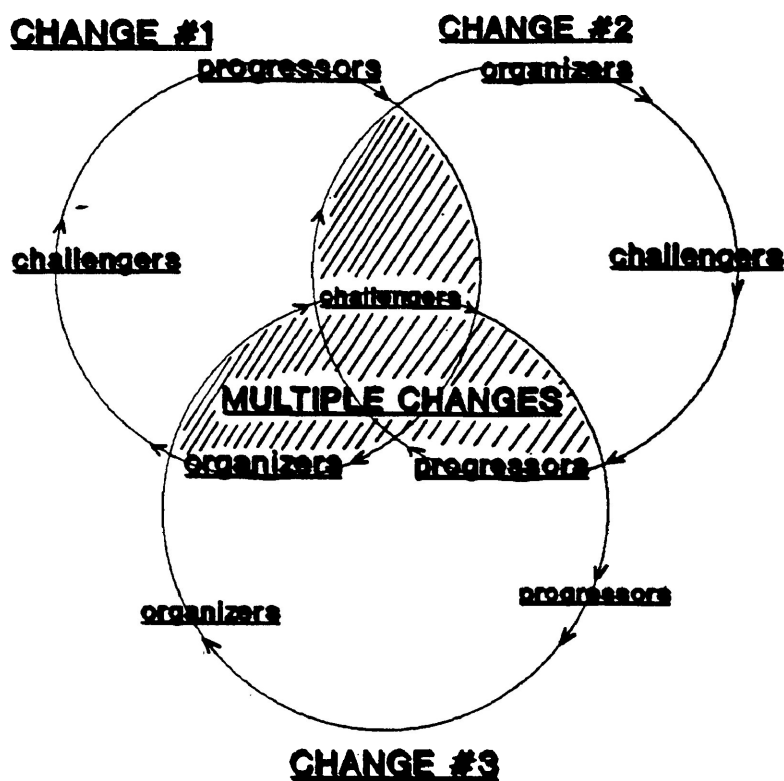


Figure 5.08. Characteristics of the teachers' perceptual disposition.

The term perceptual is not used definitively here because it implies that the teachers use perceptions in their narratives deliberately through their perceptual capabilities; which in the case of this study, they do not, nor were they requested to do so.

Therefore, the principle underlying the perceptual disposition is that the teachers spontaneously bring metaphorical perceptions to their change efforts that offer personal innuendo and provide an image of what is happening. As well, the metaphorical language patterns are common to the majority of the sample and are largely present in the outlier portion of the initial sample. This disposition is extended theoretically to consider the types of changes that the teachers move through that are layered and interfaced with many other simultaneous changes.

For example, Tom perceives three changes through metaphors that encompass adjustments to expectations, adoption of new curriculum, and challenges to expected pedagogy. Therefore, it is plausible that these changes can be expressed by the three circles in Figure 5.08 as Tom's perceptual disposition. The circles interconnect where Tom could be at with regard to each change, and may express forces that sustain or constrain the change efforts. In other words, if his perceptions are subjected to stop action, he may be using organizers to describe how he merges new and old curriculum as change #1, progressors to describe adjustments to his expectations toward a new age group as change #2, and challengers to describe how he perceives bandwagon research on pedagogy as change #3. Furthermore, as he moves through these changes, his perception of them would shift and give rise to metaphors characteristic of the other sustaining or constraining forces in the pattern, as depicted earlier in Figure 4.07. One can

picture the circles (and perhaps many more of them) as moving at different paces and interconnecting at different points of perception, dependent upon the change agent and the multiplicity of the changes. Hypothetically, this Figure realistically portrays the perceptions of the teachers, as they talk about multiple changes in their classrooms.

Although both the personal and perceptual dispositions reflect personal views and are related to professional change, they are distinguishable characteristically in that the personal disposition is idiosyncratic and the perceptual disposition is common to the teachers' change efforts. In Figure 5.09, these two dispositions are distilled and added to the conceptual framework, as representative of how teachers bring a personally dichotomous construct to their programs when dealing with change.

A Conceptual Framework: The Teachers' Personal and Professional Stance

Figure 5.09 displays a complete synthesis of the data in the form of a conceptual framework that depicts curriculum change and dispositions toward change reflected by the teachers in the sample. The information inherent in the circular cell represents elements of program and the types of changes expressed as part of that program. As noted earlier, the nature of these changes ranges conditionally from planned to incidental, and contextually from internal to external in relation to the classroom. The changes also reflect Board initiatives, as well as curriculum expectations within the area and school.

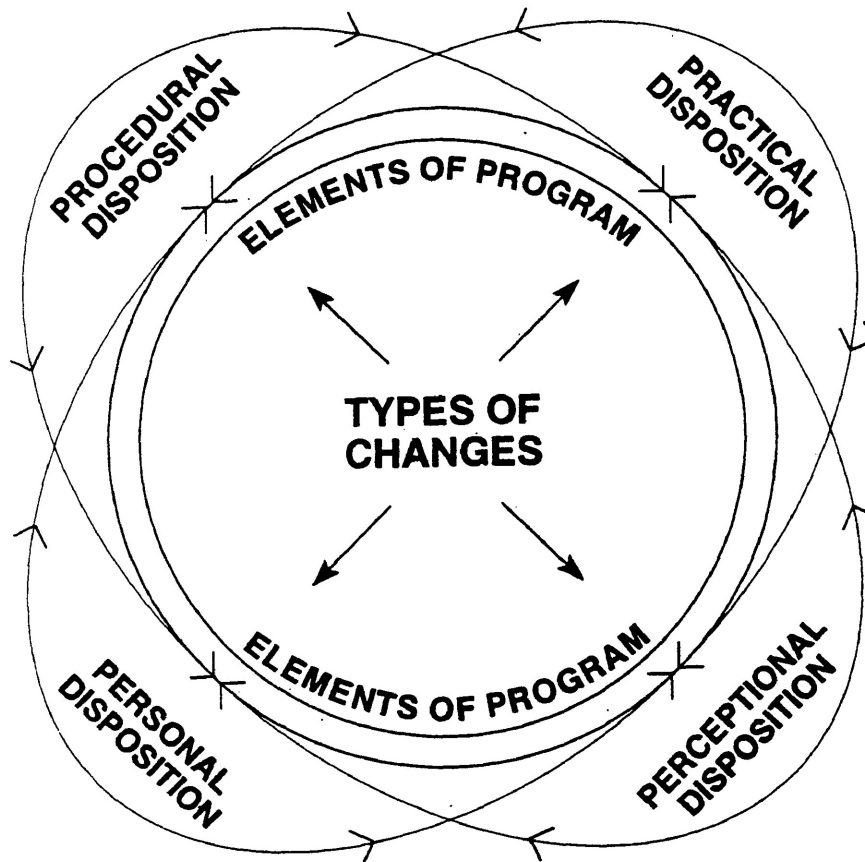


Figure 5.09. A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom.

Note. Personal and perceptual dispositions are added.

The teachers bring four frames of mind or dispositions, to their programs when they deal with change situations. The procedural, practical and perceptual dispositions hold principles and notions that are common to the majority of the sample. This commonality is inherent in the patterns of language the teachers use to describe their different approaches to change. The personal disposition holds principles and notions that are idiosyncratic and unique to each teacher in terms of their personal views toward professional change. All dispositions are active

simultaneously and are directed at program and the change efforts within the program. As well, all dispositions include a personal aspect that bears upon the change effort. The procedural disposition considers personal preference when teachers make decisions about strategies necessary for structuring, shaping and organizing change. The practical disposition is derived from personal "I" statements that lead to practice and application of the change in the classroom. The perceptual disposition is rooted in the personal metaphors that the teachers express to gain a perception or mental grasp of their progress within their changes. The personal disposition is rooted in each teacher as a person.

What remains to be addressed is the data generated about reflection, curriculum theory, professional development, givens and beliefs, as a result of the context analysis in response to the principle research question: What is the teachers' personal and professional stance with regard to change? In fact, much of this data is accommodated and extended theoretically through the conceptual framework as follows:

Reflection

Reaction responses are related to the personal disposition, whereas elaboration responses are directed more concretely at elements of program. Contemplation responses in the professional category are characteristic of the procedural disposition. It is noted that most of the reflective comments tend to be of a problem-solving nature, and do not extend to the philosophical or theoretical. The conceptual framework offers an organizer for reflection through all four

dispositions, which could result in an increase in the breadth and depth of thought through the perceptual and practical dispositions. The teachers' reflections could also be more focussed through an examination of the elements of program and types of changes.

Curriculum Theory

The teachers' responses about curriculum theory revolve around their practice, and fit well within the practical disposition. The teachers express where they stand in the belief/practice pattern, especially with respect to co-operative learning. However, the conceptual framework provides an opportunity for them to make meaningful theory-practice connections through the four dispositions. For example, theory could be examined as part of procedure, as a personal learning goal, or as a metaphor, for exploring the feasibility of a theoretical concept applied to the change process.

Professional Development

The teachers' responses about professional development can be accommodated through the personal disposition in terms of their need for choice, and through the practical disposition in terms of their need for practical relevance and applicability. The procedural and perceptual dispositions of the conceptual framework offer additional avenues for connecting professional development activities respectively

to decision-making and personal meaning.

Givens

With respect to givens, the major concern of the teachers is access to resources and guidelines, and the effects this access or lack thereof, would have on their programs as they move through their change efforts toward practice. Their disposition is clearly practical, and is based upon the immediate personal statement of need for program support. Their position in this matter again supports a link between the practical disposition and the CBAM (Hord et al, 1987) as a management concern, to be discussed further in Chapter Six. Other givens deserving of the teachers' dispositions that could be encompassed by the conceptual framework include leadership, a professional environment, learning opportunity, community support, and student benefits. These concerns are mentioned briefly by the teachers during the course of the interviews, but are not identified as commonplace or fixed in the context of their curriculum change.

Beliefs

Statements of belief are related to the personal and practical dispositions, in the sense that connections are made among teacher responsibility, relevant and personal approaches to curriculum, and the social and academic practicalities of cooperative learning. Although the data on teacher beliefs is not strong, the conceptual framework could allow for the teachers to assume as well, a procedural

and perceptual disposition on their beliefs. Statements of belief related to particular aspects of decision-making, such as structuring, shaping and integrating would serve to deepen understandings about the teachers' practice and provide a foundation for credibility and accountability for teaching as a profession.

Statements of belief related to how teachers perceive change may eventually make tacit metaphors and innuendo more overt, and hence offer powerful parables and images to create faith and vision in sustaining change efforts.

Summary

Characteristics of the school and sample are related to the research with respect to Board initiatives, situational factors, cultural norms, and staff allocation. The elements that the teachers deem as part of their program encompass the types of changes that they experience, and form the core of a conceptual framework about change in the classroom. Aspects of how the teachers prioritize, organize and carry out change are represented by the procedural and practical dispositions. The procedural disposition suggests courses of action that define the teachers' sphere of operations. The practical disposition is a pattern of personal statements that express how the teachers move through adoption or non-adoption of a new practice. Relationships between personal views and professional change is represented by the personal and perceptual dispositions. The personal disposition is idiosyncratic in nature and includes the personal indicators that each of the teachers brings to professional contexts in the classroom. The perceptual disposition is characterized by the teachers' metaphorical language that offers

personal innuendo and meaning to the forces that influence their change efforts.

The personal and perceptual dispositions represent a personally dichotomous construct that the teachers bring to professional change. The teachers bring these four dispositions to their programs when they deal with change situations; and therefore, the dispositions are integral components to the dynamics of the conceptual framework.

CHAPTER SIX

Summary and Discussion of Findings

The Purpose and Design of the Research

The main purpose of the study is to develop an understanding of the teachers' personal and professional stance with regard to curriculum change in the classroom. **Stance** means an attitude or posture for dealing with a particular situation. The research process is guided by the principle question: What is the teachers' personal and professional stance with regard to change? The issue underlying the study is an interpretive disjuncture that exists between teacher-practitioners and groups of theorists as to how curriculum change is developed and implemented. The study addresses the problem of reconciling commonly assumed theories in the field and the theories-in-action that guide the daily practice of teachers in their classroom by attempting to ascertain what teachers' practical and theoretical knowledge looks like, and how it is applied in the arena of educational change. As one area of focus, the study investigates the nature of teachers' involvement in curriculum change. The research question related to this investigation is: What types of changes do teachers choose to activate (or engage in) that are related to their overall program,

or particular areas of focus within their program? As a second focus, the study considers teachers as change agents through the question: How do teachers prioritize, organize and carry out these changes? Third, the study inquires into teachers' personal views of curriculum change, as a contributing factor in their commitment or non-commitment to change through the question: In what ways do teachers personally relate to professional change? Inquiry is directed at gathering and interpreting data about a teachers' stance that would contribute toward framing and legitimizing the practitioner dimension of the disjuncture.

The selection of the research site and the participants that formed the sample focus on teachers in their classrooms. Qualitative methods are employed for the purpose of exploring the teachers' perceptions of the phenomenon of change. A constant comparative strategy allows for meaning of the participants and the design itself to emerge as the study is carried out. The data analysis procedure serves the purpose of generating an in depth, genuine understanding of the teachers' stance by incorporating a synthesis of data that reflects the collective attitudes and postures of the participants in the sample.

The study recognizes the concerns in accessing the experience of others. To overcome these concerns, interviews are used primarily for data collection, and this data is supported by field notes and printed materials. This combination of methods ensures accordance between what the teachers say and evidence of what they do. The research is documented and organized in four phases: (a) planning and engaging in the field entry; (b) actions and decisions related to the data collection; (c) steps in the initial analysis and preparation for in-depth analysis; and (d) follow-up stages and post-data analysis.

Environmental Concerns: Characteristics of the Site and Sample

Related to the Findings

Board Initiatives

The organization of the School Growth Team creates a forum for the teachers to get involved in changes initiated by the school, area and Board. It also provides an opportunity for the teachers, as change agents, to shift their decision-making about curriculum to represent more of a mutual-adaptation approach (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991).

The teachers' treatment of the LOPI model indicates that it is insignificant as a teachers' framework for carrying out program change. Because of earlier Board-wide inservice, the LOPI model is perceived as a mandate and as a measure of competence by the two teachers who comment on it. In essence, LOPI represents a complex and generalized model for change, and is unsuitable for developing the skills and deep understandings that really matter in relation to new solutions for change in the teachers' classrooms (Fullan, 1993; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Tye, 1992).

The co-operative learning initiative is interpreted by the participants as a positive and relevant 'learning while doing' experience, and is the result of both top-down and bottom-up impetus and support (Billings, 1989; Fullan, 1993). Co-operative learning is presented by the Board as part of a menu for change (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991), and hence invites teacher choice and ownership of the change effort. The comments by the five participants who undertake co-operative learning

strategies in their classrooms indicate a measure of success in connecting practice and theory.

The presence of a staff influencer for Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) provides an opportunity for change agency. This person acts as a "third change facilitator" (Hord et al, 1987) and assumes a position of professional trust, whose help is sought after by peers on staff. Both Laura and Mary use Partners in Action based on their positive working relationship with this person, and Ed indicates that he is seeking help as well with designing curriculum for his class the following year.

Situational Factors

The situational factors described in Chapter Five contribute to a turbulence in the rhythm of school happenings that exert much pressure on the teachers' classroom programs (Rosenholtz, 1989). Staff responses and social protocol surrounding these situations consume time that could otherwise involve the teachers in interactive professionalism. (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991). The key to interactive professionalism lies in an approach to on-the-job problems that entails norms of collaborative work cultures, continuous improvement, purposeful reflection about practice, and teaching efficacy. Situations external to the classroom also contribute to pressures that increase unpredictability and result in the teachers resorting to day to day coping (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991).

Consequently, these factors directly affect the design of the research and the collection of data. The findings may reflect attitudes and tensions arising from

these situations.

Cultural Norms

Generally, the procedural decisions of the teachers are characteristic of "privatism" (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991), which in turn set limits on the amount of data that could be collected through observation and field notes. Privatism is inherent in the personal statements, which tend in the teachers' practical disposition to be a language of maintenance (How am I coping with change now?). The school culture is largely congenial (Blendinger & Jones, 1988; Glickman, 1993), characterized by special attention to social affairs, preserving teacher autonomy, and a pleasant atmosphere for adults. There is an absence of a language of improvement (How can we better cope with change in the future?) (Lezotte, 1990; Frances, Hirsh & Rowland, 1994; Fullan & Miles, 1992), which tends to emerge from a collegial culture "where everyone is a staff developer for everyone else" (Barth, 1990, p.513). The school is beginning to move in a more collegial direction, characterized by professional respect and an acceptance of some autonomy through the School Growth Team. The Team is influencing collective and purposeful interaction that focusses on teaching and student learning, but at a very formative stage. On an individual basis, the teachers "strive... to accomplish implicit or explicit goals" by placing personal importance on student learning through the affective domain (Leithwood, 1990, p. 13).

With respect to decision-making, the teachers are gaining legitimacy by experiencing a gradual shift from minimal-impact to more core-impact decisions.

(Glickman, 1993). Minimal impact decisions involve attention to in-service, parent programs and discipline; and tend to be short term with an indirect influence on student learning. Core impact decisions involve the examination of the impact of new curriculum through practice and staff development, evidenced by the procedural disposition and the teachers' efforts with co-operative learning.

Generally, the school exhibits a "comfortable collaborative" culture (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991):

Even where teachers work together in preparation time, for instance, it is unusual for them to spend it in each other's classrooms. This restricts the extent to which teachers can inquire into and advise one another about their practice. It keeps some of the tougher questions about their work and how to improve it off the agenda. Major elements of the prevailing norms of privacy are left intact....It can get stuck with the more comfortable business of advice-giving, trick-trading and material-sharing of a more immediate, specific and technical nature. (p. 55)

The teachers in the sample represent members of the staff who are beginning to explore their parameters as change agents and adult learners, by dealing with a disequilibrium that extends them beyond their level of comfort.

Staff Allocation

Staff allocation at the site challenges assumptions about givens such as assignment stability, job security, budget, and materials. As a result, teachers in the sample are making decisions about new grade assignments, new curriculum, acquisition of new materials, and new strategies for addressing a different level of child development, as innovations in themselves.

Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991) recognize size of school, status and stability of

teaching staff as givens of effective schools, and also acknowledge another significant given as the fact that "there will always be pressures of educational change in pluralistic societies" (p. 17). The inconsistencies of staff allocation require that the teachers 'constantly negotiate change' (Conley, 1989) without an organizer for doing so.

The Sample

With regard to career cycles, the adult life cycle, and teaching experience, there is no supportive data that differentiates the teachers in the sample. Commonalities are found across the sample regardless of experience or age. Gender is also insignificant to the results (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). During the course of the study the teachers respond to changes initiated by the Board and school that they consider as both ineffective (LOPI, Partners in Action) and effective (co-operative learning, Partners in Action).

Discussion of the Findings

The discussion of the findings is presented in five parts. The relationship between program and focus and types of changes is discussed in the first part. In the second part, findings are discussed that relate to the aspects about how the teachers prioritize, organize and carry out change. Findings pertinent to the relationship between the teachers' personal views and curriculum change is

discussed as a third part. As the fourth part, a conceptual framework is defined as the representation of the teachers' overall personal and professional stance. This framework is discussed with respect to the literature review and the situation of the present study.

Relationships Between Elements of Program and Types of Changes

The relationship between elements of program and types of changes is inclusive, as the teachers identify common elements of program that accommodate and define that nature of their involvement with their changes.

With reference to elements of program, the unit is the point of stress at which the teachers deviate within the elements and moved into less standardized and more personalized methodologies, goals and outcomes. As Evans (1993) states, "...real change is always personal" (p.23). Getting through the unit means accommodating their own types of changes, planned or incidental, internal or external to the activity in their classrooms. Pacing is talked about as a major constraint to implementation. Teacher talk about learning as they go is a significant factor in pacing, and affects how they plan and monitor change. It is evident that the teachers perceive their progress in terms of student feedback (Lieberman & Miller, 1992), with little mention of formal monitoring or assessment structures or networks that examine the wider purpose and value of what is taught and how (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991). Puk (1993) links this phenomenon to teachers' limited view of implementation:

Quite often curriculum at the classroom level of implementation is simply derived through the teacher's choice of activities. Rather than

any careful reflection on what the components of education should be...and how they should be developed and how they are interrelated, practitioners often simply choose the activities that will keep students occupied during a certain teaching/learning episode--all else is either assumed to be inherent in the activity or is neglected. (abstract)

This perseveration in maintaining a view of curriculum progress in terms of student opinion suggests that there may be more of a concern for getting students to be accepting of an innovation, instead of evaluating and assessing it in terms of sound pedagogy. In the light of this finding, it is fair to ask: what drives a teacher's program?--the students, professionalism, or both? Glickman (1993) suggests we ask the following: What do you know about the results of current programs in your school? He adds that all members of the school community should see the big picture of how it is doing, and how programs focus on the learning that is valued by educators for students--not necessarily just by the students themselves--nor by oneself.

Although the teachers identify a focus as they plan their units, data is not clear as to whether the focus incorporates specific expectations for student performance, such as Laura's concentrations; or whether the teachers see focus as part of their teaching style, such as Tom's resource-based learning; or yet whether they identify the focus as a need for their own professional growth, such as Bev's desire to become more knowledgeable about reading skills. These apparent variations in focus raise the question: How does individual preference exercised by each teacher as to focus satisfy both the teacher's need to learn on the go during curriculum change and the student's need to learn? Leiberman and McLaughlin (1992) assert that "traditional evaluation models that measure teachers' success by student outcomes make it more difficult for teachers to be learners as well as dispensers of

knowledge" (p.676). Perhaps there is a shift in focus that emphasizes teacher needs when that teacher is coping with change. This condition creates a tension between teacher need for flexibility and student need to maintain the quality of the learning process. A resolution may lie in the teachers' comments about their need for resources that determine specificity and structure with respect to skill development and content, yet offer choice with respect to strategies and direction. This stance implies a reconciliation between mandates (requirements) and menus (choices) (Fullan, 1993; Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992) that allows for the focus to accommodate the learning needs of the students, as well as the types of changes and the learning needs of the teacher.

All teachers mention that there are differences in the quality of the units they developed and implemented throughout the year. For example, both Claire and Mary never get to plan the units in the curriculum that they were prepared to initiate and discuss with the researcher. Laura is finishing units at the end of the year that have to be rushed and compacted. Bev describes her new units as some great, some not so great. Simultaneously, the teachers' expectations for the students, regardless of the quality of the units, are centred primarily on the affective domain. These findings suggest that during a change situation, a fragmentation occurs with methodology (planning, developing, implementing), pedagogy (the why and how of instruction) and assessment (both student and professional growth). Therefore, an open-ended, unfocussed, affective approach to the unit of study may be providing the teachers with a buffer zone within which they can also learn and experiment their way through their innovations. The findings related to the teachers' attention to the affective domain of the students

supports the premise that strong teacher-student relationships permeate their daily teaching; and that the teachers experience more success relating to their students than to other professional colleagues. (Cuban, 1993; Duke, 1989; Wood, 1990). It follows that perhaps more purposeful methods of obtaining student and professional feedback may help the teachers to move through changes more comfortably, and to strengthen the professional focus in their program. The work done by Lieberman and Miller (1992) on teacher networks, and currently by the Ontario Teachers' Federation (1993) with the Creating a Culture of Change project may offer alternatives for gaining professional feedback on implementation in the classroom.

The types of changes are condition- and context-bound, and are multi-variate in nature. This means that the specific changes are not necessarily common across teachers in the sample, and the teachers talk about experiencing many changes simultaneously. This finding affirms the classroom as a "living lab" (Calvert & Crouse, 1987) and reinforces literature that recommends studying change in the context of the energy required for all day, every day teaching, in terms of the decisions that occur moment to moment (Porter & Brophy, 1989; Labinowicz, 1980).

The teachers in the sample verbalize changes that flow both in and out of their classrooms, as they describe, reflect upon, and perceive their efforts, mirrored through their four dispositions. These internal and external contexts reflect the teachers' daily subjective reality, from the research perspective of inside looking out, rather than perpetuating the perspective of introducers and researchers of

change as outsiders looking in (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Lieberman & Miller, 1992).

As both a planned and incidental condition, time is a consistent concern. For example, Tom feels the press for time in unit planning and Claire states that she co-plans in the hall. Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) state that time is a given that tends to fix classroom and teacher isolation, but is also one that can be questioned and shaped to make a difference in change efforts. Many studies show that schools can address this concern through re-allocation of time to provide for visitation, team-teaching, group staff development, and collaborative prep periods (Levine, 1991; Showers, Joyce & Bennett, 1989; Tuthill, 1990). However, these alternatives need to zero in on and satisfy the specific program needs of each teacher in each classroom. Because the relationship between elements of program and types of changes are found to be mutually inclusive, the teachers can use a problem-solving approach to address time through these constructs, contexts and conditions.

Aspects of How Teachers Prioritize, Organize and Carry Out Changes

A procedural and a practical disposition emerge from the data analysis, inherent in teacher talk about how they 'plan and do' change.

The Procedural Disposition

The procedural disposition lends coherence to the role of the teachers as agents

of change. This disposition is evident through their decisions related to further clarification, specification, and development or refinements in their programs. This finding contributes specificity to the more generalized results of studies on teacher agency (Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Tye, 1992). The procedural disposition elaborates upon Glickman's (1990) notion of the teaching process as a set of context-driven decisions, whereby teachers gauge whether students are learning or not, and act upon how they adjust their practices accordingly. The use of "I" with regard to decision-making language is far more prevalent than use of "we". Therefore it is evident that the procedural disposition, as rooted in "I" statements, does not reflect collaborative decision-making. Fullan (1993) suggests that solutions limited to the experiences or perceptions of the individual may also "impose a ceiling effect on inquiry and learning" (p. 34). This may explain why the procedural disposition is expressed as a language of maintenance, rather than that of inquiry and improvement.

On the other hand, Fullan suggests that the individual may set the tone for reform, and, balanced paradoxically with group processing, could be a source of fresh ideas. It follows that the procedural disposition has the potential of representing a collective source of fresh ideas from the individual teachers about how they prioritize and organize for change. Leithwood (1979) presents a paradoxical conclusion as to how innovations fail when they move from small pilot groups to a broader dissemination. This study presents a solution at hand by focussing inquiry from an opposite perspective, one that connects with individual notions and patterns before disseminating broadly. It is reasonable, then, to ask if the procedural disposition would be different if the teachers in the sample offer a

more collaborative or group-oriented perspective? As a premature response to this question, Fullan (1993) suggests that there is a "dark side to groupthink" that lends a sense of overconformity to solutions to change. (p. 35). In other words, it may be the collective uniqueness of the teachers themselves that lend validity and freshness to the procedural disposition (or any other disposition), which might otherwise offer yet another mundane, conformist attitude if the sample were characterized by 'groupthink'.

In comparison to recent studies, aspects of the procedural disposition do not include teacher inquiry as an extension of prioritizing and organizing change (Matlin & Short, 1991; Maeroff, 1993; Monson & Monson, 1993). However, the procedural disposition does reflect a process of reshaping (Elmore, 1992) and the mutual adaptation approach (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). The issue of who controls the process is affirmed, as the teachers describe their own capacities for structuring, shaping and integrating the ways in which curriculum manifested itself in the classroom.

The Practical Disposition

The practical disposition takes shape through the language about how the teachers work out their practice as expressions of their personal and practical knowledge. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) use the term "personal practical knowledge" to "emphasize the teacher's knowing of a classroom...designed to capture the idea of experience" (p. 25). Therefore, the term is in accordance with the interest of this study in that it connects the teachers' experiences, plans and

actions where it is seen in the teachers' practices as a practical disposition.

The personal statements that form the practical disposition reveal a need for the teachers to make sense of their change efforts, (Porter & Brophy, 1989) as they shift back and forth through the belief/practice patterns. These patterns also serve as a process for the mutual-adaptation approach as it reflects the perceptions of the users as they exercise their 'practicality ethic' and work through their new programs in their own way (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Harste, 1990). The conditional and concerns-based nature of the teachers' statements links the practical disposition to Key Concerns (Dow, Whitehead & Wright, 1984) and the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hord et al, 1987). For example, statements of need through the practical disposition are addressed by generic categories of the Key Concerns. These categories remain generic because they do not encompass nor consider the unique conditions and concerns of the teachers in their particular classrooms. The patterns of personal statements that typify the practical disposition parallel the personal and management concerns of the CBAM. It is also found that the teachers' statements about the impact of co-operative learning on their practice are similar to the consequence stage of the CBAM (Hord et al, 1987,p.31). This does not necessarily mean that the practical disposition is a clone of the CBAM. The CBAM simply identifies concerns as part of the adoption process. The practical disposition considers teacher concerns, plus the statements of belief, intent and attempt that encompass adoption, and which are respectively the idiosyncratic values, attitudes and strategies pertinent to each teacher. This aspect of the practical disposition is the key to unlocking how each teacher makes the theory--practice connection during the adoption process. Hence, it offers a

window of understanding about the teachers' theories-in-action across the interpretive disjuncture.

The practical disposition parallels child learning theory in several ways (Cochran, Cochrane, Scalena & Buchanan, 1984). For example, statements of belief consider possibilities and immediate applicability. Statements of need and intent further the purpose and identify a concern. Statements of attempt involve taking a risk. Statements of practice exhibit learning or teaching through doing. There are also exclusions to this particular parallel. The practical disposition does not encompass a process loop about feedback, integration, refining, expanding, and comprehension, which are essential components of child learning that are strongly dependent upon an interactive and supportive environment. Instead, the disposition reflects adult learning at this point in the process, in the sense of participant control, self-motivation, and self-direction (Calvert & Crouse, 1987). These two different parallels suggest that the teachers learn initially as the child would, when the teachers as learners and their students as learners connect in a change situation. Puk (1993) takes this process further through his Model of Educational Processes which is based on the notion that "all episodes where teaching and learning occur have commonalities" (p. 1). This synergy effect is supported by the teachers when they comment repeatedly about learning along with their students. However, the synergy effect is incomplete, because the teachers do not appear to affirm and renew their learning by moving through the feedback loop attributed to child learning. Nor do they move in any depth through peer feedback, self-diagnosis, direction and motivation characteristic of adult learning (Knowles et al, 1984; MacKeracher, 1984). Hence, there is evidence to suggest that there is a

point through the practical disposition at which the teachers move from a child- to an adult-orientation toward learning during a change. This finding suggests that the teachers in fact approach innovations subjectively through the learning stages of their students in order to identify with and experience the same transfer. They then move toward a more objective, adult perspective as they attempt to gain executive control of the innovation (Showers, Joyce & Bennett, 1989; Robbins & Wolfe, 1989). The synergy effect and learning process remain incomplete because at the close of data collection, teachers were still in the middle of their changes and had not yet gained executive control.

Relationships Between Personal Views and Curriculum Change

The relationship between the personal dimension and professional change is dichotomous. This is evidenced by the development of two additional dispositions. The personal disposition is idiosyncratic in nature and reflects how the teachers express their changes personally. The perceptual disposition is common across the sample and reflects how the teachers interpret change in terms of their own metaphorical references and innuendo.

The Personal Disposition

Aspects of the personal disposition, in concert with the other dispositions, hold notions related to the six common characteristics that become personal factors

when teachers deal with change.

Teachers develop a common language which will bond them to the innovation.

In keeping with the purpose of this study and the literature on change, data is analyzed and synthesized according to the language that participating teachers hold in common. However, this common language cannot be assumed to have acted as a bonding agent that furthered their change process, as the teachers do not indicate any awareness that they possess a language common to their changes. In fact, common language and the notion of bonding can be perceived as two separate variables, depending on the nature of the innovation (single, multiple) and the situational contexts (individual, collective) of the teachers involved. Consequently, there must be present an element that brings these teachers together first, before they become aware of a shared language that creates the common understandings for a change impetus (Calvert & Crouse, 1987; Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1992; Steffin & Sleep, 1988; Warren Little, 1982).

With regard to the language of the teachers' reflections, the abundance of positive and concrete responses are contingent on the teachers' sense of efficacy, and the student-teacher relationship. The absence of negative and philosophical responses suggests that the teachers avoid being self-critical or introspective because it infers problems that bespeak failure. The level of reflection also may be due to the incomplete learning processes that underly the practical disposition, or lack of opportunity to engage in collective, deliberative reflection (Bonser & Grundy, 1988). If a complete sequence of reflective comments, including reaction-elaboration-contemplation were evident, it would otherwise indicate greater integration of information that leads to "a more sensitive social and ethical

perspective" in educational thought. (Surbeck, Han & Moyer, 1991, p. 27). The few negative comments interspersed throughout the interview data appear to lay blame on the system 'out there'. It is noted that there is little language of improvement in the reflective statements that could affirm executive control or offer appropriate alternatives to blame.

Teachers display a wide range of attitudes toward innovation. Even though adopter categories reflect the range of a targeted group toward one innovation (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971; Schwab, 1983), the study reveals the opposite--a spectrum of attitudes and emotions held by each teacher as they experience multiple changes. These attitudinal perceptions are also reinforced through the language patterns characteristic of the perceptual disposition. The findings capture the realities of curriculum change in the classroom in the sense that each teacher holds a range of attitudes determined by the various types of changes that surround that particular person.

Teachers vary widely in their competence and readiness. One of the most significant and frequently expressed themes incorporated as part of the personal disposition is that of the student-teacher relationship. This relationship reveals a direct link with teacher sense of efficacy, and more precisely the teachers' sense of readiness, comfort, and their perception of competence (Fullan, 1982). This may explain why the teachers who tie their success to student success are hesitant to risk change if their students react in a negative manner, as affirmed by Wood (1990):

Because the success of the professional is inextricably tied to the success of the client, it becomes very important for the professional to do everything in his or her power to encourage this success.
(p.33)

Wood suggests that teachers tend to move away from the kinds of practices that entail risk toward those that promote success. Thus, a student-teacher relationship that is governed strongly by student opinion about curriculum change, can hold forces that actually inhibit change and reinforce the comfort of status quo. The teachers reveal that their curriculum may take on an entirely different appearance and purpose based on this relationship, as they work alone in their classrooms, choose what to teach and how to present it (Cuban, 1993).

Further to this point, the personal disposition has linked the student-teacher relationship, the teacher as learner and the teachers' source of work satisfaction, as the teachers gear their feelings of success to the good feelings, and hence, successes of their students. The teachers' comments are not strong about collegial feedback or student achievement as influential factors during change. Instead, concerns about the well-being of the students are offered in far greater detail. Fullan (1993) points out the "moral purpose" of the teacher as change agent that "carries with it social and moral responsibilities" at an interpersonal level that is dependent on the conditions that surround teaching and getting closer to the individual student (p.11) Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) state the need for teachers to also strike a balance between the "care ethic" and their professional responsibilities by realizing that "there are other kinds of caring to give and receive in the school community in addition to caring for children" (p. 23). As well, both works stress the need for professional support during the implementation dip whereby teachers perceive a decline in their competence and may justify a move away from academic expectations and contact with colleagues because they are in a state of learning and experimentation. This finding suggests that possibilities

must be open for the teachers to examine their instructional purposes and practices in empathy with other educators and in conjunction with research. Thus they may gain feelings of success and competence in a way that balances the student-teacher relationship on an academic as well as personal and professional level.

Mary illustrates this balance in accordance with Guskey (1989): ..."in the things I agree with, or I feel is applicable to me and my situation, in my class at the time" (focussed interview, 17-04.29). Her statement indicates that she maintains her professional responsibility and autonomy toward curriculum decisions and yet keeps her relationship with the students in mind when making selections for their learning. In essence, Mary exemplifies how a teacher can keep the influence of the student-teacher relationship in its appropriate perspective, and still maintain an academic focus to changes in her program.

Teachers find satisfaction in contributing to as well as using new knowledge.

How the teachers conceptualize innovation and translate their experiences into the purposes of their curriculum changes (Glickman, 1990) is related to how they perceive and deal with curriculum theory and knowledge related to the innovation. For example, the teachers readily use curriculum theory as a rationale for their practice of co-operative learning in the classroom, because they can link curriculum theory directly to student performance and attitude. Hence, new knowledge and beliefs about co-operative learning are accepted as valid when it fits that teacher's personal philosophy about their practice and their knowledge about children. It is also found by the teachers' comments that theory is perceived as unconnected to practice, when they talk about curriculum theory out of context with what they are currently practising in their classrooms. There is little evidence in the data that

indicates that the teachers contribute to new knowledge; at least, in the sense of a stabilized innovation and extended theory as posed by Harste (1990). This may be due to the essentially private nature of the school culture with regard to changes in teaching practice, or the fact that the teachers are dealing with multiple changes instead of focussing on a single innovation.

Good teachers constantly adjust their goals and techniques as they work, and demonstrate leadership in this process. The personal disposition captures the teachers' personal views about the daily subjective reality in their classrooms (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991), especially with regard to the way in which the personal indicators of the teacher-as-person form contingent, individualistic and translational relationships with the professional context of the teacher-as-practitioner. The teachers-as-persons constantly make adjustments as part of assuming responsibility as teachers-as-practitioners for carrying out innovations. (David, 1991; Eisner, 1991). For example, the teachers exercise a continuous problem-solving approach in order to cope with interruptions that affect their emotions, attitudes and their personal life. On the professional side, this state of affairs is exemplified strongly by the teachers' persistence in pursuing resources and materials suitable for their program. Any shift in the three dimensions of materials, strategies and beliefs creates a need for the teachers, especially through the personal disposition, to redefine their understandings about the process of change, how they locate their place in it, and how they act upon it. This need is reflected in Laura's comments about searching for materials for her units; in Tom's search for strategies to address the age level needs of his new students; and in Claire's beliefs about how to take a social-developmental approach to her new

curriculum.

Teachers are adult learners in the various stages of the adult life cycle. The study affirms the teachers as learners in the change process and supports the literature that recommends that more attention needs to be paid to the personal and cognitive developmental levels of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1993; Knowles et al, 1984; Sparks, 1989). The personal disposition considers the biographical nature of how teaching is bound up with the teachers' lives, teachers as persons, and the kinds of people they are (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; King & Peart, 1992). Teachers such as Mary, Laura, Ed, and Bev indicate that they experiment with cooperative learning or Partners in Action (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1982) alongside another colleague, but there is little data to reinforce the notion that they actually learn from that colleague (Berlak & Berlak, 1981). The idiosyncracies of their individual learning styles and approaches as they are translated into the purposes of their program is clearly revealed through the personal disposition. The discussion of the practical disposition and the parallels drawn to child and adult learning theories suggests that the teachers' learnings are also shaped by the way in which they learn along with their students. Their learning process shifts within the child and adult learning models and synergizes with their students while gaining professional control of the change. This finding indicates that there is another dimension to these teachers beyond that of adult learners. Because of their closeness to their students, they may learn within their profession a little differently than do adults in other professions (Calvert & Crouse, 1987).

The Perceptual Disposition

The perceptual disposition is linked to the CBAM in the sense that the teachers' interpretations through their metaphorical language in part reflects the concerns and attitudes they bring to their changes. The underlying principles of the perceptual disposition as presented earlier in Chapter Five echo Hord et al (1987) when they describe the developmental nature of concerns:

...The progression is not absolute and certainly does not happen to each person in a like manner. Everyone will not move through the stages [of concern] at the same pace nor have the same intensity of concern at the various stages. (p.32)

Similarly, the perceptual disposition acknowledges the teacher as change agent, different paces through multiple changes, and that person's interpretation of the forces surrounding their efforts.

The metaphors of the teachers are not superficially induced; that is, through direct cues from the researcher to use their perceptual abilities to provide metaphors about teaching and change. The teachers' metaphors are contextualized as perceptions within the descriptions of their experiences as they are played out in the teachers' practices (Clandinin & Connelly, 1988). Clandinin and Connelly suggest that teachers pay more attention to their metaphors and "the way in which the metaphor structures various practices" (p. 74). They go on to suggest that this habit can lead teachers back to principles and rules and give new insights into personal philosophies about teaching. Hence, the deliberate use of a mental organizer such as the perceptual disposition could provide a way to tap into these insights.

There is also evidence that metaphorical language offers symbolic indicators of

sustaining; but more importantly, constraining forces at work in the teachers' change processes. These metaphors of constraint express more vividly than most other interview comments, the underlying problems that the teachers experience with regard to change. It also underscores the nature of conversation to be filled with innuendo when a participant feels the need to be cautious in describing a potentially threatening situation. This finding implies that metaphors may be a consensual way for these teachers to introduce and discuss ideological conflict, differences of opinion and the various pros and cons of actions planned that Glickman (1993) emphasizes as crucial to productive implementation.

A Conceptual Framework: Teachers' Personal and Professional Stance

The conceptual framework, displayed again as Figure 6.01, demonstrates and supports the premise in the literature that curriculum change, innovation and subsequently implementation is rooted in human thought and action specific to the teacher. The researcher's use of interview data as a method for developing a stance is supported by Connelly and Clandinin (1988) when they state that it is more important to understand what people experience than to focus simply on what they do. By observing what they do, we obtain only descriptions of their behaviours. We do not gain any insights into what their perceptions are of their experiences as they move through them; which, in essence, is the necessary 'meaning plus operation' of a conceptual framework (Anderson & Burns, 1989).

The framework does not oversimplify what teaching is about (Fullan & Park, 1981), but instead examines teaching and change from several different angles,

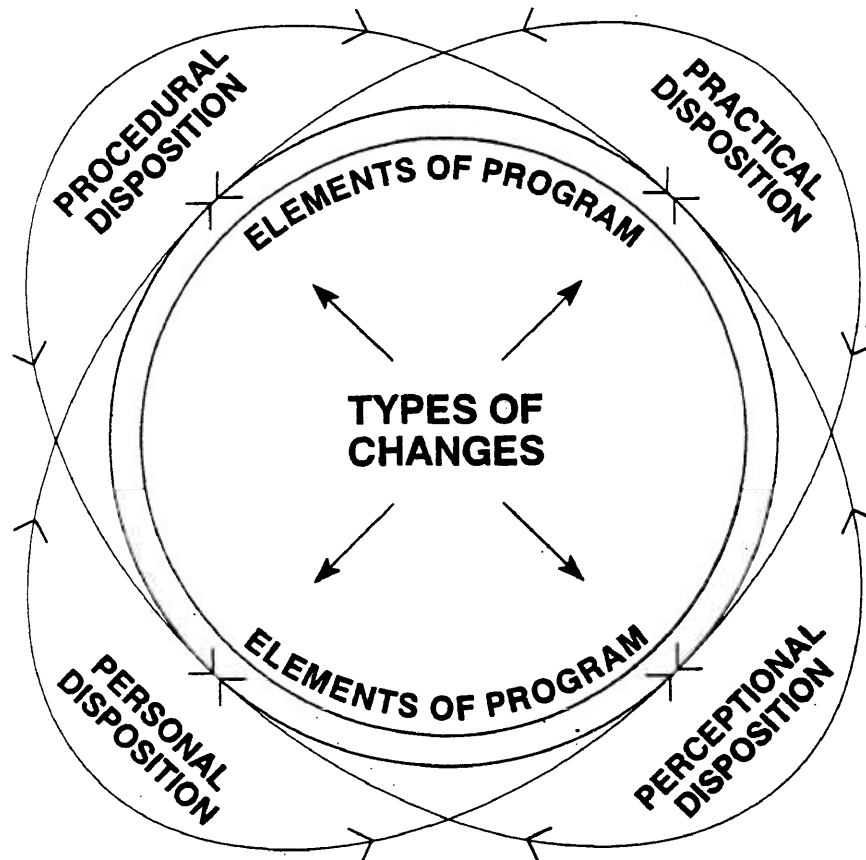


Figure 6.01. A conceptual framework: curriculum change in the classroom.

Note. Arrows indicate the forces brought to bear upon the program in the classroom.

keeping in mind elements of program, types of changes, and characteristics specific to the four dispositions. The themes and notions in the framework are rooted in the everyday experiences of the teachers. Therefore, as an organizational construct it promotes a proactive and integrated approach, and dismisses a passive or resistant accommodation to the rational models imposed by theorist groups (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Guskey, 1990).

The framework also reflects the interdependence of phenomena and

relationships that surround change (Fullan, 1993; Miller & Seller, 1985), by including: (a) the notion of multiple changes and contexts internal and external to the classroom; (b) the personal thread that is woven through the four dispositions; and (c) both common and idiosyncratic referents to dealing with change.

The framework considers the context and fluctuating dynamics of the participating classrooms (Levine, 1991). Specifically, there is no sequential or incremental order to any of the components, suggesting an accordance with the ready, fire, aim notion of planning, do...then plan some more (Elmore, 1992; Fullan, 1993; Fullan & Miles, 1992). It also reflects the teachers' unique expectations for themselves and their students as part of their *modus operandi*. It affirms who controls the change, namely, the teacher, and according to Connelly and Clandinin (1988), tells a personal and professional story of who the teachers are.

Implications of the Study

Implications of the study are discussed with respect to teacher-practitioners, theorists in the field, the conceptual framework, and future research.

Implications for Teacher-Practitioners

One of the key implications for teacher-practitioners is to be aware of the nature of innovation itself. It is unrealistic to determine teaching practice according to one innovation. As indicated by the types of changes in this study, most innovations are complex initiatives that must be broken down into manageable bits

in order for the teacher to gain executive control (Joyce & Showers, 1989; Morgan, 1994; Fullan, 1993). The strong student-teacher relationship and the significance of meeting affective needs also implies that the students need to be aware of the nature of change and how it is manifested in classroom programs.

The development of the conceptual framework through commonalities of teacher language implies that goal setting, articulation, and the process of curriculum change in the classroom should be rooted in total teacher input (Lancaster & Oliver, 1988).

The role of teacher as change agent is connected to the role of teacher as researcher, and in turn, to their decisions made as part of classroom-based change. This role is not a permanent one, but only for the duration and investigation of the change effort (Bennett, 1993). This implies that the teachers must focus on one do-able aspect of the change through the procedural and practical dispositions. Consequently, they can build their capacities in a way that minimizes the overload that happens when change factors split and threaten to become changes within the change (Morgan, 1994).

The study produces little data to show that the teachers are at the stage where they are integrating curriculum theory and conceptualizing innovations in their own way (Harste, 1990). Oja and Smulyan (1989), suggest that we redefine theory to include teachers' understanding of the problems and practices in their classrooms and schools. Theory may hold more meaning if data is disaggregated to groups of teachers rather than school-wide (Anderson, 1989; Calhoun, 1993). This implies that the teachers need more opportunities for professional collaboration to learn how to connect theory with practice through inquiry methods. In turn, they will be

able to move toward more depth of reflection and astuteness of perception, and balance their self-assessment through student feedback with more professional and theoretical input. In addition, this also implies that they need to be aware metacognitively of their own programs and processes and analyse their dispositions through the conceptual framework, before they can relate to system-wide generic models for planned change.

There remains a need to create a shared ownership in curriculum development and implementation (Glickman, 1990; King & Peart, 1992; Maeroff, 1993; Rowell, 1985; Welch, 1994). This implies that the teachers need to take a more active role as researchers, develop a theoretical and philosophical depth to the conceptual framework, and come to change situations ready to exhibit an understanding across the practice-theory sphere of the interpretive disjuncture.

Implications for the Field

The conceptual framework represents the teachers' roadmaps for their change journey. This implies an agreement among theorists over a construct as such, that supports an expanded role for the teachers and gives them a way to voice their experiences with change (Gitlin & Price, 1992; Ontario Teachers' Federation, 1993). As well, theorists will need to accept that the four dispositions give the teachers control of the change process in terms of their own methodologies and idiosyncracies.

The data serves the study in terms of illuminating the multiple realities of the teachers in the classroom. This implies that upon introducing new curriculum

expectations and guidelines as secondary documents, systems will need to strike a balance between the specific outcomes required on one hand and the option of the teachers to choose what and how to teach, depending on the variables of their classrooms for any particular year.

This study can be considered in the context of research literature that debates the extent and legitimacy of the teachers as authorities in the change process. From this perspective, there is an implication that the opportunity is present to support the teachers as decision-makers through the conceptual framework in the contexts of school-based management, restructuring, and school reform or team-building.

This study adds a new dimension to the need for personalizing staff development because of the range of concerns, attitudes and learning styles of each teacher that also varies across any one group. This implies that staff development practices need to include structures such as the conceptual framework as organizers for helping the teachers identify, plan, and track their own way through new curriculum changes.

As a given, the teachers place a high priority on having the resources for good teaching and learning situations. In fact, it is common for teachers to over-collect resources in order to have the flexibility of being able to pick and choose the learning experiences for new units of study. Fullan and Miles confirm that "...change is resource-hungry..." (p. 751). This has implications for education budgets and reduced spending, as there is a need for curriculum change agents to adjust budgets to support the teachers' in-the-classroom resources as they plan for and carry out new curriculum changes.

The teachers not only need to learn innovations as their students would go through them, but they need time to digest those implications for their class and program. They then need to figure out ways to accommodate and institutionalize the same change as adults and professionals into the learning and teaching process (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). This implies that upon introducing curriculum change at the systems level, consideration needs to be given through the personal disposition in helping the teachers move more slowly through change in the initial year of implementation to accommodate their learning process as well. It can well be a crucial element of the implementation dip (Fullan, 1982).

The teachers' narratives echo studies that stress that curriculum theory needs to move away from the jargon of research and toward the teacher language of the working day (Bennett, 1993; Hirsh & Ponder, 1991). The teachers need pedagogical information that is time-efficient, applicable, and timely. Therefore, they do not increase their theoretical knowledge for theory's sake, as frequently attributed to university scholars; but can apply theory-in-action to guide their practice. This implies that staff development sessions should introduce just enough theory to give direction and rationale to launch the change effort, based on the ready, fire, aim principle. The teachers can subsequently acquire more theory as they feel more adept with the change. Therefore, the theory grows as the change becomes more embedded in the norms of the classroom curriculum. The teacher's rationale continually becomes more profound and abstract as the practice becomes more automatic in the teacher's repertoire. Therefore teacher wisdoms are linked to specific areas of their personal and professional expertise, and are not age-related, temporal or rhetorical in nature (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991).

A Conceptual Framework for Research on Curriculum Change in the Classroom

The framework can be used as an action research model by a teacher, or groups of teachers undertaking changes in their programs to examine and analyse their change efforts through the dispositions as a metacognitive process. Different components of the framework can be selected by teachers to monitor their efforts in a Brownian motion fashion (Anderson, 1993), or applied as a rolling model of change as teachers move along a path or paths toward an ideal situation (Joyce, Wolf & Calhoun, 1993). In other words, they will be able to map their change journey through the components.

The use of the conceptual framework could serve to bridge the implementation gap that exists between school and system wide models and actual classroom practice. Its flexibility and detail of infrastructure allows for theorist and practitioner groups to mutually determine needs and initiate collaborative action when dealing with change.

The framework can be applied to staff development sessions division, school or system wide, on a repeated basis to affirm its reliability of use during change situations. Educational researchers can select themes from the framework to investigate in greater detail, and to increase the internal validity of the framework.

Implications for Future Research

This research design could be replicated using the conceptual framework as a

theoretical guide, and using a more focussed research design.

1. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated using another school in the same area of schools.

2. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated using a research team, and schools in each of the areas of the school board.

3. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated using schools in other school boards.

4. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated as a longitudinal study conducted over a period of two school years.

5. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated focussing on other curriculum innovations chosen by teachers.

6. The research design, based upon the conceptual framework, could be replicated focussing on curriculum innovations chosen by teachers, using an inquiry process for development and implementation.

7. Further research could be carried out on patterns and categories inherent in elements of teachers' programs and the types of changes experienced and dealt with in the classroom.

8. Further research could be conducted on the development of a procedural, practical, personal, or perceptual dispositions related to curriculum innovation and change in the classroom.

9. Further research could be carried out to more clearly determine the relationships between elements of program and types of changes, between personal views and curriculum change, and on aspects of how teachers prioritize,

organize and carry out change in the classroom using more interpretive research methodologies.

Conclusion

The changes that the teachers experience are personal and professional in nature. Within commonly-defined elements of program, the teachers plan units and deal with a multitude of contexts and conditions of change that reveal an imbalance between the personal and professional aspects of their sense of efficacy. For example, the teachers determine success within the program more personally through student opinion and less professionally through self-diagnosis and collegial feedback. They assess student performance during curriculum change more personally through affective behaviours and less professionally through academic. This condition may be due to the culture of the school, a need for knowledge about the nature of change, or the day to day coping status of the teachers. Professional efficacy in change situations needs to be more deliberately examined in terms of pedagogical outlooks and accompanying methodology appropriate for dealing with elements of program and types of curriculum change.

The study produces a collective knowledge through the procedural and practical dispositions about the specific nature of the teachers' personal and professional decisions related to prioritizing and organizing curriculum change, and how such decisions are made and carried out. The language of maintenance that characterizes these dispositions supports the notion that teachers cling to micro-interpretations of reflection and inquiry into their own practices. As change agents they remain problem-solvers. However, this is typical of this particular school and

sample, and may be different in a school culture that is trained relevant to change and collaborative decision-making (Apple, 1983; Francis, Hirsh & Rowland, 1994; Norris, 1994; Oja & Smulyan, 1989.) The absence of a language pattern of inquiry and improvement across the teacher group supports the need for these teachers to pursue inquiry to the point that they develop a theoretical awareness that creates an impact across many different classrooms. The teacher talk that shapes the procedural and practical dispositions is of a personal and practical nature. Therefore, the evidence points out strongly that the language of educational change reflects a common sphere of understanding and avoids rhetoric that is too scholarly, specialized and generalized to be applied by the teachers to their change situations (Bascia, 1993; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1979; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Hirsh & Ponder, 1991; Tye, 1992).

The teachers' views inherent in the personal disposition satisfies in more detail the call for practical research that offers information about what teachers experience personally when they examine professional change (Bullard & Taylor, 1993; Guskey, 1989; Holtzman, 1993). The components of the personal disposition offer an insight into the idiosyncratic nature of the teachers' craft knowledge and can provide a structure for examining these idiosyncracies during the change effort (Berlak & Berlak, 1981).

The personal images inherent in the metaphorical language of the perceptual disposition support the need for a way by which attitudes and knowledge could be exchanged and roles defined between the practitioner and theorist groups. By searching for a common metaphor, perceptions of what is rational to both groups can be shaped to promote clarity of vision and interpretation (Darling-Hammond,

1993; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Mitchell, 1990).

The theory behind symbolic interactionism supports the principle that human beings define their situation, and as such, they "perceive and define objects in situations in order to reach those goals and overcome problems" (Charon, 1989, p.122). Thus, the teachers can deliberately use the perceptual disposition in a perceptual way as a personal and professional guide for interacting symbolically, approaching change problems from a metaphorical viewpoint, and creating a shared concept of change.

The teachers are involved in their changes as learners. The awareness that the teachers demonstrate about their own learning and professional needs supports the notion that teachers must go beyond merely coping and take responsibility for professional growth (Fullan & Park, 1981; Joyce, Wolf & Calhoun, 1993; Porter & Brophy, 1989). It follows from the teachers' perceptions of curriculum theory that these teachers need to be educated in change theory, not only to help them make wise decisions about their professional growth, but also to gain a better understanding of the theorist viewpoint.

Teacher references to the Levels of Program Implementation (LOPI) model support the results of Fullan, Anderson and Newton's (1986) study that teachers are vaguely aware of board curriculum frameworks and interpret them in too general a fashion for addressing elements of classroom-based programs. As a teacher model for change, there is a gap between the behaviours delineated in a LOPI and the strategies and support necessary for establishing and maintaining these behaviours.

The research ultimately contributes to the development of a conceptual framework of change that could help the teachers in assuming a personal and

professional stance. The teachers will be able to use their own constructs in the framework as organizers for understanding the process of change, locating their place in it and acting upon it (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). Therefore, the conceptual framework can be used to accommodate the personal and professional needs of the teachers in their classrooms.

Finally, as a teacher model for change, the conceptual framework synthesizes the change effort for each and every teacher. The framework represents the teachers' interpretation that is immediately applicable and relevant to the classroom program, and ultimately will contribute to affirming and legitimizing their stance during the course of change.

References

- Ambrosie, F. & Haley, P.W. (1991). The role of the curriculum specialist in site-based management. NASSP Bulletin, 75, 73-81.
- Anderson, B. (1993). The stages of systemic change. Educational Leadership, 51 (1), 14-17.
- Anderson, L.W. & Burns, R.B. (1989). Research in classrooms. The study of teachers, teaching and instruction. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Apple, M. (1983). Curriculum in the year 2000: Tensions and possibilities. Phi Delta Kappan, 64, 321 - 326.
- Barth, R.S. (March, 1990). A personal vision of a good school. Phi Delta Kappan, 71 (7), 512-516.
- Bascia, N. (May, 1993). Assisting the prospects for the "creating a culture of change" initiative to impact on school practices. Unpublished manuscript, Faculty of Education, University of Toronto.
- Becher, T. & Maclure, S. (1978). The politics of curriculum change. London: Hutchinson & Co.
- Bennett, C.K. (1993). Teacher-researchers: all dressed up and no place to go? Educational Leadership, 51 (2), 69, 70.
- Berlak, A. & Berlak, H. (1981). Dilemmas of schooling: Teaching and social change. London: Methuen.
- Blendinger, J. & Jones, L.T. (1988). Create a healthy school culture. An interview with Terry Deal. The School Administrator, 45 (4), 22-26.
- Billings, J. (1989). Top down/bottom up curriculum development. Thrust, 18 (4), 18 - 19.
- Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (1982). Qualitative research for education. An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bonser, S.A. & Grundy, S.J. (1988). Reflective deliberation in the formulation of a school curriculum policy. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 20 (1), 35-45.
- Bullard, P. & Taylor, B.O. (1993). Making school reform happen. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Calhoun, E.F. (1993). Action research: three approaches. Educational Leadership, 51 (2), 62-65.

- Calvert, L. & Crouse, K. (1987). Growth by design: Staff development practices for effective schools. Toronto: Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation.
- Cambourne, B. (1988). The whole story: Natural learning and the acquisition of literacy in the classroom. New Zealand: Ashton Scholastic.
- Charon, J.H. (1989). Symbolic interactionism. an introduction, an interpretation, an integration. (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Cherry, M. (1991). School ownership--the essential foundation of restructuring. NASSP Bulletin, 75, 33-39.
- Clark, D.L., Lotto, L.S. & Astuto, T.A. (1984). Effective schools and school improvement: a comparative analysis of two lines of inquiry. Educational Administration Quarterly, 20 (3), 41-68.
- Cochrane, O., Cochrane, D., Scalena, S. & Buchanan, E. (1984). Reading, writing and caring. Winnipeg: Whole Language Consultants.
- Conley, S.C. (1989). "Who's on first?" School reform, teacher participation, and the decision-making process. Education and Urban Society, 21 (4), 366-376.
- Connelly, F. M. & Clandinin, D. J. (1988). Teachers as curriculum planners: Narratives of experience. Toronto: OISE Press. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Cuban, L. (1993). The lure of curricular reform and its pitiful history. Phi Delta Kappan. 74 (2), 182-185.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1993). Reframing the school reform agenda. Developing capacity for school transformation. Phi Delta Kappan, 74 (10), 753-761.
- David, J.L. (1991). What it takes to restructure. Educational Leadership, 48 (8), 11 - 15.
- Dow, I.I., Whitehead, R.Y. & Wright, R.L. (1984). Curriculum implementation: A framework for action. Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.
- Doyle, W. & Ponder, G. (1977-78). The practicality ethic in teacher decision-making. Interchange, 8 (3), 1-12.
- Duke, D.L. (1989). Understanding what it means to be a teacher. In R.S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp. 20, 21.) Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

- Eisner, E.W. (1988). The primacy of experience and the politics of method. Educational Researcher, 17 (5), 15 - 20.
- Eisner, E.W. (1991). What really counts in schools. Educational Leadership, 48 (5), 10 - 17.
- Elmore, R.F. (1992). Why restructuring alone won't improve teaching. Educational Leadership, 49 (7), 44 - 48.
- English, F. W. (1988). The utility of the camera in qualitative inquiry. Educational Researcher, 17 (4), 8 - 14.
- Evans, R. (1993). The human face of reform. Educational Leadership, 51 (1), 19-23.
- Francis, S., Hirsh, S., & Rowland, E. (1994). Improving school culture through study groups. Journal of Staff Development, 15 (2), 12-15.
- Fullan, M. (1982). The meaning of educational change. Toronto: OISE Press.
- Fullan, M. (1993). Why teachers must become change agents. Educational Leadership, 50 (6), 12-17.
- Fullan, M. (1993). Change forces. Probing the depths of educational reform. London: The Falmer Press. pp. 19 - 41.
- Fullan, M., Anderson, S.E. & Newton, E.E. (1986). Support systems for implementing curriculum in school boards. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Fullan, M. & Hargreaves, A. (1991). What's worth fighting for? Working together for your school. Toronto: Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.
- Fullan, M. & Miles, M.B. (1992). Getting reform right: what works and what doesn't. Phi Delta Kappan, 73 (10), 745-752.
- Fullan, M. & Park, P. (1981). Curriculum implementation. Toronto: OISE Press.
- Fullan, M. & Stiegelbauer, S. (1991). The new meaning of educational change. Toronto: OISE Press.
- Gitlin, A. & Price, K. (1992). Teacher empowerment and the development of voice. In Carl D. Glickman (Ed.) Supervision in transition. 1992 yearbook of the association for supervision and curriculum development. (pp. 61 - 73). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

- Glickman, C. (1990). Pushing school reform to a new edge: the seven ironies of school empowerment. Phi Delta Kappan, 72 (1), 68-75.
- Glickman, C. (1991). Pretending not to know what we know. Educational Leadership, 48 (8), 4-10.
- Glickman, C. (1993). Renewing america's schools. A guide for school-based action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Goldenberg, C. & Gallimore, R. (1991). Changing teaching takes more than a one-shot workshop. Educational Leadership, 49 (3), 69.
- Goodlad, J.I. (1992). On taking school reform seriously. Phi Delta Kappan, 74 (3), 232-238.
- Grimmet, P.P., Rostad, O.P. & Ford, B. (1992). The transformation of supervision. In Carl D. Glickman (Ed.), Supervision in transition. 1992 yearbook of the association for supervision and curriculum development. (pp. 185 - 202). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Guba, E. G. (1978). Toward a methodology of naturalistic inquiry in educational evaluation. (CSE Monograph series in evaluation, No. 8). California: Centre for the Study of Evaluation.
- Guba, E. G. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. ECTJ, 30 (4), 233-252.
- Guskey, T. R. (1989). Staff development and teacher change. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp.57 - 60). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Guskey, T. R. (1990) Integrating innovations. Educational Leadership, 47 (5), 11-15.
- Hall, G.E. (1979). The concerns-based approach to facilitating change. Educational Horizons, 57 (4), 202-208.
- Harste, J. (April, 1990). New images of literacy: voice, conversation, community. Keynote speech at Faces of Literacy Conference. Montreal, Que.: Quebec Reading Association.
- Hirsh, S. & Ponder, G. (1991). New plots, new heroes in staff development. Educational Leadership, 49 (3), 43-47.
- Holtzman, M. (1993). What is systemic change? Educational Leadership, 51 (1), 18.

- Hord, S.M. & Hall, G.E. (1987). Three images: what principals do in curriculum implementation. Curriculum Inquiry, 17 (1), 55-89.
- Hord, S.M., Rutherford, W.L., Huling-Austin, L. & Hall, G.E. (1987). Taking charge of change. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Howe, K. R. (1992). Getting over the quantitative-qualitative debate. American Journal of Education, 100 (2), 236-256.
- Huberman, M. (1988/91). Teacher careers and school improvement. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 20 (2), 119-132.
- Huddleston, J., Claspell, M. & Killion, J. (April, 1991). Participative decision-making can capitalize on teacher expertise. NASSP Bulletin, 75, 80-89.
- James, R. K. & Hord, S. M. (1988). Implementing elementary school science programs. School Science and Mathematics, 88 (4), 315 - 334.
- James, R. K. & Francq, E. (1988). Assessing the implementation of a science program. School Science and Mathematics, 88 (2), 149 - 159.
- Jenkins, K. & Houlihan, G.T. (Feb., 1990). We're cutting through the red tape to real school reform. The Executive Educator, 18,19,27.
- Johnson, R.W. (1993). Where can teacher research lead? One teacher's daydream. Educational Leadership. 51 (2), 66-68.
- Joyce, B., Wolf, J. & Calhoun, E. (1993). The self-renewing school. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (1989). The coaching of teaching. In R.S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp. 182-184). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Kemmis, S. & McTaggart, R. (1982). The action research planner. (2nd edtn.). Victoria 3217: Deakin University Press.
- King, A.J.C. & Peart, M.J. (1992). Teachers in Canada. Their work and quality of life. Ottawa: Canadian Teachers' Federation.
- Kirby, S.L. & McKenna, K. (1989). Experience. Research. Social change. Methods from the margins. Toronto: Garamond Press.
- Knowles, M. S. & Assoc. (1984). Andragogy in action: applying modern principles of adult learning. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Kushner, S. & Norris, N. (1980-81). Interpretation, negotiation, and validity in naturalistic research. Interchange, 11 (4), 26 - 35.
- Labinowicz, E. (1980). The piaget primer. Toronto: Addison-Wesley.
- Lancaster, M. & Oliver, R. (1988). The holistic curriculum. Interactive planning and organization. OPSTF News, 2 (3), 24-25.
- Leedy, P.D. (1989). Practical research: planning and design. (2nd ed.). New York: MacMillan Pub. Co.
- Leithwood, K. A. (1978, January). Fundamental tasks involved in managing the implementation of curriculum innovation. Paper presented at the curriculum seminar sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Northwestern Ontario Region, Thunder Bay, Ontario.
- Leithwood, K.A. (1990). The principal's role in teacher's development. In Bruce Joyce (Ed.) The 1990 ASCD yearbook on staff development. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Leithwood, K. A., Holmes, M. & Montgomery, D. J. (1979). Helping schools change: strategies derived from field experience. Toronto: OISE Press.
- Leithwood, K.A., & Montgomery, D.J. (1987). "A procedure for developing innovation profiles" in Improving classroom practice using innovation profiles. Toronto: OISE Press, 24-46.
- Levine, D.U. (1991). Creating effective schools: findings and implications from research and practice. Phi Delta Kappan, 72 (5), 389-393.
- Lezotte, L. (July, 1989). Effective schools research. Model for planned change. Okemos, Michigan: Effective Schools Products, Ltd.
- Lezotte, L. & Jacoby, B.C. (1990). A guide to the school improvement process based on effective schools research. Okemos, Michigan: Effective Schools Products, Ltd.
- Lieberman, A. & McLaughlin, M.W. (1992). Networks for educational change: powerful and problematic. Phi Delta Kappan, 73 (9), 673-677.
- Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (1992). Teachers: their world and their work. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lipman, P. (1991). The good professional. O.S.S.T.F. (Fall), 26-30.

- Little, J. Warren. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: workplace conditions of school success. AERJ, 19 (3), 325-340.
- Loucks, S.F., Newlove, B.W., & Hall, G.E. (1975). Measuring levels of use of the innovation: a manual for trainers, interviewers, and raters. Austin: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, University of Texas at Austin.
- MacKeracher, D. (1984). The nature of adult learning: implications for planning and implementing programs. Unpublished manuscript. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.
- Maeroff, G.I. (1993). Team building for school change: equipping teachers for new roles. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Maglaras, T. & Lynch, D. (1988). Monitoring the curriculum: from plan to action. Educational Leadership, 46 (2), 58 - 60.
- Matlin, M.L. & Short, K.G. (1991). How our teacher study group sparks change. Educational Leadership, 49 (3), 68.
- McCormick Calkins, L. (1986). The art of teaching writing. Portsmouth, N. H.: Heinemann Educational Books.
- McFee, G. (1992). Triangulation in research: two confusions. Educational Research, 43 (3), 215-219.
- Merriam, S. B. (1985). The case study in educational research: a review of selected literature. The Journal of Educational Thought, 19 (3), 204 - 214.
- Merton, R.K., Fiske, M. & Kendall, P.L. (1990). The focussed interview. A manual of problems and procedures, (2nd ed.). New York: The Free Press
- Milburn, G. (1987). Who are the players in canadian curriculum? Education Canada, (summer) 4 - 9.
- Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1984). Qualitative data analysis: a sourcebook of new methods. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miller, J. P. & Seller, W. (1985). Curriculum perspectives and practice. New York: Longman.
- Ministry of Education and Training. (1993). The Common Curriculum Grades 1-9. Version for parents and the general public. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.

- Ministry of Education and Training. (1993). A summary and analysis of the english language responses to the early years consultation paper, June 1991. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.
- Mitchell, J. E. (1990). Coaxing staff from cages for site based decisions to fly. The School Administrator, 47 (2), 23-26.
- Monson, M.P. & Monson, R.J. (1993). Who creates curriculum? New roles for teachers. Educational Leadership, 51 (2), 19 - 21.
- Morgan, G. (1994). Finding your 15%. Toronto: Imaginization Learning Systems.
- Morrice, C. & Simmons, M. (Apr. 1990). Beyond reading buddies: A whole language cross-age program. The Reading Teacher, 44 (8), 572 - 577.
- Norris, J. H. ((1994). What leaders need to know about school culture. Journal of Staff Development, 15 (2), 2-5.
- Oja, S. N. & Smulyan, L. (1989). Collaborative action research: a developmental approach. London: The Falmer Press.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (1982). Partners in action: the library resource centre in the school curriculum. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (1985). Provincial review report. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (1988). Curriculum management. Resource guide. Toronto: Queen's Printer for Ontario.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (June 1990). The formative years. Consultation paper. Toronto: Government of Ontario.
- Ontario Teachers' Federation. (1993). Creating a culture of change. Philosophy statement. Toronto: OTF.
- Park, P. & Fullan, M. (1986). Ontario curriculum: issues of professional development. Toronto: The Ontario Teachers' Federation.
- Patton, M. Q. (1980). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). How to use qualitative methods in evaluation. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Poplin, M.S. (1992). The leader's new role: looking to the growth of teachers. Educational Leadership, 49 (5), 10,11.

- Porter, A. C. & Brophy, J. (1989). Synthesis of research on good teaching: Insights from the work of the institute for research on teaching. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp. 66 - 75). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Puk, T. (1993, June). Applications of a meta-model of educational processes as it applies to any teaching/learning situation. Paper presented to The Canadian Society for the Study of Education Learned Societies Conference. Carleton University, Ottawa, Ontario.
- Robbins, P. & Wolfe, P. (1989). Reflections on a Hunter-based staff development project. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp. 156-158). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Rogers, E. M. & Shoemaker, F. F. (1971). Communication of innovations: a cross-cultural approach. London: Collier MacMillan Publishers.
- Rosenholtz, S. (1989). Teachers' workplace: the social organization of schools. New York: Longman.
- Routman, R. (1989). Transitions from literature to literacy. Chicago: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Rowell, P. (1985). The quality of social interaction in curriculum planning: Observations from a situational study. In T. Aoki, K. Jacknicke & D. Franks (eds.) Understanding curriculum as lived: curriculum canada VII (pp. 67 - 80). Vancouver: Centre for the Study of Curriculum and Instruction. (The University of British Columbia).
- Royal Commission on Learning. (1993). Spotlight on learning. Toronto.
- Sarason, S. B. (1982). The culture of the school and the problem of change. (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Schoeppach, M. R. & Nissen, D. (summer, 1992). The new role of the teacher as decision maker. Kappa Delta Pi, 74, 101-103.
- Schmuck, P.A. (1992). Educating the new generation of superintendents. Educational Leadership, 49 (5), 66.
- Schubert, W. H. (1989). Teacher lore: A neglected basis for understanding curriculum and supervision. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 4 (3), 22 - 285.
- Schwab, J. J. (1983). The practical 4: Something for curriculum professors to do. Curriculum Inquiry, 13 (3), 239 - 265.

- Schwartz, S. (1987). All write: a teacher's guide to writing, K-6. Toronto: OISE Press.
- Seidman, I.E. (1991). Interviewing as qualitative research. A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Showers, B. (1989). Teacher coaching teachers. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (p. 189). Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Showers, B., Joyce, B. & Bennett, B. (1989). Synthesis of research on staff development: A framework for future study. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, (pp. 120 - 129). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Sparks, G.M. (1989). Synthesis of research on staff development for effective teaching. In R.S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, pp. 101 -105. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Spiegelberg, H. (1975). Doing phenomenology: Essays on and in phenomenology. The Hague: Martinus Nyhoff, (pp. 4 - 53).
- Steffin, A. & Sleep, R. (1988). A model for successful school based staff development. The Canadian School Executive, 8 (6), 11 - 16.
- Strachan, D. B. (1990). From seminars to lessons: A middle school language arts teacher's reflections on instructional improvement. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 22 (3), 233 - 252.
- Surbeck, E., Han E.P. & Moyer, J.E. (1991). Assessing reflective responses in journals. Educational Leadership, 48 (6), 25-27.
- Taylor, B.O. & Levine, D. U. (1991). Effective schools projects and school-based management. Phi Delta Kappan, 72 (5), 394-397.
- Tuthill, D. (1990). Expanding the union contract: one teacher's perspective. Phi Delta Kappan, 71 (10), 775-780.
- Tye, K.A. (1992). Restructuring our schools. Beyond the rhetoric. Phi Delta Kappan, 74 (1), 8-14.
- Vaughan, E.D. (1987). Implementing an innovative program: staff development and teacher classroom performance. Journal of Teacher Education, 38 (6), 40-47.

- Wade, R.K. (1989). What makes a difference in in-service teacher education? A meta-analysis of research. In R.S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, pp. 114. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wagner, T. (1993). Systemic change: rethinking the purpose of school. Educational Leadership, 51 (1), 24-28.
- Wassermann, S. & Ivany, J.W.G. (1988). Teaching elementary science: Who's afraid of spiders? New York: Harper & Row.
- Welch, G. (1994). Current issues in public education and their implications: reflections of an administrator in residence. The Canadian Administrator, 33 (7), 1-7.
- Wildman, T.M. & Niles, J.A. (1989). Essentials of professional growth. In R.S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership, pp. 4,5. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wise, A. E. & Hammond, L. D. (1989). Teacher evaluation and teacher professionalism. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.), Coaching and staff development: readings from educational leadership. (pp. 28 - 33). Virginia: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- Wolcott, H.F. (1990). Writing up qualitative research. Qualitative research methods 20. California: Sage Publications.
- Wolfe, R.L. & Tymitz, B. (1977). Toward more natural inquiry in education. CEDR Quarterly, 1 - 5.
- Wood, E. (1990). Reforming teaching: is it possible? Education Canada. 30 (4), 28-35.

APPENDIX

A.01 Open-ended Interview Form

OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW: CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE CLASSROOM

DATE: _____

TIME: _____

PLACE: _____

PARTICIPANT(S): _____

CONTEXT:

QUERIES:

1. TELL ME ABOUT THE CHANGE YOU HAVE IN MIND:

2. WHAT ARE THE REASONS FOR MAKING THIS CHANGE?

3. WHAT CONDITIONS EXISTED BEFORE YOU PLANNED THIS CHANGE?

4. WHAT DIRECTION/FORM DO YOU THINK THIS CHANGE WILL TAKE IN TERMS OF YOUR OVERALL PROGRAM?

5. WHAT PARTICULAR ASPECTS OF THE PROGRAM ARE YOU FOCUSING ON?

6. WHAT METHODS WILL YOU USE TO ORGANIZE/KEEP TRACK OF THIS CHANGE?

- . WHAT ARE YOUR PERSONAL FEELINGS ABOUT THIS CHANGE?

A.02 Analysis of Interview Questions

	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Future</i>
Behavior/Experience Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ ○ 	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • • • ○ ○ • • • • ○ </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • ○ ○ ○ ○
Opinion/Value Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • ○ ○ ○ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • • • ○ • • 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ ○
Feeling Questions		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ○ ○ ○ 	
Knowledge Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ○ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • • • ○ ○ ○ • • • • ○ ○ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •
Sensory Questions		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ○ ○ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○
Demographic/Background Questions *	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 		

Open-ended interview

○ Focussed interview

○ Final interview

 REALM WITHIN PRINCIPAL RESEARCH QUESTIONS

* Demographic information was obtained through the Professional Information Form.

Note. from Patton (1980, p. 210).

A. 03 Professional Information Form

PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION : CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE CLASSROOM

DATE: _____

NAME: _____

CODE: _____

1. TEACHING EXPERIENCE:

TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS: _____ YEARS AT PRESENT SCHOOL: _____

LEVELS TAUGHT: (PLEASE CIRCLE)

K 1 2 3 4 5 6 8 OTHER: _____

2. PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS: (PLEASE SPECIFY)

PRE-DEGREE STATUS (IF APPLICABLE): _____

DEGREE(S) HELD:

ADDITIONAL QUALIFICATIONS COURSES:

MOST RECENT COURSE TAKEN AND DATE:

3. TEACHING ASSIGNMENT(S):

THIS YEAR: DIVISION(S) _____ GRADE(S) _____

PREVIOUS YEAR: DIVISION(S) _____ GRADE(S) _____

4. EXTRA-CURRICULAR/COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES: (PLEASE LIST)

A.04 Open-ended survey**OPEN-ENDED SURVEY: CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE CLASSROOM**

DATE: _____

NAME: _____ CODE: _____

PLEASE ANSWER AS FULLY AS POSSIBLE:

1. WHAT CHANGES WILL YOU CONSIDER WHEN YOU PLAN YOUR PROGRAM AROUND YOUR DAILY SCHEDULE?

2. WHAT CURRICULUM UNITS/THEMES DO YOU PLAN TO INTRODUCE THIS YEAR?

3. WHAT CURRICULUM UNITS/THEMES DO YOU PLAN TO ADJUST/EXTEND THIS YEAR?

4. WHAT CHANGES IN STRATEGIES/APPROACHES TOWARD YOUR STUDENTS ARE YOU CONSIDERING?

5. WHAT CHANGES ARE YOU MAKING FOR THE USE OF SPACE IN YOUR CLASSROOM ARRANGEMENT?

6. WHAT CHANGES ARE YOU PLANNING IN THE USE OF RESOURCES?

A.05 Field Notes: Considerations

CODE: D - DESCRIPTIVE
P - PERSONAL
M - METHODOLOGICAL
T - THEORETICAL

1. Descriptive: space
 people
 actions
 situations
 events
 time
 objects
 goals
 feelings
2. Personal: impressions
 interpretations
 reflections
 problems
3. Methodological: approaches
 decisions
 contacts
 confirmations
4. Theoretical: questions
 themes/issues
 hypotheses/propositions
 speculations
5. Relation to Research Questions:

WHAT IS THE TEACHERS' PERSONAL/PROFESSIONAL STANCE WITH REGARD TO CHANGE:

- a) What types of changes do teachers choose to activate that are related to their overall program, or particular areas of focus within their program?
- b) How do teachers prioritize, organize and carry out these changes?
- c) In what ways do teachers personally relate to professional change?



COVER LETTER:

Dear _____:

I am conducting a study entitled " Curriculum Change in the Classroom: A Teacher-Based Inquiry.

The purpose of the study is to collect information that determines the nature of teacher change initiatives as they occur in the classroom.

Research and the collection of data will take place during the 1991/92 school year. The information gained from this study will help in providing teachers with an organized and meaningful approach to the implementation of new curriculum and/or their own professional growth.

During the course of the study you will be asked to :

(i) complete a professional information form and general survey which will provide background data and change intentions of the participants. (Fall PA Day)

(ii) participate in an interview designed to give you the opportunity to discuss your change with me. (Term One)

(iii) contribute working documents or items relevant to your change.

You may also be asked to participate in two or more brief follow-up interviews to discuss your change in more detail as it develops. (Term Two and Three)

All information you provide will be coded, analyzed, and remain confidential under a pseudonym. No individual will be identified in any report of the results. No deception, physical stress or mental discomfort will be involved. You may withdraw from the study at any time.

The results will be shared with the Ontario Educational Research Council, with possibilities for publication or conference presentation. A summary of the report will be available to you upon request.

Thank you for your co-operation and support.

Sincerely,



Lakehead University

Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada Postal Code P7B 5E1

Telephone 343 8110 Area Code 807

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I, _____ have read and understood the cover letter of the study entitled, "Curriculum Change in the Classroom: A Teacher-Based Inquiry" conducted by Connie Morrice, and I agree to participate.

I am aware that I will be completing a Professional Information form and general survey, and will take part in one interview relevant to the purpose of the study. I also understand that I may be asked to take part in two or more follow-up interviews during the course of the school year. I will also be expected to contribute certain working documents or other items relevant to the study.

I understand that any information collected about me during this study will be kept confidential under a pseudonym and if the results are published or presented, I will not be identified in any way. I realize that no deception, physical stress or mental discomfort is involved, and that I may withdraw at any time from participating in this research project.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT: _____

DATE: _____

A.08 Summary: Results Related to Sample Selection

STUDY SAMPLE: COMPOSITION:

ADMINISTRATORS:	2
SUPPORT STAFF:	2
SECRETARIAL:	2
CUSTODIAL	3
ED. ASST.:	3

TEACHING STAFF:

LIBRARIAN:	1
FRENCH:	2.2
SPECIAL ED:	3
FULL-TIME:	21
HALF-TIME:	5.5

COVER LETTERS AND CONSENT FORMS WERE DISTRIBUTED TO TEACHING STAFF ONLY.

DISTRIBUTION: COVER LETTER & CONSENT FORMS:	31	31
RETURNS: CONSENT FORMS SIGNED:	15	
VERBAL CONSENTS:	2	17
NON-CONSENT:	14	14
PROFESSIONAL INFO SHEETS COMPLETED:		
FROM CONSENTING STAFF	17	
FROM NON-CONSENTING STAFF	3	20
GENERAL SURVEYS COMPLETED:		
FROM CONSENTING STAFF	14	
FROM NON-CONSENTING STAFF	6	20

FOLLOW-UP FEEDBACK ON STAFF WHO DID NOT SIGN CONSENTS:

- verbal comments: no time/ felt threatened (2)
- death in the family (1)
- no regular class (1)
- specialist subj. half-time, odd days (1)
- pregnancy leave, first term (1)
- half-time mornings only (1)
- absent for both info sessions (1)
- contradicted personal beliefs (1)
- no reason: filled out info forms (1)
- no reason: handed back blank (4)

TOTAL: 14

PARTICIPANT SELECTION FOR OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW:

13 out of a possible 17
* 1 interview partially completed

ELIMINATION FACTORS:

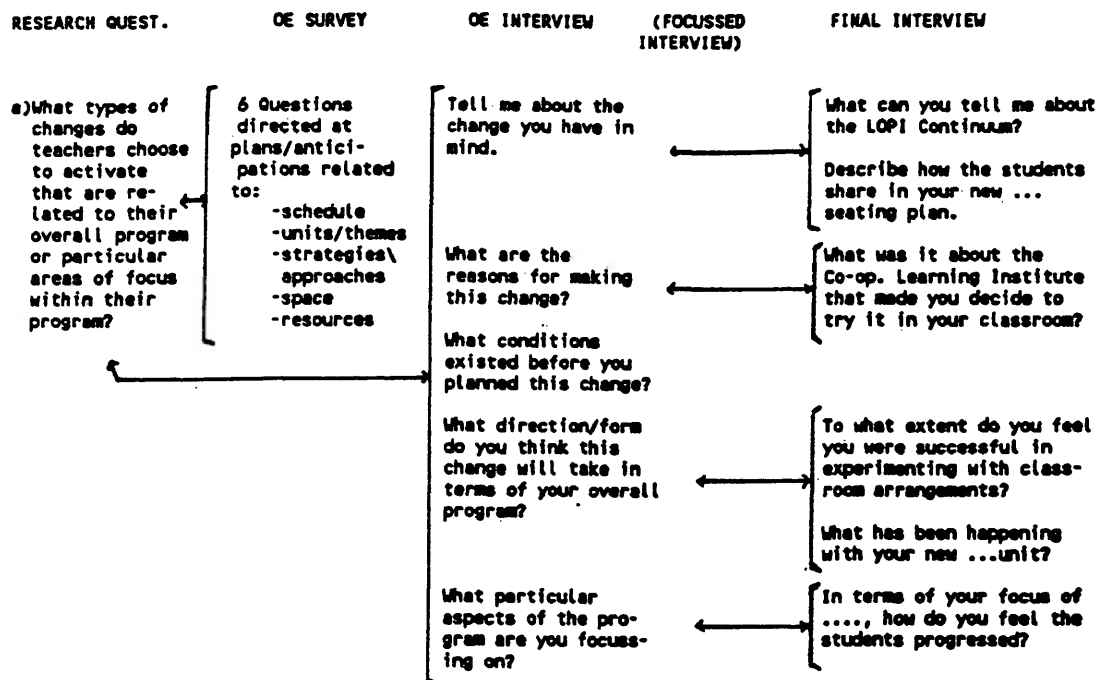
- pregnancy leave at Xmas (1)
- team-teacher with the researcher (1)
- death in the family (1)
- repeat cancellations for interview/unsuitable times (1)

TOTAL: 4

* 1 participant specialized subject area, partially completed

A.09 Question Development

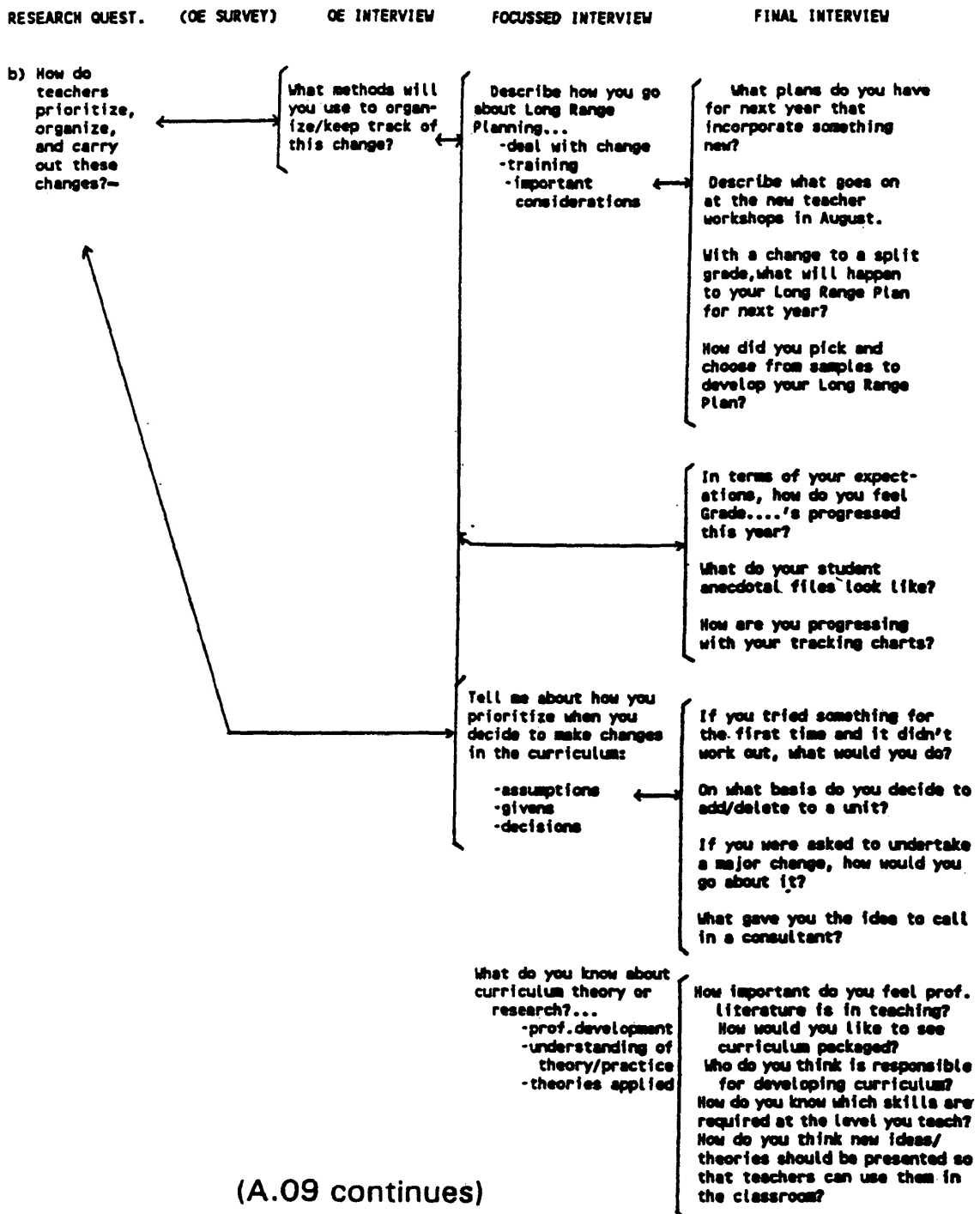
MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION: What is the teachers' personal/professional stance with regard to change?



NOTE: THE FOCUSSED INTERVIEW DID NOT ADDRESS QUESTION A) IN A MORE SPECIFIC WAY. THE FINAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS WERE INDIVIDUALIZED AND DIRECTED TOWARD OBTAINING SPECIFIC INFORMATION FROM EACH RESPONDENT.

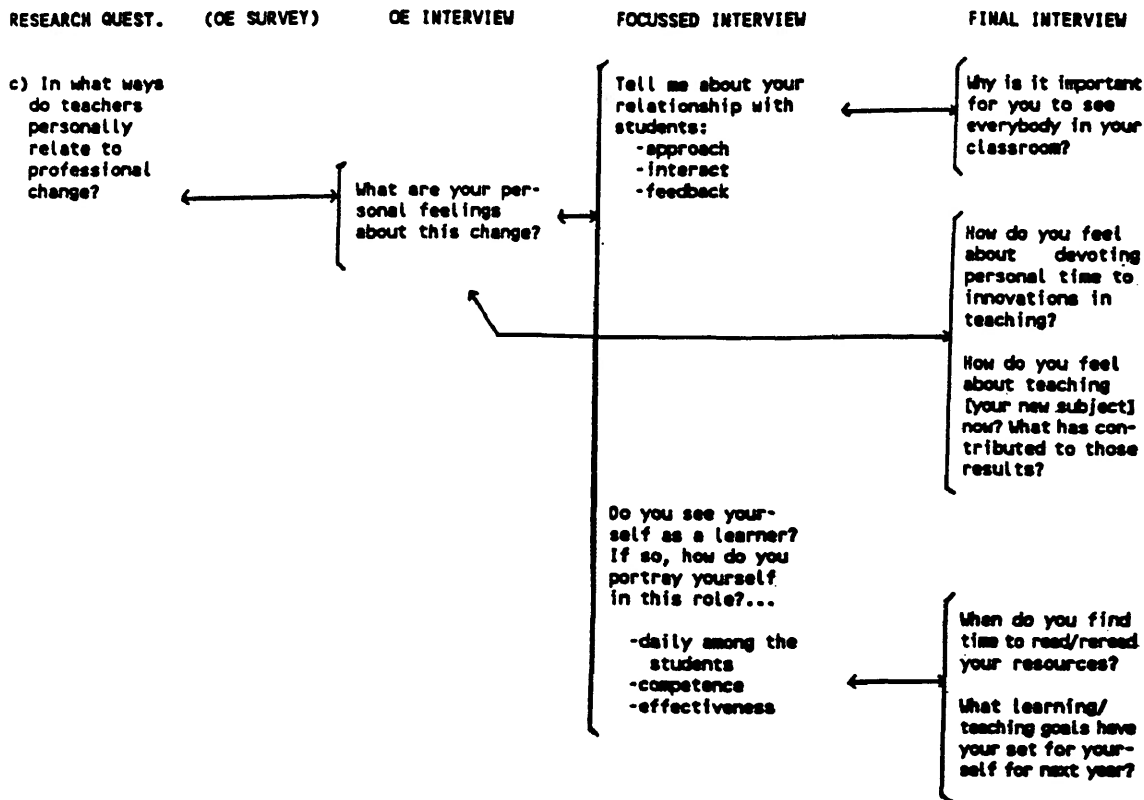
(A.09 continues)

QUESTION DEVELOPMENT



(A.09 continues)

QUESTION DEVELOPMENT



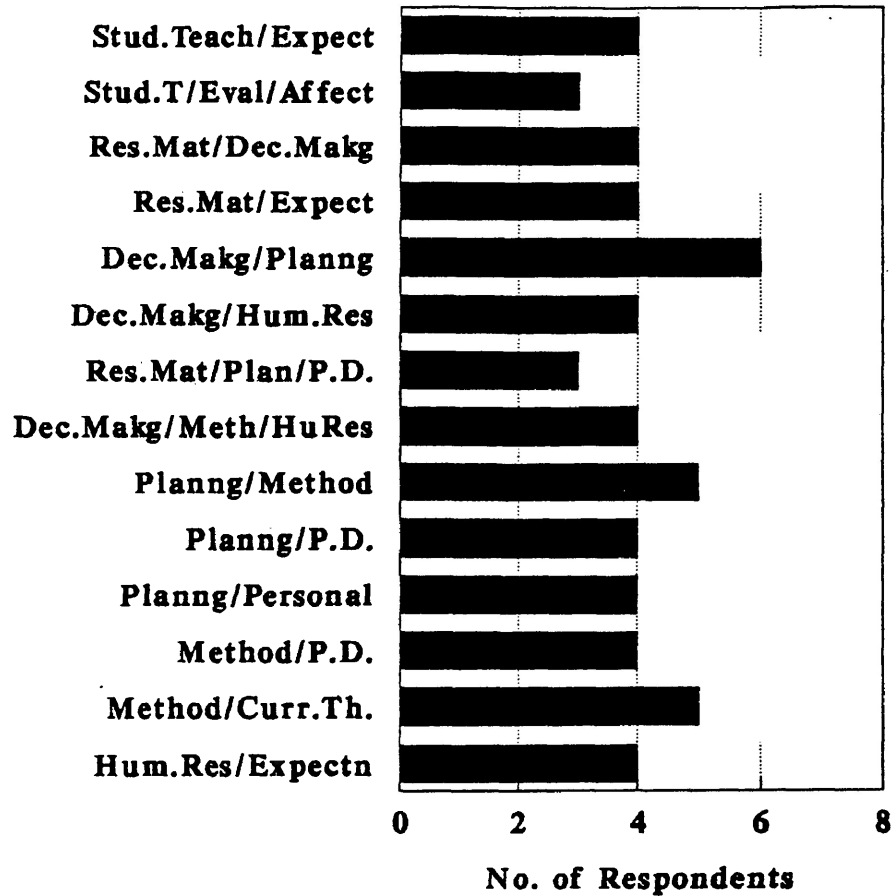
A.10 Context Categories From the Interview Transcripts

CATEGORY	KEY WORDS	CONCEPTS
TEACHER AS LEARNER	how to, getting better, reading, getting information, trying, observing.	learning along with the kids, researching, mutual growth, refer to literature.
STUD/TEACHER RELATIONSHIP	feedback, contacts, individualism, participation, understanding.	daily responsibilities, organization of room, informal guidance, role model.
RESOURCES/MATERIALS	materials, activities, guidelines, skills lists, units, texts.	acquisition of, organization of, updated resources, choices, adaptable activities.
PLANNING	Long Range, topics, units, themes, listing, integrating, modifications, activities, time-lines.	brainstorming, writing steps, covering content and skills, using a planning template, describing process.
METHODOLOGY	approach, teaming, grouping, concrete to abstract, setting up, discussion.	resource-based learning, Co-op. Learning, using natural pauses, following a text, drawing from programs and guidelines.
EVALUATION	checklists, tracking, anecdotes, tests, standards, feedback.	progress charts, individualization, relate to learning objectives, conventional expectations, observation of social.
TIME	blocks, pace, schedule.	overload, interruptions, slow process, allotment, time of year, readiness.
DECISION-MAKING	like, feel, think, want, need, get, try to, hope to, did, make, look at, preferred, choose, consider, figure out, make sure.	belief to practice, selection of materials and activities, adopting strategies, adding and deleting to units.
HUMAN RESOURCES	volunteers, consultants, other teachers, Division Chairpeople, AR teacher, teacher-librarian.	Planning with, seeking advice from, teaching with, sharing with.
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	workshop, presentation, in-service, make-and-take, conferences, courses.	variety of techniques, talking with other teachers, browsing through materials, ineffectiveness.
CURRICULUM THEORY	authors, Board directives, prof. resource books, reading lists at courses.	hard to understand, helps planning make sense, available expertise, how kids learn.
CONTROL	guilt, behaviour control, routines, accountability.	conforming to teacher evaluation expectations, classroom management, system pressure re: innovations.
AFFECTIVE	self-esteem, motivator, interest, enthusiasm, success.	class co-operation, social skills, maintaining academic interest, individual esteem.

(A.10 continues)

BELIEFS	I think, ascribe to, have an obligation to, feel that... There should be, you have to make/do...	respect as teachers, relevance in learning, balance of teaching styles, the whole child.
PERSONAL	scared, comfortable, happy, stimulating, stressful, like, agree with, family.	level of comfort, personal energy, emotional reactions, people relationships, own situation.
FOCUS	direction, thrust, approach, emphasis, skills, concentrations.	skills within topics, content vs. process, purpose for a unit, open-ended guidelines.
EXPECTATIONS	expectations, modifying, adjusting, outcomes, meeting needs, rationale.	sticking to a plan, policies and procedures, comprehensive guidelines, special needs students, attitudes.
REFLECTION	working/not working, change expectations, results, been through it, work on.	student progress, analysing effectiveness of a unit, addressing social skills.

A.11 Context Category Combinations



ACROSS FINAL SAMPLE ONLY

A.12 Decision-Making Language of the Teachers

STRUCTURING

looked at curriculum guides
 got the curriculum
 look at a curriculum
 was looking at the curriculum
 find out what was on their curriculum
 pull background experiences..curriculum
 could get a better picture of...

topics
 put down the core subjects
 can't do thematic units on every single thing we do
 and do a good job
 not spend as long on some topics
 just pick a theme
 look at my core topics
 I found the topics

units
 establishing some really set units
 lots of units already made
 don't see any reason to change the themes
 will include units, filed, refresh my
 memory
 taken some units that the Board...bought some units

following
 followed the same order
 follow that same format
 not following anybody in particular
 can use the same process
 following the ones that are supposed to be

rough plan
 writing down what I've done, updating it
 mentally planning
 plan it roughly
 devise a sketchy plan
 sort of planning as I go

listing needs
 try to make a list of what I need
 list things
 make a list

approach
 take more of the activity approach
 haven't decided on how I'm going to approach this
 go at it in maybe a different approach
 how I want to approach it

setting up
 setting things up and taking things down
 I set up
 set up situations
 set up some learning centres
 how we were going to set up

grouping
 grouped them
 regroup
 CL grouping
 group arbitrarily on a whim of my own
 left the groups
 CL grouping for study skills

time
 got the right timing, took longer than I thought it
 would
 plan a week in advance, change as the week goes on
 everything took a lot longer than I thought
 spending a lot of time with
 came back and did it right away
 spending more and more time on

look at
 could have a look at them
 look at the samples
 just look at
 looked at my class, curriculum
 continuing to watch for
 looking at resources ahead of time

(A.12 continues)

Decision-Making Language of the Teachers

SHAPING

expectations

expectations...have to change my timing
brainstorming with the children to see what they
know/don't know
by what they put out and their productivity/that's
what I go by
required me to lower my expectations
accommodations that I have to make
have to lower your expectations a bit

direction

looking forward to doing it again
wasn't quite sure where I was going...we moved into
doing it
I'm stuck on...we're heading into
act upon my reflections in altering
aware of where we should be striving to be
I'm going to go from here to there

focus

concentrate on
I'm focussing
be focussing
focus in on them
decision for focus depends on the unit and what it
lends itself to
I'm concentrating a lot on

choose

you pick and choose
some things I would do in one unit and not in
another
to pick things out of the curriculum
to do some selections
I'm choosing

switching, reorganizing

switched the order...to mix them up
organize things a bit better
monkeying around with changing it
juggling
never been done exactly the same way
switched all my order

add and delete

leave something out, put other stuff in
leave out some of these things.
took what I liked..left out what I didn't like
reduce it...add to it
add to...delete
pull....add new

put aside

to forget about that and do something else
have not been using that
skipped around, skipped a whole bunch of stuff
not willing to make any more progress
forget what we were originally going to do
I'm willing to put aside something

hilit

just pick the highlights
go to sections, don't sit there and read the whole
thing
went right to the meat of it
what did we feel was important
limit the activity

separating

put it in the box, that's where it's going to stay
separate them
didn't want to overlap
had some separations
do it well or don't want to do it

working out

keeping track of what's working and what's not
if something's working/not working I write it down
take a look and see what they did...that's worked
well
making sure it works
scrap this...try to work with this
didn't write anything down because I remembered
it..if it doesn't work

assess the students

looked at the kids
see what they know/don't know, go from that
that would suit the kids
program to identify
get into their heads
work on those weak areas

(A.12 continues)

Decision-Making Language of the Teachers

INTEGRATING

collect resources

had to go and get a lot of things
to gather a few resources
don't have to go around begging and scrounging for
resources
got to know the resources available
gather from other sources and people
collecting resources

research

do more research and background on what I'm
teaching
to research and find out
to set that up without knowing all the content
to read up a little bit
do a little bit of research myself
you still have to dig for information

learning

learning along with the kids, learning how
learning a lot, still got alot of learning to do.
learning it along with the kids
catching up on all the daily stuff
I've learned it as I've taught it

skills

tell them why you're doing it
making sure they're getting all the skills
try to consider the cognitive aspect
work in the skills
stress that area

modify

modified
plan that day differently than if they were in
their home room
I can modify
modifying the program
can give them individual attention

extend

catch up, do extensions
you extend from that
accommodate a whole range of interests
change of pace with the natural pauses
supplemented it with
double the time and get more into it

combine

try to involve everything
often try to combine
pull another together
put them all together

other people

asked other people, went to the High School
did get some from another teacher, received plans
from other grade teacher
went to the Academic Resource teacher and got...sat
down and talked about it
talk to the previous teacher, already talked to...
put it by her...covered by a previous teacher
discussing with teachers, going to meet together.

thinking it through

make mental notes
thinking about what the objectives..go from there
look at my own personal feelings
investigating
do more thinking about this
thinking it through a lot

connect

relate to each other...wrote in that
try to tie in my units to the report card
tie in
they sort of tie in with

adapt

adapt things that were there
adjusting it
an adaptation
usually adapt it
have to go with what's around you

incorporate

incorporate
been incorporating that
incorporated, do a little bit of each
I'm incorporating that
incorporate some other things
we can fit it into the unit

transfer

take another unit and do the same things with that
units already made and use that
go back to it and use it in another situation
see if there's a better way than the year before
stuck to structured....moving into centres