THE PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE: A STAFF DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVE IN TWO SCHOOL DISTRICTS

By

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ABSTRACT

This study explored, described, and attempted to explain the process of change in two school districts in British Columbia. The study sought to determine why and how the two districts selected and put into place the same staff development program.

A comparative case study method was used. A purposive sample of thirty-two persons from the two districts was interviewed to obtain their perceptions of the processes of change in their respective districts. The individuals in the sample represented three levels of district organizational structure -- classroom teachers, school principals, and district officials. Other data sources were district documents and the researcher's field notes.

The data were first analyzed descriptively using as a framework Fullan's three phases of the change process: (1) initiation, (2) implementation, and (3) continuation (including perceived outcomes). Secondly, a comparative analysis between the districts was undertaken. Thirdly, an interpretive analysis, in relation to the current literature on change in education was completed. The three analyses yielded twenty-nine findings, most of

which are in accord with the current literature. Some findings, however, do not fit that literature.

An analysis of these findings has led to speculative conclusions in the following areas: (1) explaining program selection, (2) emphasizing the importance of certain process issues (timing, conflict, and central office involvement), (3) participation of personnel in relation to position in the organizational structure, and (4) the importance of context.

Four recommendations based on the findings and conclusions are made. Two are addressed to practitioners: (1) careful attention should be paid to the contemporary literature because it does explain much of what happens, (2) practitioners should consider carefully the lessons to be learned from local variations because every case appears to have its contingencies that affect the process. The other two recommendations are addressed to those who would do further research: (3) future research which seeks to explain what it is that accounts for local variations could enhance our understanding of change, and (4) a number of methodological limitations of the present study should be addressed in future research attempts of this kind.

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CHAPTER 1

THE BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The process of change in education is a topic of considerable current interest. Researchers who explore the change process increasingly insist upon the importance of the local context in undertaking change (Berman, 1981; Fullan, 1982; Griffin, 1983).

One way school districts attempt change is through staff development programs. While these programs are often a mechanism for the introduction of changes in teaching or other functions, they are themselves changes in that they are new activities, selected from a particular source for particular reasons. They are both instruments of change and changes in their own right.

In British Columbia, between the years 1976-1984, two adjacent school districts put into place the same staff development program. This provided a unique opportunity to explore not only the introduction of a particular program, but also the extent to which different local contexts made for differences in the processes by which the new program was selected and put into place.

This chapter contains a description of the background to the study, a statement of purpose, and an overview of the thesis.

BACKGROUND PERSPECTIVES:

STAFF DEVELOPMENT AS CHANGE

Staff development is the focus of an extensive body of literature. A review of that literature from an historical perspective shows evidence of staff development, in some form, for as long as teachers have worked in public schools (Tyler, 1971). The term "staff development" is one which is not universally used by those who write about the education of teachers. Throughout the literature there are attempts to define and clarify terms referring to teacher in-service education. Terms such as professional development, continuing education, and staff development are used interchangeably in reference to the in-service education of teachers. The following definition of staff development offered by Griffin provides the view of staff development taken in the present study:

> Staff development refers to any systematic attempt to change school personnel (1983:414).

Griffin (1983) takes the position that staff development change may be role specific, organizational, curricular,

personal or multifocused.

Currently, staff development programs, in a variety of forms, are part of the regular activities of every school district. In fact, recent references suggest that staff development is a massive undertaking in education in North America. Yarger et al. (1980) report that the ratio of staff development personnel to teachers may be as high as one in ten in America. Given those findings, it is interesting to consider the results of a national survey (Joyce et al., 1977) which indicates that "teachers invariably reported that they participated in relatively small amounts of staff development during the course of the preceding year." With respect to attitudes regarding the quality of programs, the same study reports that only 25% felt programs were in "good or excellent health," while 30% saw them as "less than adequate or poor" and the remaining 45% were "lukewarm in their assessment." Those results suggest that many teachers are critical of present practices yet the great majority reported in the Joyce et al. survey (1977) that staff development generally was either an "excellent" or "good" idea.

While comparable studies are not available in British Columbia, it seems reasonable to suggest that in

this province the ratio of staff development personnel to teachers is not as high as one to ten. However, a local study did indicate that attitudes of B.C. teachers toward staff development are similar to the findings of the Joyce et al. (1977) study insofar as they considered staff development to be a good idea but were critical of present practices (Bens, 1981).

The literature reports a range of attitudes expressed by educational researchers regarding the present status of staff development. Anderson et al. (1979) conclude that staff development offers one of the most promising roads to the improvement of instruction. At the opposite end of the continuum is the opinion expressed by Wood and Thompson (1980) who take the position that most staff development programs are irrelevant, ineffective, and a waste of time and money. While these two positions may appear to be contradictory, they suggest that, if staff development practices are going to improve instruction, the programs cannot be seen by educators to be irrelevant and ineffective and, in times of fiscal restraint, staff development programs cannot be seen to be a waste of time and money.

Staff development programs are criticized in the

literature for failing to respond to locally assessed needs and for responding to fads -- jumping on bandwagons that come and go. As illustrated in an historical review of the literature on staff development (Tyler, 1971; Howey and Vaughan, 1983; Knezevich, 1984) the particular focus of staff development programs at any given time is often a response to a major current theme. For example:

1930's There was post depression interest in new curriculum with an emphasis on vocational relevancy. This appears to have been a response to the increased number of students remaining in school due to the poor economic conditions.

1960's In response to the launching of "Sputnik" in 1957, the focus turned quickly to an increased interest in mathematics and science. One result was nationally developed "teacher proof" packaged programs in these areas.

1970's The social activism of the day created a stronger need for awareness of cultural diversity and interpersonal relations.

One result was an emphasis on training in human relations, group process and communication skills.

1980's The economic conditions of the present have resulted in public cries for cost efficiency in education. The public is demanding accountability. This coincides with an interest in school improvement and teacher effectiveness.

Staff development initiatives have been discussed from a number of perspectives. Studies have examined its extensiveness, the cost, the variety of program content, the process of implementation, the degree of satisfaction or value which it seems to provide and to a lesser extent, the impact of contextual variables. One feature of staff development programs that has escaped the attention of most researchers is the process of selection of a topic or program or theme. All staff development programs have a topic, theme or title. It is this theme which defines the program, sets its tone, identifies the need it is addressing and, to some extent, affects its popularity. As illustrated above, the staff development program themes often reflect a

current major interest in education. During times of fiscal restraint and public demands for accountability "teacher effectiveness" has become a dominant theme. This means that additional pressures are applied to decisions related to funds designated for staff development. There is also a heightened public interest in the perceived quality of service provided by school districts. Lack of mobility among school personnel, coupled with an aging teaching population has added to the need for effective staff development at a time when budgets are being cut. Thus, the need for districts to make wise selections of staff development programs is particularly important.

Several school districts in British Columbia have responded to the theme of "teacher effectiveness" by selecting and putting into place programs reflecting that topic. Two districts in the lower mainland selected and put into place the same program within a few years of each other. Both districts expressed a willingness to be part of the present study thus making it possible to explore, in two sites, the processes of selection and putting into place a program reflecting a "teacher effectiveness" theme.

This study was worth doing for a number of reasons. We are limited in our ability to answer questions about

the way staff development programs are selected and subsequently put into place. What little knowledge there is, is based largely on studies conducted in the United States. Very few reference sources reviewed were Canadian studies and even fewer were specific to British Columbia. None of the studies specifically addressed the questions of who selects programs and how and why those selections are made. The findings of this study should provide greater understanding of how and why these school districts selected a staff development program reflecting a current major interest in the field of education. The findings should also provide information about who made selection decisions and upon what those decisions were based. Moreover, the findings should also add to our understanding of what occurs after the selection has been made and attempts are made to put the initiative in place.

Context is identified in current literature as a factor which has a significant impact on any change initiative (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Berman, 1981; Little, 1981; Griffin, 1983). Even when school districts initiate staff development programs in response to a common stimulus, these programs may differ from district to district. For instance in the 1970's the executive development programs in Kamloops and

Vancouver were different although both were responses to a common need for administrator identification, selection and preparation (Bruce, 1976). Different districts may be affected by different contextual factors which, in turn, may influence the selection and putting into place of a given staff development program. Moreover, different districts may be affected in different ways by the same contextual variable. Thus, the selection of a common program in two separate districts may result in two very different programs. This study, which examines the selection and putting into place of the same program in two different districts, may provide some empirical evidence indicating the effect which local contextual factors have on the process of initiating change.

The study examines the perceptions of the selection and putting into place of a district staff development program as expressed by three levels of personnel (central office personnel, principals and teachers) in two school districts. In the literature the role of principals and teachers in the change process has been examined more closely than that of central office personnel. The need to study the role of central office personnel in district staff development initiatives is currently acknowledged by researchers (Fullan, 1982;

Fullan, 1985). Hall et al. make the following observation:

> There is a surprisingly limited amount of literature about the roles and activities of school district office personnel. Much that is available target the generic role of supervisors and the activities of supervision. These tend to be theoretical and context-free descriptions of the role rather than pieces that directly scrutinize real positions and people who work in particular district offices (1985:2).

This study explores the activities of central office personnel and describes their roles, along with those of the principals and teachers, in the two district-wide programs.

Another justification for this study is that it describes the processes of selection and putting into place of an innovation in two school districts. As will be shown in the literature review, there is a need to conduct exploratory research in the area of staff development because there is still much to learn about the complexities of initiating change in education. Fullan (1985:392) takes the position that "studies that trace change over a period of time (even short periods) are essential to inferring how people change." Yarger and Galluzo (1983:176) point out that there are "very few case studies of program activities; thus, there are few reports accurately describing the 'how to' of

in-service education...clear descriptions of the processes involved and the problems encountered are rare indeed." McQuarrie et al. refer to the present staff development practices as a maze and put forth the following suggestion:

> The exit to a maze is found by systematically investigating the total maze, identifying the true path through it, and developing a plan to get from where one is to where one wishes to be. To escape from the development maze, then, we need to examine systematic models which attempt to describe the process for designing effective professional development programs. Once we've found a model that holds promise, we can determine the extent to which that process has been implemented and what needs to be done to allow us to emerge from the maze (1984:76).

Consistent with that point of view is another which Yarger and Galluzo present:

> Certainly one aspect of research on in-service education that needs a great deal of work is the accurate and objective description of how one goes about developing a program that is believed to be a contribution to the field (1983:186).

The present study explores staff development initiatives which occurred in two districts, one from 1976-1986 and the other from 1979-1986 and describes in detail the processes of selection and putting into place of these programs. Fullan highlights the need for such an inquiry in the following quotation:

> Research needs to go beyond theories of change (what factors explain change) to theories of 'changing' (how change occurs, and how to use this new knowledge) (1985:392).

Because the same program was initiated in two school districts within a few years of each other, the study allows for the data to be compared across sites. These findings should contribute to a better understanding of the process of initiating change.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In British Columbia, in recent years, two school districts adopted a staff development program reflecting the theme of "teacher effectiveness." The selections were not made at the same time, nor were they commonly inspired. The preceding discussion identifies a number of questions which suggest that a study of these two staff development initiatives may shed light on some of the unexplained factors related to the way in which staff development programs are selected and put into place.

The purpose of the study is to analyze the process of change by a detailed examination of the same staff development initiative in two different school districts.

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This document is organized into nine chapters. In chapter 1, the topic was introduced and background perspectives were provided. The justification for and purpose of the study were presented as is an overview of the thesis.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the literature on change in the education setting in relation to the undertaking of staff development initiatives. The chapter concludes with a summary of needed research.

Chapter 3 presents the general research question and two research questions which emerged from the review of the literature. The qualitative methods used to collect and analyze the data are also discussed. The delimitations and limitations of the study are presented.

Chapter 4 describes the presentation of the data and the context of the two sites in which the study was conducted.

Chapters 5 through 7 provide in-depth descriptions of the three stages of the change process: initiation, implementation and continuation. These descriptions are presented in a narrative, the content being taken from interview transcripts, district documents and researcher's field notes.

The initiation phase is described in chapter 5 and the findings are discussed and comparisons are made between districts.

The implementation phase is the focus of chapter 6. A description of the events of implementation in both districts is presented in narrative form first. Then the findings are discussed in relation to events which preceded the phase as well as for what they might predict for the next phase.

Chapter 7 gives a narrative description of the continuation phase in one district and discusses those findings. This is followed by a description of perceived outcomes as reported by respondents in both districts.

In chapter 8, the findings are discussed in relation to current knowledge about initiating change in the education setting by way of staff development initiatives.

Finally, chapter 9 presents a set of conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews current work on the subject of educational change. Since the present study examines staff development initiatives as an example of change in education, the review also includes some work on what is important to consider when examining staff development. The chapter begins with a presentation of studies on educational innovations and is followed by a discussion of the factors which influence the change process in education. Some research on staff development is then presented and the interrelationship between educational change and staff development is established. A concluding section draws on the material reviewed and identifies the kind of research which is needed.

STUDIES OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS

A number of studies on initiating change have been done in the educational setting and provide insights into a variety of aspects of the change process. The following appear to be most relevant to the present study.

Berman and McLaughlin report the findings of a

large study which examined the process of implementing educational innovations and focused on the factors affecting those initiatives. Their research includes a survey of 293 change agent projects, field work on 29 different sites, as well as interviews with officials who were involved on four of the projects. Berman and McLaughlin conclude that:

1. Implementation, rather than the adoption of a technology, the availability of information about it, or the level of funds committed to it, dominated the innovative process and its outcomes;

2. Effective implementation depended on the receptivity of the institutional setting;

3. Effective implementation was characterized by the process of mutual adaptation; and

4. Local school systems varied in their capacity to deal with innovations and with the stages of the innovative process (1976:365).

An Exploratory Study of School District Adaptation was conducted by Berman and McLaughlin. Their exploratory study was designed to shed light on the way school districts adapt to external and internal pressures for change. The research took place over a two-year period and consisted of field work in five districts with reputations for being unusually innovative. The following is a summary of a 1979 report in which they conclude that there were three broad categories of patterns of adaptation among the school

districts studied:

1. Maintenance. School districts where adaptation without educational improvement occurred;

2. Decay. School districts where the community polarized along ideological lines, politicized the school system and imposed new priorities on its educational program thus placing the long-term effectiveness of educational delivery in jeopardy; and

3. Development. School districts where they adapted to their particular pressures so as to consistently implement and sustain profound changes that may improve educational performance.

Berman discusses the concept of policy image development as a function of mobilization (initiation) during an educational change effort. His definition of policy image development is as follows:

> The decision to adopt an innovation, to seek funds to innovate, and all associated activities (which) define what a school district intends to do and communicates these intentions to various audiences, both external and internal to the district (1981:269).

With reference to the few other studies which have considered this function, Berman highlights the importance of developing a policy image for a change effort. While he contends policy image development is particularly important during initiation, he also makes the point that during the life of a project such an image evolves and may change over time. The importance of policy image development is linked by Berman to the

gathering of support, not only by funders but also by participants. He sees policy image development as a means of facilitating a commonly held view of the project among participants which he believes is an attribute which contributes to program success. Other researchers are in agreement with this position (Moore et al., 1977; Miles et al., 1978; Fullan, 1982).

The study of Dissemination Efforts Supporting School Improvement (DESSI) investigated 146 schools where improvement efforts were underway. The sample represents a wide range: inner city to farm communities with student populations from very small to several thousand. Based on their findings they conclude that:

1. School improvement programs supported by the U.S. Department of Education are delivering far-reaching and significant changes in conventional schools;

2. There is consensus among researchers and concurrence by practitioners about the critical ingredients of an effective improvement strategy. The facet of successful adoption and implementation identified in other empirical studies are also operative in this study - involvement more than content;

3. Forceful leadership is the factor that contributes most directly and surely to major, effective change in classroom practice that become firmly incorporated into everyday routine;

4. New practices entailing a significant amount of change live and die by the amount of personal assistance they receive;

5. Concrete steps must be taken to ensure that successful new practices are incorporated into an improved routine. School personnel implementing a new practice who do not attend to institutionalization may realize only ephemeral results;

6. School building staff do not experience federal dissemination strategies as more or less intrusive than state or district strategies;

7. There are vast differences in the assumptions underlying the dissemination strategies of different federal programs, and consequent differences in their dissemination procedures and structures; and

8. There is minimal coordination among federal programs, among offices within state agencies, and between federal and state agencies. This often results in much "reinvention of the wheel", duplication of efforts, and failure to mount comprehensive efforts with the potential of significant school improvement (Crandall, 1979:8-14).

Taking a somewhat narrower perspective on implementing change, Hall et al. (1985) conducted a study entitled, District Office Personnel: Their Roles and Influence on School and Classroom Change. Recognizing the lack of information on the role of district office personnel in the change process, Hall et al. sought to explore the function and influence of the district office as it relates to school change. The data were derived from two sources: an analysis of the literature and an analysis of interview data. A total of 550 interviews took place in eleven school districts including 60 interviews in district offices and 490 in

schools. Their reported findings include the following:

How they (district office personnel) work in relation to the change process:

1. District office personnel are providing the impetus as well as being the source of many innovations that are implemented in schools;

2. District office personnel tend not to be aware of apparent differences in how they approach elementary schools as compared to secondary schools;

3. Teachers tend to link the credibility of district office personnel to their teaching assignment prior to joining the district office;

4. A district office person's credibility with teachers is frequently associated with how long the person has been away from the classroom;

5. It appears that the line administrators in the district office make the adoption decision and then it is the staff persons who plan and facilitate implementation at the school and classroom level; and

6. The people in line positions tend to be more administrative in orientation and they deal directly with principals (1985:18).

Strategies and tactics employed to facilitate school change:

1. There is nearly unanimous agreement in the district office that principals are responsible for change within their buildings; and

2. A frequently observed strategy for making the initial adoption decision is down/up/down (1985:20).

These four studies provide an indication of current findings related to implementing change in the education

setting.

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE THE CHANGE PROCESS

Various lists of factors which influence the change process in educational settings appear in the literature.

The Rand Change Agent Study (1977) identifies four clusters of factors crucial to successful implementation and local change: (1) institutional motivation, (2) project implementation strategies, (3) institutional leadership, and (4) teacher characteristics.

Berman (1981) concludes that five categories of factors affected the educational change process. Those factors are: (1) local contextual conditions, (2) primary attributes of change efforts, (3) local policy choices, (4) endogenous variables, and (5) external factors (outside variables subject to change during implementation).

Based on an extensive review of research, Fullan not only identifies factors which influence the change process but also relates those factors to each of the three broad phases of the change process (initiation, implementation, and continuation) as indicated in Table 1A.

Table 1A

Fullan's Factors Associated with Change.

Initiation/Adoption:

1. Existence and quality of innovations
2. Access to information
3. Advocacy of central administrators
4. Teacher pressure/support
5. Consultants and change agents
6. Community pressure/support/apathy/opposition
7. Availability of federal or other funds
8. New central legislation or policy (federal/state,province)
9. Problem solving incentives for adoption
10. Bureaucratic incentives for adoption

Implementation:

A. Characteristics of the Change

1. Need and relevance of the change
2. Clarity
3. Complexity
4. Quality and practicality of programs

B. Characteristics at the School District Level

5. The history of innovative attempts
6. The adoption process
7. Central administrative support and involvement
8. Staff development (in-service) and participation
9. Time-line and information system (evaluation)
10. Board and community characteristics

C. Characteristics at the School Level

11. The principal
12. Teacher-teacher relations
13. Teacher characteristics and orientations

D. Characteristics External to the Local System

14. Role of government
15. External assistance

Continuation:

1. High level of local interest
2. Ability to fund at the local level
3. High level of central office interest and support
4. Active and continued involvement of principals

Initiation

Fullan associates ten factors with the initiation/adoption phase. He takes the view that the existence and quality of innovations is important to adoption. He acknowledges that many educational changes have been adopted in the past without much attention to quality. However, he feels that the quality of externally derived programs is being more carefully considered at present because of limited resources.

Differential access to information is another factor related to adoption and, in Fullan's view, accounts for why central office personnel most often make selection decisions. He points out that it is central office personnel, as distinct from school personnel, who spend large amounts of time at conferences and workshops.

The advocacy of central administrators is seen by Fullan to be an important source for district-wide change. He suggests that "one of the most powerful advocates is the chief district administrator, with his or her staff, especially in combination with school board support or mandate" (1982:45).

With respect to teacher advocacy, Fullan reiterates his position that teachers have less opportunity to come into contact with new ideas but acknowledges that

teachers do innovate. While teachers seldom initiate new programs, they can be a powerful source of influence on adoption when they are given a role in the initiation phase.

Fullan refers to consulants and change agents as linking agents and suggests that they are often caught between responding to teachers who want help with adopting innovations and responding to central office administration.

Community pressure/support/opposition/apathy is a combination of factors which Fullan suggests results in various adoption patterns. He points out that "some communities support innovation, others block it, most are apathetic, and even more are all of those things at one time or another" (1982:47). Whatever the case, the role of the community has the potential of influencing educational change.

Resources, in Fullan's view, are a factor which influences all stages of the process. He points out that school districts often do not have sufficient funds to adopt many innovations and, thus, the availability of government and other funds can facilitate adoption.

Fullan suggests that new central government legislation or policy which mandates adoption at the local district level sometimes is the cause of adoption.

One way districts are driven to adopt an educational change is by way of a problem-solving orientation. This approach is described by Fullan as an attempt to address a locally identified need. Another way in which districts are driven to adopt a change is by way of a bureaucratic orientation. He suggests that the political and symbolic value of adoption for bureaucratic reasons is sometimes of greater significance than educational merit but may be necessary for political survival.

Implementation

Fullan associates fifteen factors with the implementation phase. He identifies need as one of four characteristics of the change which is related to implementation. Based on a review of current literature, Fullan suggests that implementation is more effective when the innovation is focussed on an identified need.

The second characteristic, clarity about program goals and means, is identified by Fullan as a perennial problem in the change process. He points out that problems related to clarity have been found in most studies of significant change. He takes the position that the lack of clarity with respect to what the

innovation means in practice, represents a major problem during implementation.

The third characteristic is complexity. "Complexity refers to the difficulty and extent of change required of the individuals responsible for implementation" (Fullan, 1982:58). Based on a review of the literature, Fullan suggests that complex changes promise to accomplish more.

The quality and practicality of programs is the fourth characteristic associated with the nature of the change. Fullan takes the position that "teachers want, need, and benefit from tangible, relevant program materials which have been produced and tested in real classroom situations" (1982:60). The extent to which programs are not seen to be of high quality and practical is the extent to which there will be difficulties during implementation.

Factor 5 through 7 relate to the characteristics at the school district level. The district's history of innovation attempts is the first district level factor discussed by Fullan. In reference to Sarason (1971), Fullan proposes that the more teachers or others have had a history of negative experiences with innovation attempts, the more cynical or apathetic they will be about new attempts.

The second district level factor is the adoption process. Fullan suggests that if adoption results in a specific, high-quality innovation which is compatible with district needs, it will have a positive influence on the implementation phase.

District administrative support is the third implementation characteristic relevant to the district level. Fullan takes the position that district-wide change will not happen without district administrative support. Moreover, teachers and others will not take a change effort seriously unless central administrators demonstrate through their action that they should.

Staff development and participation is the fourth factor at the district level which Fullan associates with implementation. He takes the position that staff development is one of the most important factors related to change in practice and to be effective staff development should combine concrete teacher-specific training activities, continuous assistance and support during implementation and regular meetings with peers and others.

Th fifth characteristic at the district level is time-line and information systems (evaluation). He makes two points: (1) realistic time-lines need to be set for the complex process of change; and (2) an

evaluation of the problems of implementation, of student achievement and of other desired outcomes need to be conducted.

The final district level factor suggested by Fullan is Board and community characteristics. He points out that individual parents rather than community groups appear to have the most powerful effect on implementation.

Fullan presents three school level characteristics relevant to implementation, the first being the role of the principal. Based on the major research on innovation and school effectiveness, Fullan indicates that the principal has the potential to influence change significantly, but many principals lack the necessary preparation to facilitate change at the school level.

Teacher-teacher relationships is Fullan's second school level characteristic associated with implementation. He suggests that the most current theory of change emphasizes the importance of peer interaction.

The third school level characteristic identified by Fullan is teacher characteristics and orientation. He contends that the one trait related to successful implementation and student outcomes is the teacher's sense of efficacy.

The final category of implementation factors suggested by Fullan is the external environment. He suggests two. Government agencies is the first of the external environment factors. He makes the point that while government policies affect local selection decisions, the extent to which implementation will or will not occur depends on the congruence between the local needs and how the changes are put into place.

Fullan's second characteristic related to the external environment is external assistance. As with government agencies, external assistance, such as support materials, will stimulate implementation only if they are integrated with the other factors at the local level.

Continuation

Four factors are associated with the continuation phase. High level of local interest is one factor which Fullan suggests is necessary for continuation to occur. The ability of the district to fund the program or project without the aid of external resources is the second factor. Third, central office administration support must continue and fourth, continued, active involvement of principals is needed.

It is useful to relate Fullan's factors to specific

kinds of change that take place in schools. Many of these changes focus on the educational program. Changes of this kind frequently involve the education and skill development of practitioners. As indicated on page 1, one way school districts attempt change is through staff development programs. While these programs are often mechanisms for the introduction of changes in teaching or other functions, they are themselves changes in that they are new activities, selected from a particular source for particular reasons. They are both instruments of change and changes in their own right. It is useful to examine a current framework in which staff development initiatives can be explained.

A FRAMEWORK ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Research studies of educational change with staff development as their primary focus are very limited (Yarger, 1982; Griffin, 1983; Yarger and Galluzo, 1983; Howey and Vaughan, 1983). Staff development is a complex topic and research studies have been plagued with methodological difficulties. While research specifically on staff development is insufficient to claim a sound body of knowledge, there are, as previously mentioned, significant amounts of related research in the areas of teacher effectiveness,

effective schools and effective change process in schools, crucial to effective staff development (Vaughan, 1983). For the purpose of this review, the relevant research is considered in the context of four aspects of staff development (Griffin, 1983):

1. Assessment
2. Content
3. Context
4. Process

Assessment

> 'Assessment' refers not to a conventional needs assessment but to a careful examination of needs. The needs may be observed by outsiders to the school or perceived by teachers inside the system. Assessment also includes judging the degree to which what is needed/desired can or should become an object of staff development (Griffin, 1983:416).

Little is known about how districts select staff development program topics. As indicated earlier, themes often reflect major current interests of the day but how and why those selections were made was not reported. As Griffin points out:

> Many observers of schools have judged that the content of staff development is most often determined by an authority figure in the school or school district, although this judgement is not supported by systematic research (1983:418).

Griffin acknowledges the evidence that from time to time teachers, organizations, government agencies and other institutions play a part in the determination of staff development activities. He also points out that few studies have explored the question of who selects staff development programs and upon what they base their selections. Moreover, the literature is limited in reporting the roles played by personnel in different organizational positions during the selection of a program.

Content

> 'Content' of staff development is the body of knowledge, skill, and/or attitudes that is meant to be introduced into the school setting (Griffin, 1983:416).

A major criticism of staff development that surfaces in the literature is that the program content does not take into account the considerable knowledge on effective teaching (Griffin, 1983; Howey and Vaughan, 1983; Vaughan, 1983; Schlechty and Whitford, 1983; McQuarrie et al., 1984). For example, Howey and Vaughan make the following comment:

> Even though there are consistent research findings of effective teaching behaviours that are effective in increasing student learning in elementary reading and mathematics, we would contend that the vast majority of in-service offerings do not utilize those results (or pre-service

> courses, for that matter) as the content or even part of the content that is offered to teachers (1983:100).

There are two bodies of research related to teacher effectiveness and both are substantial. The first is the research on effective classroom instruction (Medley, 1977; Good, 1980; Stallings, 1981; Rosenshine, 1982) and the second is the research on classroom management (Kounin, 1970; Evertson et al., 1980; Brophy, 1982). Given that there is a substantial body of research findings available to staff developers one wonders how decisions are made regarding program content.

While utilizing programs which reflect the current research on effective teaching makes good common sense, there must be other factors which have an impact on effectively implementing change because some districts have initiated programs based on current research yet problems regarding perceived effectiveness still exist in the minds of the public. It appears that district contextual factors have a significant impact.

Context

> 'Context' is the complex set of setting characteristics in which staff development occurs (Griffin, 1983:416).

Several recent studies have underlined the importance of contextual variables on staff development practices

(Berman and McLaughlin, 1974; Little, 1981; Berman, 1981; Fullan, 1982; Howey and Vaughan, 1983). Howey and Vaughan (1983:102) take the position that "the content must be considered within the context of local policy and practice as well as staff attitudes about and use of content being proposed." Griffin (1983:418) suggests that the influence of context on staff development must not be underestimated. He reviews several studies (Barth, 1972; Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; Griffin and Lieberman, 1974; Bentzen, 1974; Devaney and Thorn, 1975; Little, 1981) and provides the following summary of contextual variables that relate to staff development practices:

1. Norms of the setting (institutional regularities);
2. History of the organization;
3. Perceptions and expectations of school personnel regarding practice;
4. Perceptions and expectations of community members;
5. Mutual adaptation of the school and the desired change;
6. Ability of leaders (and others) to analyze the characteristics of the setting;
7. Knowledge of the organization and its parts by leaders;
8. Co-ordination of organizational variables by leaders;
9. Supportive leadership;

10. Adult-adult interactions (including the principal); and

11. Flexibility in use of time and space (Griffin, 1983:418).

Berman (1981) argues that the same innovative idea is implemented differently in different sites depending on the context and, further, the value of any program depends on the context, thus it changes from site to site for the same program. He goes on to emphasize the need for compatibility between the innovation and the organizational context and takes the position that the compatibility factor is a program attribute which plays an important part in the selection as well as implementation. Berman (1981) suggests that outcomes of educational change efforts tend to be context-dependent and time-dependent.

Berman and McLaughlin (1976:361) report the findings of a major study of implementing educational innovations and conclude that "an innovation's local institutional setting has a major influence on its prospects for effective implementation."

Thus, a study which explores and describes the selection and implementation of the same research-based program in different sites may discover contextual factors which affect the change effort.

Process

> 'Process' of staff development refers to how content is conveyed to the participants and to decisions and actions that are related to planning, implementation and evaluation of both content and the delivery system (Griffin, 1983:416).

Based on the studies he reviewed, Griffin (1983) identifies the following process factors which are related to positive staff development outcomes:

1. voluntary participation;
2. teacher-administrator teaming and other professional collegial relationships;
3. teachers as trainers;
4. release time for participants;
5. concrete, teacher-specific plans;
6. teachers observing other teachers;
7. participative governance;
8. in-class assistance;
9. situation-specific supporting materials;
10. dialogue, decision making, action, and evaluation related to school problems;
11. acknowledgement that the school is an invaluable resource for problem solving;
12. availability of technical assistance;
13. systematic attention by teachers to identifying and acting on problems they perceive as being important ones;
14. need; and

15. evaluation
    (Griffin, 1983:422,423).

STAFF DEVELOPMENT AS CHANGE

There is a growing body of information in the area of effective staff development processes (Bentzen, 1974; Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1976; Berman and Friederwitzer, 1981; Wood et al., 1981; Little, 1981; Berman, 1981; Fullan, 1982). Most writers agree with Fullan (1982) who suggests that "change is a process not an event." The process of implementing change is examined most frequently in terms of stages or phases (Lewin, 1951; Rogers, 1962; Havelock, 1969; Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Berman, 1981; Wood et al., 1981; Fullan, 1982). As already noted, Fullan (1982), after a review of the literature on change in education, identifies three broad phases as initiation, implementation, and continuation. As demonstrated in Table 1A, Fullan identified factors which appear to influence the process during the three phases. Griffin (1983) discussed four aspects of staff development and it is interesting to note the extent to which there are similarities between Fullan's factors and what Griffin considers the important components of the four aspects of staff development. An examination of these

similarities follows.

The interrelationship between the process of educational change and staff development is illustrated in Table 1B in which the components of Fullan's (1982) factors of the change process are matched with Griffin's (1983) aspects of staff development. The table shows Fullan's factors down the left side and Griffin's aspects across the top. An "x" is shown at the intersection for each of Griffin's aspects of staff development which can be said to correspond with one or more of Fullan's factors. Griffin does not relate the aspects of staff development to phases, therefore, where there is a match between an aspect and a factor, it is sometimes indicated in more than one phase. For example, Griffin's aspect 6 refers to supportive leadership and matches with Fullan's factors regarding leadership, both district and central office, in all three phases (factor 3 in adoption, factors 7 and 11 in implementation and factors 3 and 4 in continuation).

Griffin's (1983) discussion of the assessment and content aspects of staff development does not deal specifically with the factors associated with each. As a result, these two aspects do not lend themselves to an easy match with Fullan's factors. However, Griffin does

Table 1B

Fullan and Griffin Compared

Fullan's Factors Associated with Change.	Griffin's Aspects of Staff Development.			
	Assessment	Content	Context	Process
Initiation/Adoption:				
1. Existence and quality of innovations		X		
2. Access to information	X			
3. Advocacy of central administrators			XXX	
4. Teacher pressure/support				XX
5. Consultants and change agents				X
6. Community pressure/support/apathy/opposition			X	
7. Availability of federal or other funds			X	
8. New central legislation or policy (federal/state,province)				
9. Problem solving incentives for adoption				XXXXX
10. Bureaucratic incentives for adoption				
Implementation:				
A. Characteristics of the Change				
1. Need and relevance of the change	X			XXX
2. Clarity				X
3. Complexity				
4. Quality and practicality of programs		X		XX
B. Characteristics at the School District Level				
5. The history of innovative attempts			XXX	
6. The adoption process			X	XXXXX
7. Central administrative support and involvement			XXX	
8. Staff development (in-service) and participation				XXXXXXX
9. Time-line and information system (evaluation)	X			XX
10. Board and community characteristics				
C. Characteristics at the School Level				
11. The principal			XXXX	XXX
12. Teacher-teacher relations			X	XXX
13. Teacher characteristics and orientations			X	XX
D. Charcateristics External to the Local System				
14. Role of government				
15. External assistance			X	XX
Continuation:				
1. High level of local interest			X	
2. Ability to fund at the local level				
3. High level of central office interest and support			XXX	
4. Active and continued involvement of principals			XXX	X

acknowledge that authority figures in schools and school districts usually determine the content of staff development. In that way he is in accord with Fullan on assessment as indicated in Table 2. With respect to content, Griffin makes the point that program selections can now be based on the works of scholars in order to identify content which would likely result in improved practice of school personnel. In this sense, he and Fullan are in agreement as indicated in Table 1B.

As distinct from assessment and content, Griffin does identify factors which appear to contribute to successful staff development in his discussion of context and process. It is in relation to these two aspects that Griffin and Fullan are very closely aligned. Table 1B illustrates the overlap.

Griffin's aspects of context, as demonstrated in Table 1B match closely with the contextually-related factors identified by Fullan. All but one of Griffin's eleven aspects of context match with factors of Fullan. Griffin places an emphasis on leadership insofar as he includes four specific leadership-related aspects. While Fullan's leadership factors are stated more generally, all of Griffin's aspects match with Fullan. Leadership factors, both district and school level, are included in all three of Fullan's phases. Both Griffin

and Fullan also identify the potential influence of three other contextual factors: (1) community; (2) history of innovative attempts; and (3) interaction between teachers and principals and among teachers.

There is also considerable overlap between Griffin's aspects of process and Fullan's process-related factors. All of Griffin's fifteen aspects of process correspond to factors identified by Fullan. As evidenced in Table 1, there is a strong link between aspects and factors related to process at the school level during implementation. This is a result of the emphasis Griffin places on process at the school level. Both Griffin and Fullan agree on the influence of the support of teachers, assistance to teachers, and problem-solving strategies at the school level. As well, they are in accord on the importance of the need for and relevance of the change, quality of the program, participation of teachers and principals, and on-going evaluation.

Overall, when Griffin's four aspects of staff development are considered in relation to Fullan's factors of change, there is a close interrelationship noted between the two. It seems reasonable to take the position that aspects seen by Griffin to influence staff development are very much in accord with factors seen by

Fullan to influence educational change. In this way, there appears to be justification for a study which examines staff development as a means of discovering more about the process of change in education.

Based on the overlap between the two frameworks, it seems likely that context and process issues will emerge as important characteristics which influence the two initiatives being studied, particularly as they related to leadership.

CONCLUSION: NEEDED RESEARCH

The available empirical findings suggest that the early stages of assessment are crucial to the successful implementation of staff development programs, yet the literature does not provide information about how themes or programs are selected. It has been demonstrated that themes or programs often reflect current major interests in education: however, one is left wondering if selected programs follow trends or if they are based on careful local needs assessment. Little is known about the basis of selection decisions.

Another aspect of implementing change which has been identified as critical to effective staff development efforts is local context. A number of current studies done in North America have identified

specific contextual factors which affect the overall change process but few studies have determined which contextual factors are linked to selecting and putting into place an innovation.

One important element of the local context is personnel. A number of studies have demonstrated the key role played by the school principal in any change effort. The role of teachers has also been the focus of several studies. The same cannot be said about the role of district personnel. While the literature indicates that their role is very important, little is known about what they actually do in a district change initiative. Hall et al. (1985) conducted a preliminary study of the role of district personnel in the change process but again, their findings are specific to settings in the United States. Very little has been reported about the role of district personnel in British Columbia. A study involving the roles of three levels of district personnel (district office, school administrators and teachers) may provide an interesting perspective on the various roles as they relate to a change effort. Such research may shed light on the relationship between the organizational position and the role played by personnel involved in a change effort.

In summary, at least two areas of needed research

emerge from the literature reviewed in this chapter: (1) how and why programs are selected (process), and (2) the identification of important factors which influence change attempts (context).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

This chapter presents the research design and procedures used in the collection and analysis of the data. It begins with the statement of the problem and research questions. The sources of the data and data collection process are presented, followed by a discussion of reliability and validity. The chapter also includes a description of the data analysis and concludes with the delimitations and limitations of the study.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of the study, as stated in chapter 1, was to analyze the process of change by a detailed examination of the same staff development initiatives in two school districts. The literature review presented in the preceding chapter identified two areas of needed research. These suggest the formulation of the problem for the present study and its associated research questions.

The general problem may be stated as follows:

> In light of existing literature, what more can be learned about the process of change by examining the staff development initiatives taken in two school districts within the same ten-year period?

This general question was explored by making a distinction between what Fullan (1982) calls "initiation" and the events which follow the initiation. This distinction allowed careful attention to be paid to the reasons for and the processes of selection of the programs before exploring the way they were put into place. Accordingly, two research questions guided the data collection. These were:

1. How and why does a given school district select a particular program?
2. What events, issues and relationships are associated with the putting into place of a program in a given school district?

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY AND DATA SOURCES

Because of the interest in process and in the effect of local context, a case study approach appeared to be the most appropriate. Thus, an exploratory study of two B.C. school districts was undertaken. Both districts had selected and put into place the same staff development program. In each district, respondents

consisted of central office, school administration and teacher personnel who were interviewed in an attempt to ascertain their perceptions of the processes of the selection and putting into place of the two initiatives. Emerging from this case study were the similarities and differences of the perceptions among respondents, not only between groups within each site but also across sites.

The data for the study were derived from three sources: interviews, district documents and researcher's field notes. The decision to employ a multi-method approach to data collection, what Denzin refers to as "triangulation", was an attempt to circumvent some of the weaknesses inherent in a study reporting findings from a single source of data. Denzin takes the position that triangulation is a means of bringing multiple kinds of data to bear on a single problem or issue. The following quotation summarizes his position:

> I now offer as a final methodological rule the principle that multiple methods should be used in every investigation... (1978:28).

Interviews

The interviews provided the major source of data. The general intent of the study was to determine what

respondents perceived happened during the initiatives. Bogdan and Biklen (1982:135) suggest the interview is best used to "...gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insight on how subjects interpret some piece of the world." Guba and Lincoln (1981:55) suggest that "face-to-face verbal interaction provides the researcher with the opportunity of tapping into the experience of respondents in their own natural language."

An interview schedule was used to guide the interviewing process. The decision to prepare the questions and, as a result, structure the interviews was made for three reasons. Firstly, a predetermined set of questions made it possible to send copies to respondents prior to the interview. This served three purposes: (1) the interviewees were able to consider the questions prior to the interview; (2) knowing the focus of the interview, respondents could decide whether or not they still were willing to take part in the study; and (3) it was hoped the fact they had the questions before the interview might lessen their anxiety during the actual interview. Secondly, several interviews were arranged on the site for the same day and the scheduled interview helped to keep all of the interviews to approximately the same length of time. Finally, a predetermined set

of questions ensured all respondents were asked the same questions thus allowing greater comparability in the data analysis. While the structured set of questions served to guide the interviews, the researcher still had enough flexibility to probe, clarify and encourage respondents to expand some of their responses. The questions were not designed to restrict the exploration of the study; rather they served as a guide for an in-depth description of the processes as they occurred. The researcher, while careful to include all questions during the interview, did from time to time allow the flow of the interaction to determine the order of the questions. It was felt to do otherwise may have the effect of inhibiting the responses. The interview schedule is included in Appendix III.

District Documents

Documents related to the two initiatives were requested from both districts. Not only were official district documents such as program descriptions, policies and historical overviews forthcoming but personal files of senior central office personnel were also made available to the researcher. These personal files included memos, minutes of meetings, news clippings, and announcements. These documents were

examined to provide additional information and to substantiate interview data.

Researcher's Field Notes

Field notes were kept by the researcher from the first contact with individuals in each district. For the purpose of this study, the definition of field notes put forth by Bodgan and Biklen was adopted:

> The written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting in a qualitative study (1982:74).

After making the initial contacts, descriptions of people, places, conversations, and events were recorded. In addition, the field notes included the researchers' reflections, hunches and questions which emerged as the data were collected and analyzed. Throughout the study, the researcher had informal contact with respondents periodically and pertinent points relevant to the study were recorded in the field notes subsequent to the meetings.

DATA COLLECTION

This section is an account of the process used to collect the data for the present study. It includes both initial preparation and the actual data collection.

Initial Preparation

Several preparatory steps were required before the actual data were collected. These steps included selecting the sites, gaining official entry, choosing participants and ensuring access to the necesssary data.

Site selection. Two lower mainland school districts in British Columbia were chosen from among those districts which were involved in a staff development program reflecting a teacher effectiveness theme. Contact was made with a senior central office official in each district to describe the study and discuss the possibility of conducting such a study in his district. The two individuals were known to the researcher prior to the contact and as such could be termed what Agar (1980:30) refers to as 'the colleague connection.' Both assistant superintendents responded positively to the study; therefore, another meeting was planned to discuss it further.

Both sites were relatively convenient for the researcher to get to and in neither site had the researcher been directly involved in a way which would mitigate against being considered a neutral observer. Bodgan and Biklen (1982) suggest both of these are important in the site selection process.

During the initial meetings with the contact person in each district the researcher assessed the questions of access to data, gaining official entry, and the availability and willingness of respondents to take part in the study.

Access to data appeared to be no problem. Both assistant superintendents provided the researcher with access to their personal files which related to the initiatives as well as to relevant district documents. An invitation was also extended to the researcher to peruse board minutes which were specific to the time frame of the initiatives.

In each district, the assistant superintendent offered to facilitate the gaining of official entry and outlined the necessary procedures required in their district.

Further, both contact people indicated that, in their opinion, other district personnel would be both available and willing to participate in the study. In fact, both suggested that they felt individuals would be anxious to take part.

Based on the responses of the contact people, the researcher assessed the two sites as feasible locations within which to conduct the present study. Having selected the site, respondents from each site were

chosen.

Sample procedure. The respondents were selected according to a technique referred to by Bodgan and Biklen (1982:67) as purposeful sampling. They define the procedure as choosing "particular subjects to include because they are believed to facilitate the expansion of the developing theory."

The contact people were asked to name individuals who had been involved in the project from the early stages -- key actors. A sample representative of central office, school administration and teachers was requested. Subsequent to receiving the first list, the researcher asked two other people named on the original list to do the same. From the three lists, the researcher chose the sample from respondents common across all three lists and representative of all three levels of the organization. The researcher included both elementary and secondary respondents among teachers and administrators. These people were the key informants for the study. According to Bodgan and Biklen (1982:63) key informants are individuals who have "a greater experience in the setting, or are especially insightful about what goes on."

The final sample consisted of thirty-two

respondents, seventeen in District A and fifteen in District B. Their gender and position in the organization are indicated in Table 6 on page 84 and Table 8 on page 98.

Following the compilation of the sample, each respondent was contacted by telephone, a follow-up to a letter which explained the project, to indicate that official district approval had been granted and to extend an invitation to take part in the study. All thirty-two individuals indicated a willingness to be interviewed.

Collection of the data

Once a respondent indicated his or her willingness to participate in the study, an interview time was established. Structured interviews provided the major source of data in the present study.

Interviews in District A were conducted during October 1984 and in District B they were done during November 1984. All interviews but two took place in the respondent's school or in central office. One took place in the respondent's home, the other in the lounge of a racquet club.

All interviews were guided by the interview schedule. The researcher began each interview by

confirming the respondent's willingness to have the interview taped. None of the respondents refused to be tape recorded. The respondents were all asked at the outset to describe their position in the organization at the time the project was initiated and explain briefly how they got involved. This was done in an attempt to put the respondent at ease prior to moving on to the more specific interview questions. Each interview lasted about an hour.

Each tape was numbered, dated and indicated the name of the interviewee. All tapes were copied and one set was kept in the researcher's home while the other set was kept in the office. All tapes were transcribed and two copies of each transcript were made. Again, one set of transcripts was used for coding and the originals were kept at the researcher's home.

Reliability and Validity of the Data

The issues of reliability and validity are concerns central to any research. The value of research is, in part, dependent upon the ability of the researcher to demonstrate that the findings are credible. Campbell and Stanley's (1963) "tests of rigor" which include reliability and validity are the most commonly referred to. There is a currently expressed view that the

techniques required to respond to the question of credibility in qualitative research differ from those in traditional and quantitative research (Guba and Lincoln, 1981; Le Compte and Goetz, 1982; Bogdan and Biklen, 1982; Miles and Huberman, 1984).

Bogdan and Biklen (1982:44) take the position that "qualitative researchers view reliability as a fit between what they record as data and what actually occurred in a setting under study, rather than the literal consistency across different observations." Thus, two researchers in the same site could come up with different data and different findings, yet both could be reliable unless the two studies yielded incompatible results.

This view may be compared with Le Compte and Goetz's description of validity:

> Validity is concerned with the accuracy of scientific findings. Establishing validity requires determining the extent to which conclusions effectively represent empirical reality and assessing whether constructs devised by researchers represent or measure the categories of human experience that occur (1983:32).

It is clear that if we accept Bogdan and Biklen's view, reliability in a qualitative study is best assessed as a form of validity. The task is to ensure that the recorded data are as accurate a reflection as possible of what actually occurred.

The means by which this was done in the present study have already been described above (p. 47). What might be added here is that where discrepancies were found in different respondents' accounts of the same events, available documentary sources were used to ascertain which responses were correct. In addition to the sources already listed, the documentary evidence included two locally conducted studies (Killough, 1980; Grimmett et al., 1985). The facts having been established, the discrepancy itself remained as a fact about the differing perceptions of respondents.

DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of the data began once the transcripts were available. Bogdan and Biklen (1982), Le Compte and Goetz (1982), and Miles and Huberman (1984) were consulted and provided a guide for the analysis. Three stages of analysis were carried out: descriptive, comparative, and interpretive.

Descriptive Analysis

Initially, the transcripts were all checked against the tape for accuracy. Appropriate changes were made. The researcher decided to keep the transcripts intact because the sheer volume of pages made cutting and

pasting seem impractical.

In an attempt to begin to make sense of the data, the researcher considered them in relation to the interview questions. Respondents' answers to the questions were indicated on large file cards which were colour coded to differentiate between districts and among the three levels of personnel. For instance, responses from central office respondents from District A were all recorded on pink cards, while administrators and teachers in District A were recorded on yellow and blue, respectively. The cards were then displayed, in envelopes, on one wall in the researcher's office.

The data were analyzed to provide a description of what occurred in the two districts as they selected and put into place a district staff development initiative.

The decision was made to present the descriptive data chronologically by phases. Thus, each phase of the change process (initiation, implementation, and continuation) would be described based on the perceptions of the respondents, and themes which emerged would be discussed within those phases.

Comparative Analysis

This second stage of analysis consisted of comparing the response patterns of respondents. The

design of the present study provided the opportunity for comparative analysis on several fronts. The responses of each participant were compared within and across questions. Comparisons of responses were also made between the three levels of personnel, both within and across site. A comparison of the events of the selection and implementation of the staff development initiatives was made to determine what similarities and differences occurred between the two sites and further to determine the congruencies or discrepancies in perceptions of those events among the three levels of district personnel.

Interpretive Analysis

The data were further analyzed to provide possible explanations for the events which were described in the two districts. The interpretation of the data was based on a careful consideration of the findings of the present study in relation to current literature.

DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The present study was delimited to two school districts in the lower mainland of British Columbia and to two staff development initiatives. The major data source was the recalled perceptions of thirty-two

respondents who comprised a non-random purposive sample.

Each of the delimitations carries with it a limitation on the study. Firstly the data were restricted to certain kinds of data: interview transcripts, district documents and researcher's field notes. Other data, such as observational data, may suggest different findings. Secondly, the fact that the respondents were all actively involved in the initiation and implementation phases of the initiatives may have led to the reporting of a biased perspective. The purposive sample is justifiable because those involved are the ones best able to give accounts of the processes which were the major focus of the study, but their involvement means that caution may be needed in interpreting statements about positive or negative outcomes -- particularly as no non-perceptual data about outcomes were collected.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD OF PRESENTATION AND CASE BACKGROUND

In this chapter, the method of presentation of the data is discussed and a description of the two sites is provided. The chapter concludes with a comparative summary of the case backgrounds.

METHOD OF PRESENTATION

This study explores the complicated process of change in each of two school districts (Districts A and B). Thirty-two individuals representing three levels of school district personnel (central office administrators, school administrators and teachers) were interviewed. Each of the respondents was asked to respond to an interview schedule which sought their perceptions in relation to the change initiatives in their district. In addition to the interview transcript data, district documents and researcher's field notes were also collected.

The Elliott (1985) study of the change processes in a hospital setting effectively presents similar data by

using a chronological format within a framework provided by Fullan (1982). Such a chronological presentation of data in phases suggests a workable model for the present study.

Chronology and Phasing

Fullan (1982:39) reports that "most researchers now see three broad phases to the change process...initiation, implementation and continuation." Fullan (1982:39) defines initiation as the process which leads up to and includes a decision to adopt or proceed with a change. Implementation refers to the first two or three years of use including the first experiences of attempting to put an idea or program into practice. Continuation is an extension of implementation when the change gets built in as part of the system.

Table 2 shows the relationship among the three phases defined above and the time-frame of those phases in the two school districts. Table 2 also illustrates the framework which will be used to present the data. Chapters 5 through 7 provide the two cases phase by phase. Thus, chapter 5 describes the initiation phase in District A, then in District B

Table 2

Fullan's Phases and the Corresponding Time Frames of Those Phases in the Two School Districts

Fullan's Phase	District A	District B
Initiation	1976 - 1978 (Fall) (Fall)	1979 - 1981 (Spring)(Spring)
Implementation	1978 - 1981 (Fall) (Spring)	1981 - 1986* (Spring)(Spring)
Continuation	1981 - 1986* (Spring)(Spring)	

* 1986(Spring) merely marks the end of the present study and does not imply the end of the program in District B nor the end of continuation in District A.

and concludes with an interpretive analysis. Chapter 6, focussing on the implementation phase, repeats the format of chapter 5 and incorporates a discussion of the relationship between phases (initiation and implementation) in an attempt to explore the interrelationship between phases. Current researchers (Fullan, 1982; Berman, 1981; Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Miles and Huberman, 1984) view change as a process not an event and take the position that what occurs at one phase affects what will occur during subsequent phases.

As demonstrated in Table 2, continuation data, by Fullan's definition above, were not available from District B; therefore, there were no data on that phase to parallel continuation in District A. However, the present study did generate data on outcomes in both districts and because there appears to be a link between continuation and outcomes, the two are discussed in one chapter.

Continuation and Outcomes

Fullan (1982:39) adds outcomes as a fourth phase to the three phases described above. He takes the position that adding outcomes provides "a more complete picture of the change process." Outcomes, by Fullan's

definition, include several different types of results such as perceived gains and losses and positive and negative side effects. Such outcome data were collected in the present study. Respondents were asked to give their perceptions of the results of the initiative in their district.

There is some difference of opinion regarding continuation and outcomes expressed in the literature. Whereas Fullan (1982) views outcomes as separate from continuation, Berman and McLaughlin (1976:354) refer to continuation as an outcome measure "to the extent that an initiative persists after the major implementation efforts." These two positions notwithstanding, it seems reasonable to argue that there is a link between continuation and outcomes. Because of the absence of continuation data from District B and because of the apparent link between continuation and outcomes suggested by Berman and McLaughlin, it seems justifiable to combine the two into one chapter. Thus, Chapter 7 describes the continuation phase in District A as well as outcomes for both districts and concludes with an interpretive analysis.

CASE SETTING AND BACKGROUND

Context, as defined by Griffin (1983:416) "is the

complex set of setting characteristics in which staff development occurs." Context has received increased attention from researchers over the past decade and is considered a factor which must form an integral part of any study of staff development (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Berman, 1981; Griffin, 1982, 1983; Howey and Vaughan, 1982; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Cuban, 1983; Sparks, 1983; Miles and Huberman, 1984). The current literature on context suggests an intricately intertwined relationship between the contextual variables of a site and any staff development initiative.

In preparation for the presentation of two case studies, both sites are described in order that the events can be considered in relation to the context within which they occurred. Within the text, excerpts from interview data indicate the interview number and page, e.g., (6:10) will refer to interview number 6 page 10.

District A

District A is situated in British Columbia's Lower Mainland Metropolitan area and covers approximately 80 square miles. The District is urban and comprises residential, commercial and industrial features.

In 1978, when District A chose to initiate the staff development program which is the focus of this

study, Instructional Theory Into Practice (ITIP), the pupil population was 22,168 (full time equivalents) in 45 elementary schools and 13 secondary schools. The district employed 1,235 teachers (full time equivalents), 88 school administrators (60 Principals and 28 Vice-Principals), and 22.5 central office education personnel (1 superintendent, 3 assistant superintendents, 11 supervisors and 7.5 curriculum coordinators and consultants). By the time of the data collection for the present study in 1984, these figures had not changed significantly. Student population, teaching, administrative staff and central office staff had all decreased slightly.

Traditionally, the central office staff in District A have accepted, as part of their role, the responsibility of keeping up to date with new trends in staff development and have done so by sending staff to major conferences throughout North America. In turn, the innovative ideas were filtered back to the district's school personnel. The principals were viewed as the major vehicle for the promotion and implementation of new staff development. As one central office supervisor described it, "We build through the stages of getting the principal's interest first because, unless the principals are interested, things

don't go well..." [3:2].

In District A there were two committees, the Administrators' Professional Development Committee and the local Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee, which appear to have played significant roles in promoting the importance of staff development within the District by being active, and working in cooperation with central office. Typically, staff development activities addressed a variety of themes, were of short duration, were separate for administrators and teachers and attendance was voluntary. Overall, the district's staff development activities were perceived by the respondents as being of excellent quality and were viewed as a district priority. The following excerpt from a transcript illustrates a teacher's perspective on staff development:

> ... teachers had always been happy with the way professional development had gone in our district [17:9].

The same teacher went on to highlight the tradition of voluntary attendance:

> ...and we had never ever gone the laid on model...[17:9].

Consistently throughout the interviews, personnel in District A, at all three levels, express pride in the staff development. They view themselves as leaders in the province. The same respondent quoted above

describes the district's pride in the following excerpt:

> I think the Board always felt proud that they were in the forefront of things and they saw spinoffs of that...They were always near the top and they really enjoyed that -- the limelight, and they wanted to maintain it [17:22].

District A has a history of active involvement in promoting and providing innovative, quality staff development for all district personnel. Moreover, there is a pride in past accomplishments and the events which occurred during the time frame specific to this study suggest there is a desire to maintain that leadership status.

Maintaining status as a forerunner in innovative staff development required people who could provide leadership and District A appears to have had such people. When asked to describe what it is about the district that allowed the ITIP program to be adopted a central office supervisor replied:

> ...tradition too, I think there it probably has been as a result of leadership over the years. We have been well blessed with some fairly excellent senior staff [3:15].

Another respondent, a teacher, stated simply "we had the right people in the right places." Other interviews confirm the existence of a widely held view that "the right places" were the superintendency and senior central office positions and "the right people" were

those who filled the positions at the time the ITIP program was a major staff development activity (approximately 1976-1984). With respect to the superintendent, who died in 1983, many describe him as a key influence in all aspects of the district. The following quotations are illustrative of perceptions of his influence:

> "He was a great man of encouragement" [7:14].
>
> "...was a very astute man" [11:17].
>
> "...he was the key actor in everything...incredible person, able to keep his finger on the pulse of everything" [16:40].
>
> "...ran the district -- when he said something happened, it happened" [17:5].

And specifically as his leadership related to the ITIP program, respondents recounted:

> "...it was his perception of where we should focus" [11:3].
>
> "...was anxious to promote it" [8:8].

The data demonstrate that the superintendent was perceived to have played a leadership role in the selection of the ITIP program. Further, there is also evidence that other senior personnel in central office are also perceived to be providing the necessary leadership to facilitate progressive staff development activities. The following comments made by respondents

illustrate that perception:

> This is where the leadership does come in (respondent names 5 Central Office personnel). There was definite leadership there. Leadership that encourages people to be initiators, to be bold, to be a little different" [4:.6].
>
> "Like a guy like (an assistant superintendent) is really on top of all the stuff" [17:18].

What emerges is a picture of very strong leadership personalities in the superintendency and among senior central office positions during 1976-84, a School Board with an investment in maintaining "innovator" status, and a group of administrators and teachers who have come to expect innovative, high-quality staff development opportunities.

In this context occurred the events which led to the adoption and implementation of the district wide ITIP staff development initiative in District A.

District B

District B is also situated in British Columbia's Lower Mainland area and covers approximately 55 square miles. The district is suburban and comprises residential, commercial, industrial and agricultural features.

When the data were collected for the study (September 1984) the estimated pupil population was

8,200 (full-time equivalents) in 22 elementary schools and 4 secondary schools. The district employed 435 (full-time equivalent) classroom teachers, 46 school administrators (26 principals and 20 vice-principals) and 7 central office staff (1 superintendent, 2 assistant superintendents, 1 director of instruction, 2 coordinators and 1 helping teacher). While the district's pupil population remained relatively stable during the time period of interest in this study (1979-1986), there were numerous significant changes in senior district administration and School Board membership just prior to that time.

The changes began in 1973 with the election of new individuals to the School Board. One individual later became chairperson and is described as highly influential in gaining support for staff development within the district. In 1975, both a new superintendent and a new secretary treasurer were hired. In 1980, a new position was created and an out of district person was appointed assistant superintendent. Among his responsibilities was professional development for administrators. In 1982, a district person who had been working as an assistant to the superintendent (1979-1982) was appointed the second assistant superintendent. At that time, he assumed responsibility

for teachers' professional development which had previously been the responsibility of the director of instruction.

Historically, staff development in District B did not receive priority nor did it have a good reputation among district personnel. Just prior to the implementation of the district staff development initiative described in this study, there had been a series of curriculum implementation projects. One principal described some of the curriculum projects as "nasty business" and speculated that teachers were likely relieved to see a professional development initiative that was not content specific. Further, in 1979-80 District B offered a British Columbia Teachers' Federation sponsored course which had acquired a reputation among teachers and school administrators of being a "fix-it" course for teachers. While the course content was reputed to be good and there was never any intention among central office initiators for the course to be remedial, that perception developed among teachers and the course did not continue. Traditionally in District B, teachers and administrators had separate professional development activities. Attendance was voluntary and activities were pursued individually or in small groups (i.e., school based). Few large scale

district-wide initiatives had been attempted.

The changes in school board membership coupled with the senior administration appointments (1973-1980) appear to have marked a shift in attitude regarding staff development. One respondent describes the district as one that "went from spending $65.00 to one that spent $480,000 on professional development as the board came to acknowledge the importance of it" [20:2]. The new senior administration appear to have facilitated the change of attitude and over time developed what the same respondent called a "close relationship between the district, the School Board and the teachers." Leadership appears to have been a key factor.

Senior administrative personnel, particularly the assistant superintendent appointed in 1980, were perceived by respondents to be providing the leadership necessary to initiate a district-wide staff development program. The following quotation represents the director of instruction's perception of the influence of the new assistant superintendent:

> I think when (the new assistant superintendent) came along it was a breath of life [20:19].

The new assistant superintendent arriving in a district which had recently undergone numerous changes in senior administrative positions seems to have been a catalyst

which sparked interest in and support for a district-wide staff development initiative.

The following perception taken from a principal's transcript illustrates the context of District B as it was on the verge of initiating a large scale staff development program:

> It had been a fairly traditional district -- that was my perception in 1975 -- a very traditional district in many respects. A district that, I think, had been held back by I don't know what -- monetary, secretary treasurers of the old school...I don't know. So I think maybe climate was right in District B for that, for change, for improvement for growth. New superintendent, new assistant superintendent, guys like me, I suppose to a degree, the district growing a little bit. Lots of teachers in District B who are really conscientious, really conscientious teachers [22:13].
>
> There's interested principals, there's interested administrative staff, there's an interested superintendent, there's an interested school board who are interested in -- who have genuinely said that professional development or professional growth of teachers is important [22:6].

CONTEXTS COMPARED

Three contextual variables are used to compare the two sites: (1) size and location, (2) organizational structure, and (3) history of staff development. Those three variables emerged from the site descriptions and appears to capture the essence of the two districts as

they were on the verge of initiating district-wide staff development programs.

Size and Location

District A is a large metropolitan school district located in the Lower Mainland of British Columbia. District B, by comparison, is a medium-sized suburban school district which borders to the east of District A. At the time of initiation of the staff development programs described in the present study, District A had a pupil population (full-time equivalents) of more than two and a half times that of District B. While the difference in location of the two districts is probably unimportant the difference in size may have accounted for some of the differences noted in the organizational structures of the two districts.

Organizational Structures

District A senior central office, just prior to initiation, consisted of a superintendent and three assistant superintendents. While a new assistant superintendent was hired in 1977 to replace one who retired, these senior positions and the people in them had been stable over several years. Unlike District A, District B had not had stability in its senior

administrative positions. Prior to initiation, a new superintendent had been appointed. In 1979, a principal was brought in to central office as an assistant to the superintendent and in 1980 a person was hired to fill a newly created position of assistant superintendent. Just prior to initiation, both districts had strong leadership in personnel in senior central office positions.

In District A, there were two committees which were actively involved in professional development matters. The local Teachers' Association had in place a Professional Development Committee which organized, in cooperation with central office personnel, activities for its members. This committee, representing both teachers and administrators, appeared to have the respect of district personnel at all levels. The superintendent instigated the formation of another committee a few years before the initiative described in the present study. This commitee (the Administrators' Professional Development Committee), chaired by an assistant superintendent, was established to deal specifically with professional development for administrators. District B, on the other hand, did not appear to have similar actively functioning committees. District B did have a local Teachers' Association but

there are no data which describe its professional development pursuits. There was no committee in District B which paralleled the Administrators' Professional Development Committee of District A.

District A personnel had enjoyed support and encouragement from their Board with respect to innovative staff development over many years whereas District B personnel had not. As a result of the election of some new Board members, District B began to receive more Board support just prior to the initiative which is the focus of the present study.

History of Staff Development

There appear to be few similarities between the two districts with regard to their history of staff development. In both districts, staff development activities had traditionally been separate for teachers and administrators, attendance had always been voluntary and most activities had been pursued by individuals or small groups. Neither district had previously attempted to initiate such a large scale district-wide program including teachers and administrators at both the elementary and secondary level.

Other aspects of the districts' histories were very different. District A had a reputation both within and outside the district as an innovator in staff

development. District B, in contrast, was described by respondents as very traditional and conservative in its approach to staff development.

District A personnel, at all three levels, describe with pride a positive attitude about the success and quality of their professional development programs. Conversely, District B respondents recall several unsuccessful attempts to initiate programs and a somewhat skeptical attitude toward staff development among some personnel in the district. Table 3 provides a summary of the overall contextual differences between District A and District B.

Within these very different sites, at different times, the same program was initiated. While the program content was the same, District A refers to its innovation as Instructional Theory Into Practice (ITIP) and District B refers to its program as Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET).

Table 3

Contexts Compared

District A	District B
Size and Location	
. Large metropolitan School District	. Medium sized School District just outside Metropolitan area
Organizational Structure	
. Active Administrative Professional Development Committee	. No Administrators' Professional Development Committee
. Active Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee	. Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee in place
. Stable senior central office administration	. Instability in senior central office administration prior to initiation
. Historically Board very supportive of staff development	. Historically Board not supportive of staff development
History of Staff Development	
. Innovative	. Traditional
. History of successful innovative staff development activities	. Historically staff development activities were unsuccessful
. Staff development had a positive reputation among all district personnel	. Staff development did not have a positive reputation among district personnel

CHAPTER 5

PROGRAM INITIATION

This chapter provides an account of the initiation phase of a staff development program in two School Districts (A and B) and analyzes the findings. The initiation phase consists of the events which lead up to and include a decision to adopt or proceed with that change (Fullan 1982:39). This phase took place at different times in the two districts, first in District A and slightly later in District B (see Table 4).

Table 4

Initiation Phase

District	Time line
A	1976(Summer) - 1978(Fall)
B	1979(Spring) - 1981(Spring)

The chapter consists of three sections. The initiation phases in District A and District B are described in sections one and two, respectively.

Section three concludes the chapter with an analysis of the initiation phases in the two districts.

INITIATION IN DISTRICT A

(1976-1978)

The program entitled Instructional Theory Into Practice (ITIP), developed originally by Dr. Madeline Hunter in California, was the focus of attention in District A beginning in 1976. The content of the program consists of elements of successful teaching; the goals of the program are to improve participants' skill level in teaching and supervision. The program is designed to include both school administrators and teachers (K to Grade 12) as participants.

Emerging from the data were several events which appear to have been significant in the initiation phase of the ITIP staff development initiative in District A. Table 5 highlights those important events and Table 6 lists the actors associated with them. Each actor is assigned a number and a fictitious name and the Table shows his or her organizational position.

Table 5

Initiation Events in District A

Time-Line	Events
1976-77 (School Year)	.Appointment of a new assistant superintendent .A review of teacher reports was undertaken .Administrators focus on improving skills in supervision and report writing .District staff saw presentation by Madeline Hunter
August 1977	.Madeline Hunter invited to the District
1977-78 (School Year)	.Instructional Theory Into Practice (ITIP) resource material purchased .An ITIP Management Committee formed .A consultant retained
July 1978	.Two Central Office staff attended University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) Training .Seven individuals attended Seattle Pacific University training
August 1978	.Consultant's proposal rejected (the adaptation of ITIP to the local setting) .Board approved the program (ITIP) in principle .ITIP Management Committee made plans for initial program implementation in Fall of 1978.

Table 6

Respondents and Their Respective Positions*
in District A

Interview Number	Fictitious Name	Position in the District
1	Bill	Assistant Superintendent
2	Michael	Assistant Superintendent
3	Wes	Director of Instruction
4	Sam	Director of Instruction
5	Rosemary	Coordinator
6	Stan	Coordinator
7	Sadie	Supervisor
8	Joe	Principal (Secondary)
9	Kalin	Principal (Elementary)
10	Ted	Principal (Elementary)
11	Bob	Principal (Elementary)
12	Frank	Principal (Elementary)
13	Carl	Teacher (Elementary)
14	Patricia	Teacher (Secondary)
15	Sally	Teacher (Elementary)
16	Heather	Teacher (Elementary)
17	John	Teacher (Elementary)
Not interviewed but referred to frequently in the text:		
	Don	Superintendent (1972-83)
	Howard	Assistant Superintendent (retired 1984)

Note: Within the text excerpts from interview data will indicate the interview number and page, e.g., [#6:10] will refer to interview 6 page 10.

*Positions shown are the positions held at the time of the interview.

In addition to transcript data, the researcher had access to district documents. Throughout the study, reference is made to various memos, reports and letters. In an effort to maintain confidentiality, those documents are not included in the appendix and will be kept on file by the researcher and are referred to in the text by number. For example, [R.F. #1] will refer to item number one in the researcher's file.

Between the Summer of 1976 and the Fall of 1978 a number of events occurred which led up to a decision to proceed with the implementation of the ITIP program in District A. The earliest stages of the initiation were linked to the superintendent's interest in professional development for administrators, particularly in the area of supervision and report writing. The superintendent had initiated the formation of a committee to deal specifically with administrators' professional development (the Administrators' Professional Development Committee). This committee was chaired by an assistant superintendent. Joe, a secondary principal and an original member of the committee, reflects on that period of time and recalls that the committee was:

> set up by the superintendent and it was an on-going committee from his office...At that time the superintendent had funds and was able to put aside funds in the budget for professional development for administrators [8:1].

In the Summer of 1976, Bill was appointed to the position of assistant superintendent. Among his personal interests was the supervision of teachers [1:2]. During Bill's first year in the district, the superintendent requested that he conduct a review of teacher reports which had been completed by principals. The results of that review confirmed for the superintendent the need to focus on the improvement of skills in the area of report writing and supervision and this was subsequently conveyed to the Administrators' Professional Development Committee. All of the respondents who were in central office at the time (1976) and four of five who were then principals, confirm the existence of this professional development focus.

> There was a pressure to improve report writing. There was a pressure to improve supervisory practice [4:1].
>
> He (the superintendent) was promoting professional development, he was promoting it quite actively, he was anxious for administrative growth...for awhile it was just his particular agenda [8:9].
>
> We were moving into, I think perhaps, looking at more research based presentations, teaching styles, supervisory models [10:1].
>
> I would say that it became a common thrust that the superintendent intensified...the expectations about the instructional practices of teachers, about the

evaluation process [3:5].

A report from an assistant superintendent to the Administrators' Professional Development Committee dated 1976:12:10 further illustrates that the professional development focus for administrators was clearly supervision and evaluation. It proposes that the professional development activities for 1977 "focus on the goal of improving the competence of administrators in the area of supervision" [R.F. #1].

In response to the superintendent's expectations of professional growth for administrators in supervision and evaluation, the Administrators' Professional Development Committee began a search for a program that would address this need. Two respondents who were members of the committee describe those efforts in the following quotations:

> We (Administrators' Professional Development Committee) were looking for people who were trying to define what is effective teaching, what is good teaching, how do you improve that teaching process [4:3].

> Really kind of searching around for something...looking for a feeling of rejuvenation, and it also involved a kind of focussing down on supervision...I think that some of us felt that "It's all well and good to look at a supervision model but maybe we should look at a model of teaching first, and then that gives us a good place to hang on to afterwards for your supervision project [11:2].

In a fashion which appears to have been typical for the district, specialists were invited to give presentations. Wes, a central office staff person recounts visits by Manett, Block, Bloom and Rosenshine [3:4]. In addition, individuals attended conferences outside the district and it was during such a conference that District A personnel encountered Dr. Madeline Hunter. Bill, an assistant superintendent, reports having seen her at conferences and read some of her material [1:3]. A vice-principal from one of the large high schools had taken an ITIP course at Western Washington University and upon his return recommended to the Administrators' Professional Development Committee that they consider Madeline Hunter's work [8:4]. Sadie recalled meeting Madeline Hunter at a supervisors' conference at Harrison, B.C. and being so impressed that she asked the superintendent "if it might be possible to have her as a speaker for the Administrators' meeting held at the end of August" [7:1]. Kalin, a principal on the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, had also heard her speak while he was attending Seattle Pacific University and he too lobbied to have Dr. Hunter invited to the District [9:2]. These specific examples illustrate an excitement about the work of Madeline Hunter which was experienced by several central office

and school administration personnel at this time. As a result of this growing interest, Bob, a member of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, recalled making the arrangements for Madeline Hunter to make a presentation to the district administrators [11:1]. Bill, an assistant superintendent, told of how he persuaded the superintendent to give up his traditional address to the administrators in favour of a presentation by Madeline Hunter [1:3].

The Madeline Hunter presentation in August 1977 constitutes a major event in the initiation phase. Thirteen of seventeen respondents identify the Hunter presentation as a significant contributing factor in the decision to select the ITIP program. The following quotations are indicative of respondents' perceptions of that event:

> I could see that they were really impressed, that they felt that she was down to earth and was giving what people could apply in the classroom. So I was very pleased with their reaction and that really sort of set the stage for people talking about it [7:2].

> I think first and foremost it was that our administrators were really impressed with Madeline Hunter herself [5:4].

> It impressed me personally at our Administrators annual get together at the end of August [8:5].

Following the Hunter presentation in August 1977 a number of ITIP related activities were initiated. Books and films were purchased in large quantities and circulated in schools, a sub-committee of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee (ITIP Management Committee) was formed to deal specifically with ITIP and the district sponsored people to go to the U.S.A. for ITIP training.

There was a major effort during the 1977-78 school year to build awareness among teachers in District A by encouraging school principals to introduce ITIP via books and films. Only days after Madeline Hunter's August presentation, Howard, an assistant superintendent, sent a memo to workshop participants indicating possible resource materials. An additional memo from the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, a week later, outlined a proposed follow-up to the Madeline Hunter workshops. It proposes [R.F. #2]:

1. that a summary of the Hunter workshop be prepared and made available to every teacher;

2. that articles be duplicated and sent to administrators for distribution to teachers upon request;

3. that audio tapes made at the Hunter presentation be copied and made available to teachers; and

4. that multiple sets of Madeline Hunter books and films be purchased.

The data indicate that there was quick action following the proposal as evidenced in a memo from the Administrators' Professional Development Committee in November announcing the arrival of twenty sets of seven books and a set of eleven colour films. The purpose of having the materials is expressed in that memo in the following way:

> It is hoped that supervisors, administrators and participants of the workshop will take the opportunity to view the films, become proficient in the application of these materials and be available to schools as resource people.

Respondents' recollections suggest that the hope expressed in this memo was only partly fulfilled. In at least one respect, the Hunter films failed to impress the viewers as demonstrated in the following quotations:

> ...I don't think she works well on 16 mm...I think those 16 mm, in retrospect, probably hurt our purposes in many ways [12:2].

> ...we used to have Madeline Hunters' film festival which was a total bore [7:12].

> ...a lot of principals really became gung ho about it, like any good program, once you get into it you find that it's got value...Unfortunately what happened is the same approach was taken by a lot of administrators. You know, "Hey, I've got it. This is great, let's do it." and they started showing films at lunch time, you know...Her stuff is good but the films were just terrible. I could remember sitting in a staffroom where a bunch of us just walked out because it was interfering

> with our lunch hour [17:9].

The reaction to the 16 mm films notwithstanding, enthusiasm continued to build.

The ITIP Management Committee quickly realized that the ITIP program would be of little use to administrators without teachers. Joe, a secondary principal and member of the committee, comments on the decision to involve teachers in the following way:

> Probably the most significant thing was we realized that as we went along there's no way we could do this in isolation from teachers [8:8].

At this stage, the committee chose to involve teachers by inviting the chairperson of the local Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee to be part of the planning. Rosemary, the Chairperson, and a classroom teacher at the time, describes the situation in the following way:

> They (the Committee) made overtures to the (District A) Teachers' Professional Development Committee with the idea they wanted teacher involvement right from the start...during ITIP planning it was interesting, because I think it was quite unique, they insisted that the Professional Development Chairperson be part of the planning sessions [5:2, 5:6].

During the 1977-78 school year, the ITIP Management Committee recommended, "that the emphasis for the coming year shift from the knowledge level of the Hunter principles to the application level." It was recognized

that this decision constituted a major commitment of time and money [R.F.#3]. Other committee activities included discussion with a consultant from Western Washington who was subsequently invited to submit a detailed proposal for the implementation of a program designed to adapt the ITIP materials to meet the specific local needs of District A.

Later that year (June 26-July 7) Wes and Howard, a director of instruction and an assistant superintendent, were sponsored by the district to attend the "Clinical Supervision" workshop at Madeline Hunter's school at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA). In addition, another assistant superintendent, Michael, received district funding to attend "Beginning ITIP" at Seattle Pacific University. Several others, including principals and teachers, were also sponsored and attended the course in Seattle with Michael. Kalin and Frank, both elementary principals, had, by this time, applied for and received approval for a proposal to develop model ITIP schools. Sally and Heather were teachers on Frank's staff and were among those who travelled to Seattle Pacific University for the "Beginning ITIP" course. Sally recalls Frank's vision of a model ITIP school as follows:

> (He) had in mind that the schools become model schools, have a couple of staff

> members do the training, we could do the inservice for the rest of the staff members and we could make ourselves available if other schools would like us to come [15:6].

These various activities demonstrate the growing interest in ITIP among District A personnel. It appears that the district was "testing the waters" and trying to find out as much as possible about the program before taking the final step and committing large sums of money to a district-wide ITIP staff development initiative. It also appears that as people got more involved the enthusiasm for the program intensified.

Two major initiation events took place in August, 1978. The budget for the proposal submitted by the American consultant was in excess of $50,000 and, while it contained many of the ideas espoused by the ITIP Management Committee, it was not approved [R.F.#4]. The official reason for rejection was cost but in the view of Bill, one of the assistant superintendents, there were other reasons. He reports feeling the original goal of improving supervision had been lost in the proposed adaptation and he argues that the original ITIP program had the potential of meeting the project objectives [1:6]. The other major event was the granting of Board approval to the proposal for administrators' professional development. Howard, an

assistant superintendent, presented the proposal which constituted the implementation of a district-wide ITIP initiative.

The formal approval for the adoption of the ITIP program having been granted, the ITIP Management Committee began to formulate a district plan which would eventually involve all principals and some teachers in the training. The criteria for selection of participants for the first workshop and application forms were sent out in September, 1978 [R.F.#5]. Noteworthy is the fact that for the first time in District A there was an expectation from senior central office personnel that every administrator would participate in the initiative. The following quotation from one of the assistant superintendents is illustrative of that expectation:

> No one was going to get shot at dawn if they didn't turn out for it, but there was a pretty heavy expectation...[2:5].

The first ITIP training session was scheduled to begin in early October, 1978, about six weeks after formal Board approval for the project. The goal of the project was to improve the supervisory skills of administrators. Principals were expected to attend with one or more teachers depending on the size of their school.

THE INITIATION IN DISTRICT B

(1979-1982)

A program entitled Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET) was the focus of attention in District B beginning in 1980. The content of the program consists of the ITIP material developed by Dr. Madeline Hunter and it is the same program which was adopted in District A.

Emerging from the data were several events which appear to have been significant in District B. Table 7 highlights these events and Table 8 lists the actors associated with them. Each actor is assigned a number and a fictitious name and Table 8 shows his or her position in the organization.

Between the years 1979 and 1982, a series of interrelated events occurred in District B which appear to have led to the decision to proceed with a district-wide staff development initiative entitled TET (Teacher Effectiveness Training). For reasons which are discussed later, District B personnel chose not to refer to the program as ITIP although the content is the same as that used in District A.

Table 7

Initiation Events in District B

Time-line	Events
Pre-Initiation	
1973	.A highly influential member elected to the School Board
1975	.Both a new superintendent and a new secretary treasurer were hired .Supervisor interested in ITIP joined central office staff.
Initiation	
1979-80	.A central office administrator attempted to initiate the ITIP program .A district principal was appointed to the position of assistant to the superintendent. .An ITIP session was presented at the district's annual convention.
Summer 1980	.A new position of assistant superintendent was created and an out-of-district person was appointed.
1980-81	.Preliminary work on a district TET program was done .Two central office administrators and a principal attended an Ernie Stachowski workshop in a neighbouring district.
Summer 1981	.A central office administrator and a principal attended a Madeline Hunter workshop at Seattle Pacific University and contact was made with Carol Cummings.
1981-82	.Carol Cummings presented a district workshop for "best" teachers selected by their principals. .Teachers' reaction was enthusiastic.

Table 8

Respondents and Their Respective Position*
in District B

Interview Number	Fictitious Name	Position in the District
18	Nick	Assistant Superintendent
19	Barry	Assistant Superintendent
20	Ted	Director
21	Nathan	Helping Teacher
22	Tony	Principal (Secondary)
23	Art	Principal (Elementary)
24	Bob	Principal (Elementary)
25	Doug	Principal (Elementary)
26	Kent	Principal (Elementary)
27	Olive	Teacher (Elementary)
28	William	Teacher (Elementary)
29	Diane	Teacher (Elementary)
30	Josh	Teacher (Secondary)
31	David	Teacher (Secondary)
32	Kathy	Teacher (Elementary)

*Positions shown are the positions held at the time of the interview

It appears the earliest stages of the TET initiative began around 1979 and are linked to the supervision of teachers. Barry, who at that time was an assistant to the superintendent, was encouraged by the superintendent to pursue the topic of supervision [19:2]. During 1979, Barry completed the first draft of a document entitled "Supervision: A District Perspective" [R.F.#6].

Prior to 1979 there were a number of events which appear to have set the stage for change (pre-initiation). By 1975, the district had undergone several changes in senior administration and at the Board level. Tony, a supervisor of instruction at the time, had begun to plant seeds. He was identified by several respondents as one of the key actors in the TET initiation phase. He came to District B in 1975 from a neighbouring school district reputed to be a forerunner in the area of supervision of teachers. At that time he was appointed to the central office position of supervisor of instruction. His interest in supervision had led him to Madeline Hunter's work and he became an advocate for ITIP. Barry and Nick, both senior central office personnel, describe Tony's early efforts to initiate an ITIP program in the following way:

> Tony came from District N, had been down to UCLA, I believe one summer with Madeline and came out of the District N supervision model and so when he was in central office, which was before I was, I think he was encouraging that approach to supervision [19:3].
>
> Of course Tony had been involved in this sort of thing and I learned that he had been trying to sell the notion of Madeline Hunter before I got here and got burned in the process [18:4].

Tony explains his own involvement at the time in the following manner:

> As a supervisor, I was using some of the clinical supervision things. I don't want to sound egotistical, but I think I started a lot of talking about bringing Madeline Hunter into the district which never was accomplished in my three years in central office [22:1].

Barry speculates that Tony was unable to initiate in 1975 the very program that was initiated in 1980, because his position at the time did not hold enough power:

> It could be that his area of responsibility was not...he wasn't a director of instruction and perhaps if he had been, he might have been able to move and shake a bit more [19:3].

Another respondent recalls the following:

> He (Tony) had been creating an awareness of the program which was partly accepted by some and definitely rejected by one or two. One of whom was very influential. Consequently, the program never really got off the ground [26:1].

Tony was not the only person who failed to gather

support for the ITIP program. In the Spring of 1980, an ITIP session was included on the program of the District B Spring Convention. The session had been arranged by the Convention Chairperson who had experienced ITIP in District A. Independently, Barry, who had been at a Supervision Workshop in District A, had endorsed the idea of including an ITIP workshop on the program. The reaction to ITIP was negative. Several respondents remember the negative reaction of participants in the following ways:

> I think probably the big thing there is that ITIP is such, when it was first brought into the District, it was a number of years ago, even prior to my coming here, had been sort of introduced to the teachers by a District A teacher, I believe. The response of the teachers at the Convention at the time with regard to the program, was very negative [21:4].
>
> At a conference...we put on a session on ITIP...and we got a guy from District A to come in and give it and it bombed [26:5].
>
> ...this school was one who went to a workshop, which was entitled ITIP, and it was just an absolute disaster...disaster-ville, six months it set us back [22:8].

This reaction to the ITIP presentation resulted in District B central office personnel choosing not to refer to the program as ITIP. Instead they renamed their program TET (Teacher Effectiveness Training). There were strong feelings among central office staff regarding that decision. Barry, the assistant to the

superintendent at the time, explained they simply felt they had to change the name of their program to avoid any connection with the ITIP presentation made at the 1980 convention. The following quotation illustrates the rationale behind that decision:

> It had been well attended in the morning - the manner of presentation offended all kinds of people and they went away saying forget it. They all went to other activities in the afternoon. Some said, "Hey if we call it ITIP, we're going to get a negative reaction (that) right off the bat we will have to overcome, so let's call it "Effective Teaching" or "TET" [19:9].

Prior to the Fall 1980, attempts to initiate the ITIP program appeared doomed to failure. Moreover, about the same time a British Columbia Teachers' Federation sponsored program, Project TEACH, was offered and it, too, failed. Despite the fact that the Project TEACH content was considered good, the program failed because it was perceived by teachers as a remedial or "fix-it" program [18:21].

In the Summer of 1980, Nick was appointed to a newly created position of assistant superintendent. He came to District B from District P in the interior of B.C. His appearance appears to mark a shift in attitude regarding the initiation of a district staff development initiative. The following excerpt is Nick's explanation of how the program was initiated:

> I wondered what role I would play in terms of the people side of things because I'd been away from that. I hadn't been in Professional Development work up North...Here it was all sort of under my umbrella, and so thinking of the people side of the thing, teaching, the quality of teaching, this sort of thing. I was aware of what was going on in the Professional Development program in District P because the guy's office was next to mine. He had arranged to bring in Ernie Stachowski...I heard a lot of good things from classroom teachers and school principals...So without really knowing much about it...I simply wrote back to District P...and asked her if she could get me Ernie's address or phone number...[18:3]

Worthy of note is the fact that "in 1980 the Board of School Trustees set as a major goal the establishment of a District-wide project to encourage the professional growth of teachers" [R.F.#7]. Thus, Nick's pursuit of professional development activities to enhance teacher effectiveness was aligned with formal District goals. It appears that without knowing too much about ITIP, Nick, the new assistant superintendent, felt responsible to initiate a professional development program for administrators.

Nick's initial contact with Ernie Stachowski resulted in an arrangement whereby a few District B personnel attended an ITIP workshop by Stachowski in nearby District W in the Winter of 1981. Nick attended and invited Ted and Tony to join him. Nick explains

there was a strategy related to his choices:

> I had got the drift from listening to people that Tony had been really interested in this kind of thing so that was the reason I chose him to go to District W and he also has a fair amount of power among the Principals.
>
> Ted being the director of instruction (was) in charge of the teachers. I wanted the person who is most closely working with teachers and who also had, I assumed, a lot of power in the district and who had been here a long time [18:4].

The three men were impressed and decided they "should get going on this sort of thing" but wondered about the best way to approach such an initiative. As Nick points out:

> We didn't really go through to seek field support at this stage. We still wanted to have some other opinions of how we might go and in the back of my mind was the fact that sure you can bring in Ernie Stachowski, but it is not very practical to have your resource person down in Long Beach...He might be a good person to kick things off, I felt, but we have to solve th problem as to how we would continue [18:5].

During the Spring of that year, consistent with his ongoing interest in supervision, Barry presented a session on "Collegial Supervision" at the District Teachers' Convention.

In keeping with Nick's inclination to gather other opinions about the best way to introduce this program to the field for their support, he decided to send a few

district people to Seattle Pacific University for some more training and exposure to ITIP. During the Summer of 1981, Ted, Tony and another district principal travelled to Seattle Pacific University for ITIP training and during that time, contact was made with Carol Cummings who impressed them all. Nick had decided not to attend because he felt "it was important for (me) not to look like (I) was pushing it from my point of view." However, based on the recommendation of Tony and Ted upon their return from Seattle Pacific, they "moved quickly to get Carol to come in and do a workshop" [18:6].

While Nick's "motivation all along had been the needs of school principals...to understand the process of teaching...so they will use their skills for helping teachers", he was convinced by Ted and Barry to offer a workshop for teachers only. Nick recalls being convinced because of his fear that "when principals are closed in a room by themselves, the teachers are wondering what the hell those guys are doing." Barry explains his philosophy and the thinking that guided his wish for teachers only:

> ...there was a theory behind inviting teachers only...my goal was to give teachers more authority, more power, whatever. And also, psychologically I thought it may, or politically or whatever it may be, it may make sense to hold out a

carrot to the principals [19:10].

Nick was persuaded by Barry and the initial training was offered to teachers only. Principals were asked to send their "best" teachers and include learning assistance teachers and counsellors [19:12]. The criteria given to principals included "best teachers", "people who are openminded", "people who will tell others about it" [20:6]. In the quotation below, Ted describes how this strategy to acknowledge teachers for their strengths and celebrate their abilities in the selection process for the initial workshop fell somewhat short of the intended goal:

> I had a number of teachers come up to me and do a perception check. They wanted to know why they had been selected. I said, "Well, you should know why you have been selected." No, I don't. I feel insulted and everything else." And I said, "Why would you feel insulted?" "Because you feel I should be here [20:6]."

This first TET workshop in District B, presented by Carol Cummings, was offered in the Fall of 1981 to teachers only. It appears to have been another "testing of the waters" during the initiation phase. Despite the fact that some didn't understand why they were selected to attend, evaluations from this workshop with Carol Cummings were enthusiastic -- 96% thought it was good or excellent [19:11]. Trustees were also invited and it appears that as a result of their involvement they

became more interested in this staff development initiative.

In October, that same Fall (1981), Nick made a presentation to administrators on "a program designed to help you understand even more about the art and science of teaching and about how you can accurately assist teachers to grow." That meeting stands out as a very important event in the initiation phase. The following excerpt provides Nick's personal account of that meeting:

> Now actually that is still at the end of my first year, no that must be my second year. Somewhere in this mix it really gets hazy. I pretty well had to go ahead on the assumption that I would be able to convince principals to not have their annual retreat, which is something very close to them and to spend that money to bring in Stachowski. I had made arrangements, behind the scenes to be honest, contacting Ernie generally getting his agreement yes he would come, how many days? First we had six days and then you know it was changed around for budget reasons and this sort of thing. But I knew then that Ernie, yes he would come because up to that point he was telling me about District W and all this sort of stuff and on the phone that he really didn't know whether he wanted to take on another school district. So before I went to the principals I was sure that he would come. I made a presentation to principals about having a major, this was at the same time that Carol was already coming in. (you anticipated my question) and my speaking notes are in here hand written probably a half an hour before the meeting. What am I going to say to these guys now? But I was nervous. You know I

> don't really tend to operate that way. You know, mind you it is just a phone call, "Ernie no, they won't buy it, I'm sorry. Thanks for being interested," so I wasn't too concerned, but I was concerned about the fact that I was asking principals to give up something very dear to them. Not no retreats is going to be in house here, you won't be able to go away and have a big party at night and this sort of thing. And that is an important thing to do. I am not saying that we shouldn't do that but we couldn't do both. We couldn't have Ernie in and also do that. I was very pleased with the principals. They said, "Sure, let's go for it." There is actually a piece that I kept referring to that I noticed in my notes this morning that I was just looking through in my book and it's missing. I keep referring to the paper before you and the damn thing isn't there (oh no) Anyhow, it really just said the basic outline, but the other thing was that not only would we not have the retreat but we are not going to be there on our own folks, I want you to bring a teacher along. Ernie had convinced us of that anyhow. He said, "Don't ever put a group of principals on this topic by themselves." So we asked principals, please bring a teacher along who you respect and that the other staff members respect as being a good teacher, whatever that means. Don't bring a person along who you feel is having some trouble and don't bring a person along that even if they're good the rest of the staff doesn't feel good about [18:8].

Having a sense of Nick's perceptions, the following excerpts from the transcripts demonstrate reactions to that meeting from some of the administrators:

> He (Nick) certainly was the proponent, he was the guiding light, he was the one that could intellectualize it and explain it, and I feel that he was certainly the chief initiator and he has kept his finger in it [25:6].
>
> ...then Nick, who is the assistant superintendent of the district, came in and I think that was probably the catalyst that really got it going [22:17].
>
> ...he [Nick] showed the leadership in order to get it going...the whole thing was pretty carefully orchestrated [26:2].

The administrators appeared willing to support Nick on this initiative. Perhaps their reaction was related to a comment Ted made about him:

> I think when Nick came along it was a breath of life...Nick came down and he was ready to make an impression, to make a name for himself. He cares about people [20:18].

Nick, in the following quotation, provides his own perception of the principals' willingness to support his plan:

> ...in terms of the principals, it could well have been that when you are new in the district as a new assistant superintendent, that they are willing to say "let's go with his idea, let's go with his request. I don't like it but we have got to let this guy have some rope... I think also it is just the notion that, hey, this guy is new and most people want people to succeed. They really do, and so if he wants to do this we better go along because we don't want him to get into trouble [18:21].

The data demonstrate that there was a unanimously held

perception among administrators (5 of 5) that Nick was the catalyst and chief initiator of the TET initiative. It was not, however, totally a one man show. The data also provide evidence that other central office personnel were involved in the initiation phase. Barry, the assistant to the superintendent at the time, influenced a number of key discussions during initiation. He influenced the decision to call the program TET rather than ITIP and it was his idea to offer the first training program to teachers only. The following quotation reflects Nick's recollection of the advice he received from his colleagues regarding the use of ITIP:

> If you mention the word ITIP or if you say ITIP, if you talk about Madeline Hunter you're dead in the water. It was good advice because I had no idea what was going on [18:11].

Ted, a director of instruction, had been included in the "testing of the waters" both in District W and at Seattle Pacific University. It was during a training course in Seattle Pacific University he met Carol Cummings and returned with the recommendation to involve her in the district.

The superintendent appears to have played the role of support gatherer. The following quotations are illustrative of the superintendent's involvement during initiation:

> The superintendent was wise enough not to get in the road. He saw the plan and gave us moral support [20:19].
>
> He (the superintendent) was definitely proactive rather than reactive...and he persuaded the Board to support it [24:22].
>
> ...and he's done a tremendous amount of work, I think, with the Board in convincing them in his way because of his role as superintendent that professional development of teachers is important [22:5].

In addition to the superintendent's efforts to gain support from the Board, Nick credited Barry and Ted with having the awareness of the local political scene and the foresight to invite the executive of the Teachers' Association to the first workshop for principals and teachers.

Once Nick had gained the support of the administrators and the Board had indicated support, action was taken to secure Ernie Stachowski for the initial training experience in the Spring of 1982. The plan was to offer the course to all principals who were asked to attend with one or more of their teachers.

On the eve of the implementation phase, considerable enthusiasm for the TET initiative was

developing in a district which had previously resisted ITIP and other staff development efforts. Ninety-six percent of the teachers who had taken the initial training had rated it as excellent and the principals had indicated their support to the new assistant superintendent's request for involvement in the TET initiative. The arrival of the new assistant superintendent in 1980 appears to have been a significant factor affecting this shift in attitude towards staff development activities. Throughout the initiation the new assistant superintendent had consulted with his colleague, Barry, assistant to the superintendent. By the end of initiation, Barry had been appointed as the second assistant superintendent responsible for the district's teachers. Nick who was responsible for the district's principals recounts his perception of their working relationship in the following way:

> ...Barry and I work closely together very well...He works with me with the principals, and I work with him with the teachers [18:25].

The data suggest that their differences in responsibilities may have inclined the two officials to differ in their perspective on the primary target audience for the project. Accounts of Nick's action suggest that he saw principals as the primary target

audience while Barry's actions suggest that he strongly advocated teachers as the primary target audience. This difference notwithstanding, both of these senior officials agreed that the TET initiative should proceed. The Ernie Stachowski training session for all principals and some of their teachers took place in the Spring of 1982 and marked the beginning of implementation and the end of the initiation phase.

INITIATION: CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

The events which occurred during initiation and which appear to have contributed to the adoption of the initiative in both districts were related to four variables: (1) contextual variables, (2) the sources of the initiative, (3) the attributes of the initiative, and (4) the gathering of support. These variables consist of a number of factors which all interacted within the context of each district and appear to have contributed to the decision to adopt the initiative.

Contextual Variables

Two contextual variables appear to have had an effect on the events which led to the adoption of the initiatives described in this study: organizational structure and history of staff development.

Organizational structure. As discussed in chapter 4, District A had two active professional development committees functioning within its organizational structure. An analysis of the data pertinent to initiation suggests that the existence of these two committees may have accounted for some differences in the events which occurred within the two districts during initiation.

The Administrators' Professional Development Committee was actively involved in the search for and the selection of the ITIP program in District A. It appears that the existence of this committee may have resulted in many more administrators being involved in District A than was to be the case in District B. Those few administrators who were involved in District B during initiation appear to have been involved on an individual basis by invitation of the primary initiator. The existence of the committee in District A seems to have formalized the contact between central office and administrators whereas the lack of a similar committee in District B seems to have made that contact more informal.

Teachers were not included in the selection decision in either district but the Chairperson of the

District A local Teachers' Association Professional Development committee was invited to sit on the Administrators' Professional Development Sub-Committee during the ITIP initiative. The long standing strength of the Teachers' Association Committee may have accounted, in part, for the decision in District A to include a teacher representative once the committee decided teachers would be included during implementation.

History of staff development. Two very different histories of staff development characterized Districts A and B and yet each history in its own way appears to have been influential in the selection decision.

In District A there was an expectation of and pride in innovative staff development. The data suggest that the innovative aspects of the ITIP initiative may have appealed to program initiators, users and Board members because such a program would maintain the District's reputation as an innovator. The following quotations are supportive of such speculation:

> We were always looking for something new [3:18]
>
> Tremendous district pride...desire to keep in the forefront [4:5]
>
> I think the Board always felt proudly that they were in the forefront of things...[17:22].

In District B staff development had historically been conservatively approached and had not been a district priority. Funds had not been made readily available by the Board and the staff development activities had typically not been well received by district teachers and administrators. The history in District B suggests that it wouldn't contribute to initiation but it did. The following quotation is illustrative of the fact that people in the district were ready for a new approach:

> ...the district was ready for change. It had been a fairly traditional district... So, I think maybe climate was right in District B for that, for change for improvement, for growth [22:13].

Context as predictor. The history of staff development and the organizational structures in the two districts are very different. One would think these differences would result in different initiation outcomes but they did not. Both districts selected the same program and decided to proceed with implementation. Perhaps the differences in history and organizational structure predict different reactions during implementation.

The Sources of the Initiatives

One individual emerged in each district as the primary initiator of a district staff development program. It appears unlikely that either initiative would have been adopted without their efforts. While these two individuals played the leading actor role in each district, both had a number of supporting actors who also emerged as key personnel in the initiative. The following pages contain a discussion of both the key personnel and the factors which appear to have motivated them in their selection.

Key personnel. Each of the respondents was asked who selected the program as the focus of a district staff development initiative. Tables 9 and 10 illustrate the respondents' perceptions of who selected the programs in their district. Tables 9 and 10 indicate that in these two districts the perceptions reflected a commonly held view that the program was selected by senior central office personnel.

Table 9

District A Respondents' Perceptions of "Who" Selected the ITIP Program

Respondent No.	Respondents Answers to Question of "Who" Selected																			
	Central Office Personnel										Principals					Teachers				
	S*	R*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	PD*	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	*		*							*										
2	*	*								*										
3	*	*	*							*										
4	*	*	*							*										
5										*	*									
6																				
7	*																			
8	*	*								*										
9	*		*	*						*		*			*					
10	*	*	*	*						*										
11	*		*						*	*				*						
12	*		*	*						*										
13	*			*						*		*								
14	*			*												*				
15				*						*										
16	*		*	*																
17	*		*	*																

*S = Superintendent
R = Retired Assistant Superintendent
PD = Administrators' Professional Development Committee

Table 10

District B Respondents' Perceptions of "Who" Selected the TET Program

Respondent No.	Respondents Answers to Question of "Who" Selected																
	Central Office Personnel						Principals					Teachers					
	S*	18	19	20	21	SC*	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
18		*	*	*		*	*										
19	*	*	*	*			*										
20				*			*										
21	*	*															
22		*					*										
23		*															
24		*															
25	*	*															
26		*					*										
27				*													
28		*	*														
29				*													
30				*													
31																	
32	*	*	*	*					*								

* S = Superintendent
SC = Steering Committee

In District A the involvement of the Administrators' Professional Development committee was acknowledged by all the senior central office personnel and administrators. All but three respondents in District A identify the superintendent. While teachers' responses generally reflect the perceptions of the other two groups in Table 9, the transcript data demonstrate that their responses were speculative rather than grounded in actual knowledge of who selected the program.

In District B, the senior central office personnel and all of the administrators are in accord with respect to the selection decision being made by the assistant superintendent. Furthermore, the most influential principal in initiation in District B was identified by central office respondents and by a fellow principal. Interestingly, teachers' perceptions of who selected the program are quite different from those of the other two groups. Four of the six teachers perceive the director of instruction to have selected the program. While the data indicate he was actively involved, he clearly did not select the program. As in District A, teachers responses were speculative; in fact, one teacher said she "didn't know."

These findings suggest that among those respondents

who were involved during initiation (teachers were not actively involved in either district) there was a fairly clear understanding of who had played a role in the selection of the programs. In District A, the superintendent is perceived by most to be the primary initiator whereas in District B the newly appointed assistant superintendent is perceived to have played that role.

It seems reasonable to take the view that neither initiative would have been adopted without the primary initiator and his supporters. What appears to be the most important feature of the initiators is their very senior positions in the organizations. There is support for this view among respondents as illustrated in the following quotations:

> We just had the right people in the right places [14:4].
>
> He (assistant superintendent) was in the right position [26:13].

In fact, in District B, a supervisor in central office had been unsuccessful in his attempt to initiate the same program a few years prior to the arrival of the new assistant superintendent. It is suggested by a respondent that his lack of success was attributable to the fact that his position within the organization lacked the necessary power [19:3]. Thus, the

attribution of power adds further support to the suggestion that the senior position of those who initiated the project is an important factor in the selection decision in these two districts.

As described in the first section of this chapter, the role played by the superintendent in District A was to declare a need, instigate a search for a program which would meet that need and, based on the feedback from a number of sources, select the ITIP program. The data provide evidence that he was actively involved during initiation. For example, shortly after the initial Madeline Hunter presentation, he contacted an individual at Seattle Pacific University as suggested by Dr. Hunter and met with that person along with two of his assistants [2:4]. Further, he personally met with two of the administrators to discuss their proposals to create model ITIP schools [9:4]. Moreover, he sought individuals' reactions to the ITIP training experiences which occurred out of the district [15:15]. The active leading role played by the superintendent appears to have been the source of the ITIP initiative in District A and to have had a powerful effect on subsequent decisions and events related to the program.

In District B, as illustrated in Table 10 and demonstrated in the narrative, the newly appointed assistant superintendent was the primary initiator. He alone appears to have selected the program, largely based on the success it had had in his former district. In a relatively short time he was able to gain the necessary support of his colleagues in central office and the school administrators. He accomplished this in a district which had had a history of unsuccessful change efforts. The data indicate that his success may have been related to the fact that he was new to the district. The following excerpt is the perception of a principal:

> He came as an outsider who didn't have any hidden agendas [20:13].

The active leading role played by the new assistant superintendent is clearly the source of the initiative in District B.

Thus, two men who held different positions in the organizations successfully initiated the same program in two different school districts. They had different reasons for initiating the project, they chose different approaches and the context within which they worked was very different.

In both districts, the primary initiators had the support of other key personnel in central office and

school administration. Support for the initiative from central office personnel appears to have contributed to the adoption process in both districts. A number of school administrators also played important supporting roles which seem to have further facilitated the adoption decisions in both districts.

With respect to key personnel, there were some major differences between the two districts. On the one hand in District A, more people were involved in the selection decision. There was a need identified, and a committee in place to search for a program to meet that need. Both central office personnel and administrators played a role in that search and had input into the ultimate selection decision which was made by the superintendent. In District B, on the other hand, there was no need identified, no search occurred and a single individual, an assistant superintendent, selected the program. However, because this individual was new to the district, he looked to a colleague, the assistant to the superintendent, for advice. As a result of both his actions and his advice, this individual appears to have influenced some key initiation decisions. Furthermore, the superintendent in District B played a role quite different from that of the superintendent in District A. He played a supporting role focussing his attention

during initiation on securing the support of the Board.

The final difference related to key personnel was the number of school administrators involved in the planning function of initiation. In District A, administrators were involved whereas in District B they were not. As members of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, in conjunction with senior central office personnel, District A administrators planned for implementation. In District B, planning for implementation was done by the primary initiator and his central office colleagues. There seems to be a link between key personnel and the forces which appeared to affect their selection decisions.

Motivating factors in the selection. The initiators in both districts selected the same program but the motivating factors which led up to that decision appear to have been different.

In District A, the motivating factors behind the selection decision appears to have been the need to improve supervision and report writing skills. The need was identified by the superintendent who was identified as the primary initiator. Subsequently, the Administrators' Professional Development Committee and central office personnel began to look for a program

which would meet that need. Thus, the motivating factor behind the selection of the ITIP program in District A seems to have been to meet an identified need.

In District B, by contrast, the primary initiator did not identify a need and the motivating factors behind his selection appear different from those in District A. First, he expresssed the view that he was anxious to initiate a professional development program for administrators soon after his arrival in a new school district. Second, he was well aware of the success of the program in his former district. Third, the Board in District B had set professional development for district personnel as one of their goals.

The new assistant superintendent's inclination to initiate a professional development program for administrators soon after his arrival was obvious to others as illustrated in the following quotation:

> Nick came down and he was ready to make an impression, to make a name for himself [20:19].

Further, within months of his arrival, the new assistant superintendent had begun inquiring of former colleagues about the ITIP program. His initial motivations to initiate ITIP in District B were, in his words, "simplistic." The following excerpt illustrates his initial interest:

> Frankly, one of the things that really got me keen on it was the fact that I got such favourable responses from classroom teachers and principals in District P and I could easily get it because I had nothing to do with the program...if teachers and principals were excited about what they were hearing, whatever it was...they said it was helping them to be better teachers. Well, that's good enough for me [18:12].

In addition, it seems reasonable to assume that the goal set by the Board to support professional development for district staff may have presented a need which had to be addressed and, in that way, also motivated the new assistant superintendent to put a program in place.

An additional aspect of a motivating factor related to key personnel emerges and appears significant in District B. The new assistant superintendent, as described previously, looked to others in central office for advice about the history of the district. One colleague, the assistant to the superintendent at that time, played an influential role in several initiation decisions. The factors which apparently motivated the assistant to the superintendent to support the TET initiative differ from that of the primary initiator and constitute an interesting feature of the initiation phase in District B. As described in the narrative, he saw the program as an opportunity to empower teachers in the supervision process. In this way his perspective

differed from that of the primary initiator who originally viewed the program more from the perspective of enhancing administrators' skills. The data indicate that the assistant to the superintendent also convinced the primary initiator to change the title of the initiative as well as to emphasize teacher participation in the project. Thus, in District B, the selection appears to have been made by one individual who was motivated by one set of factors and who was influenced by a colleague who was motivated to select the program by a completely different set of factors.

When key personnel are considered in relation to what factors motivated them in their selection decisions, interesting differences are noted between the two districts. Career and/or personal motives are indicated as the motivation behind the selection in District B. There are considerable data to substantiate that fact. This was not so in District A. Very little data other than that mentioned above refer to motivation which guided selection. While it seems reasonable to speculate that career motives likely played a part in the selection decisions of initiators in District A, the data do not provide substantiating evidence. Perhaps this suggests that career motives are much less likely to be ascribed to a selection decision when the

initiative is perceived to be addressing an identified need.

Sources as predictors. The involvement in and the support for the initiative among senior central office personnel in both districts would seem to predict a positive response to the project among participants in both sites.

However, participants' perceptions of why the project was initiated may also have an impact on whether or not they will support an initiative. Whether a program is perceived to meet a need or facilitate a career move may well affect the way participants react to an initiative. The differences in the motivating factors behind the selection decisions may predict different reactions among participants across sites.

The Attributes of the Program

There are two attributes of the program which appear to have contributed to the adoption decision. These attributes are the program's availability and its compatability with the context of the two districts at the time of adoption. It should be noted that there was no attempt made in the present study to conduct an evaluation of the program content. Thus, the attributes of the program refer to those which were reported in the

data.

Program availability. In both districts there appears to have been a sense of urgency to get a staff development program in place. In District A, the superintendent had instigated a search for a program to improve the supervision and report writing skills of administrators. In District B, a new assistant susperintendent wanted to initiate professional development for administrators as soon as possible after his arrival in the district. Moreover, the Board in District B had just established, as one of its goals, professional development for district personnel and the new assistant superintendent knew of the success of the ITIP program in his former district. The ITIP program comprising texts, films and support materials was readily available in both cases. Furthermore, trainers for the program were also available -- a factor of some importance in the selection decision.

The expertise and credibility of the trainers contributed significantly to the momentum of enthusiasm which began to build among individuals in both districts during initiation. This study suggests that without the credible trainers who were used during initiation, neither program would have been as enthusiastically supported. Program planning decisions, in both

districts, were based on the availability of the external trainers.

Both districts chose the ITIP program and neither of them chose to adapt the content prior to the implementation phase. In District A, there is evidence that serious consideration was given to adapting the program specifically to meet local needs but for largely financial reasons the proposal was rejected. There is no evidence from District B to indicate that an adaptation was considered.

Thus, as a result of the availability of the ITIP program and the external trainers, the initiators in both districts were able to move quickly into the implementation phase once the selection had been made.

Program compatibility. Not only did program availability appear to contribute to the selection decision but the program appears to have "fit" the needs and context of each district at the time. Firstly, the program met the needs of the initiators in both districts. The content of the ITIP program comprises both effective teaching skills and supervision skills; thus initiators in both districts were able to justify a fit between their program goals and the program content -- supervision skills in District A and teacher

effectiveness in District B. Secondly, the more individuals came into contact with the program the more enthusiastic they became about it. In both districts "testing of the waters" took place and these activities appear to have had a major impact on the selection decision. These activities consisted of sending people out of district for ITIP training, bringing credible trainers into the district to give presentations and circulating ITIP related materials in the schools. In both districts, the combination of these activities resulted in enthusiasm for the initiative.

The following quotations are illustrative of District A respondents' perceptions that the program was a good fit at the time:

> Things have their time...right for the time [12:9].
>
> She (Madeline Hunter) came along at the right time with the right kind of research [11:5].
>
> That was a time in history and it was something that we saw as being needed and worthy at the time [5:8].

The following quotations illustrate a similar perception of goodness of fit and timeliness in District B:

> I think maybe climate was right [22:13].
>
> In that kind of climate, and I guess there is always a cluster of key personnel [22:6].
>
> I think a new approach to staff

> development...was refreshing. The time was just right [31:12].
>
> I think it was at a time when it seemed to strike everybody that they wanted to do something in this area [28:4].

Program compatibility seems to have been a significant factor in the selection decision in both districts.

Attributes as predictor. During initiation the program content appears to have accounted for the support it received. Availability and compatibility during initiation appear to be predictors of successful implementation.

The fact that the program and credible trainers were readily available meant that both districts could respond quickly to the momentum building among some participants (compatibility) during the "testing of the waters" which occurred during initiation. This enthusiastic response would seem to predict success during implementation if those involved during initiation were representative of the majority of district personnel. Interestingly, this particular program afforded the initiators the opportunity to emphasize one component (supervision) or the other (teacher effectiveness) in a way that would address their respective program goals. Given the target audience in both districts included both administrators

and teachers by the end of initiation, it may predict a need to expand program goals to accommodate both groups of participants if maximum support is to be gained later in the initiative.

The Gathering of Support

Another feature which appears to have been a major factor leading to the adoption of the program in both districts is the gathering of support for the project. Building an awareness of, and enthusiasm for the project among prospective users are support strategies which both districts employed.

External and internal support. While current literature reports the value of both internal and external support generation (Berman, 1981; Fullan, 1982) these two districts gathered internal support only. External support generation refers to attempts made to gain support from local and larger communities. Despite the fact that external support has been found to be a major contributing factor during initiation, researchers have found that few districts involve parents and community members in their innovative efforts (Fullan, 1982; Berman, 1981; Cohen and Farran, 1977; Paul, 1977). The present study must be added to the list of those with such a finding.

On the other hand, internal support generation, which refers to the gathering of support from Board members, district officials, school administrators and teachers, took place in both districts. Given the programs were both initiated by senior central office personnel, their task was to gain Board support and prospective user support.

Board approval for funding was granted in both districts. Few details are available from District A about how Board support was gained. However, in District B senior officials, particularly the superintendent, are reported to have actively pursued support from the Board. Moreover, the planners invited Board members to the initial training sessions.

Two other aspects of support gathering during initiation which appear to have been significant in the adoption decision are related to the target audiences and marketing the program.

Target audiences. Target audience refers to the users of the innovation. The present study provides an opportunity to examine this factor from an interesting perspective. The initiatives in both districts ultimately included two separate groups, administrators and teachers, as the target audience. It appears this may have added to the complexity of the initiation

phase. Berman (1981:270) points out that some of the complexities related to generating internal support have to do with the fact that different individuals hold different views about an innovation and its value for them. It seems reasonable to speculate that this would be an even greater factor when the target audience consists of individuals from two groups, each with very different roles and functions within the organization. Although both districts moved into the implementation phase with enthusiastic support from some administrators and teachers, the support gathering strategies were different in the two districts.

Strategies to gain administrators' support in District A consisted of involving them in the planning from the initial stages. By way of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee on the one hand, all school administrators were ostensibly kept informed of planning during initiation and encouraged to build awareness of the project among their staff [R.F.#8]. School administrators were also among the groups sponsored to take ITIP training out of the district. In District B, on the other hand, school administrators were not part of the planning during initiation. They were informed of the project and asked to support it by the newly appointed assistant superintendent. A few

principals were sponsored to attend ITIP training sessions out of the district. One support gathering strategy employed in District B which was very different from District A was the offering of an initial training session for teachers only -- an attempt to raise the level of concern among school administrators. The following quotation from the transcript of the assistant to the superintendent who instigated the strategy describes his thinking:

> Another reason for doing it that way was that it would then up the level of concern of the principals..."my God these people are coming up with something I don't have" and therefore they would want to feel that they should get involved the next time it came around [19:12].

Strategies for gathering support among teachers differ between districts as well. In District A a teacher representative from the local Teachers' Association was invited to join the planning committee. Building awareness among teachers in District A was encouraged by the committee who requested that principals use the resource material which had been purchased (books, films, articles). In addition, some teachers were invited to the Madeline Hunter presentation and some were among those sponsored to attend ITIP training sessions out of the district.

In District B, some teachers were invited to be

participants in the first training series as a strategy to gain their support. As previously discussed, this plan had two parts: one was to raise the level of concern among principals while the other was to invite good teachers and thereby acknowledge excellence among the district's good teachers and hopefully dispel any notion that the project was a "fix it" program. The strategy fell somewhat short of its intent insofar as the data report that some teachers didn't know why they had been invited. It was successful to the extent that teachers became very enthusiastic about the project as a result of the training experience.

In both districts, teacher involvement in planning during initiation was minimal. While strategies differed between the two districts, both moved into the implementation phase with considerable support from the prospective users.

The target audience in District B, unlike that in District A, included teachers from the very early stages. The primary initiator was persuaded by his colleague at the outset not only to include teachers but to emphasize teacher participation. This led to a group of "only teachers" receiving the initial training series which constituted the extent of teacher involvement during initiation. Administrators were only involved in

initiation insofar as the primary initiator made a presentation to them regarding the initiative and asked for their support. In District B, unlike District A, there were very few people involved in the initiation phase. However, there was considerable enthusiasm and commitment to the TET initiative among both teachers and administrators in District B as they moved into the implementation phase. (Initial programs were oversubscribed).

Another important aspect of gathering support was helping individuals develop an understanding of the purpose of the project and convincing them of its value. This holds true for funders as well as prospective users. There appears to be an element of marketing necessary in order to accomplish this task.

Marketing the program. In order to proceed with the implementation of a district-wide program, initiators in both districts needed Board funds and an indication of user support. The extent to which the initiators were able to convince the Board and their target audiences of the value of the program is an important feature of initiation.

It seems reasonable to take the position that a School Board would be unlikely to fund a district-wide initiative without having a clear understanding of the

program's intent and without seeing some value in supporting the initiative. The data provide evidence that attention was given to gathering Board support in both districts. While there are no data which describe specifically what information the Boards received about the programs, it is clear that they approved funding for them. It seems reasonable to conclude that they both understood the program intents and supported them. Given the context of each district, it also seems reasonable to speculate further that the Boards may have seen advantages beyond professional development for district personnel. The Board in District A may well have supported the program because it was an innovative approach and they were interested in maintaining their reputation as an innovative district. The following excerpt lends some support to that speculation:

> They (Board) really valued being seen as the focal area in the metropolitan district all the time. Sort of a metro competition...They were always near the top and they really enjoyed that, that limelight and they wanted to maintain it [17:22].

In District B, they may have been anxious to be seen publicly as supportive of a teacher effectiveness initiative because the public attitude toward education in the province of B.C. in 1980-81 was so negative (Dobell, 1983; O'Shea, 1985).

Current research suggests that prospective users will either support or reject an initiative depending on whether or not they understand the intent of the project and are able to derive meaning for themselves in it (Miles and Huberman, 1984; Fullan, 1982; Berman, 1981; Berman and McLaughlin, 1976). Further, research indicates that not only do individuals need to derive meaning in the project but successful implementation is dependent on participants sharing a common view of the initiative. These two factors highlight the importance of presenting the program to the target audience in a way that will allow each participant to derive individual meaning and to establish a commonly held view of the project among all participants. Some interesting findings related to this aspect of initiation emerge from the present study.

In both districts all of the respondents were asked why the program was selected in their district. Noteworthy is the fact that all respondents were identified as key actors in the projects and were involved from the early stages. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that they would be those best informed about the project.

In District A, by the end of the initiation phase there was enthusiasm and support for the ITIP initiative

among central office personnel, administrators and teachers. However, the data provide evidence of a lack of a commonly held view of the initiative among prospective users.

There is a marked difference between the responses of the administrators and the teachers. Administrators express a very clear understanding of the intent of the initiative as defined by central office. All of the respondents who were principals at the time said the program was initiated to address the need to improve supervision and report writing skills. This finding is not surprising given the active involvement of administrators, most of whom were members of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee at the time of initiation.

Teachers in District A, by contrast, express an uncertainty about why the program was initiated. Only two of the five teachers linked the program's intent to administrators' professional development in supervision. The following quotations demonstrate this lack of a common view among teachers and illustrate the tone of uncertainty in their responses:

> Yah -- you really don't know. Sometimes people are supportive of a program because they need to have a program to support...So you know it's hard to know what is on the minds of some people who bring out the programs...hopefully some

> administrators were looking for something you can really improve in the area of teaching, and also clinical supervision and making it a positive growth thing instead of a reign of terror [13:3].
>
> You're asking my speculation?...I would say that the district has always had a very high reputation for you know competent teachers. ...I think because we've had some people, and probably I didn't even know who they were when I began, but there were people at the Board office that were really keen on getting things going in our district [14:4].
>
> I only think we became involved because somebody happened to invite Madeline Hunter up and people got to hear about her program, and I think that was how the rest of the district found out. You know it was just a happenstance really, and I don't think there was any grand scheme at the time [15:4].
>
> Well...I think basically you know, the merits of a program that has a distinctive vocabulary, a professional vocabulary...Another reason why I think that ITIP might have been selected is that without accountability that we are all feeling the pressures of now, this program really was a vehicle to facilitate that... [16:40].
>
> It (District A) always stood out as being a good district but for some rhyme or reason somebody was looking at it, I think mostly the administration, some kind of a program to sort of help teachers become more consistent with their teaching practices [17:3].

This finding is perhaps not too surprising given the fact that teacher involvement in District A was minimal during initiation. Only one teacher, the Chairperson of the local Teachers' Association

Professional Development Committee, was included in planning activities and a few teachers were included in training out of the district. Minimal teacher involvement notwithstanding, teachers were slated to be part of the target audience by the end of initiation. Given this fact, it would seem reasonable to expect the intent of the program to reflect their involvement. However, there are no data which indicate that program initiators shared the original program goal (supervision and report writing skills for administrators) or expanded or changed the original intent once teachers were included as part of the target audience. This may suggest that the initiators were only interested in the project to the extent that it met the original intent and were confident that teachers would support the initiative. In fact, there was considerable support from teachers by the end of initiation. This finding suggests that teachers were enthusiastic about the project for reasons other than being clear about why the project was initiated. Also, teachers did not share with administrators a common view of the project. Regardless of this lack of a commonly held view among teachers and administrators, as they prepared for implementation, there was considerable support for the ITIP intiative among both groups.

In District B, this aspect of initiation unfolded differently. The program intent expressed by the initiators [R.F.#9] was based on the assumption that everyone wants to improve. The intent of the Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET) initiative was to provide professional development to enhance effectiveness among teachers. The program name itself implied an image or goal of teacher effectiveness. While teacher effectiveness was the program focus which was emphasized during initiation, supervision was always an important component of the program. As previously described, the two senior officials differed somewhat in their perspective on the supervision component of the project. The primary initiator originally viewed it more as professional development for administrators whereas his colleague, another senior central office official, viewed it as a way to empower teachers in the supervision process. While the two expressed the view that their differences were not necessarily in conflict with one another, the different views may have led to confusion regarding the intent of the program among prospective participants. The data indicate that there was clearly not a commonly held view of the project

among program users. There are a variety of responses which represent a number of different perspectives among those who were program users. The following quotations illustrate the lack of a commonly held view of the program intent:

> I don't ever recall it being discussed...It is something that is measurable and it is based on research. I think he (assistant superintendent) just picked it [24:5]. Principal

> So, teacher effectiveness seemed to establish itself as a very logical, sequential, commonsense type program...it was also a program that could be used with principals and teachers at the same time [25:7]. Principal

> I think there was a perceived need [26:3]. Principal

> I think it has a lot to do with accountability [27:2]. Teacher

> I don't really know the answer to that [28:4]. Teacher

> I have no idea...none [29:2]. Teacher

> I think it was good sound educational planning [31:4]. Teacher

> I think it was chosen because it is effective [32:4]. Teacher

This finding regarding a lack of a commonly held view suggests that program initiators did not do a very good job of sharing their intent either to administrators or teachers. Grimmett et al. (1986) studying the same initiative report the following factors among those

which participants identified as impeding the attainment of desired outcomes:

> Lack of clear communication of the project's goals, objectives and intent to the participating teachers by the district initiators; failure of the district initiator to ensure the philosophical acceptance of the substantive content of the project..., and failure to obtain adequate staff input in the early stages of planning (1986:63).

The findings related to gathering support for the program during initiation appear to be important. First, the research suggests that participant support for a project is dependent on individuals deriving value from the program based on their understanding of the project's intent. The findings in this study show that many participants supported the program yet were unable to identify the original intent of the initiative. The exception to this finding occurred among administrators in District A. Where the initiative addressed a need and a commmittee played an active role in the planning function during initiation, there was evidence of a common view of the project shared by the initiators and some school administrators. However, most of the administrator respondents in the present study were members of the planning committee. Further, in both districts the target audience comprised both teachers and administrators, but the two groups did not appear to

share a common view of the program intent. The findings suggest that there are weaknesses in the way in which initiators communicated the intent of their programs to the target audiences. However, this finding may also provide further evidence that the content of the program contributed to the support it received. It is therefore possible that program intents are not as important as what the literature suggests. Maybe what is more important is perceived practicality.

Support as a predictor. During initiation, the project initiators were able to gather support from the Board and their target audiences. The research indicates that many projects do not continue when external funds are withdrawn. Given that both district initiatives were funded internally it suggests that the likelihood of the project's continuing would be good.

While there were strong signs of user support indicated during initiation, that support was not based on the participants' understanding of the project intent. It appears that the participants were sold on the project for reasons other than understanding why it was being initiated. Moreover, teachers and administrators comprised the target audience yet the two groups did not share a common view of the project.

Given the importance placed to these two factors in the literature, it may predict difficulties during implementation. Further, it may predict that individual meaning and a common view of the project are not as important during initiation and meaning will develop during implementation.

Further, neither district involved teachers in the initiative phase and this may predict lack of involvement and commitment during implementation. Moreover, given that administrators were expected to participate in the initiative, it may result in a lack of involvement and sincere commitment during implementation.

Summary of Factors Contributing to Initiation

The following factors appear to have had a significant impact on the adoption decisions:

1. The history of staff development in both districts, for different reasons, appears to have played a part in the support given to the initiative by prospective users;

2. The chief initiators were in senior central office positions;

3. In District A, the motivating factor behind the selection appeared to be problem solving whereas in District B, the motivation which contributed to the selection appeared to be career related;

4. The attributes of the program were major contributing factors. Enthusiasm grew markedly

after individuals had been exposed to the program. It appears the enthusiasm was related to both content and the external trainers.

5. It appears to have been very important to the initiators to seek and gain support for the program from school administrators; and

6. Early user support for the program was indicated but it did not appear to be dependent on participants understanding why the project was being undertaken.

This section includes a number of predictions for implementation based on the features of initiation which contributed to a selection decision. Some features suggest they will have a positive effect on implementation while others predict difficulties. The following Table 11 summarizes the predictions for implementation based on the findings of the initiation phase.

Table 11

Predictions: How will factors which contributed to initiation affect implementation?

District A	District B
Factors which are likely to have a <u>positive</u> affect	
.History of good staff development	
.Involvement of a committee of principals in selection and planning for implementation	
.Involvement of a teacher representative on planning committee	
.Strong senior central office support	.Strong senior central office support
.Project perceived by principals as meeting a need	.Principals were willing to support it
.Program was readily available	.Program was readily available
.Credible trainers were used to introduce courses	.Credible trainers were used to introduce courses
.Board supported the initiative	.Board supported the initiative
.Only internal funds were used	.Only internal funds were used
.Enthusiastic user support indicated	.Enthusiastic user support indicated

District A	District B
Factors which are likely to have a negative effect	
	.History of negative experiences with staff development
	.No principals or teachers involved in the selection or planning during initiation
.Prospective teacher users not sure why the project was initiated	.Prospective teacher users not sure why the project was initiated
.Principals and teachers didn't share a common view of the project	.Principals and teachers didn't share a common view of the project
	.Principals didn't express a common view of the project
.Principals were expected to support initiative	.Principals were expected to support the initiative

CHAPTER 6

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

This chapter provides a description of the implementation phase of the staff development programs in Districts A and B and interprets the findings. The implementation phase refers to the first two or three years of use of a program (Fullan, 1982). This phase took place at different times in the two districts as demonstrated in Table 12.

Table 12

Implementation Phase

District	Time Line
A	1978(Fall) - 1981(Spring)
B	1982(Spring) - 1986(Spring)

This chapter consists of three sections. The implementation phases of the staff development programs for each district are described in sections one and two,

respectively. The concluding section provides an interpretive analysis of the findings and a summary of the factors which appear to have had a significant effect on implementation.

IMPLEMENTATION IN DISTRICT A

(1978-1981)

The data suggest there were a number of events which are interrelated and appear to have affected implementation. Table 13 is a list of those events.

> Well, it started off in a very rocky way [17:3].

This quotation provides a teacher's perception of early implementation. That perception is related to an apparently unanticipated negative reaction from several district personnel. During the final stages of the initiation phase, the ITIP Management Committee, in conjunction with senior central office staff, developed an initial implementation plan. A memo was sent to principals inviting them to sign up with one or more teachers for a Beginning ITIP course [R.F.#10]. While there was not adequate space for all principals during the first course, there was an expectation from central office that they would avail themselves of one of the three Beginning ITIP courses being offered during

Table 13

Implementation Events in District A

Time Line	Events
1978-79 School Year	
Fall 1978	.The first session, Beginners ITIP, was offered.
	.Conflict arose as a result of some Administrators feeling agitated regarding the perceived mandatory attendance. In addition, there was a growing fear among some teachers that future teacher evaluations would be based solely on the ITIP program.
11 October 1978	.A District meeting was held at one of the High Schools to allow teachers and Administrators to air their concerns and allow the Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee to present their position.
17 October 1978	.The Professional Development Division of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF) actively opposed the selection and implementation of the ITIP Program.
	.Conflict also arose between a group of people in the district who had become keen "ITIPPERS" and those who wanted to proceed at a more moderate pace.
	.There was growing pressure from some to hire a local teacher to provide followup coaching after the training sessions.

1979-80 School Year

Fall 1979

- Central Office staff were divided on the issue of hiring a local trainer.

- The Management of the ITIP programs was handed over from the ITIP Management Committee (Administrators and Central Office Personnel) to the District Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee.

January/February 1980

- A fee was charged for the course for the first time ($25 for Beginning ITIP, $30 for Advanced ITIP).

1980-81 School Year

- For the first time, a local teacher was used as one of the trainers for the Beginning ITIP course.

- While four courses were again offered during this school year, the number of sessions in the Beginning course decreased to four from the original six sessions. As well a Classroom Management Course was offered in two sessions, down from four.

- By the end of this school year "approximately 270 or 20% of District A's 1,250 Teachers, Administrators and Central Office staff have participated in one or more ITIP programs during the past three years" (Killough, 1981).

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that school year. This expectation marked a dramatic shift in a district norm of voluntary attendance at professional development activities and resulted in considerable resistance from some principals. Sam, who was a principal at the time, recalls his reaction:

> This caused quite a bit of an uproar at the time. Again in this district it had not been based on forcing this kind of thing...But like many principals in the district, when I'm told I have to do something, the hackles go up and I start to get a little negative...It came through the form that space was being provided for an administrator and a teacher in each school. If the administrator was not attending, then the teacher could not attend. Meanwhile, considerable interest had been building up on the part of teachers [4:11].

It appears that the enthusiasm which had been shown by principals who were members of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee did not translate into overall principal support. Further, there was growing interest among some teachers who were becoming anxious to get involved with the program and their attendance was made contingent upon their principals' attendance, thus putting additional pressure on administrators to sign up. Moreover, while enthusiasm was beginning to build among some teachers, skepticism was building among others. Some teachers, regardless of the fact their attendance was voluntary, began to express fears that the program was being mandated for

principals and would later be used as the sole means by which to evaluate teachers. As a result of the growing resentment on the part of some administrators and the building fear among some teachers, the local Teachers' Association, representing both groups, got involved. A document in the files [R.F.#11] lists a set of concerns compiled by the President of the local Teachers' Association. Although the concerns of principals and teachers were differentiated in the memo, they both expressed the view that there had been a lack of input. They were critical of the process by which ITIP was being implemented and were querying the implications of the program for supervision and evaluation.

On 11 October 1978, a district meeting was held at one of the High Schools to allow teachers and administrators an opportunity to air their concerns and to provide an opportunity for the Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee to present their views. Some of the respondents' recollections of that meeting are as follows:

> There was some hesitation, I think, on the part of some groups of the Teachers' Association. They wondered what it was all about...I can remember being asked to go to a meeting, held by the District A teachers over in (the High School) here, that had been put on by the Teachers' Association in which they asked a lot of pointed questions about what was going on [2:10].

> Well, the majority were clearly in favour of what was going on. And I think, you know, I think people saw it as being a positive value, but a lot of people weren't aware of the subtleties that went with the pressures...I had just come back from being president for a full term and I was at a meeting...one of our association meetings where we got into a heated debate about the ITIP program and there were a couple of principals there who were very pro-ITIP and there were a lot of teachers there who were really resentful... [17.6].

Within a week of this meeting, the ITIP Managment Committee prepared a position statement for the president of the local Teachers' Association responding to a number of the expressed concerns [R.F.#12]. The growing concern had caused the local Teachers' Association executive to feel responsible to investigate further the Teachers' Professional Development Committee's involvement in the ITIP program. The Chairperson, who had been included on the Administrators' Professional Development ITIP Management Committee, recalls that point in time:

> Well then, the executive, of course, feeling responsible to find out if we were in fact spending teachers' money to push back a program on them that was making them feel threatened. Then more than usual, asked the Professional Development Committee, the Chairperson in particular, to present all the decisions that were made to the executive. So that person had to actually sit with the executive and defend the Professional Development Committee decisions -- now that doesn't

> happen frequently...It was frustrating in that most of the executive members would not be willing to attend a session. They were saying things that they had no true understanding of...I was trying to communicate that (some district people were really excited about the program) to people who had political reasons for saying not everyone is excited [10:12].

Rosemary goes on to point out that the resistance had become more than a local issue; by this time the provincial Teachers' Federation was involved.

> It was wider spread because the BCTF, the PDAC (Professional Development Advisory Committee) meetings where the (local) Professional Development Chairpeople had to attend those meetings. One meeting in particular was organized to talk about this top-down inservice that was being implemented in (District A) [5:14].

When asked how this resistance had been dealt with, respondents were of the opinion that it simply dissipated:

> It wasn't. I don't think it was resolved. I think it kind of went away [14:16].

> No, it wasn't resolved. It was the fear that dwindled away after awhile [9:13].

Despite the unanticipated resistance which occurred as a result of the initial implementation efforts, the Beginning ITIP program originally planned for the school year 1978-79 was over-subscribed by the middle of September. The following excerpt taken from a memo the ITIP Management Committee sent to school administrators and supervisory staff provides evidence of the enthusiastic response:

> The response to the proposal to offer Beginning ITIP in (District A) to principals and teachers has been most gratifying to the committee. As of yesterday (1978.09.18) 219 teachers, administrators and supervisors have indicated their intention to participate in one of the three proposed sessions [R.F.#13].

The ITIP courses had filled with participants before the resistance. There were two distinct camps at this stage, the ITIP enthusiasts (ITIPPERS) and the skeptics.

The first course took place between October 13 and November 11, 1978 (October 13,14,27,28, November 10,11) and a memo dated just after the completion of the first session [R.F.#14] indicates that participants expressed "no fears" and "some of the most severe critics became the most supportive," and "sessions ended very positively." In addition to the Beginning course, which was taught by American trainers, the district continued

to sponsor district personnel to attend ITIP training outside the district. During October and November 1978, five people attended Advanced ITIP courses at Seattle Pacific University and seven others attended Beginning ITIP in Blaine, Washington [R.F.#15].

Subsequent to the first course and running concurrently with the second, follow-up discussion sessions were undertaken [R.F.#16]. Further, district coordinators and directors were conducting ITIP presentations in schools. An ITIP newsletter was undertaken by the ITIP Management Committee and there were plans to make videos of local teachers using the ITIP skills in their classroom. In addition, other ITIP courses were planned for participants who had completed the Beginning course. ITIP Classroom Management was scheduled for two weekends in March. School based activities were also taking place and a few very keen principals were in the process of creating model ITIP schools. The following excerpts from principals are illustrative of the extent of involvement at some schools.

> In our school, every teacher but one in that school went for the training [12:7].
>
> We got all our staff and were able to take the course [9:8].

A letter was sent to all ITIP participants in

February, 1979 from Michael and Howard, two assistant superintendents, announcing they were "now giving consideration to the objective set by the Administrators' Professional Development Committee that states the intention of providing local resource teachers (presenters-consultants) for ITIP type programs" [R.F.#17]. They extended an invitation for interested individuals to submit a written application. Among those individuals in the district who had become keen supporters of ITIP, there had been a lobby to allocate local teachers to district positions to provide training and follow-up coaching in the classroom after training sessions. The data provide evidence of strong support for local trainers: in fact, one of the major criticisms of the overall implementation from the "ITIPPERS" was the lack of such follow-up. The following quotations are indicative of the perceptions of some of the enthusiasts:

> The time I would say would be the biggest and follow up, maybe follow up is what I'm talking about. Follow up more than anything [14:9].

> We tried...we felt someone in the district should have been trained. The district didn't take any initiative [17:13].

> It's that there is just no follow-up, there's no follow-up for the teachers that have been taking the program. They try it out in the classroom, they don't know whether or not they have been doing a

> successful job [16:21].
>
> I don't know why the district went the way of not having a trainer...I think (District A) really took a giant step backwards [13:15].
>
> You have to have somebody, a staff trainer, who could come and tell you how you're doing and to give you that kind of specific feedback... [9:7].
>
> We wanted to do that, Bill just didn't support it [9:6].

In fact, Kalin, quoted above [9], was accurate. During the year 1978-79, Bill, an assistant superintendent, had been seconded to the Ministry of Education. In his absence, the other two assistant superintendents were actively supporting the idea of having a district trainer. Upon Bill's return to the district from the Ministry, the superintendent changed senior central office responsibilities and Bill was assigned responsibility for the Administrators' Professional Development Committee. Shortly after, at a meeting of the ITIP Management Committee in September 1979, "the concept of freeing one or two district ITIP trainers was not endorsed" [R.F.#18]. On 18 September 1978, a memo was sent to the Administrators' Professional Development Committee informing them of that decision. When asked in an interview about the decision not to hire local trainers, Bill commented as follows:

> I guess my argument was along the line

> that if this is good, everyone in a supervisory position, be it district staff or administrator, ought to be aware of and exposed to it [1:7].

When asked who made the final decision not to have district trainers he said "in the final analysis, I guess the decision came from the superintendent" [1:8]. One of the assistant superintendents who had been an advocate of district trainers shares the following perceptions:

> I was a promoter of the thought that it probably would be valuable for us to have district staff who were specialized. Actually, I think there was a time for doing these things when the iron is hot, and to keep the momentum going, and to get the most value out of it, it would be valuable to do this. I guess we were at the time, moving towards more strained financial resources, and we were beginning already to see shadows over the thing. The other thought that was here that sort of counted was that so many of our district staff were already familiar with ITIP and were enthusiastic about it and using its ideas in their work that they were doing with staff that it would be duplicating work done by our various consultants, coordinators and so on [2:7].

This comment from Michael, at least in part, suggests a peak in the active participation of central office by way of his reference to strained resources and "shadows over the thing." While the idea of a district trainer was a sensitive issue for some, the data suggest it just seemed to "dwindle away." Sally, one of the district teachers who had applied for one of the positions, makes

the following remark when asked to comment on why the district didn't hire a local trainer:

> But I don't think I can really answer as to why the district said no, and I do remember being puzzled [15:16].

In conversation with Bill regarding whether or not the district had an implementation plan he said, "yeah, a plan to involve all the administrators." By the end of the first year, all administrators had taken the course and the goal to have all administrators participate was realized.

In the second year, participants were largely teachers. The ITIP Management Committee, a sub-committee of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, concluded its functioning with the offering of an Advanced ITIP course in the Fall of 1979 with big name speakers Ernie Stachowski and Sue Wells [R.F.#19]. The continuing management of ITIP now rested largely with the Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee. By 1979, the Teachers' Association was paying half the cost of the resource people, a change from the first year when costs were assumed through the district Professional Development funds. In December of the same school year, the Teachers' Association advertised another Advanced ITIP course and charged $30 to cover expenses. During

the winter of 1980 the participants in the courses included personnel from other districts.

While there clearly had been a shift in the management of the ITIP sessions, and the participants were exclusively teachers, the evaluations written by participants continued to be enthusiastic. The following are examples taken from a composite evaluation sheet prepared in February 1980:

> .It made me better at questioning
>
> .ITIP was a good refresher course. Helped remind me of areas that I have neglected.
>
> .Fantastic, relevant, necessary, a time to reevaluate yourself.
>
> .ITIP promotes a more effective and productive teacher [R.F. #20].

Whereas there was an implementation plan, albeit informal, to have all administrators take the course, there was no implementation plan for teachers. Rosemary explains that in the following way:

> I don't know that we could call what we did an implementation plan with a beginning and an end. I see an implementation plan as that. You have a plan and establish a time line. We didn't establish a time line, we just kept continuing as the needs arose...we could say things like we've had four sessions, full attendance, evaluations overwhelmingly positive, proven need for next year [5:10].

Another of the respondents also suggests that it was teachers' enthusiasm which carried the program.

> I think the enthusiasm of the people that were involved in the course carried it through because the program speaks for itself... [16:19].

The third year of implementation brought with it no controversy and the data indicate that the enthusiasm had peaked. For the first time a local teacher who had pursued certification as an ITIP instructor at Seattle Pacific University was used as one of two trainers for the Beginning ITIP course. Four courses were again offered during the school year (1980-81) but the number of sessions in the beginning course decreased to four from the original six sessions and the Classroom Management Course was offered in two sessions instead of four. By the end of the third year of implementation "approximately 270 or 21.6% of District A's 1,250 teachers, administrators and central office staff had participated in one or more ITIP programs during the past three years" (Killough, 1981:69).

Three years after the initial implementation activities, enthusiasm for ITIP began to decrease and the Teachers' Professional Development Committee began to consider other topics such as Learning Styles, Slow Learners, Time Management, and Racism [R.F.#21]. Administrators continued to pursue their interest in supervision and evaluation as evidenced in a conference held in January 1980 [R.F.#22] focussing specifically on

those two topics. However, ITIP continued to be offered in accordance with the expressed needs and interests of teachers.

Noteworthy is the fact that the ITIP program, three years after the initial course was offered, was being attended exclusively by teachers and was being managed by teachers -- a dramatic shift from the original courses, which were primarily for administrators who were requested to attend with one or more teachers. Also the initial outburst of resistance appears to have been overridden by those who were enthusiasts.

IMPLEMENTATION IN DISTRICT B

(1982-1986)

Table 14 is an advance organizer which highlights the major implementation events which emerge from the data. Implementation occurred between the Spring of 1982 and the Spring of 1986.

Table 14

Implementation Events in District B

Time Line	Events
Spring 1982	. A session for principals and teachers presented by Ernie Stachowski was offered.
	. Following Stachowski's workshop volunteers were recruited for a District Steering Committee.
	. One school decided (May 82) to initiate a school based Professional Development program for the 82/83 school year.
Summer 1982	. A group of 15 principals and teachers (volunteers) were sponsored to attend a five-day ITIP workshop.
Autumn 1982	. A four-day in-district workshop was offered for teachers who were trained at Seattle Pacific. They were asked to attend with another teacher from the same school.
	. Carol Cummings met with the Steering Committee.
	. Steering Committee began work on formal Implementation Plan.
	. Preliminary arrangements were made for a Summer School.
January 1983	. The Steering Committee endorsed the appointment of a District "helping teacher". Work continued on a long range implementation plan.

Spring 1983	. Thirty-five secondary teachers and department heads attended a four-day in-district workshop.
Summer School 1983	. 101 teachers attended the first Summer School.
Fall 1983	. A helping teacher was hired.
	. The first phase of the implementation plan was put into action.
	. The Steering Committee focussed on "stages of growth."
Summer 1984	. The Board and Local Teachers' Association approved a policy/process on evaluation and supervision of teachers
	. Carol Cummings continued throughout to present workshops on a school-wide basis.
	. The superintendent was among the participants at Summer School.
1984-85	. The second phase of the implementation plan was put into action.
	. The present study was conducted.

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The workshop in the Spring 1981 emerges as the transfer point from initiation to implementation because it marked the beginning of a long-term plan to involve principals and teachers in a district staff development initiative. While a program had been offered in the previous Fall, that course was for teachers only and appeared to serve more of a "building awareness" or "testing the waters" purpose. Thus, for this study, it is seen to be part of the initiation phase. As reported in the description of the initiation phase, in the Fall of 1981 the school administrators indicated their support for the TET initiative and their willingness to engage in the training with one or more teachers from their staff.

Immediately following the initial training session (Spring 1982) with Ernie Stachowski, Nick, the assistant superintendent, asked participants to volunteer to serve on a District Steering Committee. Both teachers and principals were sought and in an interview Nick explains his goal for the Committee:

> Well, I would have liked to have seen the Steering Committee play the major role in deciding on the directions for the district, and it has made some key decisions [8:16].

Barry, who had been the assistant to the superintendent and was now the second assistant superintendent,

describes his perception of the Committee's function:

> So the Steering committee sort of took over...I recall the Steering Committee started to meet formally in the autumn of '82...The committee, as a whole, critiquing, we should do this and we should do that, don't do that and so on. I recall one other thing - we were suggesting that there be awards and they said "for God sake, no, this isn't the States, that will turn people off if you give them little certificates and so on [9:13].

These two central office administrators, Nick and Barry, in consultation with the superintendent, had made all the decisions regarding the TET program during the initiation phase. The formation of the Steering Committee at the outset of the implementation phase appears to signal a decision to broaden the decision-making body to include people from the field.

Two principals, Tony and Kent, who were among the original Steering Committee members, expressed the view that this Committee played an influential role in the implementation phase. The following quotations are illustrative of their perceptions:

> Now after that there was a Committee of people chosen to be the effective teaching committee, Steering Committee, and they came from some people who were involved with that first sort of inservice session with Ernie Stachowski and just principals and teachers, a mixture of people, which was ideal, who had a genuine interest in, shall I use the word, promoting the development of this kind of professional development activity [22:6].

> Since I was on the Steering Committee, I thought I had some responsibility and I supported the work of the Steering Committee...we said, "Look the research says that you should have a school based professional development program...it was a bandwagon that was rolling along and I think we jumped on it very early in terms of implementing something at the school [26:8].

In fact, Kent had a proposal for a school based TET staff development plan in place for the next school year by the end of May 1982. Not only was the plan in place, but also his staff indicated strong support.

Teachers were also members of the Steering Committee and the following excerpts from their transcripts provide another perspective on the Steering Committee. David, a secondary teacher, saw the committee as an opportunity for input from the "grass roots" into an initiative which appeared to have become a district priority. The following excerpt describes his perception:

> When as classroom teachers we were made aware of the fact that it was being made a priority item at the district level, we had opportunities to get involved in planning committees, and the system of which the district office reaches out to the grass roots, if you like, I think it works well [31:2].

An elementary teacher, William, had a slightly different view of the Steering Committee but he too saw it as a place to engage in dialogue about the TET initiative.

His views are illustrated in the following two quotations:

> ...the Steering Committee was struck with Ernie Stachowski's workshop and it was, I believe, by the powers that be, had already been decided that this is the direction they hoped to go... [28:3].

> ...being on the Steering Committee and it's confidential - they (Nick and Barry) run the thing. We go in and hear what they have to say, give some feedback and most of the time it's what they want but they pick up a lot of little tidbits from us but they have a better overall picture... [28:11].

Thus, at the outset of the implementation phase the decision making body was expanded to a District Steering Committee which would provide input from principals and teachers. Among those interviewed there was general agreement that it was an important committee, it had the potential to have an influence on the implementation, and the members took their membership responsibilities seriously.

The initial training session of the implementation phase was well received. Enthusiasm for the program had begun to build and the District sponsored fifteen principals and teachers (volunteers) to attend ITIP workshops at Seattle Pacific University during the Summer of 1982.

During the school year 1982-83 the Steering Committee began its task of formalizing an

implementation plan. The TET program was seen to have four strands, each requiring a minimum of twenty hours of instruction:

1. Beginning TET - Awareness and Knowledge
2. Advanced TET - Knowledge Review, Practice and Retention
3. Classroom Management
4. Instructional Supervision [R.F. #23].

Principals and teachers were encouraged to become involved at all four levels and sessions were offered for principals and teachers together.

Carol Cummings returned to the district in the Fall of 1982 to conduct a four-day in-district workshop and consult with the Steering Committree regarding future directions for the program. She recommended that the committee consider the possibilities of an in-district trainer who could provide in-class follow-up after the training sessions. The committee endorsed the concept and steps were taken to develop job specifications for a District TET Helping Teacher. Plans were also begun for a TET Summer School for the Summer of 1983.

During Spring 1983, thirty-five secondary teachers attended a four-day workshop, again with Carol Cummings as the trainer. Among those who were interviewed, Carol Cummings was considered a influential actor during the implementation phase. Three individuals refer to her in

the following ways:

> She is a master at building in the program [20:5].
>
> Carol Cummings was referred to us as a valuable resource and Carol has primarily been the anchor ever since then - the anchor resource person [22:5].
>
> I don't think you can discount Carol Cummings' involvement. She was always available, she switched her timetable, she really became quite involved in what was happening, she visited numerous schools, she reviewed tapes, she served as a consulting person when she was in the area and I feel that somehow or other, in my mind anyhow, she was quite a dominant individual in terms of making the program happen and work [25:12].

The district TET initiative took a dual approach to implementation: on the one hand, it was clearly a central office initiated program offering sessions to personnel across the district but, on the other hand, there was encouragement for individual schools to develop school-based implementation plans.

Kent's school, as mentioned earlier, was underway with a school improvement plan as early as the Spring of 1982. Some of the respondents were members of Kent's staff and the following excerpts provide a picture of their school based TET program:

> We had one Pro-D day here (school) while I was here in the Spring then we had another in the following Fall. Then because I showed some interest I took the Summer course. I saw what was going on with a couple of other teachers that were

> keen...then I was keen and...got in on the supervision thing [27:7].
>
> ...we'd come back from a workshop and we'd jump into our classrooms and boy we'd hop to it...we used to share and observe each other and Kent (the principal) used to come in and observe myself and I would observe Kent teaching my class. So it was a real growing and learning year...Last year (1983) the district had a situation where one teacher in each school, there were five schools selected, would have one day a week off to work with other staff members and introduce a personalized school based group plan [28:4].

These comments are illustrative of some of the enthusiasm for the program which was occurring at the school level. This staff was very active and over a few years became, in the view of some, a TET lighthouse school. They moved quickly to incoporate all four strands of the implementation plan and got particularly involved in the peer coaching component of the program. By March 1984 "a total of 184 visits had been made by teachers to colleagues' classrooms. Teachers in the school had attended a total of 134 workshops ranging from 5 day summer courses to half hour staff meeting professional development sessions" [R.F.#24]. Moreover, Kent, the principal, devised a personal growth plan whereby he received feedback on his coaching techniques [R.F.#25]. At the same time, other schools were developing plans in their own ways. Tony, in a written description of the program at his school writes:

> The principal and teachers who attended the district sessions became this school's project committee, and plans were made to incorporate an element of effective teaching in each staff meeting with committee members assuming leadership roles in these one-hour sessions.
>
> Each committee member has reached out beyond the workshop circle to draw in a colleague whose only exposure has been the school based sessions. Opportunities have been provided for committee members and others to visit each other's classroom to share implementation strategies, and to develop skills of observation and analysis [R.F.#25].

The above accounts provide evidence of enthusiastic school-based activities.

Some schools received considerable in-district support. In the Fall of 1983, the district established a .2 teacher in seven of the largest elementary schools to facilitate school-based TET. A district principal was appointed to the position of helping teacher, also to facilitate school-based activities. Further, the Steering Committee adopted the "Stages of Growth" implementation plan prepared by Nick, the assistant superintendent for District B [R.F.#27]. It constituted a formal plan to involve all of the schools, one-third at a time, over a three year period starting with the first phase in the 1983-84 school year.

While some schools (one-third) in the district were receiving considerable district support, other schools

received much less. One of the principals interviewed expressed his view that the small schools had not received district support. The following quotations illustrate his perspective:

> Some people, because they didn't have enough resources in smaller schools to implement these things, are behind.
>
> Some schools know an awful lot about it and have got right down to the point where there is peer coaching. But other schools haven't tried that kind of concept out...
>
> Some of the smaller schools need an awful lot more external help in setting up the program [23:4].

Thus, the central office decision to support the large schools resulted in some of the small schools feeling left behind.

Summer School opportunities were available to district personnel on a voluntary basis and were well attended. In fact, the superintendent attended the Beginning session during the Summer of 1984. The following excerpt is the expressed reaction of one of the teachers:

> ...I was very much impressed...I'll always remember it as, you know, you get the paper from the superintendent who says...there will be effective teacher training, and you're sitting there saying, "But what has he done?" because you never see him at any of these workshops, and bingo, there he was taking the course [28:8].

Several respondents commented on the positive impact the

superintendent's attendance had on district personnel. His involvement in the training and his subsequent enthusiasm for it was reported as having a negative impact as well. Following his attendance at Summer School, the superintendent met with principals and implied that promotions in the district would require a principal to be very knowledgeable about the TET program content. Central office staff respondents all expressed concern about the way principals reacted to the comment. Barry provides his perspective on the matter in the following quotation:

> At the first principals' meeting this year, the superintendent said you would in effect go nowhere in this district unless you were prepared to buy into TET and take the courses or some of them and be familiar with at least the knowledge level. No, in fact, he said applying at the practical level...That scared the hell out of a lot of the principals, far more so than I thought [19:16].

Barry, reflecting on his strategy to involve teachers only in the first training session, felt that perhaps more training and support should have been offered to principals. He expressed the view that had principals been involved from the first training sessions it may have avoided the negative reaction to the superintendent's comment.

Given that the implementation phase in District B coincided with a downturn in the provincial economy,

which resulted in cutbacks in education budgets, it is not surprising that most of the respondents identified lack of money as the major factor having a negative influence on implementation efforts. An additional negative factor reported by respondents is the TET Helping Teacher position. While the concept was advocated by most, there was disappointment expressed that the person appointed to the position hadn't managed to fulfill the expectations which had originally been held for that position. He did not appear to have credibility among many of the administrators and teachers.

In June 1984, the Board undertook the first reading of a set of district policies and procedures on supervision and evaluation of professional staff. Their espoused position on supervision closely related to the peer coaching component of the TET program. They took the position that "supervision is the responsibility of all and it may be undertaken by any professional staff member" [R.F.#28]. Further, they expressed commitment "to provide the necessary resources, including in-service activities, to assist in developing supervisory programs" [R.F.#29].

The research data were collected in the Fall of 1984 during the second phase of the formal three year implementation plan. A follow-up conversation with Barry, an assistant superintendent, confirmed that the three year plan was carried through to completion as of the Spring of 1986.

MOVEMENT AND RESISTANCE IN IMPLEMENTATION

The most significant features of the implementation phase appear to be the factors which either facilitated movement toward implementation goals or created resistance.

The events of the implementation phase are very different from those of initiation. Throughout initiation, the personnel involved were either program initiators or keen supporters. The data do not show evidence of resistance during initiation: instead, all the significant events appeared to contribute to moving the initiative toward adoption. This was not the case with the events of implementation. As the initiative and the target audience came into contact there was enthusiastic support and forward movement on the one hand and skepticism and resistance on the other.

This section consists of three subsections. In the first two subsections the factors which either

facilitated movement or resulted in resistance will be discussed in relation to two major categories: personnel and process. The section concludes with a summary of significant implementation factors and considers those factors as they relate to initiation as well as what they may predict for continuation.

Personnel

During implementation more people became involved in the process and contributed to the events which appear significant. While some key personnel who were involved during initiation stayed active, others changed roles and some new personnel emerge as key actors during implementation.

Superintendents. During implementation the roles of the two superintendents changed as illustrated in Figure 1.

	Initiation		Implementation
District A Superintendent	High profile	→	Low profile
District B Superintendent	Low profile	→	High profile

Figure 1: Changes in Role of Superintendents

In District A, the superintendent withdrew from the active role he had assumed during initiation and delegated that responsibility to his assistant superintendents. The following quotation from a principal is illustrative of that transition:

> Well, Don (superintendent) wasn't actively involved in implementation, he was sort of the person behind the start of the thing. I guess Howard (assistant superintendent) was the work horse...[8:17].

The superintendent in District A changed from a high profile to a low profile actor. The data provide no indication that this shift in role had any negative effects on implementation. The data do provide evidence that the assistant superintendents were generally perceived to be very strong leaders (see chapter 4) and they had also been actively involved during initiation which may, in part, account for the apparent ease with which the superintendent could withdraw.

Something quite different occurred with the role of the superintendent in District B. Whereas he played a low profile role during initiation and focussed his attention on gathering the necessary Board support, he became a high profile, active participant during implementation. He was a participant in one of the courses offered during Summer School in 1984. The resultant effect was two-sided as described in the following quotation of an assistant superintendent:

> At the end of summer school he said, "by God, that's it"...I think it really bolstered the program, in both a negative and positive sense. It legitimized it even further, but in a negative sense, his comments at the opening principals' meeting raised the level of concern too much maybe with some people [19:20].

The comment made at the opening principals' meeting as recalled by one of the principal respondents was as follows:

> It is now a compulsory program and your future depends on whether you are involved or not involved [22:15].

Principals, particularly those whose schools had not yet been included in the three-year plan, were resistant to the superintendent's stand. By contrast, the participants of Summer School were impressed. The following quotation is illustrative of the positive reaction:

> As a matter of fact, he (superintendent) attended one week of workshops...this past summer and I was very much impressed [29:8].

While the high profile role of the superintendent during implementation resulted in a positive reaction from some, it did cause difficulties.

A comparison of the roles played by the two superintendents suggests an interesting question. Did their past experience with innovative programs account for the very different roles they chose to play? The superintendent in District A had experience with the process of implementing innovative programs. His district had a history of successful staff development and a reputation as an innovator. He chose to play a low profile, supporting role during implementation whereas his counterpart in District B chose to play a high profile, participative role. The superintendent in District B did not have the same experience with the implementation of innovative programs to draw upon. While his zeal as a participant resulted in some positive reaction, it clearly caused difficulites during implementation. Perhaps the differences in experience with innovations help to account for the different roles the two superintendents played.

Central office staff. As described in the narrative sections, the central office staff were very involved in supporting the initiatives in both districts. They provided follow-up sessions, created newsletters, made presentations to school staffs and attended training sessions with the principals and teachers.

During implementation, central office personnel other than the senior officials, surfaced as key actors who played an active role. While the senior officials remained involved, it was the supervisors and directors of instruction who played the liaison role between central office and the schools.

Given the importance of the link between central office and the schools in a district-wide initiative, this liaison function would seem to have the potential for contributing significantly to implementation yet the data do not indicate that it was as significant as might be expected. While they provided follow-up sessions, created newsletters, and conducted presentations in the schools and while this liaison function appears to have served the purpose of co-ordinating follow-up activities, they lacked power to affect the change effort.

In District A, the reason given for not hiring a

local trainer was that all people in central office supervisory positions could provide that service. While that appears to have been possible, there is no evidence that any central office personnel were involved in follow-up coaching in the classrooms. This suggests a discrepancy in the role the assistant superintendent saw them playing in the implementation and the role they actually played.

Principals. Some principals are identified by respondents as a major factor influencing implementation. In schools where the initiative was successfully implemented the principals were actively involved, not only in the design of a school-based plan, but also in the training and follow-up practice as well.

In each of the school districts, two schools surfaced as "model" or "lighthouse" schools. In all four cases the principals had been involved in the initiation phase. Both "model" school principals in District A had been on the Administrators' Professional Development Committee and one was among those who travelled to Seattle Pacific University for training. In District B, one of the principals was invited to attend the "testing of the waters" session in District W as well as being asked to attend the training at Seattle

Pacific University. He is the individual who had originally tried to initiate ITIP into District B, years before. The other principal was influenced by his vice-principal who became involved during initiation. This principal was an original member of the Steering Committee.

All four principals were keen supporters of the initiative and quickly moved to establish a school-based program which was designed to include their entire staff. It seems reasonable to suggest that the outcomes in these schools may have occurred regardless of the district office efforts during implementation, suggesting that principals were very important during implementation.

Process

While key personnel are found to be an important factor which facilitated implementation, what those people chose to do also emerges as significant. Three aspects related to process appeared to have the effect of either facilitating movement forward in the implementation or creating resistance to it. These are: (1) implementation planning, (2) program management, and (3) use of trainers.

Implementation planning. The planning related to implementation was very different in the two districts. In one district the planning appears informal, almost casual, whereas in the other there is a very formal written implementation plan.

In District A, there is no evidence of a formal implementation plan but when asked about such a plan an assistant superintendent responded in the following way:

> Yeah, a plan to involve all the administrators [1:11].

In fact, the goal to involve all administrators was realized and in that way the plan may have contributed to forward movement in implementation but it also created considerable resistance from both administrators and teachers. The plan included three aspects which constituted major divergences from traditional practice: (1) a strong expectation from central office that administrators would attend, (2) training which comprised six sessions and would be offered over time and, (3) teachers would be included as part of the target audience.

Inherent in any change effort are feelings of resistance, anxiety and conflict. Given the magnitude of the changes required in this plan, it does not seem surprising that there was considerable resistance yet there is no evidence that the negative reaction to the

plan was anticipated. This evidence does suggest that the superintendent and his senior officials must have felt secure enough to proceed with a plan which expected administrators to comply with an expectation for them to make such dramatic changes. This also suggests that the representatives on the Administrators' Professional Development Committee had not communicated very well with their fellow administrators. The resistance nowithstanding, the data indicate that all administrators complied with the expectation that they would take part.

Also noteworthy is the fact that this informal implementation planning took place during the final phases of initiation and the goal to have all administrators attend was attained by the end of the first year of implementation. Very soon after that, the management of the program was handed over to the Teachers' Association in District A. As demonstrated in the narrative, the Teachers' Association did not develop a formal implementation plan either but simply continued to meet the interest of teachers who expressed the desire to receive further training.

In District B, by contrast, the implementation planning was very formal in comparison to District A but the planning took shape during the implementation phase

itself. As described in the narrative section, a Steering Committee comprised of administrators and teachers was formed at the outset of implementation for the purpose of providing input into planning. The result of the Steering Committee efforts was a three-year plan which involved all schools, one-third each year for three years. This plan was written by the program initiator and endorsed by the committee. Also included in the plan were two Summer School offerings. While attendance at Summer School was voluntary, the formal 3-year plan does imply an expectation that all schools would take part over the three school years. The data provide some evidence of resistance insofar as respondents indicated that some district personnel felt pressured.

The following are excerpts illustrative of the pressure which some participants apparently felt:

> There have been some teachers who have felt that...who have said they've been forced to take a course or two [29:9].
>
> I think people felt a little pressured last year because we did have someone for half a day [27:9].
>
> There was more of a push to do it than that, but there's been no follow-up to see that it's been done [30:12].

Principals of schools not included in the first year reported that they felt left behind. The

well-intentioned practice of involving field people in the planning resulted, in part, in some field people, particularly those in small schools, not feeling their interests were taken into account. The data provide no evidence to suggest that the planning committee anticipated the negative reaction from schools left out in the first phase.

Despite these two negative reactions, the formal three year implementation plan was carried through to completion. In comparison to District A, there appeared to be far less overt resistance. Two factors may account for that difference.

Firstly, the data from District A suggest that the local Teachers' Association was historically very strong and active in professional development matters. That strength may account for the organized negative reaction to the changes in traditional practice inherent in the initial implementation efforts. There was no evidence of similar strength on the part of the Teachers' Association in District B. Secondly, the implementation phase in District B took place at a different time and coincided with a negative provincial climate toward educators. As a result, teachers may have been somewhat apathetic on the one hand and reluctant to be overtly resistant on the other. The following quotation lends

some support for that speculation:

> The climate in this situation now and especially over the first couple of years since our friend Bill Vander Zalm started throwing darts, we felt the cost for this year is a lot of apathy [28:13].

That speculation gains further support from the Grimmett et al. study. They report the following:

> The emphasis on accountability and the prevailing mood of "teacher bashing" which called into question teacher professionalism was also perceived as having affected teacher attitudes and involvement. Negative attitudes and teacher skepticism were reported to have led to teacher reluctance to join the district initiated project (1986:44).

It appears that implementation planning, albeit very different between the two districts, incurred some resistance. The overt resistance in District A was a reaction to the expectation that administrators would attend. In District B, the resistance, partly related to a three-year plan and partly affected by a very negative political climate, appeared much more passive in comparison. Nonetheless, both plans moved forward.

When the planning aspect of implementation is compared, it seems curious that District A, with a history of successful implementation and a reputation as an innovator, appeared to approach planning in such an informal manner. Furthermore, in District B, where they did create a formal implementation plan, the plan was

created after the fact. Perhaps District B's plan was more a rationalization for the project than it was a plan which would facilitate implementation and continuation. Noteworthy is the fact that neither district engaged in detailed planning prior to implementation.

Program management. The management of the program is another significant feature of implementation which was handled differently in the two districts. In District A, the management of the program shifted to the Teachers' Association whereas in District B, the two assistant superintendents maintained control.

In District A, the original ITIP Management Committee, a subcommittee of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee, comprised of administrator representatives and chaired by an assistant superintendent, had planned for and managed ITIP during initiation and early implementation. However, management responsibilities were handed over to the local Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee during implementation. As described in the first section, the Teachers' Association assumed the management of the program following the Advanced ITIP Course offered in the Fall of 1979. Two points appear

important. First, by the time the shift in program management occurred, all of the school administrators had taken at least the Beginning ITIP course. Thus, the original central office implementation goal had been attained. Second, when asked about an implementation plan once the management shifted, Rosemary, the Chairperson of the Teachers' Association Committee at the time, said there was no plan: they just continued to meet the needs expressed in the informal assessments which were completed at the end of each course. The following quotation is illustrative of the committee's position:

> Basically, our committee felt very strongly that if we kept doing these assessments, and finding the need there that should prove to the people who are feeling political that yes, there are 30 or more people who want to continue if we have a class [5:11].

Considerable interest on the part of teachers continued for a number of years. As reported by Killough (1981), by 1980-81 only teachers were participants in the ITIP courses. Thus, the shift in management appears to have had the effect of maintaining momentum among teachers. While the courses were open to administrators, few attended.

The shift in management personnel in District A, in the opinion of one respondent, was typical in the

district. The following excerpt demonstrates his view:

> From the fact that it, in typical District A fashion, evolved from something that was initiated by a small committee operating close to the district office, very close, to something that's taken over completely by the Teachers' Association [4:19].

The feature of management personnel is quite different in District B. As described in the second section, the Steering Committee, comprised of both administrators and teachers, was formed at the outset of implementation. Their function was to provide input to the central office personnel who maintained primary control over the program management throughout implementation. There was a reluctance on the part of the two assistant superintendents to relinquish their management role. The following quotation demonstrates their view:

> I guess what's happened is that both of us have been afraid to let go of it because we don't want to see it sink. We think if we do it will [19:18].

There are no indications in the present study that this reluctance to hand over program management had a negative influence on implementation. However, Grimmett et al. who studied the same initiative conclude the following:

> Although the supervisors (the two assistant superintendents) did attempt to oversee the program's implementation and were perceived by the majority of

> participants as playing a project sustaining role, they did not monitor in a focussed way the various stages and tasks associated with the implementation process (1986:101).

There are, however, indications that the formation of the Steering Committee had some positive effect on implementation. Various members report examples of such positive results as illustrated in the following quotations:

> Since I was on the Steering Committee, I thought I had some responsibility to try and follow that plan. Which is what I've done [26:8].

> So, right from the beginning it's been a shared thing between principal and teachers [22:4].

> We had the opportunity to get involved in planning committees...That's when I started attending meetings, and we had an idea then of what the district was planning and were quite enthusiastic about having some input...those of us who showed that level of interest were made responsible for showing some of that enthusiasm at the local staff room level [31:2].

Again, the history of staff development in the two districts may account, in part, for the differences. In District A, there was a tradition of innovations being initiated by central office and a subsequent transfer of management to the Teachers' Association. District B had no such tradition and the initiators appear to have been reluctant to transfer management control.

Other differences between the two districts may also have accounted for the shift in District A and maintenance of control in District B. In District A, the initiators held a narrow view of the project and their goal to have all administrators participate was achieved during the first year of implementation. In District B, the initiators held a broader view of the project and their goal was to include all schools over three years. Further, the initiators in District B appeared to have career goals linked to the success of the project which may suggest they were less anxious to disengage. Moreover, in District B, during implementation, the superintendent became a program participant and ardent advocate. This too may have made it difficult for the assistant superintendents to assume a supporting role. Nonetheless, it is ironic that one of the program goals of one of the assistant superintendents was teacher empowerment, yet he was one of those unwilling to give up control of the program management.

The use of trainers. External trainers are a significant component of the implementation process in both districts. Together, the quality of the packaged program content and the credibility of the trainers

contributed to forward movement during implementation. While both districts made exclusive use of external trainers during the initial implementation activities, the issue of having local trainers surfaced in both districts. The two districts responded differently to the issue of a local trainer, yet the resultant effect was negative in both cases. In District A, the decision was not to hire a local trainer whereas in District B, a principal was appointed to the position.

In District A there was considerable support for local trainers, both among some central office personnel and especially among some participants who had become keen advocates of the ITIP initiative. The decision, however, appears to have been made by the superintendent and one of the assistant superintendents. The assistant superintendent involved explained that the decision to hire a local trainer would imply a narrow focus which would not accurately reflect the professional development philosophy of the district. He reports that they didn't want "to put all our eggs in one basket" [1:8]. Several of the respondents [#9,11,13,14,15 and 16] lamented that decision and indicated that the lack of follow-up provided by a local trainer constituted a major flaw in the implementation plan.

Important to note is the fact that once the program

management was in the hands of the local Teachers' Association, a local teacher, who in the meantime had acquired certification as a trainer, did do some of the training. The concept, however, was different insofar as he did the training out of school time and did not provide follow-up coaching in the classroom.

In District B, the decision to hire a local trainer was made during the first year of implementation. A principal who was very knowledgeable about the program content was appointed to that position. The effect of that appointment on the implementation efforts was negative; the appointment stimulated resistance. One of the assistant superintendents identifies the appointment as a major mistake made during implementation [19:17]. While the two assistant superintendents took the advice of Carol Cummings to hire a trainer, when it came time to appoint someone, they based their decision on expediency. Furthermore, they appear to have been aware that this was a risk to program implementation. Perhaps the personnel management decision had to take precedence over the project but it seems curious nonetheless, given the personal career motives which appeared to have played a part in the original selection decision.

SUMMARY: RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

This section of the chapter summarizes the factors which appear to have had an impact on the implementation phase. Further, these factors are considered in relation to what occurred during initiation and what might occur during continuation.

The preceding discussion demonstrates that a number of factors had an impact on the implementation phase of the initiatives in the two districts. In some instances, the factors had the effect of moving the project forward whereas other factors resulted in resistance. In two cases, both movement and resistance occurred in relation to different aspects of the same factor. Table 15 presents the factors and demonstrates the effect of those factors on the implementation phase. These facilitating factors are discussed first.

Factors Which Created Forward Movement

The factors which created movement fall into three categories: (1) personnel, (2) planning, and (3) content and time.

Personnel. The personnel who were involved in the initiatives were very important factors in both districts.

Table 15

Factors Which Emerged and Appeared to Have an Impact on Implementation

Effect: Resistance	Factors	Effect: Movement
B	Superintendent	*A and B
	Central office personnel	A and B
	Principals	A and B
A and B	Implementation planning	A and B
	External trainers	A and B
B	Local trainers	
	Program content	A and B
	Time in "History" of District	A and B

*A = Factors in District A
B = Factors in District B

The superintendents in both districts were supportive of the initiatives and appear to have facilitated implementation with their support. Considered in relation to initiation, the two superintendents played different roles. The superintendent in District A assumed a low profile role whereas the superintendent in District B assumed a high profile role. When considered in relation to what the two different roles might suggest for continuation, the support is likely to help sustain interest among participants. However, the low profile role of the superintendent in District A made it unlikely for him to be linked to any negative reaction to the program, whereas the high profile role of the superintendent in District B allowed him to be linked to a negative reaction.

Central office personnel in both districts provided support during implementation. It is noted that a number of supervisors and directors who were not very involved during initiation emerged as key actors during implementation. Looking ahead to continuation it would seem reasonable to speculate that the involvement of central office personnel might subside as schools became involved in school-based projects.

A difference which occurred between the two districts regarding central office personnel is related to the roles the senior officials played. In District B, senior central office personnel followed the superintendent's lead and withdrew from the active management of the program. In District B, senior central office personnel maintained control. Looking forward in District A, the low profile role would allow them to take credit for the positive aspects of what occurred and distance themselves from the negative aspects. Conversely, in District B, the fact that senior central office personnel maintained management control it put them in the potential position of taking responsibility for negative reactions.

When principals are considered as a factor, it is noted that those principals who were most active and successful during implementation were principals who were involved during initiation. Given the minimal follow-up assistance provided by central office, it appears that the principals who were most successful with the project were able to take a project they were interested in and run with it on their own. Looking back, it seems reasonable to speculate that these principals may have implemented ITIP in their school

regardless of the district efforts. Looking forward, it also seems reasonable to speculate that the school-based programs will continue as long as the principal continues to support it and provides the necessary leadership.

The final personnel related factor concerns the use of external trainers. In both districts, the external trainers are a major factor both in initiation and implementation. When the external trainers are considered in relation to program continuation, it seems reasonable to think that local trainers could take over at some point. What is not clear is when to make the switch and who should become local trainers.

Planning. This factor appears to be a weak aspect of the initiative. As noted in Table 15, the planning in both districts resulted in both positive (movement) and negative (resistance) reactions during implementation. The aspect of setting goals is the component of the planning which appears to have facilitated movement in both districts. In District A, the goal, set during initiation, to have all administrators go through the program was realized. Similarly, in District B, the planning goal to have all schools receive training, set during implementation, was

also met. It seems reasonable to conclude that these plans may have had an effect on moving the projects forward. However, it is curious that so little planning for implementation and continuation was done. Perhaps it suggests that formal planning is not considered necessary or that more planning was done than the data indicate or that the projects could have been more successful if more formal planning had taken place.

Content and time. From initiation through to continuation the content of this program appears to sell itself in both districts. It is noted that the program content comprises both a supervision and a teacher effectiveness component. Both of those components represent educational topics which were of particular interest to school districts during the time of initiation and implementation. Looking ahead, one wonders how long a single program theme can sustain the interest of educators.

Factors Which Created Resistance

The factors which created resistance during implementation fall into two categories: (1) personnel, and (2) planning.

Personnel. In District B, the actions of two

people appear to have resulted in resistance during implementation.

The superintendent's high profile role and apparent off-hand comment at a principals' meeting during implementation created considerable resistance from some principals. By assuming a high profile role, he put himself in the position of being personally linked to a difficulty during implementation. It is possible this action may affect peoples' confidence in his ability to facilitate innovative change in the future.

The local trainer was unable to facilitate implementation efforts in District B and, in fact, created resistance from people in the field. While the two assistant superintendents acted on the expert advice of Carol Cummings to hire a local trainer, they took the risk of appointing a principal who lacked credibility in the district because it was expeditious to do so. The reaction during implementation was so negative it would seem reasonable to speculate that the person will be removed from the position as soon as possible.

Planning. The planning which took place was different in the two districts but resulted in some resistance during implementation in both sites.

In District A, the plan, set during initiation, to

have all principals attend flew in the face of tradition and created considerable resistance. While the resistance appeared to dissipate during implementation, insofar as all administrators did take the program, it may have accounted, in part, for the fact that central office chose as soon as they did to shift the management to the Teachers' Association.

In District B, the three-year plan left some schools out of the project for two years. On the one hand, the plan left people out for a time while, on the other hand, the superintendent was linking administrators' promotions to their ability to use the skills of the program. These two things together suggest a lack of coordination between the planners and the superintendent. This evidence further suggests that his involvement was more from a personal perspective than a policy maker's perspective.

Planning in both districts appeared casual. Given the investment each of these districts had in the projects, careful front-end planning would have seemed likely yet it did not occur in either district. Yet, despite this lack of planning, the projects were both implemented.

CHAPTER 7

CONTINUATION AND OUTCOMES

This chapter presents the data relevant to the continuation phase in District A and reports perceived outcomes from respondents in both districts.

Continuation refers to the extent to which an initiative continues beyond the first few years of the implementation efforts. The time frame of the present study, as illustrated in chapter 4, provided data on the continuation phase in District A only. The continuation phase includes events which occurred from 1981 to 1986.

Outcomes, for the purpose of this study, refer to the positive or negative effects of the initiatives as reported by the respondents. It is important to note that all respondents were selected because they were identified as influential actors in the initiative, and the reports of perceived outcomes need to be considered in that light.

This chapter contains three major sections. The continuation phase is described and discussed in the first section. The reported outcomes are presented in the second section and the chapter concludes with an

analysis of the relationship between outcomes and original program goals.

CONTINUATION IN DISTRICT A

(1981-1986)

Table 16 lists the events which appear to have been important in the continuation phase. The data suggest that enthusiasm for the course had peaked during the implementation phase. However, during 1981-82 two ITIP courses were offered. A Classroom Management course ran in the Fall and a Beginning ITIP ran in the Spring. An external trainer was brought in from Washington, teachers were granted some release time but, for the first time, they were required to pay $20.00 for the course. Student teachers in the district were invited to attend and the course was advertised outside the district for a fee of $40.00. During continuation, participants in the courses were all teachers, substitute teachers or student teachers [R.F.#30]. It is notable that informal course evaluations completed by teachers at the end of the ITIP programs continued to indicate an interest in more training opportunities four years after the initial implementation effort.

TABLE 16

Continuation Events in District A

Time-line	Events
1981-82 School Year	.An assistant superintendent presented an historical overview of the ITIP initiative to the BCSTA (B.C. School Trustees' Association).
	.Two courses were offered during the year; one Classroom Management course in the Fall and one Beginning ITIP course in the Spring. A fee was charged.
1982-83 School Year	.Two courses were offered as in the previous year.
1983-84 School Year	.Two courses were offered. They represented a combination of instructional skills and classroom management. The trainer was a local teacher.
1984-85 School Year	.As above, two courses were offered.
	.Three school principals submitted a proposal to conduct a Peer Coaching project in their schools and brought in Carol Cummings as a trainer.
1985-86	.A Classroom Management course was offered and training was done by a local teacher.
	.ITIP content was incorporated into individual school improvement initiatives.

An interesting event of the continuation phase was a presentation made to the B.C. School Trustees' Association (BCSTA) by Bill during the Fall of 1981. Bill, an assistant superintendent, had been requested by the superintendent to prepare an historical account of the District A ITIP initiative [R.F.#31]. That account describes how central office personnel viewed the initiative during continuation. Firstly, it refers to a 1981-82 plan to identify a list of behaviours and properties of a competent teacher which in turn could guide teacher selection, supervision, inservice and evaluation activities. The content of that paragraph appears to reaffirm a sustained interest, on the part of central office administration, in the same goals which had led to the adoption of the ITIP program five years earlier. Supervision and evaluation still appeared to be their major interest.

Secondly, another interesting point made in the account is that ITIP was not seen to be the only inservice activity going on. District documents support the fact that there was a rich array of workshops in the district for teachers and principals and many attend outside conferences each year. While ITIP had been the major professional development activity, particularly during the initial implementation phase, the

Professional Development bulletins circulated during the continuation phase feature a range of staff development activities [R.F.#32].

By March 1984, seven years after the initial implementation efforts, a draft resource book on School Effectiveness was completed by a sub-committee of the Administrators' Professional Development Committee. A review of that resource book provides evidence that ITIP materials had been incorporated into the content [R.F.#33]. For example, in a section referring to teaching behaviours which are evident in effective schools, there is reference made to Madeline Hunter's Principles of Learning.

The present study was conducted during the Fall of 1984 within the time line of the continuation phase. The respondents were asked to describe ITIP in the District at that time and the following excerpt provides one respondent's perspective on the ITIP initiative during continuation:

> This is kind of limping along right now. We do two courses a year. We have 20 participants per class...it's kind of a mix...it's determined by me because I'm putting it on [13:18].

The above excerpt suggests a somewhat discouraged view of one of the original "ITIPPER" teachers. Carl, quoted above, is one who pursued ITIP trainer status at Seattle

Pacific University and by 1983 began to teach the ITIP courses in District A. From his comment, it appears that the ITIP course offerings began to change from the original course offerings ("it's kind of a mix"). The data demonstrate that Carl combined the essential aspects of a number of the ITIP courses into a condensed version because of time constraints. Release time was no longer provided and the courses were offered after the regular school day. A more optimistic view is expressed in the following quotation from a principal:

> I think there are a few of us (Principals), in fact three of us, that are attempting to bring Carol [Cummings] back now in her new phase. Now whether we can get enough teachers to take the next step, we are not sure...I think ITIP is going to have a second run at itself [11:22].

The Principals referred to in the above quotation were very involved in the initiation phase, and several years later, were ready to initiate a second wave of ITIP as evidenced in the following comment:

> I would say it's ready for another wave [10:14].

Both principals are referring to "peer coaching", a component of the ITIP program which was developed by Carol Cummings. During 1984-85, these three principals submitted a proposal to central office requesting funding to support a peer coaching project in their

schools. The proposal included bringing Carol Cummings in as the trainer. [Note: This project did not proceed as a result of lack of support from teachers.]

The following quotation is illustrative of how another of the original "ITIPPER" principals incorporated ITIP strategies into his teacher evaluations.

> I can do it [provide feedback] myself with my own staff when I evaluate my teachers. When I'm working with them, I'm able to use the conference as a teaching session [9:7].

A central office person provides additional perspectives in the following excerpt:

> I think it's just ticking along. I think it's going now into some different avenues, that it is being supplemented by different kinds of aspects of teacher effectiveness and effective schools...There is an ongoing interest in the district, and we get as much of the new stuff as we can and people still go and take the courses...There are still courses being offered [2:16].

Michael, an assistant superintendent, makes the point that by 1984 ITIP had really become a school initiative and what happened with it in the schools depended to a large extent on who was on staff and who the principal was. Sam, a director of instruction, in the following quotation provides a sense of how the program was adapted within the setting:

> It would be an adapted adaptation and this would go on throughout the district. The good parts of the program would become part of the daily lesson plan, part of daily teaching [4:23].

The above quotation also suggests that while existing in a variety of forms throughout the district it had become part of everyday practice for some.

Further, in 1985, a teacher was appointed as a Helping Teacher to facilitate school based school improvement efforts. It is noteworthy that the teacher, Patricia, was one of the original District A "ITIPPERS". During a follow-up conversation in August 1986 Rosemary, a supervisor, described how Patricia was incorporating ITIP into her work with schools. Moreover, Rosemary reported using ITIP in her own work with schools. One of the examples she provided is particularly interesting insofar as it provides evidence that ITIP was used extensively by some administrators. Rosemary described how she was sometimes called into a school to do an ITIP refresher for teachers when principals were moved from one school to another in accordance wih a district rotation policy. She explained that these requests came from schools receiving an administrator who was known to use ITIP concepts and vocabulary in his/her supervision and evaluation of teachers.

Thus 10 years after the District A ITIP staff

development initiative, it appears that ITIP, in a number of different forms, had become a part of the organizational setting.

Continuation: An Outcome

As discussed in chapter 4, continuation is considered an outcome measure to the extent that an initiative persists after the major implementation efforts cease (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976). The ITIP initiative began in 1976 and continued to be part of the professional development in District A over ten years.

The data in Table 17 indicate a number of factors which seem to have contributed to sustaining the program over time.

Table 17
Factors Which Contributed to Continuation

1. Program content
3. Continued interest among principals
4. Continued interest among teachers
5. Leadership
6. Stability in staff and administration.

The above factors cluster around two key variables: (1) program content, and (2) sustained support and leadership.

Program content. The program content emerges in continuation, as it did during initiation and implementation, as an important variable which appears to account for the sustained enthusiasm among program participants. The data indicate that enthusiasm had levelled out during continuation in comparison to the peak during implementation, when all courses were oversubscribed. However, ITIP courses did continue to attract participants and their evaluations were consistently very positive. The levelling feature is perhaps not surprising in view of one respondent's speculation that "almost all teachers have now (1984) had some of Madeline's work" [11:2]. Another respondent estimated that at least 70% of the district had been through part of it [4:16].

Of interest is the fact that during continuation the courses were taught solely by an internal trainer. The data suggest that this shift away from external trainers resulted in adaptations to the course content. While the ITIP material continued to provide the content, it was synthesized apparently to allow for more to be covered in a shorter time. In the words of the internal trainer, the content became "kind of a mix". Such an adaptation in District A is understandable given that, during continuation, teachers no longer received

release time, and both participants and the trainer were taking part in the course after school hours. Nonetheless, there is evidence that twenty teachers participated in a course which took place over four sessions in October 1984 and the evaluations were laudatory [R.F.#34]. Thus, over time, the content was condensed, an internal rather than an external trainer provided the instruction and participants took the training on their own time.

When the program content was presented by an internal trainer in a synthesized form it continued to attract participants several years after the program was initiated. Given this finding, one wonders if internal trainers could have been used sooner.

Sustained support and leadership. Although management shifted to the teachers during the initiative, the data provide evidence that central office personnel sustained interest and had a sense of pride in the ITIP project throughout. Examples of interest and pride are indicated in the report made to the B.C. School Trustees' Association by the assistant superintendent in 1982 [R.F.#35]. Further, in 1985 the district hired one of the original "ITIPPER" teachers as a Helping Teacher to facilitate school-based

improvement. In addition, some central office supervisors continued to present ITIP "refreshers" in the schools.

Sustained support and leadership on the part of principals also appear to have contributed to the ITIP continuation. The following quotation, from an assistant superintendent's perception, suggests that the program was being used in a variety of ways in schools and classrooms and the extent to which it was used depended on the teachers and principals:

> Depends largely on who is on staff and who the principal is [2:16].

Another example of sustained interest on the part of principals, referred to earlier, demonstrates that three principals attempted to initiate an ITIP-related school project in 1984.

The most successful results appear to have occurred in schools where the principals maintained interest and continued to encourage ITIP practices through supervision and evaluation. This finding may suggest that the district might have been able to facilitate more widespread institutionalization of the ITIP initiative if central office had kept the pressure on principals beyond the first year. As it was, they chose not to and appear to have left the continuation of the project to happenstance. Nonetheless, the ongoing

support of central office and the sustained leadership on the part of some principals appear to have contributed to the continuation of the program in District A over ten years.

REPORTED OUTCOMES IN BOTH DISTRICTS

All thirty-two respondents were asked to evaluate the outcomes of the initiatives in their districts. The perceived outcomes are reported by respondents who were all either initiators or keen supporters of the project from the very early stages: therefore, the data need to be considered in light of that limitation.

This section has three subsections each of which presents the reported outcomes of a group of respondents. Because there are considerable similarities among the responses of teachers, principals and central office personnel across sites, the outcomes are reported together by role. Thus, the first subsection presents the outcomes reported by teachers in both districts. The second and third subsections report the outcomes of principals and central office personnel, respectively. Each subsection concludes with a discussion of the findings.

Teachers

A total of 11 teachers were interviewed in the two districts. There were five teacher respondents, four elementary and one secondary in District A and six teacher respondents, five elementary and one secondary in District B. Table 18 is a summary of the outcomes which they reported.

As indicated in Table 18, the teachers report outcomes which were mostly positive. Positive outcomes were reported in the areas of improved teaching, improved personal/professional confidence, improved student performance, improved collegiality, and finally, they report that it provides a basis for further professional growth. Each of these categories of positive outcomes is discussed.

Improved teaching. In a variety of ways all eleven teachers reported that, as a result of participating in the project in their district, they perceived themselves to be more effective. Several mentioned improvements in classroom management while others reported specific improvements in aspects of the instructional processes. The following quotations illustrate typical responses related to improved teaching:

Table 18

Teachers' Perceptions of the Initiatives in Districts A and B

Types of Responses	District A n=5	District B n=6	Total n=11
Improved Teaching:			
.it's a fabulous teaching model	**	**	4
.ITIP program great for teacher effectiveness	****	******	10
.classroom management	**	****	6
.makes good teachers better	*		1
.can figure out what is going wrong	*		1
.reinforces some things	*		1
.teaches new things	*		1
.time management		***	3
.more sensitive to students needs		*	1
Improved Personal/Professional Confidence:			
.coincides with research	**	*	3
.just feel better about teaching	*	**	3
.feel more professional	***	***	6
.showed us some super things that are being done in education	*		1
.lower stress		**	2
.confidence		***	3
Improved Student Performance:			
.I could come back to my class and put it to work right away and see successful results	*	*****	6
.reaction of kids more predictable	*		1
.retention better		*	1

Improved Collegiality:			
.vocabulary	*	***	4
.tone		*	1
Provided for:			
.other programs which complement it	***		3
.student teachers	**	**	4
.better supervision/ evaluation	*	**	3
Negative Factors:			
.principals used in reports	**		2
.some teachers felt pressure	**	***	5
.political climate/ strike		***	3

* Indicates a response

> Personnally I think it is an excellent program...I think as teachers we have to keep growing...We have to be accountable...We have to produce something during those 200 days that we teach...I've seen it work. I know when I've taught a good lesson and I know why now. I didn't before [27:14].

> First course I've ever had where I could come back to my class and put it to work right away and see successful results [15:12].

> The ITIP program is great for teacher effectiveness because it makes you aware that children need to have a solid ground [16:23].

Improved personal and professional confidence. Many of the teachers reported that the project had resulted in personal benefits for them. Increased confidence, a sense of enhanced professionalism and a reduction in their stress level accounted for these perceived personal outcomes. Some respondents simply said they felt better about teaching, having participated in the course. The excerpts below demonstrate such perceived personal benefits:

> Just feel better about teaching...it reinforces some things, teaches some new things and makes them feel more professional [13:17].

> In terms of me personally, as a teacher, the stress level is down...much more confident in what I am doing...I guess if I feel better about myself as a teacher then I am going to do a better job [28:18].

Improved student performance. The teachers were cautious about reporting dramatic improvements in student performance as it relates to increased student achievement but did express the view that students had benefitted. The following quotations are indicative of such perceptions of improved student performance:

> The reaction of the kids is more predictable [13:17].
>
> I taught things faster and the retention was better than last year...it made such a difference in arithmetic and phonics and reading [29:12].

Improved collegiality. Five of the teachers reported that the common vocabulary which participants shared as a result of the course had the effect of improving communication among staff members. Illustrated in the following quotation is one teacher's perception of how the common vocabularly had been a positive outcome for her:

> Communicating on a common vocabulary which is really helpful and number two, communicating and feeling confident that I know what they are talking about [28:18].

Provided a basis for other professional growth. Another positive outcome of the initiative appears to be related to the fact that teachers saw the program as a good basis to build on. Three of the respondents in

District A indicated that the ITIP program complemented other professional development programs which were offered. Four of the respondents reported the inherent value in the program for student teachers. Three in District A mentioned that the project had resulted in improved supervision and evaluation. However, while most of the reported outcomes were positive some negative outcomes were also reported.

Negative Outcomes. Not all teacher respondents agreed that supervision and evaluation had improved as a result of the initiative. In fact, in District A, the one negative outcome which emerged was related to the supervisory/evaluation processes. The following quotation describes a specific situation in which an administrator misused the ITIP material and the outcome was negative:

> The other negative impact in our district was that a lot of these principals who became gung ho started to evaluate teachers on the ITIP model. And that was just a terrible experience. I can remember being the local association president and a teacher brought in the teaching report to show me, and they didn't understand what the teaching report said. This principal had used all, evaluated them on the words, the vocabulary was ITIP...the teacher didn't know what the hell the person was talking about [17:10].

While this incident was obviously a very negative experience for those involved, the data suggest that it wasn't particularly widespread. Only one central office staff member and one principal referred to it during the interviews. Furthermore, the teacher quoted above went on to describe that when the superintendent was made aware of the matter he took the position that, "That shouldn't happen" [17:10]. This suggests that the matter may have been dealt with quickly.

In District B, negative outcomes are related to the political climate during implementation. The funding cuts in education and a negative public attitude toward teachers appear to have had an impact on how some teachers reacted to the initiative. Respondents reported that some of their colleagues were apathetic and different philosophies on the "teacher strike" had caused conflict among some teachers. Further, the district's 3-year implementation plan resulted in reports of some teachers feeling pressured to take part. However, despite the few negative outcomes described in the two districts, the teacher respondents reported outcomes which were overwhelmingly positive.

Principals

A total of ten principals were interviewed in the

two districts. There were five principal respondents from both districts, four elementary and one secondary in each. Table 19 displays their responses.

The principals also reported outcomes which were very positive. They perceived positive results in the following areas: improved supervisory practices, improved report writing, improved collegiality, and improved teaching practices. While the reported outcomes were generally seen to be positive, a major negative outcome emerged in both districts and each will be discussed.

Improved supervisory practice. In a variety of ways, principals reported that the initiative had resulted in improvements in their skills of supervision. The following quotation is illustrative of one principal's perception of the major benefit of the program for him:

> It's been the greatest training for me in terms of my supervisory job...it enables me to work more effectively with teachers...able to state things more clearly [8:26].

The above quotation is typical of the descriptions of how the program resulted in improved skills in supervision. Several others reported that having a common language improved teacher conferences. They also

Table 19

Principals' Perceptions of the Initiatives in Districts A and B

Types of Responses	District A n=5	District B n=5	Total n=10
Improved Supervisory Practices:			
.common vocabulary	**	***	5
.gave me the tools to work with	*		1
.adds to teacher conference	**		3
.training in terms of supervision	***	*****	8
.more comfortable with supervision		**	2
Improved Report Writing/ Evaluation			
.I use it when I'm writing reports	*	***	4
Improved Collegiality/ Climate			
.facilitated discussion	*	***	4
.people took more positive attitude toward things	*	**	3
.lots of sharing/visiting	*	*	2
.adds to teacher confidence	*	*	2
Improved Teaching Practices:			
.increased effectiveness	****	*****	9
.provides an awareness of what should be done	***		3
.become planners	*		1
.solid beginning/windup at end	*		1
.awareness of teaching process	**		2
.reinforcement		*	1

Improved Student Performance:			
.good for kids	*	*	2
.kids are far more on task this year		*	1
Provided for:			
.groundwork for a lot of things we are doing now	***	*	4
.ready for another surge	**		2
Negative:			
.some feel pressured		***	3
.some feel left behind		***	3
.superintendent's zeal		***	3

reported having developed much more confidence in the supervision process.

Improved report writing/evaluation. Three principals linked positive outcomes to improvements in their report writing. Their comments seem to indicate an increased confidence in their evaluation skills. As one principal reported:

> It gives me a lot of confidence to go in and help and also when necessary, to tell it like it is [26:12].

Improved collegiality/climate. It appears from the data that in some schools the program had resulted in a noticeable change in the climate. Principals reported the positive aspects of increased communication using a common terminology, a generally more positive tone among staff members and more sharing and visiting between classrooms. The following quotation illustrates this positive outcome as reported by a principal:

> I've always felt that one of the big inhibiters is we are so isolated...ITIP changed that. There was more professional exchange between adults in sharing and more contact, more interaction [12:17].

A principal from the other district shared a similar perception as indicated in the following excerpt:

> We think the tone in the school is better: we think the attitude of teachers' sharing

is better [22:17].

Improved teaching practices. All of the principals who were interviewed reported an outcome indicative of improved teacher effectiveness. They reported that teachers had become better planners, were more aware of what needed to be done, and introduced and concluded lessons better than before the course. Related to improved teaching practices, a number of principals felt the students benefitted as well. One principal from District B provided the following perception of how the program was "good for kids":

> A number of them (teachers) went back and started practicing and immediately, well within three weeks, you could sense a change in so many kids -- they were being dignified, they were opening up, they were taking better part in class [22:17].

Negative Factors. In District A, principals did not report negative outcomes. A few lamented the fact that not enough had been done but they were clearly supporters of the program. However, some were critical of the implementation process as indicated in chapter 6.

In District B, by contrast, negative outcomes were reported. These outcomes were related to four factors. One was the negative reaction from some principals when the superintendent became "over zealous" after

participating in a Summer School course. Some principals reported feeling pressured to take part whereas others reported feeling left behind. Both reactions resulted from the 3-year implementation plan which included all schools over three years.

The negative outcomes in District B notwithstanding, principal repondents in both districts were decidedly positive in their reported outcomes. The following quotations, one from a principal in each district, are almost identical and capture the tone of the principals' responses to the two projects:

> I would say it was certainly good for the staff at School X and the kids at School X. I think, probably, it was good for the district overall [12:19]. (Elementary Principal, District A)

> Overall I felt ITIP has been good for me and good for the district and it has been good for teachers [25:21]. (Secondary Principal, District B)

Central office personnel

A total of eleven central office personnel were interviewed: seven in District A and four in District B. Table 20 presents the perceptions of the outcomes of the initiatives in their districts.

An analysis of data on reported outcomes indicates a considerably different perspective among central office respondents when compared with both

administrators and teachers. Perhaps this is not surprising given their different roles in the organization generally and the initiatives specifically. Reported outcomes are both positive and negative.

Positive outcomes. As illustrated in Table 20, there is general agreement that the initiatives had resulted in improved supervision, evaluation (report writing) and teaching practices. In District A, several comments were specific to improvements perceived in report writing. The following quotations are illustrative of that perception:

> I read the reports that came in on a quarter of our teachers. I can see these concepts (ITIP) being commented on which indicates to me that they are being used, talked about, expected and looked for by school administrators [1:13].

> It is apparent that many principals and teachers -- principals in their reporting of teachers and teachers in their development and their implementation of lesson plans, make it obvious that there has been considerable influence - there have been improvements [3:16].

> We've moved our report writing from the testimonial stage to recording what is being seen [4:18].

Table 20

Central Office Personnel Perceptions of the Initiatives in Districts A and B

Types of Responses	District A n=7	District B n=4	Total n=11
Improved Supervisory Practices:			
.using ITIP in supervision	**	***	5
.common language	***		3
Improved Report Writing in Evaluation:			
.moved report writing from testimonal stage	***	*	4
Improved Teaching Practices:			
.aware of good instruction in classroom	**	**	4
.used in individual growth plans		*	1
.reinforcement	*	*	2
.practical	***		3
.increased effectiveness	***	***	6
Improved Communication:			
.talk about same thing	**		2
.confidence	***	*	4

Overall Change Effort:			
.most teachers have had opportunity	*	*	2
.schools incorporating into self-assessment models	*		
.biggest wave of professional development	*		
.basis to build on	***	***	6
.good for student teachers	*		1
.ongoing nature	*		1
.it's been successful schools still want it	***	***	6
Negative:			
.insecurity of those left behind		***	3
.principals misused program in report writing	*		1
.fiscal restraint		****	4
.superintendent's zeal		***	3

Comments specific to report writing were not evident in the data from District B. Comments related to perceived outcomes in District B appear more general and are related to the overall initiative. There is a perspective expressed in the following quotations which implies that success was equated to program continuation:

> Considering the complexity of this type of project, it has been pretty successful. The fact that it is still going four years later...that is despite the fact we have been cut back, cut back, cut back, and we have been firing teachers and we had a strike...so whatever reason I think that in itself is the measure [18:24].

> There has been very little backlash [19:23].

> Even during our summer school session, we get a lot of the same people coming back...we have 120 odd people coming out in mid-summer to attend the courses [21:15].

Similar comments regarding the overall success of the initiative are noted among respondents in District A. The following quotation illustrates a similar overall perspective of the initiative:

> Seven years for an educational idea was a fairly long time to be in the front [4:20].

In both districts, central office personnel expressed the view that a positive outcome was that the initiative had provided a good basis upon which to add other

professional development. As one respondent put it, "the world is not built on ITIP alone " [3:18].

Negative outcomes. The negative outcomes reported by central office personnel are different in the two districts.

In District A an outcome mentioned by one respondent is the misuse of ITIP in evaluations by some principals. The following excerpt illustrates his perception of what occurred:

> One of the unforeseen consequences, and the poor consequences of the initial act was that some principals who took the program,...they missed the meat and got the labels and it made the reports look better by putting those labels into the reports but they had forgotten in the process that teachers hadn't taken the program yet so they didn't know what the labels meant...even some of the principals didn't know what the labels meant [4:20].

As mentioned earlier, this negative outcome is not mentioned by other central office personnel but is recalled by a principal and a couple of teachers.

In District B, the negative outcomes which are reported relate to fiscal restraint, the three-year implementation plan and the superintendent's zeal. The timing of implementation in District B coincided with a downturn in the economy and cutbacks in funding for education. All four central office personnel mentioned

that the cutbacks affected their implementation efforts. The resultant effect was that some people in schools, which were included in the TET project, felt pressured while some people in schools not included initially felt left behind.

While negative outcomes are mentioned by central office personnel in both districts, reported outcomes are for the most part, overwhelmingly positive.

Summary

It is important to note that while respondents in the present study reported outcomes which are overwhelmingly positive, these individuals comprised a very select group. Therefore, the interpretation of the data need to be considered in light of that fact.

As illustrated in the foregoing tables, the teachers reported outcomes which differ from those of the principals: both the teachers and the principals report outcomes different from those of central office personnel. However, the reported outcomes of the three levels of personnel are very similar across sites. The differences among the three levels of personnel (teachers, principals and central office) could have been anticipated, given the different roles each play in the organization.

Somewhat surprising is the similarity between the outcomes reported among the three levels of personnel across sites. This is important in light of the differences between the two districts regarding the history of staff development, the organizational structures, the personnel and the strategies employed during initiation and implementation. This finding suggests that the same program can be successfully implemented in different sites but, given the unique context of each district, different strategies may be necessary to achieve similar outcomes.

OUTCOMES AND CHANGE

Did the enthusiastic participation which occurred during the initiatives in both of these districts result in changes among participants?

Successful implementation, according to Fullan (1982), requires more than enthusiastic participation in an innovation. He takes the position that success is dependent on whether or not the initiative actually alters the factors it set out to change.

The perceived outcomes presented in the previous section illustrate that the respondents in both districts felt changes had occurred as a result of the initiatives. Some very specific examples of these

changes are provided. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) identify such perceived outcomes as a measure of project success.

In District A, the original goal was to improve administrators' skills in supervision and report writing. Over time, the target audience included teachers and improving teacher effectiveness evolved as a program goal. Based on the perceived outcomes reported by the respondents and presented in section two of this chapter, it appears that changes were perceived to have occurred as a result of the ITIP initiative in District A, between 1976 and 1984. Improvements in written teacher reports, supervision skills and teacher effectiveness are all indicated. While the data represent the perceived outcomes of a select group of ITIP enthusiasts, they clearly demonstrate that changes had occurred, according to some participants. The findings of the present study do not indicate how widespread the perceived changes were within the district but the Killough (1980) study does. In a survey of principals and teachers who had participated in the ITIP initiative in District A, he reports that 76.3% of the respondents agreed that ITIP was perceived to be a means of raising the level of teacher classroom effectiveness. Further, 86.8% believed ITIP provided

supervisors with a useful approach to use in helping teachers to improve. With respect to improvements in report writing, the Killough (1981) study does not specifically address the question of whether ITIP improved report writing but he does find that respondents did not feel that ITIP should be the sole basis for evaluating teachers. However, central office personnel in the present study clearly indicated that principals' written reports of teachers had improved as a result of the ITIP initiative. Thus, all three factors which the initiators had set out to alter appear to have changed according to some participants.

In District B, the perceived outcomes reported by the respondents indicate results which are very similar to those reported in District A with the exception of improvements in report writing. The data indicate that improving report writing was never part of the program intent in District B. However, improvements were described in both supervision skills and teacher effectiveness. Grimmett et al. (1986) conducted a study of the peer coaching component of the TET initiative in District B. The perceived outcomes reported by teacher respondents are in accord with those reported here. Their study included a cross section of principals and teachers in the district and is therefore representative

of a less biased perspective of the outcomes of the initiative. Even so, their findings, which are related to teachers' perceived outcomes, are consistent with those of the present study suggesting that the perceived positive outcomes in District B may be more widespread than just among the TET enthusiasts, who were respondents in this study.

Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the ITIP initiative in District A and the TET initiative in District B were perceived to be successful. Positive changes were reported by both initiators and participants in areas which had originally been targetted for change.

CHAPTER 8

THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY AND THE PROCESS OF CHANGE

The findings which have been reported in chapters 5 through 7 are now discussed in relation to the current literature on change and staff development. This chapter consists of four sections. The first three sections present a further discussion of the findings which are specific to the three phases: initiation, implementation and continuation. Outcomes are the topic of discussion in section four.

INITIATION

Initiation occurred in the two districts at different times. The findings relevant to the initiation phase in both districts are discussed in relation to the literature.

1. <u>In both school districts senior central office personnel were actively involved in the initiation phase</u>.

   a. In District A the superintendent was the key initiator and in District B the newly appointed

assistant superintendent played that role.

b. Other senior central office personnel played active supporting roles during initiation. In District A they participated in the search for and selection of a program which met their need at the time. In both districts they engaged in support gathering activities.

Fullan takes the position that:

> Education adoption never occurs without an advocate, and one of the most powerful is the chief administrator: with his or her staff, especially in combination with school board support or mandate (1982:45).

Other studies that focus on implementing change in school districts report similar findings (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Crandall et al., 1983; Fullan, 1985; Hall, 1985; McDonnell, 1985). The findings in this study led to the speculation that neither program would have been selected without the advocacy of the two chief initiators. Their leadership clearly facilitated the selection, yet in each district they had strong support from their senior central office colleagues. Crandall et al. (1983) and Fullan (1985) describe the role of central office personnel as scanners and advocators of promising new practices. In District A, the findings indicate that scanning did occur prior to the selection whereas, in District B, the chief initiator appears to

have chosen the program because it had been successful in his former district. Pincus (1974) identifies a factor favourable to program adoption which he described as "approval of peer elites." His description suggests that sometimes whatever is popular among leading professional peers is the determining criterion for the selection of an initiative. Pincus's "approval of peer elites" appears to be in accord, in part, with the selection of the program, particularly in District B. McDonnell (1985) advocates transporting, from site to site, programs that have been successful elsewhere, particularly in times of fiscal restraint.

While the literature is in accord with respect to the critical role played by central office personnel during the change initiative, several sources point out the lack of studies that focus on the role of central office personnel (Cuban, 1984; Fullan, 1982; Hall, 1985). The present study did focus, in part, on the role of central office and the findings demonstrate that during the initiation phase in Districts A and B central office personnel engaged in selection and support gathering activities.

2. <u>The motivating factors behind the selection were different in the two districts: problem solving in one and growth and career motives in the other</u>. The popularity of the program elsewhere also played a role in the selection decision. The literature is limited in reporting why districts select their staff development programs. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) conclude that selections are based on either a problem solving orientation or an opportunistic orientation. They take the position that district programs are selected either to address an assessed need or to take advantage of external funding. The initiatives in the present study were both implemented with internal funds so neither can be deemed to have been selected for what Berman and McLaughlin refer to as opportunistic reasons. District A based their selection on a problem solving orientation insofar as the program was selected to meet an assessed need. District B, by constrast, initiated the program mainly for growth and career reasons. Illustrated in chapter 5 were findings which suggest career motives also played a part in the selection decision. Fullan (1982) suggests that "administrative careerism" or "career related innovativeness" is often a driving force behind the selection of staff development programs. The Dissemination Efforts Supporting School Improvement

(DESSI) (Crandall et al., 1982) study also found career incentive to be a significant aspect of adoption and implementation. It is also reported that career motives are often only one of several motives for selection. This would seem to be the case in District B. Further, it seems reasonable to suggest that the career motives which appear to have been a factor in the selection decision in District B had a positive effect on the adoption decision. This finding is in agreement with Fullan who takes the following position:

> It can also be positive when career-related motives generate energy and enthusiasm for the extra work required at the early stages of a change effort (1982:169).

Career motives may well have been a factor in District A but the data provide no substantiating evidence. While career motives often have a negative connotation, the findings in District B demonstrate that they can and do have a positive effect on the initiation phase.

The fact that the program was popular elsewhere also appears to have been a factor in the selection in both districts. However, this aspect is not dealt with in detail in current literature.

3. <u>External, credible practioners were used to "test the waters" in both districts and appear to have facilitated the gathering of support from prospective participants.</u> McDonnell (1985) reports that external resource people who are expert with program content can facilitate the transfer of a program from one location to another. Crandall et al. (1982) concluded that implementation may not occur unless face-to-face assistance is provided by qualified dissemination staff. Louis (1981) drew similar conclusions.

In both Districts A and B, external trainers who were expert in the program content were hired to do the training. Without question, these credible external trainers were a significant factor in building enthusiasm for the projects during the initiation phase. The findings of the present study demonstrate, however, that the qualifications and credibility of such trainers are crucial. In District B, an external trainer from District A was imported to do a presentation in the very early stages of initiation and he was unsuccessful. It appears he lacked the necessary credibility. This suggests that districts must assess carefully the qualifications of trainers whom they bring in from the outside.

4. <u>The fact that the program claimed to be research based appeared to be a factor in its selection.</u> Griffin (1983) takes the position that there is now considerable knowledge from research on teaching that can form a major portion of the content of staff development. Vaughan (1982) is critical of the fact that present staff development programs often fail to take into account the recent research on effective teaching.

The ITIP program which was selected in both districts claims to be based on research. Among the central office personnel who played a role in the selection process, the research claim was reported to have been an important factor in the selection decision. This finding suggests that initiators may have come to realize the importance of the research and perceive themselves as taking that into account in their selection decisions.

5. <u>Teacher and principal respondents differed in their perceptions of who selected the programs in the two districts. Teachers appeared less well informed than principals.</u> The literature is limited in reporting findings related to users' perceptions of who makes selections of staff development programs. In a

recent study, Hall et al. (1985) indicate that individual teachers do not perceive that they have a great deal of influence on district policy. Interestingly, they also report that district office personnel believe that much of what they do in the development of policies and programs is based on teacher input.

The findings in the present study demonstrate that among the respondents, all of whom were key influentials in the projects, principals were clearer about who selected the program than teachers, who were hesitant and speculative in their responses. While vague in their responses, teachers did assume that it was senior central office personnel who had made the selections. Fullan (1982) takes the position that who selects is not as important as what else happens during initiation. The findings in the present study do lend support to the suggestion that the power of one's position may well be important in who selects programs that are adopted. A central office staff person was unsuccessful in having District B adopt the program which was later adopted when selected by a person with superordinate line authority (Hall et al., 1985).

Perhaps it is not that important that participants in a program know who selects a program but it seems

surprising that teachers were so vague given the initiatives in both districts were designed to become large district-wide initiatives. However, as Lortie (1972) points out, teachers are (more) interested in what happens in their individual classrooms.

6. Teachers and principals differed in their perceptions of why the program was selected. The literature is also limited in reporting findings on prospective users' perceptions of why programs are selected.

Fullan (1982) places a great deal of emphasis on the importance of participants developing meaning in order for an initiative to be successful. It seems reasonable to take the position that the reason a project is initiated is intricately related to program goals or intents. Further, in order for individuals to develop meaning in a project, knowing the goal would seem to be an important factor. Most principals in the two districts appeared to know why the project was initiated; teachers however, again seemed unsure. Given that principal support was considered important to project initiators, it is understandable that they would be informed of the goals. Also, they are likely to have had more contact with central office personnel. Given

the scale of these two projects, however, the teachers' lack of clarity regarding the reason the project was selected is surprising.

An interesting finding in the present study is the fact that teachers supported the project regardless of the fact they were unclear about why the project was selected. This seems to suggest that, for teachers, the practicality of a program is more important than knowing why the program was selected.

7. Teachers and principals, while both part of the target audience, did not seem to share a common view of the project. Fullan (1982) and Huberman and Miles (1984) present a strong argument for the need of participants to share a common view of projects in which they are involved. Research conducted by Smith and Keith (1971) contends that organizational members can hold different images of the meaning, intent, and substance of an innovation, and that continuing lack of a common image can lead to frustration, conflict and failure. As demonstrated in chapter 5, teachers and principals did not share a common view of the project. As just discussed, some teachers did not even know why the project was initiated.

The findings in the present study suggest that

central office personnel either perceived there was greater understanding of the program intent among prospective users than was actually the case, or they failed to consider it important.

8. An externally developed, well established program was chosen in both districts at different times. The program was not adapted to meet local needs in either district. McDonnell (1985:431) found that "although local characteristics will always be significant in the educational change process, the evidence is clear: new practice can be transferred successfully from one site to another." She argues that serious consideration should be given to making use of programs that have been successful in other school districts, particularly in times of restraint. Further, she argues against wasting time and energy on local districts reinventing the wheel.

Berman and McLaughlin (1976:361) take quite a different position. They contend that the exercise of 'reinventing the wheel' can provide an important opportunity for staff to work through and understand projects and to develop a sense of 'ownership' in project methods and goals. Without this 'learning by doing', it is doubtful that projects attempting to

achieve teacher change would be effectively implemented. This position appears to be in accord with what Fullan (1982) refers to as participants developing "meaning" which he feels is of utmost importance to change efforts.

The findings of the present study lend themselves to the suggestion that participants can derive meaning for a project in other ways besides localizing material which has been developed and successfully implemented elsewhere. It appears that participants in both districts found the externally developed programs to be practical. Neither of the two districts in the present study elected to adapt the program, yet in both districts the outcomes reported by participants indicated that positive changes were perceived to have occurred as a result of the initiatives.

These findings lend support to McDonnell's positon and further suggest that programs developed elsewhere can fit other contexts in a way that allows for successful implementation. This conclusion seems particularly important and encouraging as staff developers attempt to initiate changes in times of fiscal restraint.

9. Minimal teacher involvement occurred in both districts during initiation. In District A, one teacher representative of the local teachers' association was included in planning activities. In both districts teachers were invited to attend activities which served the purpose of "testing of the water". The fact that teachers were not very involved in the initiation phase is consistent with the findings of Hood and Blackwell (1980) who reviewed several studies and concluded that teachers as a group are not responsible for most district-wide innovations which get initiated. Fullan (1982:65) takes the position that "teachers and single schools can bring about change without the support of central administration but district-wide change will not happen." It appears to be common practice that district initiatives come from central office down to the school setting. However, the literature indicates that there is value in involving teachers in the initiation phase (Berman and McLaughlin,, 1976; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Cuban, 1984; Purkey and Smith, 1985; and McDonnell, 1985). Fullan (1982:46) suggests that when teachers are involved during initiation "their interaction can be a very powerful source of influence on adoption and especially on use."

When the findings of the present study are considered in relation to the literature, it begs the question of how best to involve teachers. In both of these districts some teachers were included in the "testing of the waters" and one teacher was included in planning activities in District A. Given the support of teachers despite their minimal involvement it suggests that their involvement may have been adequate for this project. This confirms the DESSI (Crandall et al., 1982) finding that when an externally developed program that works is found, teacher involvement in the initiation phase is not essential.

10. <u>The history of staff development in each of the two districts appeared to play a part in the activities of initiation.</u> There appears to be agreement in the literature that the history of staff development has an effect on the initiation phase (Fullan, 1982; Berman, 1981; Sarason, 1971; Anderson, 1979; Griffin, 1982). Sarason (1971 219-22) suggests that:

> ...the importance of the district's history of innovation attempts can be stated in the form of a proposition: the more teachers or others have had negative experiences with previous implementation attempts in the district or elsewhere, the more cynical or apathetic they will be about the next change presented regardless

of the merit of the new idea or program.

Anderson et al. (1979) point out that as a result of past practices many teachers have come to view staff development as a useless waste of time. Fullan (1982) concludes that people carry meaning from one experience to another and the psychological history of change is a major determinant of how individuals respond to a change effort.

The findings in District A are clearly in accord with the literature. The district had a history of good staff development practices and prided themselves on their reputation as an innovator.

The findings in District B, however, were other than what would be expected given the finding reported in the literature. District B had a history of negative experiences with staff development programs yet they embraced the TET program with enthusiasm. This seemingly contradictory finding appears to be related, in part, to the arrival of a new assistant superintendent who initiated the project. Fullan (1982:169) indicates that "turnover can facilitate change, if it is used to bring in administrators and others favourable to and skilled in the change, and many districts do just that." This appears to have been the case in District B.

11. Gathering support for the initiative emerged as an important feature of the initiation phase in both districts. Support was sought from three sources: principals, teachers and the school board. The timing of the project's initiation appeared to be important to the gathering of support. The literature demonstrates a clear need for initiators of projects to gather the support of prospective users. Both internal and external support are reported as factors which contribute to successful implementation. Berman (1981) points out the complexities of gathering internal support because of the fact school districts are loosely coupled, as Weick (1976) noted. In keeping with Berman's position, Berman and McLaughlin (1976) conclude that innovations can be supported by district administrators independently of support from school staff, and vice versa. They contend, and Fullan (1982) agrees, that high levels of support from both district level and users of an innovation are necessary to successful innovations.

In the present study, the findings demonstrate that the gathering of support from school principals was seen to be a very important feature of the initiation phase. In both districts the initiators made a concerted effort to attain the support of principals. Initiators

verbalized their belief that successful implementation in the schools was dependent on the principals' support and involvement in the project. This belief is in accord wih the findings in the literature (Fullan 1982, 1985; Griffin 1983; Purkey and Smith 1985; McDonnell 1985). What is particularly interesting about the findings regarding principals' support is the fact that in both districts principals' involvement was essentially mandated. On the one hand, principals' support was acknowledged as being crucial to the success of the project and then, on the other hand, district officials took the risk of mandating their involvement.

Few studies report on how teacher support is gathered other than by including them in planning or adapting activities. In the present study neither of these strategies was used to any great extent. Teachers' support in both districts appears to have been related to the program content presented by credible external practitioners.

The findings of the present study confirm the literature on the importance of gaining support from the board for a district-wide project. Fullan (1982:45) points out that "it is the superintendent and central staff who combine access, internal authority and resources necessary to seek out external funds for a

particular change program and/or board support." While only internal funds were used in the two districts, the findings of the present study demonstrate that gathering of Board support was done by the superintendents and their senior staff. Little information about how they accomplished that task emerged from the present study. In District B, it was reported that board members were invited to attend initial program offerings and it was felt that that had a positive impact on their attitude toward the value of the program. As well, the fact that the program was research-based was used to "sell it to the board."

As discussed in chapter 5, the timing of the project's initiation appeared to facilitate the gathering of support. Little is reported in the literature on the impact of the timing of a program's initiation.

12. Planning during initiation appeared minimal in both districts. While few studies consider the planning function of the initiation phase, they all appear to agree that planning is a complex, non-linear and often non-natural process (Sarason, 1972; Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Miles et al., 1978; Berman, 1981; Elliott, 1985). Berman (1981:269) concludes that

"school district planning is extremely difficult to do well and inadequate as currently practiced." Miles et al. (1978), as quoted in Berman (1981:269), report that "many important decisions seemed to flash by in seconds...'rationality' turned out to include many non-rational features...political motives were implicit in much planner/implementer behaviour."

The present study finds few examples of long term planning and those which emerge appear to be related to getting the projects off the ground. For example, initiators' planning appears to be linked to initial implementation efforts as prospective users indicated enthusiasm during activities introduced to "testing the waters".

Neither district seemed to develop long-range plans for the project. Once the initiators had a sense that there was enthusiasm among prospective participants, they moved quickly toward implementation. In District A, a plan to involve all administrators in the first year was designed and criteria for participant attendance were set. In District B, the plan was to involve all principals, each with a teacher, during the initial implementation activity. This finding is in accord with Elliott (1985) who studied the implementation of a program in the hospital setting and

concludes that little planning took place between selection and implementation. She also concludes that the philosophy, goals and objectives of the program were not clarified prior to implementation.

It is unclear how much planning is most beneficial during initiation. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) take the position that the quality of planning is more important than the amount of time spent. By quality planning they mean establishing channels of communicaion with the target audiences and setting forth initial program goals and objectives with the assistance of a representative group of project participants. Further they argue for flexible, adaptive continuous planning throughout a project.

Neither district in the present study appeared to do a good job of communicating project goals and objectives during initiatives, particularly among teachers. This seeming weakness notwithstanding, both projects moved into implementation and achieved some success. This finding may suggest that once enthusiasm for the project is indicated it is important to move quickly to implement the program. To take time to develop long-range plans during initiation once participants are apprised of the initiative may result in loss of momentum or enthusiasm. Perhaps the

development of long-range plans during initiation must be undertaken before introducing the initiatives to the majority of participants.

13. Both projects were initiated and initially implemented by central office personnel. This approach is referred to in the literature as top-down. It seems important to acknowledge the debate current in the literature regarding the relative merits of the top-down approach versus the bottom-up (initiated at the school level) approach. However, it seems more relevant to this particular study to consider the literature on the top-down approach and compare that with what occurred in each of the two districts of the present study.

The literature clearly demonstrates that central office administrators must be actively involved (directly or indirectly) throughout a change initiative (Fullan, 1982, 1985; Cuban, 1984; Huberman and Miles, 1984; McDonnell, 1985; Hall, 1985). District staff are seen to play the role of scanners and adopters of promising new practices (Fullan, 1982, 1985; Crandall et al., 1983; Hall, 1985). Present practice suggests that few teacher-initiated projects evolve into large-scale district initiatives. Furthermore, several sources make

the point that schools are nested in the larger organization of the school district (Cuban, 1984; Purkey and Smith, 1985; McDonnell, 1985). This may suggest that central office personnel have a larger and more accurate picture of district needs and are in a better position to align district projects with district goals. McDonnell (1985) suggests this is particularly important in difficult times of fiscal restraint. Together, the findings of the present study lend support to the top-down approach.

Crandall et al. (1983), in the DESSI study, presented a particularly strong case for the use of the top-down approach where programs are well developed, validated, structured and focussed. They argue that district decision making combined with intense technical assistance can and does work under certain conditions. Huberman and Crandall (1983) put forth six suggestions based on their research and they were summarized by Fullan:

> First, invest selectively in preimplementation assistance. The biggest benefit appears to be material rather than much formal training at this stage;
>
> Second, expect, but try to limit, changes in the innovation. If the innovation has been well developed and proven, require fidelity at the early stages. These stages are always marked by difficulties

> during which both assistance (to facilitate mastery) and supervision (to keep users on track) are needed;
>
> Third, keep central office administration involved. Central office administrators deliver critical follow-up support and appear to keep principals busier ministering to the projects than would have happened otherwise;
>
> Fourth, invest more in later commitment of users rather than earlier commitment. People become committed as a result of involvement more than a prelude to it;
>
> Fifth, hire specialized external facilitators. Some external developers, or consultants, are needed as initial trainers; and
>
> Sixth, invest in local facilitators who appear to play a critical role in implementation (1985:406).

Given that the program chosen in the two school districts fits the description of programs best suited to the top-down approach (well developed, proven), the suggestion put forth by Huberman and Crandall will now be discussed in relation to what occurred in the two districts.

First, both districts appear to have been selective in preimplementation assistance.

Second, while Huberman and Crandall (1983) advocate maintaining fidelity, neither District A or B appear to have incorporated this suggestion. As demonstrated in chapters 5 and 6, the findings provided no indication

that the initiators considered whether to maintain fidelity or to encourage adaptation either by individuals or schools. The findings suggest that it was left to happenstance. Further, the initiators appeared only interested in getting the program "off the ground."

Third, in both districts, central administration remained involved throughout although, as previously described, some of their roles did change over time. While central office personnel did deliver some follow-up and support activities, as previously described, the roles played by central office staff appear to have been left up to them to determine. There did not seem to be much careful planning done regarding the specific role of central office personnel in the implementation plan. Again, it appears to have been left to happenstance. Huberman and Crandall (1983) suggest the benefits of district staff providing mini-courses on administrative features of the innovation and what it means for administrative support during implementation. No such support was provided in either district.

Fourth, Huberman and Crandall (1983) suggest investing more in later commitment of users rather than earlier commitment. They suggest that central office staff provide assistance and support. The aforementioned comments about the ad hoc role of central office staff apply here as well. In both districts, teachers' commitment appeared to be more closely linked with the quality and practicality of the program than with any assistance which was received. Where such assistance was received, the principal provided it.

Fifth, the suggestion to invest in external facilitators was incorporated in both districts.

Sixth, they both fell short of incorporating internal facilitators. District A chose not to and District B made an appointment that did not work out.

When the Huberman and Crandall (1983) model is compared with what occurred in the two districts, several discrepancies become obvious. The two major ones are the failure to make use of local people to provide follow-up assistance and the failure either to maintain fidelity or to encourage and support adaptation. While the two are interrelated, together they suggest that the initiators invested heavily in initiation and minimally in planning for and facilitating long-term implementation and continuation.

While both districts appeared to be following the DESSI approach closely during initiation, they clearly did not do so during implementation.

IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation phases of the two initiatives were presented in chapter 6. The analysis of the data led to a number of findings which are presented and discussed in relation to the literature.

14. <u>Most central office individuals assumed different roles during the implementation phase.</u>

a) The superintendent in District A assumed a supporting role whereas the superintendent in District B became an involved participant and active enthusiast for the project.

b) In District A, the management of the project was handed over to the local Teachers' Association. However, the two assistant superintendents in District B were reluctant to do that.

c) Central office personnel spent time supporting the project in the schools and coordinating activities.

The literature which reports on the phases of

change efforts indicates that there are different key players at different times during the project (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976, 1977; Berman, 1981; Fullan, 1982; Crandall et al., 1983; Hall, 1985). Berman and McLaughlin conclude the following:

> These three stages -- initiation, implementation, incorporation (continuation) -- involve somewhat different activities and decisions, and the significance of actors and issues also changes from one site to another (1976:350).

The findings of the present study reflect findings similar to those indicated in the quotation above.

Firstly, the two superintendents played very different roles during initiation and implementation. The details of these differences were discussed in chapter 6. The literature is limited in reporting what roles superintendents should play during the various phases.

Secondly, teachers assumed management of the program during implementation in District A where it was reported to be in keeping with traditional practice. There appeared to be no such tradition in District B and the management was retained by senior central office personnel. This suggests that differences in staff development histories may have accounted, in part, for the differences in approaches to program management. This appears to be an example of different contexts

requiring different strategies during the same phase of a change effort. However, Purkey and Smith discuss findings related to reluctance on the part of central office staff to decentralize as follows:

> ...senior administration and board members are not immune to jealousy and loss-of-control anxiety. If nothing else, their official and public accountability, the political pressure to produce results, and the career benefits gained by appearing to take charge may outweigh the ideas of school-site management, staff decision making and collaboration (1985:373).

The two assistant superintendents in District B were not even prepared to hand management over to another central office person, let alone the Teachers' Association, or the school site. In chapter 5 it was demonstrated that the selection of the program appeared to be driven, in part, by career motives thus lending support to Purkey and Smith's finding.

While the literature is again limited in terms of findings which indicate if one management strategy is better than the other, worthy of note are the findings of Grimmett et al. (1986). They conclude that despite the continued involvement of the two assistant superintendents, albeit well-intentioned, they were unable to monitor the process in a focussed way. Perhaps this suggests that the continued management was a larger task than they could handle. Further, while

the active involvement of the two assistant superintendents in District B appeared to have a positive effect on initiation, the findings suggest that their reluctance to let others assume management roles may have had a less positive role during implementation. This finding is consistent with Berman (1981) who concludes that the same factor could have different effects at different times or on different phases of the change process.

Thirdly, central office personnel other than the initiators assumed a more active role during implementation. Chapter 6 demonstrated that supervisors and coordinators took on the role of building awareness for the project in the schools and coordinating program related activities. Hall et al. make the following observation:

> It appears that the line administrators in the district office make the adoption decisions and then it is the staff persons who plan and facilitate implementation at the school level (1985:19).

The above findings parallel the findings of the present study. Hall et al. also make the point that staff persons, while expected to facilitate implementation in the school setting, have no formal authority. Further, they suggest that the task of facilitating change in schools is difficult without such authority. Moreover,

staff in central office often do not have adequate training in implementing change. This suggests that what line personnel expect staff personnel to do may be unrealistic. It also lends support to the suggestion that appropriate training for staff in central office might facilitate their role in the implementation of change.

15. Provincial economic conditions of fiscal restraint appear to have affected the program in District B. Berman and McLaughlin (1976:350) conclude that "economic, political, and organizational pressures and constraints may play major roles in determining the innovation's future."

The implementation phase in District B coincided with a downturn in the economy and brought with it an increased public demand for accountability from educators at the same time as the provincial government made drastic cuts in educational funding. This appears to have had an impact on the initiative in District B. The initiators of the project designed a 3-year implementation plan which included all schools, one third at a time, over 3 years. Consequently, some schools were not included in the initiative just at the time the enthusiasm for the project was at its peak. This resulted in some schools feeling resentful about

being left out. Moreover, the superintendent announced that administrators' career mobility would be dependent on their knowledge of and skills in the course content. This announcement further exacerbated the frustration felt by the principals whose schools were included in the last phase. Fullan (1985:411) makes the point that in cases where the plan is to start with a small number of schools it is undesirable to ignore altogether the nonusers in the process. He suggests that "if the first group comes to be seen or sees itself as an elite group of progressive innovators, it is bound to create resentment and barriers to spreading the innovation." This appears to be exactly what occurred in District B. While the implementors may well have been constrained in their ability to meet the needs of all the district schools at the same time, it seems they should have done something to reassure those who were included in the final phase. The present findings suggest that they did not.

16. <u>Breaking with traditional district administrators' staff development practices had a negative effect on early implementation efforts in District A.</u>

Griffin takes the following position:

> Staff development activities (should) be conceived of within an understanding of

> the prevailing policies and practices of an ongoing institution. Certain well-intentioned and, at least propositionally, sound staff development efforts are in line with these policies and practices and certain others are not. In the event of a conflict, it is reasonable to predict that the staff development proposals will meet opposition during implementation (1984:248).

In District A, the initiators designed an initial implementation plan which broke with prevailing practices. Firstly, administrators had never before had laid on them the "expectation" that they would attend the training sessions. Secondly, it was unusual that administrators and teachers would participate in the same staff development activity. Thirdly, previous practice had been to take part in short "one-shot" sessions whereas the new program consisted of six sessions over a number of weeks. As documented in chapter 6, this strategy resulted in a major uproar among administrators and quickly spread to teachers and eventually the provincial Teachers' Federation.

This finding in the present study leads to the conclusion that breaking with past practices may have serious implications for implementation efforts and needs to be given some consideration. In view of the literature which demonstrates that all change brings with it anxiety, concern and conflict, it seems reasonable to argue that change which requires dramatic

shifts away from traditional practices is likely to exacerbate concern and conflict among participants.

In District A, the opposition did not escalate to the point of derailing the project. A finding of Fullan's (1985) provides a plausible explanation for why the opposition did not have a more serious negative affect on the implementation efforts. He found that opposition can be turned around if the innovation has high quality (and) meets a need. As demonstrated in chapters 6 and 7, the participants considered the programs both of high quality and very practical.

17. <u>In District A, the decision was not to hire internal trainers. District B appointed an internal trainer but it proved to cause resistance during the implementation phase</u>. There appears to be agreement in the literature that external credible practitioners who are skillful in the program content facilitate implementation efforts (Louis et al., 1981; Joyce and Showers, 1981; Crandall et al., 1982; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Griffin, 1983; McDonnell, 1985), Further, the value of a combination of external trainers and internal trainers is also highly touted (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Huberman and Crandall, 1983).

In District A, they decided not to hire internal

trainers and in District B, acting on the advice of the external trainer, they did appoint a local trainer. However, the selection was based on expediency; the person had little credibility within the district and, as a consequence failed to facilitate the change efforts - in fact, his efforts were reported to have had a negative effect on the implementation efforts. The finding in District B suggests that the selection of internal trainers is an important one and that the credibility of the individual within the district is of the utmost importance.

Somewhat implicit in the aforementioned decisions in the two districts is the notion that others in the district could and would assume the role of providing follow-up. One of the assistant superintendents in District A said the decision not to hire a local trainer was based partially on the belief that all people in supervisory positions in the district should assume that role. In schools where principals were very involved in the project and did provide follow-up activities to the program, the implementation efforts were, indeed, successful. However, several of the respondents identified the lack of follow-up as a major weakness in the implementation strategy.

These findings suggest that the two districts

failed to take into account the available research on the effectiveness of follow-up activities and, in so doing, perhaps missed an opportunity to maximize the potential of their change efforts.

18. External credible practitioners were used in both districts throughout implementation and appeared to contribute to the enthusiasm shown for the program by participants. The value of the external credible practitioner is well documented in the literature (Louis et al., 1981; Crandall et al., 1982; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Griffin, 1983; McDonnell, 1985).

As in initiation, the present study found the external trainer to be a powerful positive factor influencing the implementation efforts. The external trainers were identified by respondents in both districts as having a positive effect on the implementation.

These findings are clearly congruent with the literature and suggest that, when districts choose externally developed programs, serious consideration should be given to involving external trainers who are well qualified in the program content and are credible with district personnel.

19. Teachers and principals continued throughout implementation to react enthusiastically to the program content which, in turn, appears to have facilitated implementation efforts. Fullan takes the following position:

> The ability of districts to implement a new program depends on the project's overall quality, its complexity, the practicality and relevance of the related materials... (1982:62).

Berman (1981) emphasizes the need for an innovation to be compatible with the institutional setting. Fullan makes two other relevant points:

> For implementation to gain momentum, teachers and others must experience some sense of meaning and practicality relatively early in the process of attempting change (1982:62).

> Teachers want, need and benefit from tangible, relevant program materials which have been produced and tested in real classroom situations (1982:60).

The findings reported in chapter 6 demonstrate that the participants' reactions to the program content appears to have fostered implementation efforts. Participants' overwhelming positive reaction to the content contributed to the selection during initiation, and it continued to be a factor which facilitated the implementation efforts.

The program which was chosen in the two districts comprised two components: supervision and instructional

skills. Respondents in the present study, both administrators and teachers, reported that they found the content was relevant and had practical application to supervision and classroom teaching respectively.

These findings corroborate those of Fullan (1982) and Berman (1981) and demonstrate the positive impact that a program, deemed to be relevant and practical by participants, can have on implementation efforts. Participants' reactions to program content appears to have been a factor which facilitated the change effort.

20. Principals became a very important factor during the implementation phase. The more actively involved they were, the more things appeared to happen in their schools. The research literature is replete with evidence that emphasizes the signifiant role played by principals in the implementation of innovations at the school level (Reinhard et al., 1980; Rosenblum and Jastrzab, 1980; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Hall, 1982; Berman and Gjelen, 1982; Bossert et al., 1982; Crandall et al., 1983; Hall et al., 1983; Cuban, 1984; McDonnell, 1985; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986). Hall et al. conclude that:

> In schools where implementation of new programs is most successful, principals take an active role in helping teachers with technology or techniques of new instruction. In those schools where principals are less involved, implementation is less successful (1985:36).

The findings of the present study are in complete accord with Hall. Grimmett et al. (1986) conducted a study in District B and describe in detail the successful implementation of the program in a school where the principal played a key facilitator role. There are similar findings in a few schools in District A.

These findings lend support to studies that have concluded that follow-up or "on-site coaching" enhance the learning of new skills. Further, the above reported findings of the present study also lend support to the argument that principals can effectively execute the role of instructional leaders in their schools.

However, McDonnell points out that:

> Principals are expected to be both expert managers and instructional leaders. Yet they are provided with few resources to accomplish this demanding task (1985:435).

By resources, she means good staff development relevant to the role of a school principal. Several other authors (Hall, 1982; Griffin, 1983; Cuban, 1984; Fullan, 1985) are also critical of the districts' expectations

for principals to play a leadership role in district change efforts, on the one hand, and failure to provide appropriate staff development, on the other.

The findings of the present study suggest this criticism can be made of central office initiators in both Districts A and B. While the principals were included in the skills training in both districts, effectively implementing change at the school level requires a whole other set of skills. It appears that such staff development was not available in either district. It seems reasonable to conclude that had such training been provided for principals, more widespread implementation might have resulted.

CONTINUATION IN DISTRICT A

The literature is limited in reporting on the continuation phase of an initiative. Fullan (1982) suggests that the factors which affect implementation also affect continuation. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) take the same position. Purkey and Smith report the following six factors which they found to be barriers to continuation:

1. Implementation failure
2. Union opposition and administrative resistance
3. Unclear or contradictory goals
4. Lack of central office and board of education support
5. Lack of resources

6. Absence of shared decision making. (1985:384)

Given that the ITIP initiative in District A did continue ten years after the early initiation activities, the data of the present study allow for the reporting of some findings regarding the continuation phase. Findings related to the continuation phase in District A are presented and discussed in relation to the literature.

21. Central office personnel were still taking an interest in the project during continuation. The literature indicates that central office involvement is required throughout the project in order for continuation to be achieved. While the management of the program was clearly in the hands of the Teachers' Association during continuation, central office support appears to have been maintained. As demonstrated in chapter 7, central office personnel took pride in the project. This pride was evident in a presentation made by one of the assistant superintendents to the B.C. School Trustees' Association during continuation. Further, the present study was conducted during the continuation phase and central office personnel clearly demonstrated an ongoing interest and pride in the

overall project. In the words of one central office respondent who was expressing his perception of the project's success:

> Seven years for one project to continue is a long time [5:6].

22. Some principals were actively pursuing project-related activities during continuation. The literature reports that the role of the school principal continues to be a factor which contributes to or detracts from continuation (Fullan, 1982, 1985; Griffin, 1983; Crandall et al., 1983; Purkey and Smith, 1985; McDonnell, 1985). Purkey and Smith (1985) identify administrative resistance as a barrier to continuation. Berman (1981) takes the position that programs display considerable variability from one institutional setting to another.

The findings in the present study are clearly in agreement with the aforementioned literature. As demonstrated in chapter 7, ITIP-related activities continued in some schools and the extent to which they continued was determined largely by the role played by the principal. Again, this finding highlights the facilitative role of the school principal in a change initiative and underscores the advantage to districts of having principals trained in the administration of

change. Further, by providing such training and making the principal's role in a change effort explicit rather than implicit or leaving it to chance, it appears districts might accomplish more widespread success.

23. The local Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee continued to offer the program in response to expressed interest. During continuation, as during implementation, the Teachers' Association was committed to offering the course as long as teachers indicated an interest. They lacked a plan to achieve specific goals and simply reacted to expressed interest -- not unlike what appeared to be the approach taken while the management was under the direction of central office personnel. While central office did have a goal with respect to administrators (they expected they would all take part) they did not appear to have a plan for teachers.

This finding further suggests that the planning throughout implementation and continuation was reactive rather than proactive. Perhaps with an initial long-range plan the district may have achieved more widespread success.

Further, the fact that the Teachers' Association continued to manage the program is in accord with Purkey

and Smith's (1985) finding that union (Teachers' Association) support facilitates continuation.

24. External trainers were no longer used. Under teacher management, a local teacher provided the training. The literature is strong in its support for the use of local trainers (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976, 1977; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Crandall et al., 1983; McDonnell, 1985). Berman and McLaughlin (1976) report that teachers preferred local trainers and that outside technical experts performing a similar consulting role were ineffective and disappointing. Crandall et al. (1983) and McDonnell (1985) found that external credible practitioners did facilitate initiation. Implementation of projects which were most successful combined the use of external and internal trainers. This combined strategy -- external trainers at the outset and internal trainers later in the initiative -- was what they concluded to be the best approach.

While the management of the program was in the hands of central office the decision was not to appoint a district trainer. However, once the program was managed by the Teachers' Association, they did choose to use a local teacher to do the training. If informal participant course evaluations are accepted as an

indicator of success, the strategy of using a local teacher was successful to a degree in District A.

It should be noted, however, that the literature advocates that local trainers be used to provide follow-up to course content. This did not occur in District A; in fact, by this stage of the initiative the course was offered after school time. In order for follow-up to occur in the classroom, district support would appear to have been necessary. This finding seems to underscore the fact that the district still did not support the concept of follow-up in the classroom.

25. <u>During the continuation phase, the program had been modified/synthesized</u>. Berman (1981) contends that projects change over time within sites. Berman and McLaughlin (1976, 1977, 1978) are advocates of mutual adaptation, whereby the program and the institutional setting change to accommodate one another. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) discuss the advantages of this when it takes place at the school level and is aligned with school goals.

What occurred in District A was somewhat different. The adaptations referred to in the above statement reflect changes determined by the internal trainer who was constrained by time.

26. <u>During continuation the program was no longer the major professional development thrust in the district</u>. As evidenced in district documents on professional development, the ITIP program during continuation had lost its former status as the major thrust. A number of other topics were being advertised as available staff development activities.

OUTCOMES IN BOTH DISTRICTS

The reported outcomes represent the perceptions of respondents and are in keeping with a measure of the effectiveness of a project's implementation which Berman and McLaughlin (1976:350) define as "the type and extent of change in teacher and administrator behaviour as perceived by participants." The outcomes need to be viewed with caution in that the study sample consisted of individuals who were identified as "key influentials" in the project.

Although the process from initiation through implementation was somewhat different in the two districts, the perceived outcomes reported by respondents were very similar. These outcomes were reported and discussed in chapter 7 and the following statements can be made about outcomes.

27. Teachers reported mainly positive outcomes as a result of their involvement in the initiative. Four statements can be made about the perceptions of teachers regarding the outcomes of the initiatives in the two districts:

a) Teachers reported that as a result of taking part in the course they had noted improvements in teaching practices, personal and professional confidence, student performance, collegiality;

b) Teachers reported that the initiative had provided a good base upon which to add other staff development;

c) Teacher respondents reported that some teachers felt pressured to take the course; and

d) Teachers in District B reported that the political climate had impeded the project.

28. Principals also reported mainly positive outcomes but they were somewhat different from those reported by teachers. Four statements can also be made about the perceptions of principals regarding the outcomes of the initiatives in the two districts:

a) Principals reported that as a result of taking part in the course they had noted improvements in supervisory practices, report writing, teaching practices, collegiality/school climate, student performance;

b) Principals reported that the initiative had provided a good base upon which to add other staff development;

c) Some principals reported feeling pressured to take part; and

d) Some principals in District B felt left behind as a result of not being included in the first years of the implementation plan.

29. Central office personnel reported both positive and negative outcomes and their view of the project appeared somewhat different from both teachers and principals. Four statements can be made about the perceptions of central office personnel regarding the outcomes of the initiatives in the two districts:

a) Central office personnel reported that as a result of initiating the project, improvements had occurred in supervisory practices, report writing (in District A), teaching practices, communication among colleagues;

b) Central office personnel reported that the overall change effort had been successful;

c) In District B, it was reported that the three year plan resulted in insecurity in those not included until the final phase; and

d) Also in District B, fiscal restraint was reported to have affected the implementation efforts.

In summary, the perceived outcomes reported by the respondents support the conclusion that the project was successful in both districts -- to the extent that changes were perceived to have occurred by some participants in areas which were originally targeted for change.

Not surprisingly, individuals in the three

different levels of the organization reported project outcomes which indicated slightly different perspectives. For example, teachers reported outcomes specific to teaching practices, student performance, personal benefits and professional relationships. None of the teachers reported as a positive outcome, improvements perceived in administrators' supervisory practices. This finding may suggest that teachers never did view the project as one for both teachers and administrators. As demonstrated in chapters 5 and 6, teachers were never very clear about why the project was initiated. Fullan suggests that:

> The extent to which proposals for change are defined according to only one person's or one group's reality (e.g. policy makers or administrators) is the extent to which they will encounter problems in implementation (1982:29).

While there did not appear to be too many insurmountable problems during implementation, the aforementioned point may suggest that if teachers had a more holistic perspective on the project they may well have seen the program as having contributed to improvements in supervision skills as well. While this is highly speculative, there were comments made by teachers about the supervisory component of the program and the positive effect it had on the supervision process. The

point is, they did not mention that when they reported outcomes. This finding highlights a criticism of the overall project which was a lack of clarity of program goals among teachers.

A final comment regarding differences in perspectives is related to central office. While they did reiterate some of the outcomes reported by teachers and administrators, they did not refer to student performance and they did add that they felt the overall change attempt had been successful. Interestingly, the district office staff reported feeling that they had been successful because schools still wanted the program. This finding appears related to a finding of Hall et al. (1985:17) who reports that "district staff feel successful when they see teachers doing things they have suggested."

Although the process from initiation through implementation was somewhat different in the two districts, the perceived outcomes reported by respondents were very similar across sites. On the one hand, that might have been anticipated given the program content was the same. On the other hand, it may suggest that context affects process more than reported outcomes.

THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY COMPARED WITH FULLAN AND GRIFFIN

In this chapter, the major findings of the study have been presented and discussed in relation to current literature. It is now important to reconsider the findings in relation to the Fullan-Griffin framework (see Table 1B) portrayed in chapter 2. The relationship between this study and the framework is illustrated in Table 21. The table demonstrates two things: (1) the interrelationship between Fullan and Griffin, and (2) the findings of the present study as they relate to Fullan and Griffin.

In Table 21, Fullan's factors are listed down the middle of the page. On the left, next to each factor, there is a box. As indicated at the bottom of the table, there are four types of boxes: (1) a shadowed box which represents a match between Fullan's factors and Griffin's aspects; (2) a shadowed box with a number(s) in it which represent(s) a match between Fullan and Griffin and a major finding(s) of the present study; (3) a plain box with a number(s) in it which represent(s) a match between Fullan and the present study; and (4) a plain box which represents a factor of Fullan which is not matched by Griffin or the present study.

Table 21

The Findings of the Present Study Compared with Fullan and Griffin

Findings of Present Study	Fullan's Factors Associated with Change
	Initiation/Adoption:
8	1. Existence and quality of innovations
4	2. Access to information
1,13	3. Advocacy of central administrators
11,19	4. Teacher/pressure support
3	5. Consultants and change agents
15	6. Community pressure/support/apathy/opposition
	7. Availability of federal or other funds
	8. New central legislation or policy (federal/state, province)
2	9. Problem-solving incentives for adoption
2	10. Bureaucratic incentives for adoption
	Implementation:
	A. Characteristics of the change
2	1. Needs and relevance of the change
5,6,7	2. Clarity
8	3. Complexity
19	4. Quality and practicality of programs
	B. Characteristics at the School District Level
10,16	5. The history of innovative attempts
16,13	6. The adoption process
13,14	7. Central administrative support and involvement
17,18,19	8. Staff development (in-service) and participation
20,13,14	9. Time-line and information system (evaluation)
	10. Board and community characteristics
	C. Characteristics at the School Level
19,20	11. The principal
20	12. Teacher-teacher relations
19	13. Teacher characteristics and orientations
	D. Characteristics External to the Local System
15	14. Role of government
18	15. External assistance
	Continuation:
23,24	1. High level of local interest
	2. Ability to fund at the local level
21	3. High level of central office and support
22	4. Active and continued involvement of principals

Key:

	Indicates overlap between Fullan (1982) and Griffin (1983)
8	Indicates number of major finding of present study which relates to Fullan and Griffin
6	Indicates overlap between Fullan (1982) and present study
	Indicates no relationship between present study and Fullan or Griffin and Fullan

When the factors listed in the framework are compared with the twenty-nine findings of the present study, three categories emerge: (1) factors listed in the framework which do not relate to any of the major findings of the present study, (2) factors listed in the framework which are in accord with major findings of the present study, and (3) findings of the present study which are different from or add to factors represented in the table.

First, there are four factors included in the framework which do not relate to any findings of the present study (see boxes without numbers): (1) federal or other funds; (2) new legislation; (3) board characteristics; and (4) the ability to fund at the local level. Neither federal funds nor new legislation were factors which had an impact on the initiatives reported in the present study. Both districts funded the project locally and selection decisions were not driven by new legislation.

While both district initiatives were funded and supported by the School Boards, neither of these two factors emerged in the present study as a major finding which appeared to play a significant role in the change efforts. Perhaps it could be argued that without such moral support from the boards and without local funding

neither initiative could have been put into place, but it seems that both the support and funding were the direct result of strong administrative leadership. In fact, such leadership did emerge as a major finding of the study. Clearly administrative leadership contributed to the change attempts in both districts and is linked to several of the factors represented in Table 21.

Second, twenty-one of twenty-nine findings of the present study relate to the factors listed in Table 21. A number of the findings of the present study can be seen to cluster around two areas: (1) leadership by administrative personnel; and (2) active support by participants. There are eight findings of the present study that relate to leadership (1, 11, 13, 14, 19, 20, 21, 22) and eight that relate to participant support (11, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24). All of the findings in these two clusters are matched with factors listed in Table 21. Both Fullan and Griffin emphasize the significance of leadership in a change initiative and, as predicted in chapter 2, it did emerge as a major factor in the present study. (No similar prediction was made in chapter 2 about participant support.)

While the findings related to leadership and active support by participants are the only findings that

cluster, it can be seen in Table 21 that many other findings of the present study corroborate other factors identified by Fullan and Griffin. Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the findings of the present study support the current literature to a large extent.

Third, in addition to the major findings of the present study which support current literature and are represented by numbers in Table 21, there are some which go beyond current literature and are thus of considerable interest. These findings fall into four categories: (1) selection; (2) after selection (process issues); (3) personnel; and (4) context. The new findings are presented and discussed in chapter 9.

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter comprises three sections. Section one is a summary of the study. The second section presents a set of concluding statements derived from the twenty-nine findings discussed in the previous chapter. Recommendations are presented in the final section.

SUMMARY

This study explored, described and attempted to explain the process of change in two school districts in British Columbia. The study sought to determine why and how the two school districts selected and put into place the same staff development program.

The data were collected in the Fall of 1984. The researcher interviewed thirty-two individuals who represented three levels of school district personnel: central office personnel, school administrators and classroom teachers. The respondents were chosen because they had been involved in the district initiatives from the early stages; thus they constituted a select group

of knowledgeable informants. The thirty-two individuals were asked to describe what happened as their district moved through the various phases of initiating the staff development program. In addition to interview transcripts, district documents and researcher's field notes were the data sources for the study.

Descriptions of the three phases of the change process were presented in chapters 5 through 7. Additional analyses consisted of comparing and interpreting the data overall. A set of findings emerged from this overall analysis, and was presented and discussed in relation to the current literature. What follows is a summary of those findings.

The findings are numbered sequentially and grouped so that those concerning initiation appear first (findings 1-13); those concerning implementation appear second (findings 14-20); those findings related to continuation in District A are third (findings 21-26); and those related to outcomes in both districts are fourth (findings 27-29). Findings which add to current literature and are discussed in this chapter are marked with an asterisk (*).

Findings Related to Initiation

1. In both school districts senior central office personnel were actively involved in the

initiation phase.

*2. The motivating factors behind the selection were different in the two districts: problem solving in one and growth and career motives in the other. The popularity of the program elsewhere also played a role in the selection decision.

3. External, credible practioners were used to "test the waters" in both districts and appear to have facilitated the gathering of support from prospective participants.

4. The fact that the program claimed to be research-based appeared to be a factor in its selection.

*5. Teacher and principal respondents differed in their perceptions of who selected the programs in the two districts. Teachers appeared less well informed than principals.

*6. Teachers and principals differed in their perceptions of why the program was selected.

*7. Teachers and principals, while both part of the target audience, did not seem to share a common view of the project.

8. An externally developed, well established program was chosen in both districts at slightly different times. The program was not adapted to meet local needs in either district.

9. Minimal teacher involvement occurred in both districts during initiation.

*10. The history of staff development in each of the two districts appeared to play a part in the activities of initiation.

*11. Gathering support for the initiative emerged as an important feature of the initiation phase in both districts. The timing of the project's initiation appeared to facilitate support gathering.

12. Planning during initiation appeared minimal in both districts.

*13. Both projects were initiated and initially implemented by central office personnel.

Findings Related to Implementation

*14. Most central office individuals assumed different roles during the implementation phase.

*15. Provincial economic conditions of fiscal restraint appeared to affect the program in District B.

*16. Breaking with traditional district administrators' staff development practices had a negative effect on early implementation efforts in District A.

*17. In District A, it was decided not to hire (appoint) internal trainers. In District B, it was decided to appoint an internal trainer but it proved to cause resistance during the implementation phase.

18. External, credible practitioners were used in both districts throughout implementation and they appeared to contribute to the enthusiasm expressed by the participants.

19. Teachers and principals continued throughout implementation to react enthusiastically to the program content which appeared to facilitate implementation efforts.

20. Principals emerged as a very important factor during implementation. The more actively involved they were, the more things appeared to happen in their schools.

Findings Related to Continuation in District A

21. Central office personnel were still taking an interest in the project during continuation.

22. Some principals were actively pursuing project-related activities during continuation.

23. The local Teachers' Association Professional Development Committee continued to offer the program in response to expressed interest.

24. External trainers were no longer used. Under teacher management, a local teacher provided the training.

25. During the continuation phase, the program was modified/synthesized.

26. The initiative was no longer the major professional development thrust in the district.

Findings Related to Perceived Outcomes in Both Districts

27. Teachers reported mainly positive outcomes resulted from the initiatives. They reported improvements in teaching performance, personal and professional confidence, student performance, collegiality and professional development. They reported a few negative outcomes which included principals' reports of teachers and feeling pressured.

28. Principals also reported mainly positive outcomes but they were somewhat different from those reported by teachers. They reported improvements in supervisory practices, report writing, teaching performance, student performance, school climate and professional development. In District B, principals reported two negative outcomes: feeling pressured and feeling left behind.

29. Central office personnel reported both positive and negative outcomes and their perspective was different from teachers and administrators. The central office personnel reported positive outcomes in supervisory practices, report writing, teaching performance, communication and the overall change effort. They also reported negative outcomes which included the insecurity of those not included at the outset, misuse of the program by a few principals and the impact of fiscal restraint.

CONCLUSIONS

As noted in chapter 8, most of these findings corroborate those of other studies reported in the literature. Reflections on them, however, suggest the possibility of relationships which either are not accounted for in the literature or which extend current thinking. In order to explore these, it is useful to rework the order which the findings have been presented up to now.

While Fullan's (1982) three phases provided a useful structure for the presentation of the data and the findings, they are less useful in facilitating discussion of the conclusions. Neither do the two operational research questions of this study provide exactly the right framework for the discussion needed because some of the study's findings go beyond what is expected from the existing literature. What follows then, deals first with two aspects of selection; second, with the process after selection; third, with personnel; and fourth, with features of context.

Accounting for Selection

The reasons school districts select staff development programs were of major interest in the study. It sought to determine whether program

selections are based on a careful assessment of needs or whether selection is made because the programs are fashionable or for some other reasons. Current literature is extremely limited in providing answers to the question. The findings in this study lead to the conclusion that the answer is complex. The data suggest that all three components (need, fashion and other) played a part in the selection decision in both districts. The study also showed the importance in the selection decision of strategic support gathering and how this is easier when a popular theme is chosen.

Needs, fads or ? In District A, there was clearly a need which had been identified. As described in chapter 4, the superintendent had determined that administrators needed to improve both supervision and report writing skills. Moreover, District A had a well established reputation of being innovative. It appears clear from the data that it was important to maintain that status. It seems reasonable to argue that the most suitable program in District A would be one which not only addressed the need, but also did so in an innovative way. The ITIP program addressed both. First, the content focussed, in part, on supervision and at the time of selection, a fashionable theme in the

educational community.

In District B, as described in chapter 4, the selection appeared to be linked personally to the new assistant superintendent and to the Board goal to implement professional development for all the District's personnel. While the School Board created a need, the responsibility for addressing that need was felt most strongly by the newly-appointed assistant superintendent. He both wanted and needed to initiate a professional development program soon after his arrival in District B. It is in this way that career motives appear to have played a major role in the selection decision. The new assistant superintendent moved quickly to select a program he knew had been very successful in other districts. Thus, in District B, the selection appears to have been based on three factors: (1) it served career motives, (2) it addressed a Board goal, and (3) it was currently popular elsewhere.

Support and popularity of themes. It has been demonstrated that an essential factor leading to program adoption is the amount of support which can be gathered for the initiative both from the School Board and prospective users. While it seems reasonable to conclude that establishing that the program meets a

district need is one way which support can be attained, it also seems reasonable to take the position that the popularity of the program in other jurisdictions is also a factor which may contribute to supportive attitudes among both board members and prospective users.

Why programs are popular at any given time is a question this study does not address, but common sense and past practice indicate that staff development programs often reflect themes current in public attitudes and interests in education. As discussed in chapter 2, during the mid-1800's "schools were viewed favourably by the general public and there was little conflict over their mission as guardians of existing social, cultural and occupational norms" (Howey and Vaughan, 1983). After the depression in the 1930's, the political and social views of the public became diversified and had an impact on the way the public viewed schools, thereby creating conflict about the schools' "mission". Since that time, staff development programs have attempted to respond to current public interests but the task has been difficult given the diversity among public views. This may, in part, account for the wide range of themes which are reflected in staff development programs over time.

In fact, this study illustrates an interesting

example of how one program (ITIP) in two school districts, took on three different themes over time. Throughout ten years, while the same content was used, the program was referred to in three different ways, each time reflecting a currently popular theme in education: "supervision", "teacher effectiveness" and "peer coaching."

In District A the initial theme or image for the program was related to supervision. When the program management was handed over to teachers, the theme appeared to evolve into one of teachers working with teachers to enhance teacher effectiveness. In fact, when the present study was conducted in 1984, the initiative was referred to as a teacher effectiveness program. The theme evolution in District A is illustrated in Figure 2:

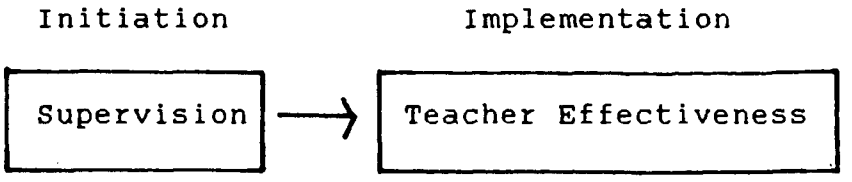


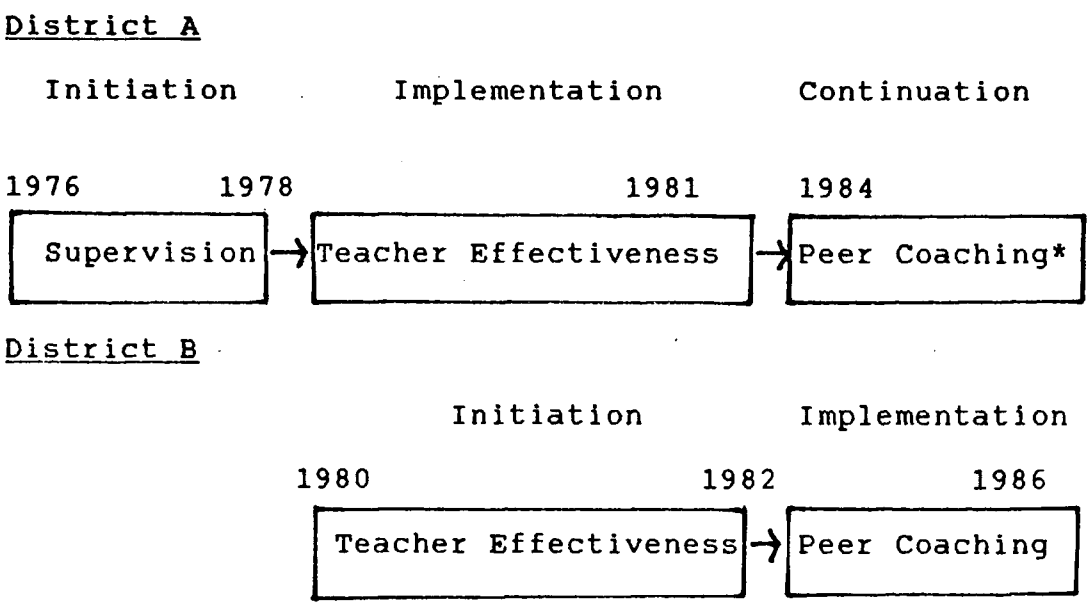
Figure 2: Theme Evolution in District A

In District B, the initial program theme was teacher effectiveness. Moving into the implementation phase, the emphasis appeared to take on a peer coaching theme. A study of this initiative, conducted by Grimmett et al.(1984-85), was entitled A Study of a District-Level Initiative to Establish a Network for Peer Coaching Among Principals and Teachers. The theme evolution which occurred in District B is illustrated in Figure 3:

Initiation		Implementation
Teacher Effectiveness	→	Peer Coaching

Figure 3: Theme Evolution in District B

When the two illustrations are considered together in relation to a time continuum an interesting feature emerges:



* This represents the theme of a program proposal made by 3 principals in District A in 1984.

Figure 4: Theme Evolution in Both Districts A and B

The foregoing figures indicate that over time different themes were emphasized for the same programs and that the same themes were chosen in both districts during similar time frames. This finding suggests that while themes change over time, certain programs (e.g. ITIP) do not. In other words, programs are labelled differently to adapt to current themes without changing the actual content. While districts' commitment to programs appears to be unbending, adopting the rhetoric so essential for gathering support to fit current "fads"

appears common. Selection of a theme (as a means of justification) rather than of program per se appears then to be time-bound and related to current trends.

The findings in the present study do not indicate whether the changes in theme emphasis were deliberate or whether they simply evolved. However, the finding does support the contention that program themes reflect current educational trends or "fads". It seems reasonable to take the position that "supervision," "teacher effectiveness" and "peer coaching" represent educational trends which have been popular at different times over the past ten years.

Berman refers to a feature of a change initiative which he calls "policy image development". He defines it in the following way:

> The decisions to adopt an innovation, to seek funds to innovate, and all associated activities which define what a school district intends to do and communicates these intentions to various audiences, both external and internal to the District (1981:269).

It can be argued that a program theme defines, in part, the intentions of the initiatives and also communicates those intentions to audiences. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude that the program theme is a component of a "policy image" as defined by Berman. Further, it seems reasonable to conclude that program

themes, as part of policy image development, may well be an important factor which contributes to gathering the necessary support for an initiative. For example, a policy image reflecting an innovative theme would likely be well received by the Board and prospective participants in a district, such as District A, that prided itself on being innovative. Further, in District B, a policy image program reflecting a theme of teacher effectiveness in 1980 in British Columbia would have been politically popular and as such likely to have been well received. Nelson and Sieber (1976) conclude that the publicity value of innovations and faddism were major reasons for adoption. Moreover, Fullan (1982) makes the point that this aspect of an initiative can be very important during initiation.

Gathering initial support and maintaining it over the life of a project has been demonstrated to be an important feature of implementing a change effort. Rogers and Eveland (1977) took the position that policy image evolves and develops throughout the life of a specific project. The image of the initiatives in both Districts A and B changed over time and this may well have been related to the gathering of support and maintaining of interest in the project. There is criticism in the literature that staff development

programs too often respond to "fads" and do not reflect locally assessed educational needs. However, the history of staff development indicates that changes in public expectations cause educators to review the goals of the education system. Educational innovations are then developed to address these revised goals. In many instances, responses to current trends or "fads" may, in fact, be attempts to address locally articulated political needs. (Whether this redresses the criticism of programs not reflecting locally assessed educational needs is a moot point.) Purkey and Smith make the following point:

> In the real and politicized world of public education, boards of education and superintendents must respond to interests other than those expressed by school staffs (1985:374).

For example, during times of fiscal restraint, when there is tremendous competition for expenditures on public services, such as education, there is often a demand for increased accountability. In education this could be translated into better supervision of teachers. This was true of the early 1980's, and so a program designed to improve supervision and teacher effectiveness was indeed timely.

This study indicates that selecting a theme which reflected a current educational trend may well have

contributed to support gathering -- an essential component of program adoption.

Themes come and go according to the political agendas that staff development has to address in a highly politicized endeavour like education. Because they are time-bound, themes tend to be seen as "fads" by resisters and as "trends" by adopters. Since districts are largely adopters, trends are latched onto and translated into themes which serve as the political and educational justification for adopting an externally developed program. Themes, as distinct from programs, appear to be translated to meet locally articulated need; programs remain constant over time.

After Selection: Process Issues

Three items are seen to be worthy of discussion for what they reveal about the relationship between the literature on change processes and the findings of the present study. These are: (1) timing, (2) conflict, (3) central office involvement.

The importance of timing. The literature is very limited in reporting findings related to the importance of the timing of an innovation. However, timing emerges as a theme so frequently in the present study that it

seems important.

Based on the present findings, it seems reasonable to conclude that the timing of the initiation of a project may have considerable impact on whether or not it will be accepted. The factor of timing also appears to be related to support gathering.

Rogers and Smith (1971) indicate that compatibility, referring to the fit of the innovation within the adopting organization, is an important attribute of an innovation being considered for adoption. Berman (1981) takes the position that compatibility is not an intrinsic property of an innovation but rather depends on the match between the innovation and the context at the time it is introduced.

The present study is consistent with Berman's position but appears to go beyond it. He emphasizes the strong link between the timing of a project's initiation and its compatibility. This study found, however, that timing was a key factor in the gathering of enthusiastic participant support.

Several quotations which are illustrative of how timing was perceived by many to be a key factor which influenced the enthusiastic support among participants of the initiatives were presented in chapter 5 (p. 132). An assistant superintendent took the position that the

"time for doing these things (is) when the iron is hot" [2:7]. Another respondent, a principal in District A, made a similar comment as illustrated in the quotation below:

> Things have their time, too. In retrospect, I have the feeling that if you tried, certainly now with our current difficulties and morale, for instance in the district, is incredibly low compared to then. If you tried to come along and sell ITIP now on a district basis, I think it would be a dead duck in no time. That's my feeling. It was right for the time [12:9].

In fact, in 1984 three schools submitted a proposal to have Carol Cummings return to District A to do training in peer coaching. While the idea was supported by central office, the teachers in the three schools did not support it and it did not proceed.

This finding suggests that districts are unique and perhaps helps to explain why the same program is successful in one district and not in another at the same time or why districts can be observed to introduce the same program at very different times in the history of the district. For example, the Vancouver School District introduced the ITIP program, now reflecting the theme of "Elements of Instruction," in 1985 -- nine years after District A introduced its initiative.

This finding further highlights the efficacy of "testing the waters" during the initiation phase to

determine whether or not the time is right for any particular program in a given district.

Further, the finding lends itself to some speculation. Perhaps it explains why provincially imposed programs are typically successful in some districts and unsuccessful in others. Districts appear to have different stages of readiness for programs. Moreover, it may also suggest that if program initiators are unable to gather sufficient support for a project at a specific time in the history of the district it may not mean it will never be supported. In fact, the events of District B provide support for this speculation in the sense that ITIP failed initially yet under the guise of TET and the leadership of a different initiator it was adopted.

A relative absence of reported conflict. It is interesting that the present study found very little conflict was reported in the two district initiatives. It seems reasonable to speculate that the lack of evidence of much conflict may be attributed to two factors. One is the fact that the sample of the present study included a select group -- all thirty-two respondents were initiators or keen advocates of the program. This may, in part, account for less reported

conflict than may have otherwise been the case. Secondly, the initiative in District B coincided with difficult economic and political times. Perhaps individuals were not inclined to become embroiled in internal conflict at a time when external attitudes toward educators were so negative. Or perhaps, individuals' sense of job security was so fragile that they did not feel confident to speak out against a large scale district initiative. For whatever reason, few examples of conflict were in evidence in the findings of the present study. One major conflict did occur in District A, however, and it is worthy of discussion.

Once the program was selected in District A, planning for implementation occurred. While some principals were involved in the planning activities, the plan incorporated an expectation on the part of senior central office personnel that all principals would participate in the training. This plan constituted a major shift from traditional principals' staff development practices. It resulted in "a major uproar" among some school administrators and quickly spread to teachers and eventually involved the provincial Teachers' Federation. It seems reasonable to conclude that it was the dramatic shift from the norm which was the root of the conflict. This reaction was predicted

in chapter 5.

It is interesting to note that the resolution of the conflict was not to revert to traditional norms. While there was a district meeting at which individuals were invited to speak to their concerns, a number of respondents reported that the conflict merely dissipated over time. In fact, the first course which was offered about the same time as the conflict occurred was over-subscribed. Further, by the end of the first year, all administrators had complied with the expectation that they would participate. One way of interpreting the event is that the growing wave of enthusiasm for the course among participants overrode the concern for a shift in staff development practices. Further, the district prided itself on being innovative. Perhaps the district's inclination to maintain its innovative status was such that administrators who had career aspirations could no longer continue to resist the change.

Central office involvement. Both districts initially employed a top-down approach in their initiatives. As demonstrated in chapter 8 (pp 267-270), what occurred during initiation was closely aligned with what is advocated in the DESSI study findings. While the DESSI model was followed during initiation it

appears to have been abandoned during implementation. There is no evidence about whether these were conscious decisions or whether they just happened. This limitation notwithstanding, the finding does lend itself to some interesting speculation.

It appears that senior central office initiators were more interested in getting the programs started than in planning for and facilitating implementation and continuation. The data provide evidence that initiators invested more heavily in time, energy and planning during the initial phase than later on in the projects. Moreover, initial top-down pressure was put on administrators to support and participate in the initiatives. However, once participants had been given the opportunity to take the program, initiators appeared to leave subsequent program activities to happenstance.

Neither district continued to impose top-down pressure nor was follow-up technical assistance used by initiators once participants had been given the opportunity to take part in the program. Fullan (1985), in reference to the DESSI study, points out that top-down initiatives are most successful when there is continued pressure and the provision of technical assistance. Given this position, it is surprising that Districts A and B achieved the amount of success they

did. It seems reasonable, however, to speculate that the program content and investment in quality trainers throughout implementation may have accounted for, in part, the sustained interest and success of the projects.

Personnel: Position and Participation

Throughout the analysis of the data, personnel, at all three levels, emerged as a factor which contributed significantly to the change efforts in both districts. Of interest in the present study was the relationship between the participants' organizational positions and their role in the selection and putting into place of the two initiatives. The study demonstrates that the three levels of district personnel (central office, school administrators and teachers) played different roles during the initiatives. The roles played by personnel of the same organizational position were quite similar. Across sites a few differences were noted. Further, the roles at all three levels changed throughout the life of the project, a finding in accord with the literature. Each of these roles have been presented and discussed at length in chapters 4 through 8.

Table 22 illustrates the various roles played by personnel at all three levels over the course of the initiatives. Central office personnel have been separated into two groups, line and staff (Hall et al., 1985) because of the differences in the roles they played. Where necessary, roles specific to personnel in just one district have been indicated.

While many of the findings relevant to personnel reflect what is reported in the literature, the present study provides a dimension which adds to our knowledge about the relationship between organizational position and the role played by personnel.

The superintendents in the two districts played decidedly different roles during the course of the initiatives. In District A, the superintendent took a high profile role during the initiation phase and was credited with being a key factor in the adoption. He played a low profile role during implementation. In District B, the superintendent played a low profile role during initiation and a high profile role during implementation. While his enthusiastic, participative role during implementation was reported to have had some positive effects on implementation efforts, it also created some difficulties.

Table 22

Relationship Between Organizational Position and The Roles Played by Personnel During the Initiatives.

Organizational Position	Roles Played		
	During Initiation	During Implementation	During Continuation in District A
Central Office: Line Personnel	Initiators Supporters Motivators Planners	Supporters Managers in District B	Supporters
Staff Personnel	Supporters Planners	Facilitators Supporters	
School Administrators	Supporters Planners in District A	Users Facilitators	Users Facilitators Initiators
Teachers	Supporters	Users Managers in District A	Users Managers Trainers

The literature highlights the value of the involvement of superintendents in district-wide staff development initiatives. However, the data in District B, suggest that a high profile, participative, program advocacy role during implementation may be risky.

In both districts, senior central office personnel were the initiators of the projects. Given the current literature this is not surprising. What is interesting, however, are the different ways these people gathered support from principals and teachers, respectively. In both districts senior central office initiators presented the program to principals in one way and to teachers in another. The projects were discussed with principals and their support was requested. Of interest is the fact that once initiators had an initial indication of principals' support there was an expectation on the part of senior central office personnel that all principals would actively participate in the projects. Teachers, by contrast, were not consulted and indications of their support were determined by their reaction to initial contact with the program content. Some teachers were involved in activities offered for the purpose of "testing the waters" but the decision taken to adopt the program in both districts was based on a reading of enthusiastic

support among a group of teachers and administrators.

Another interesting finding is that the teachers were unsure about who had selected the programs and equally unsure about why the programs were selected. Principals, on the other hand, were better able to answer those questions. This fact notwithstanding, both principals and teachers enthusiastically supported the project. This finding is other than what was predicted in chapter 5.

If it is important to the success of a project that participants develop meaning for a program (Fullan 1982), then this finding may have implications for practice. Knowing why a program is being initiated is, in part, a component of developing meaning. While Fullan (1982) reports that participants sometimes support a project initially without having developed meaning, the teacher participants in the present study were responding years after the projects had been initiated and they were still unclear about why the programs had been selected. This leads to another interesting conclusion. In both Districts A and B, the enthusiastic support for the project was not contingent upon involvement in the selection except among some administrators in District A. Further, in the case of teachers, support was also not contingent upon

understanding why the projects were initiated. This conclusion counters the problem-solving school of thought (Lieberman and Miller, 1984) in the literature and suggests that there are reasons other than early involvement and clear understanding of the program goals which can result in participants' support. The data in this study suggest that participants' enthusiastic support was related to the program content and the quality of the external trainers. In a sense, the job of the initiators to gather support was made easier by virtue of the fact the program content was so well received.

The literature acknowledges the value of using external trainers, particularly in the early stages of an initiative. However, there is also general agreement that external trainers should be used in combination with internal trainers. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) take the position that teachers respond better to internal trainers and external trainers are unable to be as effective. Perhaps some caution should be used in interpreting the literature which suggests that internal trainers are better than external trainers. Exactly what makes the difference is not clear from the present study, but in both districts the external trainers were successful and the internal trainer in District B was

not successful. There is sound evidence to suggest that the internal trainer in District B lacked credibility and that this lack of credibility more than offset the fact that he was a colleague within the system.

The Importance of Context

The importance of the context of a school district on staff development initiatives is well reported in the literature (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Berman, 1981; Griffin, 1983; Fullan, 1982, 1985; Little, 1981; Crandall et al., 1982; Cuban, 1984; McDonnell, 1985).

The present study provides an opportunity to consider findings when the same program is initiated in two very different sites. Districts A and B travelled very different paths from adoption to continuation. While the reported outcomes were similar in the two Districts, chapters 5 and 6 demonstrated that decisions were made differently, events unfolded differently and individuals within the two districts responded differently to decisions and events.

This finding lends support to the above mentioned literature and to the conclusion that context was a determining factor in the change process which took place in Districts A and B. Moreover, it emphasizes that there is no one best way to initiate district staff

development initiatives. Implementing change is a complex process which is affected by the interaction of numerous factors -- context being one.

Many of the contextual variables which affected the initiatives in the study are consistent with the literature; however, there are two context-related findings which are worthy of further discussion.

The history of staff development in a district is consistently identified in the literature as a contextual variable which has a significant impact on change efforts. The literature reports that participants' past experiences largely determine how they will react to new initiatives. Thus, a history of positive staff development usually suggests that subsequent activities will be well received and, conversely, a history of negative experiences usually suggests that there will be difficulties with new programs.

In District A, the findings are consistent with what the literature predicts for districts with a history of positive staff development efforts. In District B, however, the findings are other than what the literature predicts and what was predicted in chapter 5. A district with a history of negative staff development activities enthusiastically supported an

innovative program. Two seemingly interrelated factors appear to have contributed to the shift in attitude among district personnel. Firstly, several respondents reported that the district was ready for a change -- the time was right. Secondly, a new assistant superintendent arrived in the district and appears to have been the necessary catalyst to facilitate a shift in attitude. These two factors seem to have offset the negative influence of a history of less than satisfactory staff development. One may conclude, therefore, that the antecedent conditions can be modified by a change in senior personnel which coincides with a ground swell of support for a different direction.

The literature reports that difficult economic times and a negative political climate can result in difficulties if they coincide with staff development implementation efforts. The present study provides some evidence of how a negative political climate can affect the attitudes and behaviours of participants involved in a change effort. In District B, the implementation phase coincided with difficult times in the provincial economy and resulted in a climate generally unsupportive of teachers. Respondents in District B reported that, as a result of the negative climate, participants felt

increased pressure, stress and apathy. These feelings notwithstanding, the implementation plan was carried out.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The nature of a case study means that generalizations from it need to be approached with caution. The major findings of the present study, however, tended to corroborate what is already known yet the two districts did show some interesting differences from what might have been expected from reading the literature. These findings permit four recommendations. The first two are addressed to practitioners, the third and fourth to those who would do further research.

> Recommendation 1. Practitioners should pay attention to the current literature on change and staff development.

This study demonstrated clearly that what might have been expected, based on a thorough knowledge of the recent literature on change and staff development, happened to a great extent in Districts A and B.

> Recommendation 2. Practitioners should carefully consider the lessons to be learned from local variations.

Notwithstanding Recommendation 1, some of the findings of the present study extend or add to the

current literature. Specifically, it might be useful for those implementing change to note:

a) The timing of the introduction of the initiative to participants is very important to the gathering of the necessary support.

b) Different perceptions of purpose by different participants may not imply unsuccessful outcomes -- particularly when the target audience consists of different groups such as principals and teachers.

c) A negative history of staff development does not inevitably foreshadow difficulties with new staff development initiatives, especially when they are initiated by newly appointed personnel.

> Recommendation 3. Future research on the processes of educational change might design studies in a way which addresses how organizations compensate for those elements of the change process that are apparently missing.

Research to date has examined and subsequently recommended certain "key" elements of the change process (for example: senior central office support, early involvement of participants, a common view of the project by participants). The present study showed that a successful outcome can be perceived by participants in the absence of some of these elements. Research which considered initiatives perceived to be successful yet

missing some of the key elements may allow for some understanding of what compensates for any given missing element in a particular setting.

Recommendation 4. A number of methodological limitations of the present study should be attended to in future research designs.

a) This study was conducted after the fact and the data consisted of individuals' recalled perceptions. It would be useful to compare the findings of the present study with those of a study designed to report on the selection and putting into place of a staff development program as it occurred.

b) The respondents of the present study were representative of a select group of individuals who had all been actively involved in the initiatives from the early stages. Further research, which included a more wide spread sample in each district, would provide a more complete understanding of how the two initiatives were perceived.

c) The present study reported the perceived outcomes of the respondents. Since the literature suggests that teachers tend to perceive implementation outcomes more glowingly than have been reported by independent observers, a further study of the ITIP outcomes based on observational and student outcome data

needs to be conducted (Bussis et al., 1976; Chism, 1985; Feiman, 1983; Lieberman, 1979).

d) Finally, the findings of the present study confirmed that staff development themes reflect current educational trends and those themes appear to be used to justify the selection and implementation of programs. However, this study was bound by time and place. Only two districts and one program were considered over a period of ten years. What is needed is a study that examines whether other programs are equally as versatile as ITIP in reflecting current themes over time.

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APPENDIX I Letter of Approval (District A)

1984-08-31

Ms. Constance L. Edwards,
Faculty of Education,
The University of British Columbia,

Dear Ms. Edwards:

The District approves of you contacting district personnel with a view to collecting data for your study of in-service in the area of "Teacher Effectiveness". You may use this letter as an introduction.

The District's conditions are:

1. Voluntary participation (central office personnel, administrators and teachers).

2. Anonymity preserved.

3. No expense to the District.

4. Results made available to the District.

Yours truly,
SCHOOL DISTRICT

Supervisor, Curriculum/Assessment

for
Superintendent of Schools

cc - Mr.
Assistant Superintendent

APPENDIX II Letter of Approval (District B)

84.08.28

Ms. Constance L. Edwards

Dear Connie:

Thank you for your letter of August 21. You have approval to contact district personnel as required for your study.

Please let me know if/when I can be of further assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Assistant Superintendent

JMS:pm

cc: Dr. Ian Housego
Dr. Graham Kelsey
Dr. Peter Grimmet

APPENDIX III Interview Schedule

1. In your school district studies, how was "teacher effectiveness" selected as the topic of a staff development program?

   1.1 In your district who made the decision to select "teacher effectiveness"?

   1.2 In your district when was the selected made?

   1.3 In your district why was "teacher effectiveness selected?

2. In your school district what was the process of translating the theme of "teacher effectiveness" into a staff development program?

   2.1 In your district who were the key actors in the translation process?

   2.2 In your district what was the chronology of the translation of the theme into a program?

3. In your school district what is the content of the staff development program for "teacher effectiveness"?

4. In your district what was or will be the process involved in implementing the program content?

   4.1 In your district who were the key actors involved in the implementation process?

   4.2 In your district what was the chronology of the implementation process?

   4.3 In your district, were there difficulties with the implementation process? If so, what were they?

5. In your district what was or will be the process of evaluation of the "teacher effectiveness" program?

   5.1 In your district, who were or will be the key actors involved in the evaluation process?

   5.2 In your district, what was or will be the chronology of the evaluation process?