

MANAGING CHANGE OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN COMPREHENSIVE  
SCHOOLS

An analysis of the perceptions of some middle-managers'  
experience in several schools

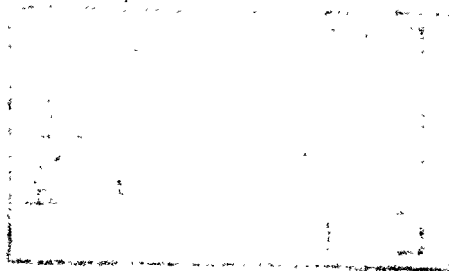
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This study presents a contextualised analysis of middle-management and innovation. As a small-scale investigation, it records how some middle-managers perceive the experience of innovating in comprehensive schools. It analyses their reasons and processes for introducing and maintaining innovation, and examines some related issues. The context is the hierarchical structure in which heads of year, department and faculty exercise horizontally defined responsibilities. It extends earlier case-study research of curriculum development in three comprehensive schools.

Data was collected by two qualitative methods: by semi-structured interviews with a known and consciously-selected sample from three separate schools in two authorities and by open-ended questionnaires mailed to a self-selecting but anonymous sample in a third authority. Triangulation was also achieved by an eclectic review of existing literature.

The findings show that the middle-managers adopted three common, effective and generally applicable approaches, namely, consultation, investigation and training, to introduce their innovations and to increase teacher confidence, skill and competence. To maintain the innovations, they promoted team-building to increase co-operation between staff.

The purpose of innovating was to improve the quality of pupil learning: an expectation which had been commonly developed as a result of courses, practical experience and professional contact. There was no evidence of any systematic evaluation: it tended to be self-evaluative and intuitive with an emphasis on classroom events. The extent of the head's influence seemed to depend upon the degree of involvement and delegation by the head, the quality of the

school's working environment, and the level of commitment of the middle-manager.

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## Chapter I

### Management and Innovation

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#### Introduction

I.1. Justifications for this study

I.2. Definitions

I.3. Schools as distinctive organisations

I.4. An alternative perspective on school management

I.5. A summary of the context of this investigation



## Chapter I

### Management and Innovation

#### Introduction

This study investigates how the process of innovation is perceived by some middle-managers in comprehensive schools with hierarchical management structures. The reasons for the investigation are set out in this first chapter under I.1 Justifications for the study and are followed by a definition of key terms within the context of the study and a summary of some of the issues explored.

Marland's (1981)(1) observation: "The success of a comprehensive school depends to a very large extent upon the understanding of their jobs by the head of department" (p.1), is the basic premise of this study which aims to increase our understanding, especially of innovation and its management within schools. Arguably, the management of a school as an organisation is significant to the implementation of any initiatives designed to improve educational provision. Thus, organisation theory may be relevant. As Hughes (1985)(2) observed, seventy years of organisation theory have encompassed many aspects of the life and structure of institutions: conceptually; in behavioural terms; as a system; sociologically; and practically. It illustrates too how theorising extends from the anecdotal to scientifically investigated laws with a diversity of prescriptions between.

#### I.1 Justifications for this study

There are four particular reasons for this study. Firstly, as

Ribbins (1988)(3) notes, although the literature on middle-management is growing, there is insufficient knowledge about what middle-managers actually do, how they justify their actions and how they relate to colleagues. He argues for a study approach which avoids the limitations of the interactionist concept of role of which he cites numerous studies, for example, Marland on its tasks, Cockroft on staff monitoring, Blackburn on the quality of teaching, Best et al on the paragon effect. Whilst illustrating the diversity of the role, it could be argued such studies seem to be based on assumptions about role in relation to organisational structures, unquestioning the adoption of role by staff, and on expectations of particular role-directed or role-designated behaviour. Ribbins (1985)(4) observes that, when the role is decontextualised by studies, the actuality of how middle-managers act and what influences their actions, remains questionable. In a limited way, this study attempts to address that question by examining what middle-managers themselves think their work entails on the basis of their own experience and their reflections upon that experience. It avoids decontextualisation by considering the role within the parameters of the institution in which it is enacted and with reference to a range of managerial as well as other relationships which may shape that role.

The second reason for this study relates to the diverse nature of the job itself. Dunham (1978)(5) reported that middle-management can be a stressful job. How much has it altered in a decade during which a range of educational initiatives has been implemented, some affecting the curriculum, for example, GCSE, CPVE, TVEI, and others altering the organisation and structure of schools, such as, contraction, merger and closures? Dunham (1983)(6) reported that

there was increased management responsibility as well as a heavy teaching load for middle-managers, resulting in anxiety. It could be argued that preparation for the job is inadequate; Ribbins (1985)(7) observes there are few training courses for middle-managers. In addition, promotion within the profession tends to result from demonstrable subject expertise and effective classroom management, abilities which do not necessarily apply to the management of a team of teachers.

Thirdly, it is argued that middle-managers are significant contributors to school development by innovation. This study pursues a deduction from the findings of an earlier investigation of curriculum development in comprehensive schools, Gravett (1985)(8). A number of teaching staff and heads and deputies in three schools were interviewed about innovations in four particular areas - Careers, Industrial Liaison, Mathematics and Modern Languages. The analysis revealed that curriculum development tends to be approached pragmatically rather than theoretically and that staff perceptions of the process and its constraints and influences differed according to their position in the organisational structure. Senior staff, that is, heads and deputies, generally expressed greater satisfaction with the outcomes of change than junior staff, particularly, the classroom teachers and exponents. Their concerns differed too: classroom management and effective teaching were the prime concerns of the teachers whilst the senior staff were concerned about effective management of the institution. Such differences in perception appeared to influence the efficacy of the curriculum development process. Middle-management seemed to be the point at which this divergence - these two views of innovation - could be reconciled. It was the point at which curriculum

development could be effected. In Paisey's (1984)(9) metaphor, middle-managers were the vehicles of change. Recent evidence from Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(10) endorses this view with middle-managers being referred to as "'king pins', 'the boiler house', 'the engine room', or 'the hub of the school'". They were seen to be "the key to improving the quality of the learning process" by a variety of respondents. By investigating how they innovate, it may be possible to identify some common, effective and generally applicable approaches.

The fourth reason for this study relates to speculations about future changes in schools and the possibility that middle-management will become increasingly complex. It is generally argued that the larger schools become, the more complex management becomes. However, the opposite could be argued. As schools contract because of falling rolls, middle-managers must deal with the consequences which, though different, may be significant: such issues as subject specialisms and cross-curricular involvement, staff morale, effective delivery of a curriculum with possibly reduced resources, extending and nurturing staff ability and experience. In addition, educational reforms such as those involving the examination system, the National Curriculum, pupil profiles, records of achievement, statutory assessments, TVEI extensions, or modular curricula, may all contribute to the complexities of middle-management because their implementation may depend upon the way in which they are interpreted by middle-managers.

These four justifications represent the reasons for the investigation in both a utilitarian sense of identifying ways of effectively introducing innovation and the middle-manager's contribution as well as academic - in terms of building upon

research and of extending our knowledge so as to inform future developments, for example, management training. Thus, they are both aims and hypotheses.

## I.2 Definitions

Some key terms are used in this thesis which can be interpreted broadly but which may be inappropriate in this research context. As a phenomenological approach attempts to adopt a pre-suppositionless stance, it is important that meanings are shared by reader and writer to reduce confusion. Hierarchical is such an example.

Hierarchical describes stratification within an organisation: it may represent the ways and levels of operating - how tasks and responsibilities are distributed internally. It may denote super- and sub-ordinate or equivalent relationships and positions. These may accrue financial rewards, such as allowances. They may imply or preserve degrees of status, power, control or influence. However, because this study seeks to understand the perceptions of the staff within that hierarchical structure, that is, their view of experience from within, any suppositions about how decisions are made, of authority, of power, are inappropriate. Whilst they may exist as influences, their significance arises from the perceiver's experience not from our preconceptions. "Hierarchical management structure" serves to identify the location of particular teachers within the school's teaching staff structure.

In accordance with current literature, "middle-management" refers to heads of year, department and faculty in comprehensive schools which employ a tiered staffing structure - a hierarchy.

They represent the tier between junior staff with largely teaching responsibility and senior staff with institutional management responsibility. The distinction is amplified in Chapter II under Research Samples.

"Change" in the title Managing Change refers to planned change or innovation which is distinguishable from change. Change refers to those activities or events which deal with the contingencies, expediencies and fluctuations in an institution. Innovation, however, is deliberate, planned and intentional change and, in this study, embraces new structures, new materials, new teacher behaviours and practices, and new teacher beliefs and understandings, singly or in concert. These changes have been school-planned and developed. This study is concerned with examining that process within the management context of the school.

### I.3 Schools as distinctive organisations

That organisations need management is a central premise of organisation theory. Whilst acknowledging that premise, this section proposes that, because schools differ from other organisations for a range of reasons to be examined, they may need a different management approach. Paisey (1981)(11) defines management as "the universal and unavoidable personal and organisational process of relating resources to objectives", (p.3) and, in educational institutions, the objectives are those "required in organisations which explicitly exist to provide education", (p.3). Managerial behaviour, he argues, is directed towards achieving collectively explicit and desired results by the prescribed and limited use of both human and non-human resources.

The following summarised points of the broad definition of

management proposed by Everard and Morris (1985)(12) illustrate the process:

- \* set aims and objectives as goals
- \* plan goal achievement
- \* organise resources for economic achievement of those goals
- \* control the process of goal achievement
- \* set organisational standards.

Gray (1979)(13) supports Paisey's view of management as a practical task concerned with controlling the organisation and as a means for structuring roles and tasks within an organisation in order to achieve its objectives. However, Paisey (1981) observes that it should be compatible with the organisation in which it operates because of the interaction between the organisation's purpose, the sequence of events within it and the people who plan or control those events and their strategies. Everard and Morris (1985)(14) raise the consideration that managers' perceptions of their organisation influence the way in which they manage. All three writers reflect the applied behavioural science approach which emphasises the individual and the organisation and the tension between the two. This conflict is deemed to be inevitable because organisations promote corporate rather than individual or group interests and management offers a mechanism for ensuring their achievement. The focus upon consensus and order is fundamental to this view of social order within organisations and yet, it could be argued, is problematic because of implicit assumptions about the inter-relatedness of the characteristics of schools as specific organisations. Research into schools as organisations, specifically, is described by Gray (1979)(15) as sparse; he cites examples of

studies whose collective conclusion can be summarised by Bidwell's hypothesis, reported in Gray. Bidwell postulates that schools are client-serving organisations whose role structure creates a dichotomy between staff and student and whose systems are largely bureaucratic. Gray's concomittant argument that all organisations share common characteristics, reflects his view of organisations as social institutions, as systems, between which comparisons may be drawn. These common characteristics are the organisation's skills, central tasks, technology and structure and in terms of schools, are the range of purpose, the order and structure, the ethos and location. Paisey (1984)(16) supports this view of universal and dominant characteristics common to all organisations but notes also that management takes into account factors peculiar to that organisation.

Gray (1979)(17) acknowledges the influences of other systems upon schools, for example, examinations, employment opportunities, parental, social and academic aspirations, and the position of schools as sub-systems of, for example, religious denominations, teacher-training programmes. He proposes that schools can accommodate such influences because of the firm structures and clear procedures vested in organisations. His argument seems to be tempered by acknowledgement of the need for an appropriate degree of control and authority over such influences.

To summarise, a functionalist view emerges from the writing of Everard and Morris, Gray and Paisey of schools as organisations whose purpose is to achieve certain goals as identified by the legitimising authorities and which should serve the community by providing the kind of education required by society. "Society" seems to be an amorphous term, lacking a definition by these



writers. The school's identity as an organisation is corporate and, whilst permeable within, its boundaries separate it from its community, (Gray 1979). Its structure arises from being a legal institution, deriving its characteristics from statutory determinants like government acts, papers and circulars, and from the way it is run by its headteacher, (Gray 1979). The most common structure, that is, the way tasks, authority and status are distributed among members, is pyramidal; it fixes positions and proscribes super-ordinate and sub-ordinate relationships, (Paisey 1981). Its functions as an organisation are to promote pupil learning through cost-effective and efficient management and to resolve the inevitable conflicts through a set of values beyond those of the individual and the organisation by reconciliation, Everard and Morris (1985).

Whilst such theories appear clear and logically ordered, it could be argued that they omit those factors which could be described as identifying schools as distinctive organisations: the sociological perspective which is evident in more recent literature. Handy and Aitken (1986)(18), for example, place schools in their social context to illustrate such distinctions and the complexity of schools which is attributable to several factors. They argue, firstly, that schools occupy a critical place in society because they represent one of its key means for adapting to the future. Secondly, many of the tensions in contemporary society may be mirrored in schools: falling rolls and demands for accountability are cited as examples of two of the contradictory demands made upon schools. Falling rolls lead to contraction, closure, fewer promotion opportunities for staff, and reductions in experimental work and consequently, greater caution. Thirdly, they argue that

changes within society have increased expectations of schools to generate a more educated population than formerly. Meeting such expectations may arguably become more difficult under such conditions of falling rolls and accountability. Reconciliation of such demands, Handy and Aitken observe, is problematic. Thus, although schools may share with other organisations the problems of role definition, the handling of groups as well as individuals, management and predicting for the future, it is the social context which differentiates.

A second difference is the child population in schools which Handy and Aitken (1986)(19) argue makes schools unique organisations. Their description of a lesson change-over in secondary schools as "a production system gone frantic" (p.44) illustrates the difficulty of applying industrial management concepts to schools, perhaps also because of the origins of such theories. As Hughes (1985)(20) observes, the pioneers of theory on the management and function of organisations were industrial practitioners who tended to draw upon their own practical experience as sources of generalisations; the applicability of such generalisations to different contexts was not recognised. When applied to educational organisations, certain factors remain submerged. For example, parallels between schools and industrial or commercial management are difficult to sustain because of the conflicts inherent in the concepts of product management, that is, of children, and producers, that is, the work of teachers. The skills of pedagogy and relationships are varied. Handy and Aitken (1986)(21) make the point that teachers do not see their role and performance in mechanical terms; they express a moral commitment towards children. Some writers, Everard and Morris (1985)(22) cite

Maw et al (1984), see the issue of the moral values and judgements of schools' decision-making as the key reason why parallels between management in schools and industry are unsustainable. Goal definition and achievement, as another example, may be more complex in schools than in industrial organisations because the tasks are not clearly defined and agreed. Further, Dean (1985)(23) argues that personal qualities, for example, are significant to the achievement of the goals of a school in conjunction with the exercise of power and influence through effective leadership.

Handy and Aitken (1986)(24) compare management in schools with other organisations. They argue that, even though schools are large and complex organisations, management seems to be conducted in "spare time" (p.44) unlike other organisations and is, therefore, likely to be ineffectual. They also question some of the assumptions about the promotion of teachers to management by metamorphosis from classroom expert to manager. Paisey (1981)(25) also sees schools as complex workplaces, given their samples of the population at large, and as sites of potential controversy. He argues that this complexity results from interactions between a large number of people, that is, teachers, pupils and ancillary staff, and because of their differences in habits, views, expectations, behaviours, qualifications and experience. Handy and Aitken (1986)(26) recommend an examination of the assumptions behind the actions, thinking and responses of the membership. Whilst it could be argued that these observations from Paisey and Handy and Aitken may pertain to institutions other than schools, there remains another distinction. Teaching may be the only profession whose aims are determined by agencies outside it - the aims of education are defined by the elected representatives of the society schools serve.

The relevance of this discussion about the applicability of particular organisation theories to schools and the management of change lies in Handy and Aitken's observation that schools should decide what kind of organisations they are in order to resolve some of the paradoxes. Brighouse (1983)(27), formerly chief education officer for Oxfordshire, offers an analysis of the purposes of schools which may clarify these issues. He identifies purpose as threefold:

- \* to meet the present needs of pupils
- \* to meet their future needs
- \* to respond as a learning resource for anyone connected with the school.

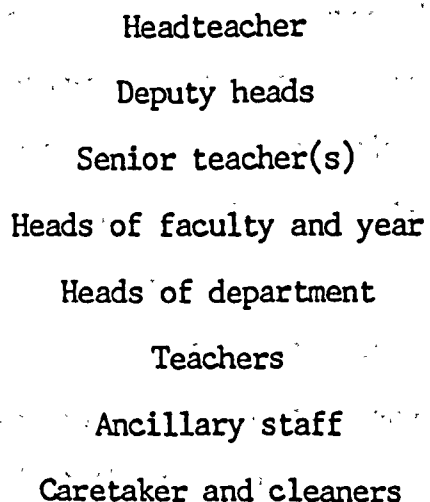
To fulfil these purposes, he argues that schools require an understanding of the future, a point noted by Paisey (1981)(28); his vision is of an egalitarian, violence-free, caring society, the antithesis of society as he sees it in the present decade. Both prediction and anticipation of the future can enable schools to satisfy their social purpose, a purpose which seems, by implication, to mean the creation of Brighouse's vision of society. He touches only briefly upon other determinants of social change or of individual lives, such as, political influence, industrial trends, technology, personal choice, human nature. His central question - should schools lead or follow society? - identifies his understanding of their purpose. It could be argued that purpose is not as oppositional as he suggests. Nonetheless, his argument illustrates the significance of innovation to anticipation of an individual's life beyond school and to the management of any organisation with such a purpose.

Since change is described by numerous writers as a significant

management function, organisational structures which can accommodate changing circumstances, practices and conditions, seem essential. Brighouse (1983)(29) argues that, whilst schools should be flexible, adaptable and responsive to innovation, their structures may impede it. The structures he cites, namely, pastoral and academic curricula, hierarchical staffing, levels of subject status, arise from the nature of the school's purpose, population and processes as an organisation. He sees them as influences upon the school's management, especially its leadership, its decision-making and its development.

The examples of hierarchical management and staffing structures are pertinent to the context of this study. It was noted earlier that the most common structure in organisation theory for distributing tasks, authority and status among the members, is pyramidal. Figure 1 offers an example.

Fig. 1. A representation of a possible hierarchical management structure in a comprehensive school.



Other examples might place heads of year and department on the same level. These distinctions depend, to some extent, upon the factors which create the tiers - financial rewards or responsibilities. If the structure were determined by teaching responsibility, a teaching

head or deputy might be positioned lower down the pyramid below the head of department. At this point in the discussion we are concerned with the effects of stratification upon the process of institutional development.

Whilst the power of the legal authority invested in a hierarchy might be useful, as a management structure it may be contentious in a number of ways. For example, it is possible, given human nature, that a hierarchy of promotion, pay and status could lead to problematic staff relationships, affected by jealousy, suspicion or resentment. A problem, perhaps peculiar to education, is deciding where professional rewards should be made. Secondly, it can restrict staff participation in developing educational policy or thought because of its very structure. In addition it could be argued that a hierarchical management denies equal status and may inhibit the expression of views by those in sub-ordinate positions to those in super-ordinate.

Slater (1985)(30) looks at the question of democracy in terms of the management of change in schools, especially in relation to its implications for management. He argues that the conventions of democracy in institutions imply majority voting with the purpose of deciding upon co-operative action after open debate among the members. This seems to be based on an assumption that the hierarchical structure of an organisation permits open debate. The problem, as Slater sees it, is that an increase in participative decision-making may affect the opportunity for change. He argues that teachers, who are described as traditionally conservative because of their concern to maintain stability and conformity within schools, will vote to preserve the status quo. Alternatively, however, it could be argued, that in a

participatory democracy where people are involved in decision-making at grass-root level, militant changes might result. Is the notion of democracy in schools misplaced because of the way it is interpreted or because of the nature of the structure, its pupil population and the control teachers feel they must exercise in order to teach? It may be true that a school cannot be democratic because its structure tends to determine both teacher-pupil relationships and the operation of management. Slater (31) seems to feel it is a misplaced notion and cites the following quotation from Best et al (1983): "... teachers prefer strong leadership, and a resemblance of democracy, even when they know that the democracy is a sham." (p.460)

From another perspective, it could be argued that such illusions are fostered by the very structure of schools as organisations and that a different interpretation of democracy might not only be appropriate in schools but also be facilitated by management. If schools were like society and their ends self-determining, they could be described as democratic. However, as this chapter has illustrated, they are not; it is, therefore, important to consider the ways in which decisions about those ends are reached, especially in the light of the social expectations of schools, discussed earlier. For example, accountability, a significant aspect of political democracy, is demanded of schools. As a concept, it implies both criticism and justification of actions. In addition, it suggests consultation and participation in order to achieve acceptance of policy by the majority. Thirdly, it indicates the opportunity for freedom of speech. If schools are to be accountable, their management processes should reflect these conditions. Accountability alone is not equivalent to

democratisation. Democracy indicates particular understandings of human rights and behaviours, such as, the moral right to participate in decisions affecting personal conditions, and respect for the individual. As autonomous adults, teachers can offer alternative understandings of experience and make their own decisions. Given such a range of arguments, how far can hierarchical management accommodate moral rights and autonomy? Can such tensions be resolved? Were teachers to be offered a democratic role in the management of change, especially if the head's aims were known and understood, it seems possible they would welcome it. A teacher's commitment to education implies a commitment to autonomy and, ultimately, to change.

At the beginning of the discussion, management was depicted as a mechanism for controlling or structuring roles and tasks within an organisation and for achieving consensus towards corporate objectives by reconciling the inevitable conflicts of interests. However, in the ensuing discussion of the sociological context of schools, it was argued that schools differ from other organisations for a number of reasons and that alternative management approaches are required. As Hughes (1985)(32) notes, different, even opposing, educational management theories can be dynamic and creative. As a result, deeper understandings may emerge which benefit the management of schools. He proposes that research studies emanating from what he terms the micro-social sciences and the employment of qualitative research methods, can generate such understanding.

#### I.4. An alternative perspective on school management

Such a perspective is offered by Greenfield (1980)(33). He argues that, because the notion of an organisation as a reality is



false, re-assessment of organisation theory is important. Whilst models may clarify issues, they tend to deflect attention from the human action and intention which he sees as the basis of an organisation. He proposes two ways of looking at social reality. He argues that functionalist theories see reality from a collective stance whereas it can be interpreted as a natural and necessary order permitting human society to exist and people to meet their basic needs. Alternatively, reality can be interpreted as images, having no necessary or inevitable forms, so that an organisation represents a cultural artefact shaped within limits given by man's perceptions and the boundaries of his life. By seeing an organisation not as a single abstraction but as varied perceptions about what they can or should do when dealing with others, culturally dependant notions of what is important, for example, productivity or efficiency, no longer proscribe studies of organisations.

Although this view contrasts sharply with the systems view of organisations, for example, it is a persuasive one. With the perceptions of individuals as its starting point, it raises questions about the objectivity of what might be described as invented social reality and implications for those attempting to understand others' interpretations. It seems likely, for example, they may not be shared by all the members of an organisation, some may even dominate, so ways of understanding a variety of interpretations will be necessary. Greenfield's (1980) (34) view that understanding an organisation should precede change within it, seems self-evident. He also argues that the combination of theorist, practitioner and researcher can reveal such understanding - another hypothesis explored by this study.

### 1.5 A summary of the context of this investigation

It has been proposed in this chapter that schools can be distinguished from other organisations because of their sociological context, the child population, the moral values implicit in decisions and actions, the manner of defining aims and purposes. Schools, themselves, can be seen to have established different organisational structures, relatively hierarchical or relatively democratic, depending upon decisions, circumstances, staff, policies. Decisions may be reached, for example, by a variety of conditions like working parties, staff recommendations, votes, questionnaires, or in committees, cabinets or senior manager meetings. Hierarchies can be constructed in schools on the basis of functions, such as, management tasks or teaching responsibilities. Middle-managers represent the groups of staff - heads of year, department and faculty - between teachers and senior managers and experience different levels of responsibility within schools. The head of department for Religious Education may be responsible for a staff of one whereas the head of a Maths department for a staff of ten. This diversity and these differences led to the suggestion of an alternative management theory for schools. In addition, this middle-management position seems to be important. Our analysis of organisations has intended to show that schools are unique. Hitherto they have been concerned not with responding to market forces as productive organisations, but with providing education and, often, by innovating. While senior managers judge innovation in their schools by its institutional effectiveness, teachers judge it by improvements in the classroom. The middle-manager bridges this gap - as a vehicle of change - to effect innovation.

It is argued that an examination of the middle-managers' work

may suggest common approaches for effective innovation which might be generally applied. It appears to be an under-researched area despite recognition of the importance of the role. In addition, this examination should come from the middle-managers' perspective as an alternative approach because previous studies have tended to decontextualise their work within the limitations and assumptions of the concept of role. This study works within the parameters of the institution and from the perceptions of the middle-managers themselves. It is hoped that by looking at the school phenomenologically, as a reality with no inevitable forms, those competing paradigms of conflict and consensus or system versus action can be avoided. We hope also to avoid inherent assumptions about how people respond in reality to theoretically constructed circumstances. The work of middle-managers as innovators can be revealed and understood through their perceptions. The following chapter expands upon this approach of researching and telling this narrative.

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## Chapter II

### Research Methodology

## Chapter II

### Research Methodology

#### Introduction

##### II.1. Methods and samples

- i. Interviewing
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## Chapter II

### Research Methodology

#### Introduction

This chapter discusses the research method and its purpose. Walker (1985)(1) observes that a relationship exists between the research methodology and the context of its use and that the methods adopted represent an act of faith of the part of the researcher. Denzin (1978)(2) notes that the usefulness of the research method is determined by the way in which it is applied and the rigour of its application. Qualitative methods have been adopted because of the nature of this study and its focus upon middle-management perceptions of their experience of innovation. The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is that the former seeks to gather statistical and "objective" data about actual situations whereas the latter argues there is no distinction between "reality" and the way people see events. As Shipman (1985)(3) notes these methods emphasise the variability of human responses and can uncover meanings. He also reports that the observations intrinsic to qualitative research are the tools of professionals within education. These observations outline the basis of the methodological approach of this study.

Such methods are criticised for a number of reasons which seem to relate to rigour and precision. Atkinson and Delamont (1985)(4) cite Spindler's criticisms (1982) of imprecise formulation of purpose, structure and theory, inadequate implementation of method, confusion about hypotheses, concepts and conceptual structures. They argue that, whilst the eclectic nature of data collection may be problematic, the tradition of qualitative methods is sound.



Exploration and discovery represent the foundation of the approach which, they believe, can uncover the unforeseen. These criticisms are acknowledged in this study.

Whilst being limited by its methods of data collection, the investigation is also limited by its two samples because they are small. However, Simons (1981), cited by Atkinson and Delamont (1985), reported that small-scale studies can lead to an understanding of events within a specific context which is a primary intention in this study, and from which a clear grasp and expression of the complexities of educational experiences can be gained. As Denzin (1978)(5) notes, the researcher is committed to making the data as replicable as possible, that is, as true to the circumstances as possible, by careful analysis of the nature of the samples, by triangulating observations and by continual assessment of the empirical grounding of each proposition or deduction. The research literature survey reduces the distance between the perceptions of the samples and theoretical concepts and understanding. Walker (1985)(6) observes that organising and selecting data can effectively identify specific ideas for further analysis. As Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(7) note, the level of analysis is extended by feedback during the research process because the researcher adapts his or her thinking throughout when making discoveries based on the generated data. Arguably, research methods can never remain entirely neutral because they tend to filter experience and context selectively. Bias may, therefore, be inevitable. Walker (1985)(8) cites Stenhouse's observation that the adherence of professional researchers to their theories is a more serious source of bias than the dedication of teachers to their practice!

The field research, conducted in Autumn 1985 and Spring 1986, related to events occurring in 1984. It was designed to collect the views of middle-managers working in over twenty schools and in three local education authorities in anticipation that perceptions of the innovation process in different circumstances but similar contexts may offer insights for general application. This chapter describes the research process under the following headings:

II.1. Methods and samples

II.2. Data analysis

II.3. Data presentation

II.4. Objectivity, truth and phenomenology

### II.1 Methods and samples

Interviews and questionnaires were the preferred choices from a range of qualitative data collection methods because of the purpose of the investigation which is particularly concerned to avoid detaching the management function from other features of the organisation. Participant observation, for example, was rejected because the study is concerned with events which have already occurred. In addition, the intention was to gather perceptions and reflections rather than information about process. Longitudinal studies tend to offer depth rather than breadth and case studies tend to be context-specific, narrowing the level of generalisations. Case studies offer in-depth analysis of particulars, for example, individuals or individual institutions, by a variety of methods which may include interviewing and participant observation. This was not thought appropriate because the samples were sought from several schools. In addition, the teaching subject in which innovations took place, was deemed less significant than the actual

process. The inclusion of documentation, such as minutes of meetings, working papers, has been avoided because their written nature and format preclude immediacy or unfiltered interpretations of events. The advantages of interviews and questionnaires are discussed in the following and with regard for the samples, the research limitations and the context of the investigation.

### II.1.i. Interviewing

As Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(9) note, there are two basic forms - structured and unstructured. The distinction between the two lies in the researcher's predefinition of the purpose of the interview. In this study, a compromise was developed by semi-structured interviewing by which the schedule listed questions the researcher thought relevant to the topic and by which the conduct of the interview facilitated expansive responses from the interviewees, Appendix A.1. Unlike structured interviews, this form is conducted by one researcher only in order to ensure integrity and rigour of application. Semi-structured interviewing offers a method of data collection which can be controlled by the researcher by the use of the schedule and through the interaction. Thus the method offers a series of principles that provide a commonness to all the interviews while allowing the interviewee to explore some of the issues in depth or to raise issues of their own. Its intention of understanding the researchee's experience assumes that the interviewee can reflect upon experience and articulate opinion. This assumption raises questions about interpretation of language, the ability to share and reflect upon experience, and the effects of bias upon responses. The direct interaction is the source of the advantages and disadvantages of interviewing as a method as the following discussion will illustrate.

## Interaction

Walker (1985)(10) notes that the quality of the interaction between both partners is significant to the effective collection of data. For an informal and conducive atmosphere, he recommends the avoidance of such constraints as anxiety, suspicion or distrust, which can be identified by both sensitivity and awareness. Denzin (1978)(11) sees introspection as fundamental to the research process for achieving an understanding of self, responses and conduct because, by attempting to enter the minds of others, the researcher aims to present those worlds as comprehensibly as possible from a theoretical basis of their behaviour, language, feelings, attitudes and definitions. He defines this attempt as "naturalism" (p.37). Its intention is to marry "covert, private features of the social act with its public, behaviourably observable counterparts" (p.38). Whilst Denzin's standpoint is sociological, his interpretation of the researcher's position and intention is applicable to this study because of its interest in understanding how middle-managers see their own work in context.

Interaction can also be influenced by the extent to which the interviewee accepts the researcher. Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(12) regard acceptance as an advantageous aspect of interviewing and see it as intrinsic to attaining flexibility, adaptability and freedom. They observe, however, that acceptance is dependent more upon personal rapport than upon explanations of the research purpose but point out that clear presentation of purpose can gain the trust and confidence of interviewees and, in turn, generate more objective and detailed data. A high degree of acceptance was experienced by this researcher, and confirmation and assurance of confidentiality preceded the interviews.

Both Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(13) and Walker (1985)(14) emphasise that the values of the interviewee should dominate the interview. For example, the researcher's perception of a problem, situation or context can constrain the interviewee. Interruptions are equally limiting, although perhaps less obviously so. They also note that observations which imply the researcher's authority, such as, posing intricate questions, giving apparently factual information, promoting a particular viewpoint, are constraining upon the interviewee. Walker (1985)(15) notes that the researcher brings individual experience into the situation and the interviewee brings feelings, concerns and ideas as well as personal experience and opinion. Lacey (1978)(16) recorded how his own values and preoccupations infiltrated his research, creating distortions. The teacher-researcher brings a particular experience to the research situation.

#### The role of the researcher

The researcher's role can be seen as exacting, requiring self-awareness, control and perception, to achieve a non-committal and attentive approach. Schutz's notion of the role of the stranger has been explored in a variety of research contexts. Wild (1982)(17) observes that it is a role which can provide fuller insights because the researcher is unknowing and unfamiliar with the situation. Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(18) argue that meanings are revealed and data distortion is reduced. The nature of this study, its context and the professional position of this researcher, prohibited the absolute adoption of the stranger role for three particular reasons - firstly, previous research into curriculum development; secondly, experience as a middle-manager in a comprehensive school; thirdly, being known professionally to the interviewees. Whilst these could

represent a form of bias because of shared values and meanings of familiarity with context, function and issues, any effect upon the data can be mitigated by vigilance and care. For example, ten interviews explored curricular areas outside her own subject expertise and experience, giving a sense of unfamiliarity which required understanding and explanation from the interviewees. In addition, regular adoption of a research role by particular and personal activities, for example, making field notes before and after each interview, testing and recording a message before the interview, fostered consistent and detached attitudes. The three transcriptions in Appendix C illustrate the extent of unbiased enquiry.

The literature suggests the teacher-researcher may enjoy some advantages over unknown researchers for several reasons. Cosgrove, cited in Walker (1985)(19), found that teachers are not only willing to be critical of their own practice but also to express their feelings to other teachers. She noted that communication between teachers can be effective because their shared interest generates a sense of ease. Mitchell (1985)(20) argues the teacher-researcher can reflect the nature of schools and provide insights which can contribute to understanding how children learn. The relationship between practitioners and theorists can be a fruitful partnership, especially for questioning assumptions. Whitehead (1985)(21) supports this view, emphasising the significance of context. Atkinson and Delamont (1985)(22) propose that a teacher-researcher can employ particular skills and bring specific interests to observations about schools. Insider information can help overcome a problem noted by Walker (1985)(23) of finding both the time and the staff for research within the complex routines of schools.

This information relates to the notion of "ethnographic context", defined by Cicourel and discussed by Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(24); it proved useful in a number of ways. Firstly, it provides a professional language which is familiar with terminology in schools. Secondly, the ability to read a school's time-table eased the negotiations prior to interviewing because the researcher had identified when staff were available and which times might be more comfortable than others. Eight interviews were conducted during the school day and four after. Thirdly, the professional network of acquaintance and shared experience facilitated identification of prospective interviewees and their likely willingness to co-operate with a colleague. Understanding the ethnographic context is valuable for a researcher in other respects like being aware of the feelings, prejudices, motives interviewees may bring to the interview.

### Practicalities

The quality of the interaction in an interview can be influenced by practical elements over which the researcher can exercise tangible control. They include tape-recording, the interview room and the construction of the interview schedule.

The first advantage of tape-recording is that it allows the interviewer to concentrate upon the quality of the interaction. Walker (1985)(25) notes that it provides a careful monitoring of the interaction because it makes a full and accurate record of the interview. He observes that it generates ample material for analysis because of the opportunities to follow through ideas. It could be argued that the quality of that material may depend upon the objectivity of the questions and the integrity of the interviewer. Several writers observe that tape-recording is

preferable to note-taking because it avoids early selection of data and interpretation before the process is complete, Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(26), Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(27), and Walker (1985)(28). However, the latter writers also observe that tape-recording may intimidate or inhibit interviewees. All the interviewees were consulted and agreed to tape-recording before the start of each interview. These advantages seem to outweigh the main disadvantage, noted by Walker (1985)(29), that is, of the time required for tape transcription.

The quality of the interaction may also be influenced by the physical conditions within the interview room. Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(30) comment upon the need to provide an appropriate atmosphere: ideally the interview room should be situated in a quiet, traffic-free area and remain undisturbed and private for the duration of the interviews. Seven interviews in this study were conducted in the researcher's own office and two in her sitting-room which facilitated satisfactory fulfilment of these conditions as calm and relaxing venues. Three interviews were conducted in the offices of the interviewees which presented no problems.

The third practicality which may affect the interaction is the interview schedule. Its design is important because qualitative methods accept the respondents' accounts as valid descriptions of experience. As Adelman and Young (1985)(31) observe, interpretive questions about the research purpose, that is, the topics selected for discussion and the subquestions, represent part of the researcher's accountability. The question schedule was planned, according to the researcher's previous research and her professional understanding of innovatory experience. The same schedule was employed for all interviews and took into account the purpose of the



research, the amount of interview time available and the interview purpose of exploring the interviewees' perceptions of their experience of curriculum development.

Walker (1985)(32) notes that questions should be designed so as to avoid any pre-structuring of responses. Prompts and leading questions, for example, imply a desired response and are, therefore, inhibiting. It was found that person-centred questions encouraged open responses and expansion of ideas and opinions. Walker (33) argues that both researcher and interviewee should be able to reflect upon the interview because an interviewee may rethink his response. This study confirmed that observation. Responses can be influenced: Dean and Whyte (1978)(34) recommend researchers to examine which factors may influence responses because reports tend to be situation-specific. They argue that objectivity is filtered through a respondent's emotions, knowledge and verbal dexterity and that, because values, attitudes and opinions may not necessarily be held consistently, the researcher must distinguish between the objective and the subjective. II.4 looks at this issue in depth.

Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(35) suggest a neutral and uncommitted stance as the researcher's code of behaviour in order to foster truthful reports. They note that truth is relative to the interpreter and prevailing circumstances and that unconscious feelings or intuitive responses to a situation can influence their interpretations. Walker (1985)(36) notes that the capacity to recall events may vary and lead to inaccurate reports. All these issues are significant because each interviewee represents the researcher's observer. As Zelditch (1978)(37) points out, each respondent knows and understands events outside the researcher's experience and the personal motives, the relationships and

circumstances unique to those events. Thus, the questions posed should be real in order to gain a clear understanding of those events.

Denzin (1978)(38) notes, for example, that equal significance cannot be accorded to the responses of all researchees because their perspectives may be influenced by their organisational status and, therefore, their motives may shape the form of their responses. One interviewee, a deputy head, differed in status, which could have been significant. The interviewees knew that the researcher was a middle-manager. Under appropriate conditions and with professional interviewing techniques, it was possible to create an interaction between equals without the bias or interference of status, power or knowledge. As Cohen and Mannion (1986)(39), Schwartz and Jacobs (1979)(40) and Walker (1985)(41) observe, awareness of such issues can reduce bias in the data.

To summarise, the interaction of the semi-structured interview is both advantageous for eliciting extensive information but also problematic in terms of objectivity and relative truth. As it aims to allow the researcher to enter the interviewee's world, it presumes that people are reflective; are willing to share their reflections; and are honest. It was found that degrees of reflection varied and that additional questions were useful for less reflective respondents. In some cases, the interview seemed to be an opportunity to think aloud or to examine and articulate ideas for the first time. However carefully prepared the schedule did not guarantee logical progression through the selected topics. For these reasons, the ability to concentrate upon the quality of the interaction with the interviewee and to remain aware, consistent and detached was essential.

Each interview was semi-structured, conducted by the researcher according to one schedule, Appendix A.1, and tape-recorded. The questions were not given to the interviewees in advance. Supplementary questions were occasionally asked to follow up specific details on particular points. One pilot interview proved effective for generating data so the remaining eleven interviews followed the same schedule. Each interview lasted about one hour, taking place in Autumn 1985.

### The interview sample

The composition of this sample raised a number of issues during the writing of the thesis; these will be discussed once the sample has been described.

This sample comprised heads of department, year and faculty in three urban comprehensive schools within two local education authorities. It was selected deliberately for five reasons. Firstly, the twelve interviewees were selected on the basis of the researcher's knowledge of their work either as colleagues within the same school, as former colleagues now promoted, as fellow students in higher education or through the professional network. Secondly, this superficial knowledge of their work coincided with an emerging definition of an innovator which crystallised as the sample was finally agreed. It defines an innovator as a person who has designed, introduced and implemented curricular change. Thirdly, because their innovations had been introduced to pastoral and academic curricula, it was hoped that their accumulated perceptions might reflect across a school's educational provision. This approach avoided confinement to subject or area and encouraged a view of the process. The diversity of areas was deliberate to illustrate a range of experience. This same consideration applies

to the scale and extent of the innovations, that is, how many staff were involved, how far-reaching were its effects. Arguably, this could influence perceptions as Table 5 recognised.

Thus, not only were the interviewees innovators, they were all, with one exception, middle-managers according to the definition in Chapter I. Their responsibilities were defined horizontally - nine as heads of faculty or year on scale 4 and two as heads of department on scale 3. The twelfth, a deputy head, could be described as an aberration except that there is one in the questionnaire sample, (anonymous and not known to the researcher). In all other respects, she fulfilled the criteria and was horizontally responsible for the pastoral curriculum. Questions about status and authority did not arise when the interviews were conducted because, perhaps simplistically, the researcher adopted the research role with conviction.

Finally, the interviewees were selected because they worked in comprehensive schools which were similar in key respects. For reasons of confidentiality, it is inappropriate to identify the schools closely; however, the following characteristics were common:

- \* situated in an urban environment
- \* serving a largely-settled residential community
- \* number of pupils on roll approximately 1,000
- \* boys and girls, aged 11 - 18 years
- \* transfer from primary schools at eleven years
- \* operating similar curricula and option systems at 13+ and 16+
- \* hierarchical management structure
- \* faculty based organisation of subject departments
- \* established pastoral care systems.

The management structure in each school was pyramidal with different levels of responsibility and accountability, as illustrated in Figure 1 in Chapter I. The senior staff, often referred to collectively as the senior management in this study, exercised school-wide responsibilities, curricular as well as organisational and administrative, whilst middle-management was responsible for specific curricular or pastoral areas, being accountable to senior managers. Senior staff means the head, deputies and senior teachers, all posts above scale 4, and middle-management applies to heads of year, faculty and department with the one exception of the deputy head whose tier position was senior but actual responsibility middle-management. There were no house systems and heads of house.

As questions about status, power and authority suggest pre-conceptions about how people define themselves in relation to others or to their work, they were not examined at the beginning of this research. They seem alien to any pre-suppositionless approach. This may represent a weakness in the research but it also reflects the researcher's perception of each interviewee as being equal because innovation was the common denominator. Each was perceived by the researcher as an innovating middle-manager: an equivalising position. In addition, it emphasises the purpose of the study to examine the process of curriculum development in context. One innovation could be described as minor when compared with another, for example, the first year Science project involved one year group, six staff and one module, in comparison with the extension of Personal and Social Education as a core subject. However, a comparison based on other criteria say, for example, cost, staff resources, time, would produce a different result. Such

considerations are essentially subordinate to an interest in perceptions of the process of introducing innovation. It may be true that, according to some theoretical perspectives, perceptions are affected by such considerations and deserve exploration.

To summarise, the characteristics common to the interview sample are similarities between the schools in which they worked; middle-managers in relatively comparable positions; experience of innovation within the research definitions. It is anticipated that these are sufficient for comparability to generate common approaches and characteristics, and may be supported by the questionnaire data.

#### II.1.ii. The questionnaire

A questionnaire provided an alternative method for checking the data gained by the interviews. It was possible to triangulate by considering a sample in another part of southern England (spatial) - a few months later (temporal) and by another method involving unknown respondents, Appendix A. Many of the previous methodological considerations are relevant to the use of a questionnaire because of the similarities between the two methods and because the respondents were advised that the researcher was a teacher. This section will concentrate upon specific considerations about questionnaires. Sudman and Bradburn (1982)(42) propose that questionnaire completion is an activity people enjoy because it enables them to share their experiences. Cohen and Mannion (1986)(43) observe that postal questionnaires offer a practical and effective means of data collection.

Walker (1985)(44) notes that the construction of a questionnaire requires extensive preparation to produce clear and relevant questions because, unlike interviewing, there is no opportunity to explore issues in depth. He recommends a thorough

analysis of the research purpose and its concepts. Sudman and Bradburn (1982)(45) note the importance of ensuring confidentiality and of presenting the research purpose succinctly. They also maintain that the effectiveness and success of a mailed questionnaire in motivating responses is dependant upon the questions and the written instructions on how to complete it. They recommend neutral language so as to avoid consciously or unconsciously influencing the responses. Moser and Kalton (1978)(46) suggest appropriate but simple vocabulary is effective; common professional terms may be suitable for particular groups because their meanings are singular and precise.

Sudman and Bradburn (1982)(47) note that a logical ordering of the questions lends credibility to the method since respondents can recognise the care taken over design and construction. The questionnaire was ordered in a way which seemed logical and likely to guide the respondents' reflections upon their experiences. Relatively simple questions about the respondents' professional experience and current working situations were asked on the first page with the purpose of setting a 'tone' and of bringing their thoughts to the research 'setting'. Questions 1 to 8 in the open-ended section, pages 2, 3, 4, concentrated on the experience of introducing and implementing curriculum change. Questions 9 - 12 were designed to encourage reflective thinking about the purpose and benefits of innovation and the role of the innovator. In this way, the questions on pages 2, 3 and 4, were grouped by degrees of difficulty, but not obviously so for the respondents, becoming increasingly demanding of introspection: questions 1 - 6 and 9: anecdotal and descriptive; questions 7 and 11: opinion

questions 8, 10, 12: reflective

The questions concentrated on the same subject areas as for the interviews. Some were phrased slightly differently because of the nature of the method, its need for written responses, the physical distance, and the unknown characteristics of the sample, that is, their experience, interests, working contexts, and management role.

Moser and Kalton (48) note specific care is required for questions which involve memory because the degree of accuracy is significant to the quality of the responses. They argue that memory is dependent upon a time lapse and upon the significance of the event to the respondent. Belson and Duncan (1978)(49) found that open-ended questions generated a lower rate of recall than checklist type questions. Whilst this problem was recognised in the compilation of the questionnaire, it was assumed that innovative events within professional experience can be significant and may be remembered, especially if the events were satisfying. If events are insignificant, it could be deduced they will remain forgotten. It was recognised that memory and recall can be selective and, at times, distorted by emotions connected with the events. Sudman and Bradburn (1982)(50) note a questionnaire is limiting because it needs written skills and is time-consuming to prepare. Walker (1985)(51) notes its advantages as the ease of its administration, the speed of its completion, and the possibility of direct comparisons between data which is particularly practical for small samples.

Sudman and Bradburn also recommend testing the draft questionnaire in order to identify design errors. Once constructed, the questionnaire was tested on a colleague whose experience in designing questionnaires for a national research organisation proved



invaluable. After revising the questions and the format, the questionnaire was tested on colleagues in similar situations and needed no further revision.

The 63% completion rate may reflect the careful construction, particularly as it was a voluntary activity for the sample. Its design intended to encourage responses. The first page of the questionnaire, which requested personal and professional data for quantitative interpretation, was headed thus: "This questionnaire is designed to gather information about you and your school anonymously. Your responses will augment Ph.D. interview data, collected within different and unidentified authorities, on the views of middle-managers, ie, Heads of Year and Department, of change in secondary schools." Appendix A2

Cohen and Mannion (1986)(52) observe that a questionnaire need not necessarily be short since brevity may appear to trivialise the complex issues with which respondents may be familiar. A compromise was sought on four A4 size pages. The instructions for responding to questions requiring quantitative data were brief: "Some questions on this page require only ticks in one or more boxes; others requiring words or numbers as answers are indicated by....." The instructions for the further three pages recorded the researcher's assumptions about the sample in order to clarify the purpose of the questions and the areas being researched. It appeared likely, for example, that some of the course participants were anticipating promotion to middle-management posts and might not have been appointed at the time of the questionnaire. This comment heads the qualitative section, pages 2, 3, 4: "The following questions are asked on the assumption that you anticipate making changes in the near future in your present or new post. Please respond as fully as

you can with this assumption in mind. Use a continuous sheet if you wish." An equal amount of space was allocated for each question in this section in order to encourage an open-ended response and to avoid suggesting or influencing its length. Each question appeared to merit the same length of response, Appendix A2.

The opportunity to run the questionnaire arose from a fortuitous encounter with an assistant education officer employed in that authority. It ran a middle-management inservice course entitled: "Middle management based on the needs of secondary school teachers who carry special responsibility over and above their actual teaching commitment". The course was open to existing and prospective middle-managers. It required considerable commitment and participation from its members and was operating for the last time after three years. Details of the course, its aims and activities, are available in Appendix A4. The time commitment was considerable; the initial three residential days, one Friday and a weekend, were followed by six consecutive weekly evening meetings six months later in which participants would report back on their experiences. The researcher attended the first residential day to collect the questionnaires. It was led by a nationally-known expert on curriculum development and its aims were defined as:

"To develop Middle Management skills by:-

(a) formulating individual objectives and strategies for course members

(b) widening the experience of educational practice of course members by implementing individual programmes in their schools

(c) following up implementation of objectives in schools with monitoring and evaluation by the participants both as individuals and as members of a group

(d) considering how Middle Management skills developed may be effectively used in the course members' schools" Appendix A3

The questionnaire was distributed by the course organiser with his own course preparation literature and with the following observation: "Also enclosed is a questionnaire from a practising teacher who is doing research into aspects of middle-management. It would be greatly appreciated if this could be completed and handed to the researcher on your arrival. However, it is a "voluntary activity" and is not part of our course", Appendix A3. One month elapsed between the mailing of the questionnaire to the course participants and the first day of the course which the researcher attended.

#### The questionnaire sample

Thirty participants were registered for the course of whom nineteen completed the questionnaire. Eighteen were collected on the first day and one was mailed to the researcher on the following day. None of the respondents were known to the researcher or were identifiable by the questionnaire responses. It could be concluded that, because of the demands, structure and themes of the course and because attendance required a commitment of time and effort from the participants, the sample represents a particular group. The group is self-selecting and might be characterised by such descriptions as well-motivated, willing to learn and to experiment, interested in educational issues. One responding course member had, in fact, attended upon the instruction of his/her head. Analysis of the data on page I of the questionnaire in which details of the working contexts of the group were sought, identifies the following common characteristics and reasons for course attendance:

\* already middle-managers

- \* in comprehensive schools, group 10+
- \* working in one authority
- \* under 39 years of age
- \* average number of years in teaching - nine
- \* responsible for, and experienced in, curriculum change (Table 4)
- \* most commonly cited reasons for course attendance
  1. as an aid to promotion
  2. to improve middle-management skills and/or knowledge
  3. to gain knowledge (Table 2)

### II.1.iii. Synopses of methods and samples

Both samples comprise middle-managers working in comprehensive schools, group 10 and above, in three local education authorities. The type of school was controlled by the researcher for the interview sample but not for the questionnaire respondents of whom eight worked in 11 - 16 comprehensive schools, ten in 11 - 18 schools, one in a secondary modern school. Whilst it was possible to ensure that the twelve interviewees were heads of year, department or faculty, the questionnaire sample could not be so precise. Fourteen were already middle-managers of whom one was appointed but not yet in promoted post; seven were seeking promotion, two of whom were already middle-managers.

The subjects taught by both samples spread across arts and sciences within both large and small departments or year teams. Ten interviewees taught in faculties or in departments within faculties whilst all the questionnaire respondents referred to departments or year teams; none recorded faculty structures. All twelve interviewees were identified as innovative middle-managers, according to this researcher's definition, noted earlier, whereas

the questionnaire sample is less specific; fourteen recorded experience of developing innovation at middle-management level and five reported experience of, and responsibility for, change at an unspecified level.

It is anticipated that sufficient similarities exist between both samples for reliable comparisons to be drawn between the two samples and their working contexts, namely:

- \* middle-managers
- \* innovatory function and responsibility
- \* within similar comprehensive schools
- \* pastoral and academic development
- \* cross-curricular and subject-based
- \* across 11 to 16 age range
- \* in hierarchically organised schools
- \* with defined management structures

The interview comments tend to refer to individual innovations, occasionally with more general understandings of innovation. As the questionnaire responses cannot be identified with specific examples, it has been assumed that they reflect experiences either general or specific in nature. All respondents recorded experience of particular innovations, but their response to other questions cannot be presumed to be related to those examples. Thus, the first distinction between the two samples is that, whilst both refer to particular innovations, only the interviewees' responses are identifiably specific. The hypothetical wording of the questionnaire, Appendix A2, prohibits an assumption of accurately identifiable practice.

As the purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit information similar to that gathered by interviewing, its construction was

important because the conditions for data collection could not be controlled by the researcher as for the interviews. It is anticipated that the questionnaire data will support the interview data, given the following assumptions:

- \* the data generated will be similar because the respondents are middle-managers
- \* the data generated allows cross referencing because a sufficient number of factors are common to both samples, for example, their working contexts, the types of schools, their professional interests. Tables 3 and 4
- \* as participants on a middle-management course and, therefore, self-selecting, particular motives, knowledge and experiences are likely which must be acknowledged as possible data bias
- \* the questionnaire can effectively generate statistically comparable data
- \* that data may lead to findings and conclusions which may suggest implications for middle-management involvement in curriculum development beyond the confines of the specific contexts and experiences of the two samples.

Thus, the data, expressed both qualitatively and quantitatively, has been collected by two methods and drawn from two samples. It is anticipated that broad implications may be drawn when data is cross-referenced and related to pre- and post-investigation literature.

## II.2 Research analysis

The proposal in this chapter that data collection methods should acknowledge perceptions as representing a respondent's view of events at a particular time, is relevant to the data analysis.

Fig. 2. Diagrammatic representation of the triangulatory process of analysis

<u>Interviews</u>	<u>Questionnaires</u>
recorded Autumn 1985	completed May 1986
<b>Phases of analysis</b>	<b>Steps for analysis</b>
listening      1	A descriptive
noting          2	B reliability
transcribing    3	C relationships
interrelating   4	D cross-referencing
categorising    5	
Ideas to follow through	Topics to follow up
<u>Themes</u>	
*effects of innovation upon learning	
*approaches to innovation	
*innovating teams and the school	
*middle-managers as innovators	
*management in a hierarchical structure	
*evaluation	

Literature survey:

theoretical and

empirical

studies

This section explains the process and levels of analysis (Fig. 2.) and its theoretical basis. Atkinson and Delamont (1985)(53) argue that successful interpretation is possible when analysis reflects research traditions. They propose that valid generalisations can emerge when a study is conducted within a framework which accumulates knowledge and develops insights. Like Shipman (1985)(54), they emphasise the importance of explicit, formal analysis which is founded upon a clear body of theory and method. These views represent the basis of the analytical approach adopted for this study as is exemplified in the discourse and in particular examples like school improvement.

A preliminary analysis of the data collected followed the conduct of the interviews and the receipt of the questionnaires fairly immediately. The first categories for analysis were the questions for each sample and, in time, a second category emerged which provided themes for the literature survey, namely:

- \* effect of innovation upon learning
- \* approaches to innovation
- \* innovating teams and the school
- \* middle-managers as innovators
- \* management in a hierarchical structure
- \* evaluation.

Two phases were followed when surveying the literature: evidence was sought and recorded in relation to these themes and then collated with reference to the collected data. As new areas for exploration emerged, additional evidence was researched. As this study has been researched and written over four years, additional relevant studies have been published which were also reviewed and included as appropriate. It will be evident to the reader that



Chapters III, IV, V and VI in which the research findings are analysed, contain more research evidence from the United Kingdom, particularly England and Wales, than from the continent of North America, especially the United States. There are two reasons for this deliberate selection. Firstly, this study has been conducted in schools on southern England which are under the direction of the Department of Education and Science whose legislative authority and circulars apply to schools in England and Wales. Secondly, schools in the United States operate under conditions which differ from those in England and Wales. Teachers' contracts, for example, differ considerably. Unlike headteachers, a junior high school principal functions solely as an administrator. Parental involvement and influence tends to be greater in U.S. schools than in England. Some Canadian and antipodean research from Australia and New Zealand has been included because there are more similarities with the British system. However, in order to make consistent comparisons of like with like, the majority of the cited evidence emanates from England and Wales. Reference to pre- and post-investigation literature has affected terminology; for example, frequent reference was made to "training" in the data, an activity which is embraced by the term "staff development" in later literature.

#### II.2.i. How the interviews were analysed

Bogdan and Taylor (1975)(55) observe that interview data should be objectively scrutinised because it cannot be as rigorously standardised as quantitative data. They note that it is a time-consuming exercise which should occur as soon as possible once all the interviews have been conducted. The analysis process developed for this study followed five phases (Fig. 2). In phase one each

interview tape was listened to twice: on the first occasion to recall the situation and on the second to note specific points of interest about the speaker, their perceptions and attitudes. During a third hearing, phase two, particular points were noted about individual responses to the schedule with tape meter number for reference. For each of these points, quotations were transcribed from the tapes and grouped into separate categories with references to the speaker, the subject, the innovation and the school. In addition, in phase three, three full transcriptions were made (Appendix C) which proved beneficial to the analysis process because a combination of areas of interest emerged. By matching the two processes of partial and full transcriptions, phase four, it was possible to identify the central topics for discussion. Cross references for these topics were recorded under two separate classifications, phase five:

(a) general "ideas to follow through" which referred to themes and ideas recurring in all twelve interviews and to the researcher's own ideas; comments and recommendations for further examination, correlation with or identification in the research literature.

Additional notes were made on how these ideas might be integrated as a cohesive whole with separate sections.

(b) specific "ideas particular to this interview" identified idiosyncratic themes, such as, subject relevances and issues, which might also relate to other interviews or specific situations, innovations; positions or role. Integration and exploration of these two classifications was guided by the six themes once the questionnaires had been analysed.

#### II.2.ii. How the questionnaires were analysed

The questionnaire analysis followed four stages after

preparation: (Fig. 2)

\* Step A broke down the sample descriptive data from questions 1 - 7 on page 1 to establish the viability of comparisons between the two samples and, therefore, the validity of the research findings and any conclusions drawn.

\* Step B examined the adequacy of responses to questions in terms of the volume of the data and to expose any ambiguity in the frame of the questions in order to determine if the data was sufficiently reliable for the next step in the analysis.

\* Step C was concerned with making links between the personal quantitative data in questions 1 - 7 on page 1, and question 8 on page 1 where respondents explained why they were attending the middle-management course. The intention was to discover if there were any relationships between expressed reasons (question 8) and the respondents' age, scale point, management position and subject taught or if it related to teaching subject alone.

\* Step D attempted to relate and cross refer data from a cluster of questions or single questions from pages 2, 3 and 4, which explored one particular topic, for example, experience of innovation or the benefits of innovation to a school.

Preparation for the analysis of the questionnaires was developed as follows. Each questionnaire was photocopied to provide a duplicate of the original which had been given a reference number and each response was given that reference number. The quantitative data on page 1 was recorded and analysed. Each duplicate copy for pages 2, 3 and 4 of each questionnaire was cut up by question and response so that the responses could be grouped within topics. As each questionnaire had a reference number, it was possible when necessary to cross check information about the school or the

respondent from page 1. Once the responses were grouped, analysed and tabulated, comparisons could be drawn along the lines of the interview data. Fresh patterns emerged.

Consistency in recording responses was important, for example, where a response was set out with a box to tick for Yes or No and a comment invited as in "If Yes, please say why?". There were three possible forms of response:

1. Yes or No
2. Yes or No and a comment
3. Yes only

A careful record was kept for each questionnaire of the extent of responses, for example, if a question was not answered, if boxes were ticked but with no comment, whether detailed or minimal responses were given, and if a question different to the one asked was responded to.

Thus, analysis of both the interview and questionnaires data can be summarised in two levels: extraction and classification followed by interpretation.

### II.3 Presentation of the research

The analysis of the data collected for this study has been interwoven with the research literature in order to make it more accessible to the reader and to narrate the research as interestingly and comprehensively as possible. In addition, it may illustrate the relationship between theory and data. The data is presented in four chapters, each of which explores one or more of the central findings. Each chapter introduces the theme by referring to general arguments found in the research literature and other empirical studies; this is followed by an analysis of the

data with reference to additional empirical evidence where necessary. For example, the introduction of innovation constitutes the theme of Chapter III; its sub-sections discuss approaches for introduction and team-building. The structure of each chapter is designed to relate theoretical and empirical evidence to the research data and, therefore, includes a span across the literature, both pre-and post-investigation, in order to illustrate current and developing circumstances. Although the investigation does not intend to present quantitative data, the "tables" in Appendix B record frequency of responses and other items.

The analysis is presented sequentially across the four chapters to create fluency and a progressive understanding of the process of innovation from a middle-management perspective. Chapter III states the perceived purposes of innovation and an analysis of its introduction by middle-managers whose hierarchical role is described in Chapter IV and management role in Chapter V, and the perceived consequences of their actions are discussed in Chapter VI. Consequently, there is seldom identification of the area in which the innovation has occurred unless it is specifically relevant to a particular issue. The teaching subject of the quoted respondents is deliberately omitted because this study is concerned with the processes at middle-management per se rather than with areas of knowledge. Where subject idiosyncrasies are related or thought to be relevant to interpretation of the data, they have been noted in the text. Comments are reported verbatim with minimal alteration to the original recordings except where necessary to protect identity and to maintain confidentiality.

#### II.4 Objectivity, truth and phenomenology

If the aim of research is to increase knowledge the question of objectivity is pertinent to any understanding of approaching truth. Truth can be interpreted as a proposition independent of the person who states it, and which fits into a body of already-accepted truth rather like a mosaic tile in a mural. Alternatively, it may be interpreted as what corresponds with reality, a reality which is reached by objective tests, scientific procedures, models and alternative explanations.

Such theories are problematic when applied to the methodology of interviewing because respondents' statements need to be subjected to two tests: the test of integrity and the test of truth. Indeed, part of the challenge of interviewing is the encouragement of honest statements about how respondents perceive events. It can be achieved in a number of ways as described in II.2 Methods and samples, II.2.i Interviewing, and always with regard for consistency.

To achieve integrity the interviewer must be in a neutral position where power and status are irrelevant but whose personality, especially the willingness to listen, can coax the interviewee into genuine assertions. This is difficult to achieve because of human nature and the inclination to disguise or hide personal inadequacy, and is made more difficult by a greater demand: the individual may state the truth as he or she believes it to be, but honest opinion does not necessarily mean truth. There are two ways of overcoming this problem - the phenomenological approach and the attempt to achieve some sort of triangulation.

Phenomenology proposes a pre-suppositionless position: the interview, for example, is approached in an open-minded way and the

respondents are acknowledged as speaking for themselves. What is studied is the way they view reality and their experiences. It is based on Kant's notion of phenomena and noumena, suggesting things cannot be known in themselves but rather in a mediated way. Thus, in accepting this notion, the object of this study is the perceptions of the interviewees and the commonness of their experiences.

However, their experiences within an institution depend not only upon their own psychology but also upon the degree of status, power and autonomy they possess. These differentia help to explain any differences of experiences and, if the interviewees seem to share common experiences, then it is possible to argue that phenomena associated with the general role have been discovered. Any differences in perception may be explicable by social and psychological factors. The target is the universal and failing that the general.

The second way of overcoming the problem of truth in dealing with social attitudes is to introduce a form of triangulation, which, in this context implies using different methods and different sample groups to see whether there is agreement. Thus, research must be checked against the literature and preferably after data collection in order to avoid influencing outcomes and to remain critically detached. Secondly, new findings in the literature may be encountered during the process of analysis and synthesis. If two or more researchers in isolation reach similar conclusions, then some substantiation of the data is provided. A third element is in using another technique for data collection, such as, questionnaires with a different sample group. The problems of such a group were noted in II.2 Methods and samples, II.2.ii. The questionnaire,

especially as it was a self-selecting group. However, what may be helpful is the more specific findings about how those respondents see their role. Arguably, the fact that they were course participants might lead to unitary responses because of course socialisation - however, the questionnaires preceded the course. Analysis should be able to identify common role responses from course socialisation.

Thus, to discover truthful opinions requires rigour; it bears another consideration. Organisational conclusions can be seen to operate at different levels. Middle-managers will describe what techniques they found useful: the test of such is their workability. In this respect, teaching and managing are technologies. At the first level of technology, practitioners require rules of thumb, knacks and low-level skills but, at a second level, there are more generalised prescriptions, like recipes. At a third level, there are technological theories which attempt to explain why the 'recipes' work. The fourth level is the most universal scientific theory, built upon a background of universal laws. The first three levels are evident in teaching: from level one hints for the inexperienced from the experienced to level two general strategies operated by groups of teachers or managers to level three educational theory which draws on a mixture of disciplines including those concerned with values. It seems that most education and management has not arrived at level four. The stated conclusions of middle-managers in this study about how to manage innovation comes at the second level whilst the discourse on this which attempts to draw on the existing literature, moves towards the third level. At the second level, the generalised prescriptions, the test of truth related to these statements is



their pragmatic consequences and, if several people have found them to work, their value lies in this. This means that these kinds of prescriptions or middle-management strategies are verified in a different way from those other statements which may merely explicate phenomena related to what it means to be a role-holder. In this case, the conclusions are verified by practice.

To summarise, this discussion describes truth as a protean concept and, within the theory of school organisation where there is no fully-developed scientific set of laws, what is sought is at a lower level. Science is thought to progress in two ways - the Cartesian method of theorising and the Baconian method of data collection. The two processes must be merged, though at one stage, the emphasis will be different than at another. Part of the attempt of this thesis is to develop by a Baconian emphasis.

## II.5 Concluding remarks

As Walker (1985)(56) observes, where the researcher remains responsive to the situation, an interconnection between the data collection and its analysis becomes the core of the research study: this is the intention of this study.

2. It aims to gather perceptions of experience on the premise that a perception represents one version of an event, narrated from a particular viewpoint and coloured by personal interpretations. The intention is to reach into a particular perspective. To this end, two qualitative methods have been employed to gather data as rigorously as possible on the understanding that interpretive research can produce valid accounts of experience when the same criteria are applied to the data analysis and where one method alone is not relied upon. Whilst the similarity between the questionnaire

and the interview schedule might appear to mitigate against triangulation, this may be resolved by the differences between the samples and the extensive reference to the literature. In addition, it is recognised that such methods require the researcher to remain non-judgemental, self-aware and reflective in a consistently pre-suppositionless approach.

Objectivity and truth are issues which dog both methods; however, rigorous and thoughtful application and awareness of possible sources of influence may resolve such issues. Two samples as sources of data in conjunction with triangulation in analysis can promote reliable findings. It has been argued in this chapter that the presentation of these findings should be academic, accessible and informative. The originality of the research design and process should facilitate the narration of the data in the following chapters.

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### Chapter III

#### Innovation: Purpose and Process

Analysis of the research findings, part I: the perceived purpose of innovation in a comprehensive school and ways in which it is introduced and maintained.

## Chapter III

### Innovation: Purpose and Process

Analysis of the research findings, part I: the perceived purpose of innovation in a comprehensive school and ways in which it is introduced and maintained.

#### Introduction

This chapter presents three categories of ideas about how the middle-managers in this study perceived innovation. It looks at their interpretations of its purpose; it notes how they introduced innovation and how they ensured its implementation. These perceptions indicate innovating as a significant middle-management activity with the over-arching purpose of improving the quality of educational provision in school either in subject areas or pastorally or across the curriculum. The means by which innovation was introduced, as the middle-managers recall it, seem to reflect this purpose.

As both purpose and process seem to be closely connected and, at times, interrelated, they are discussed in one chapter. In addition, the findings are related to relevant theory and other empirical studies within that framework. As the resulting chapter is long, it is subdivided under the following headings for ease of reading:

III.1. The relationship between management and innovation

III.2. Ways of introducing innovation

III.3. Team-building - maintaining innovation

In common parlance, the terms innovation and change tend to be used synonymously and interchangeably. In this study no distinction was made by the respondents in either research sample. No definition was offered by the researcher. Chapter II.1 noted the researcher's interpretation of an innovator as a person who had designed,



introduced and implemented curricular change. This is planned curricular change as opposed to accidental or evolutionary alterations to circumstances or conditions or practice. Morant (1981)(1) offers a pragmatic definition for change which is planned and intentional as innovation or renovation. His view that schools tend to implement a combination of both can be illustrated in this study. Table 5 lists the changes planned and introduced by the interview sample, classified according to Morant. The distinction between the two types lies in extent and range.

Innovation means intentional change to both structure and function and can be related to intention, process and achievement. It is the product, Morant argues, of ideas emerging from the processes of generation, selection, adaptation and refinement, either singly or in conjunction. The introduction of Integrated Science and Integrated Humanities are two such examples in this investigation. Renovation implies a narrower scope, being concerned with an adjustment to current practice which might be illustrated in the examples of the extension of the Special Needs Unit or the first year tutorial curriculum. According to Morant, neither concept - innovation or renovation - means maintaining the status quo because both result from a review of current practice. Each is concerned with altering it to a lesser or greater extent and by intention.

Thus, drawing on Morant's definition, in conjunction with the premises of the study and its samples, innovation can be defined in theory as particular actions with specific intention to respond to particular needs. This might include accommodating external constraints or influences, practical circumstances, human characteristics. The purpose of such action is to lead to an improvement of current circumstances. Therefore, planned change -

innovation or renovation - means new structures or new materials or new teacher behaviours and actions or new teacher beliefs and understandings. It may embrace all these aspects or a combination of several.

This definition is supported by the data as is illustrated in Table 6 in which the middle-managers' reasons for introducing change are categorised. The predominant category reflects an interest in improving the educational provision. A sceptic might argue that innovation is the consequence of personal motives like career promotion, self-aggrandisement, the exercise of power, motives which might not be publicly declared. This was not evident in this study: it seems to spring from an understanding of curriculum development in relation to school improvement. Table 7 which categorises the sources of the sampled middle-managers' ideas about their reasons for innovating, reflects this view.

### III.1 The relationship between management and innovation

#### III.1.i. Theoretical perspectives

Everard and Morris (1985)(2) observe that innovation is a significant management function. They propose that the most important indicator of effective management performance is the ability to acquire a broad perspective of the activities of an organisation and to recognise the need for change. Managerial effectiveness in industry also embraces the abilities to integrate resources for the effective achievement of goals; to serve as a catalyst for effective change; and to maintain and develop resources. Theoretically, successful management combines the setting and achievement of goals with the appropriate exploitation of a range of resources, a process which could be applied to management in schools.

Everard and Morris (1985)(3) also argue that achieving change effectively may be problematic if staff fail to recognise and understand the complexities which arise from theoretical as well as practical concerns. When viewed from the perspective of schools, Everard and Morris (4) note examples of such complexities as being the definition of the schools' aims, analysis of constraints upon change, identifying the process for achieving those aims, and planning the stages for effective implementation. It is their view that effective management is essential for such a multi-faceted activity; however, their interpretation of effective management seems to be autocratic leadership. Everard and Morris (5) believe staff need a leadership which can clarify the intentions of management. This suggests a hierarchical structure based on manipulation and directorial authority.

Writers with direct experience of schools tend to adopt wider interpretations of terms. Dean (1985)(6), an experienced secondary head and local authority inspector, shares the perception of innovation as a complex process but extends its interpretation with such terms as development, progression, renewal and reform. Avoiding the commercial overtones she replaces management with leadership, according synonymous meaning. Dean (7) emphasises the role of the individual by identifying effective leadership as participatory, as group action, where individual personal qualities complement the successful attainment of goals. Thus, management in an educational context is concerned with leadership which recognises the contribution of the individual in supporting change.

As another educationalist, Paisey (1981)(8) argues such management can serve the school's purpose, by ensuring that its resources are directed towards a common ground for effective and

changing education. Like Everard and Morris, his argument links effectiveness with innovation and the use of resources. However, he notes that the inter-relationship of the concepts of management and education can cause confusion and imbalance within schools. He sees them as parallel and complementary activities for schools, representing a common purpose which should unify teachers as their *raison d'etre*. In practice, he argues, this unity is difficult to achieve.

The reasons Paisey (1981) proposes about why teachers may fail to recognise a common purpose are summarised here in two synopses. Firstly, he argues that the internal complexities of a school dissipate teachers' energy in attempts to maintain its organisation, for example, by administrative work, meetings, liaison with parents. Secondly, he argues that teachers are also concerned with defending the school against external criticisms, for example, from politicians, the community, the legal system. He sees the task of management as reducing the expenditure of energy on maintenance and defence in order to achieve agreement on the school's common purpose. An additional element, not explicitly noted by Paisey, are the personal elements or subject factors, for example, relationships between staff, sympathy with the head's view, recognition of a school's ethos, professional relationships, concern with the teaching subject, classroom discipline or resources.

Paisey (1984)(9) extends these theories by illustrating from his case studies the significance of good management and the problem of contradictory demands. He explores the dilemma managers face of balancing the interests of the school's staff with those of their partners and clients, that is, the children, parents and community, and the authority to whom the school is accountable. Resolution of

this dilemma reflects management effectiveness.

In theory, management seems to involve the integration of resources for effective goal achievement, maintaining resources, sound leadership, a clear sense of purpose and recognition of the role of the individual. Given the complex nature of schools and the pressures upon them, this may be difficult to achieve. Thus, it could be deduced that an additional consideration for managing innovation, is staff management.

Gyte (1985)(10) argues that innovation is as much concerned with relationships as with methods. He concluded from his experiences of innovating as a head that the involvement of staff through open, non-hierarchical discussion forums contributed to the quality of the implementation of changes. He argued that the nature of the decision-making structure facilitated change. This illustrates both the value of anticipating staff needs and the staff-management inter-relationship, a concern less evident in models of change pre-1980.

Nicholls (1983)(11) offers evidence from a different perspective which endorses this point. She noted that ineffectual management of innovation which wastes people's time, energy and effort, highlights the negative aspects of human behaviour, like dissatisfaction, low self-esteem, a sense of incompetence. As a result, any change will prove to be largely cosmetic. That each writer, Gyte and Nicholls, reports from such different perspectives may reflect their experiences. Certainly, their view of management differs. Gyte argues for an examination of the management structure before attempting innovation and for a collaborative, staff-oriented approach. For Nicholls, however, management requires control, planning, direction and order.

The purpose of this comparison is to illustrate what appears to be a new direction for thinking about the management of innovation. In a sense, Nicholls' theory represents the transition stage between the decades, 1970 and 1980. Her approach and her own research (1979) were founded in innovation and management models, pre 1980, which concentrated on ends, on products, on the concept of in-put and out-put of the systems approach in which the result was deemed more significant than the means or the process. The mechanistic and logistical nature of such aims and objectives models in which process was determined by intended outcomes, may be inappropriate to recent developments in curriculum change in which human interaction and pupil engagement in learning are increasingly significant; for example, the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) purports to examine what a child knows, understands and can do.

There is evidence to suggest, for example, that centre-periphery models may not be effective when applied regardless: their application should take into account local circumstances. Tamir (1985)(12) argues this point in his overview of curriculum evaluation since 1960. He believes that there is considerable evidence in the practical issues raised about empirically-based models to illustrate the need to accommodate and to adjust theoretical and methodological principles in real situations. He notes a trend towards greater recognition not only of the effect of implementation upon successful innovation, but also of that it should be understood in terms of the practical issues teachers face. This emphasis is relatively new. Tamir attributes this growing understanding to the application of and discoveries from a range of research techniques, such as, classroom observation, ethnographic data collection, in-school evaluations.

The influence of research techniques upon how the management of

innovation can be viewed, is noted by other writers. Taylor (1986)(13) argues that the centre-periphery methods of innovation and its management are being superseded by school-based curriculum development because of the establishment of closer links between educational research and practice. Pinar (1986)(14) notes the particular contribution of qualitative research because of its intention to discover meaning within specific contexts.

The relationship between context and understanding can be illuminated by other means. For example, Reid (1986)(15) proposes that history rather than social sciences, can provide an understanding of managing change within contexts because it provides examples of situations and interactions from which understanding can develop. He supports the view of curriculum as a practical concept and argues that decisions about action can be guided by theory when it is applied to specific contexts.

Thus, our understanding of the management of innovation is to some extent changing as a result of the practice of educational research methods which examine context and processes rather than outcomes alone. Such methods offer examples and models for testing ideas, exploring meaning, identifying action, and indicate additional areas for consideration as well as providing fresh insights. In this way, levels of theorising can be developed and extended as was discussed in Chapter 1. It can be seen from these writers Pinar, Reid, Tamir and Taylor, that curricular change is a practical activity, often context specific, requiring understanding which can be acquired by a range of methods and some theoretical consideration. Although this concept seems to ignore such issues as aims, objectives, method, content and resourcing, it identifies the first consideration for managers - a point of departure. It could be

argued that, without this preparation, it would be difficult to manage innovation in the way in which Everard and Morris (1985) conceive success, described at the beginning of this discussion.

If, as Everard and Morris (1985)(16) report, change is a significant management function, its success may depend upon factors other than those they identify. To achieve successful innovation, four elements require consideration - the role of managers in introducing innovation; the nature of a school as an organisation; the process of change and its effect upon the organisation; and the quality of human relationships and personal interaction.

To summarise, the purpose of educational innovation is to introduce intentional changes to current practice so that more effective learning and/or teaching can take place. Such changes might affect teaching materials, methods, techniques or teacher attitudes. The management of change requires that such alterations are successfully implemented by the deployment of appropriate resources, strategies for introduction and implementation, and with regard for the context. The following analysis of the data illustrates the middle-managers' perceptions of practice.

### III.1.ii The middle-managers' purposes

The middle-managers described a pro-active role, discounting change for "change's sake." They were able to identify where innovation was required and why, as Table 6 itemises. The purpose was most frequently cited as improving pupil learning, that is, "to give the children a better deal", which was seen to be attainable, to a large extent, by influencing staff in a variety of ways.

Therefore, it could be argued that the key purpose of innovation is to achieve a more effective delivery of the curriculum by staff.



### Purpose 1: improving pupil learning

Whilst concern for pupil learning was a common and generally cited reason for introducing innovation, a number of common concerns were recorded by both samples which identified specific areas of pupil learning which could be improved as a result of introducing change.

There was a concern about making learning relevant to the pupils' needs and interests. Relevance was deemed to affect attitudes to learning: if the children were actively engaged, they expressed positive views of their work and this, ultimately, was thought to influence options uptake at 13+. Both content and process might be altered in order to increase pupil engagement, to encourage group work, and to promote personal responsibility for learning. The following comment notes a significant difference in understanding:

"Knowledge is broken down into compartments. That compartmentalisation doesn't reflect the reality of knowledge as a seamless cloak. It is artificial to break it down into boxes - pupils don't do that, we do. You can capitalise on the pupils' holistic view of the world so that they benefit and you can be true to the reality of knowledge."

The constraining effects of examination syllabii, requirements and areas of knowledge were noted by respondents. They questioned the relationship between examination success and teaching methods and opportunities for effective learning. For this reason, curricular change was deemed more practicable in the lower school than in the upper school; it was occasionally seen as a fore-runner to changes in later years. In addition, it was thought teachers might transfer changes in attitude or approach to examination groups. The following comment reflects upon this relationship in subjects with progressive

### learning structures:

"There were internal factors about the need to do something, having identified the area of greatest need - the Lower School - because it has such a pervasive effect on the Upper School where the separate subject identity is stronger. In order to maintain some adherence to the separate subject uniqueness it would be very difficult to combine the unique way of looking at the world that History's got at Advanced level to the unique way of looking at the world that Geography's got, because, as you move up, they diverge because they become reliant upon concepts that are more clearly defined and distinct at that level. You can combine them in the lower school because the concepts are just simpler and you're not adhering to the tradition of both subjects."

In addition to the quality and relevance of pupil learning, a third common concern was gender bias linked with stereotyping. It was noted by interviewees but not by the questionnaire respondents which could be accounted for in a number of ways. The interviewees' schools were in authorities which published explicit policies for equality of opportunity. Two of these schools had implemented training for staff on awareness of gender issues. It is not known if the same factors were present in the schools in which the questionnaire respondents were employed. In addition, it may be possible that teachers in urban areas are more aware of such issues by their physical location than those in rural areas. Or the difference may simply be attributable to the interviewees responding to a female researcher whose interest in gender issues might have been assumed! The interviewees were concerned that gender stereotyping restricted pupils' access to learning and anticipated

change could overcome such difficulties as this comment illustrates:

"I wanted to see what effect Integrated Humanities would have on the choices of boys for typing and office practice - these subjects are not just for girls in the fourth and fifth years. It was to try and break down the gender stereotyping."

Thus, the purpose of innovation was seen by middle-managers to improve upon current circumstances so as to increase the quality of pupil learning. This could be achieved by better curricula, by ensuring equality of opportunity for learning, and by engaging pupil interest and enjoyment. Chapter 6, Evaluating the Effects of Innovation, indicates how far middle-managers felt they had successfully achieved this purpose.

Purpose 2: improving the teachers.

Middle-managers in both samples had recognised that the introduction of innovation would influence staff in a range of ways which are explained in section III.2 of this chapter. Whilst a few respondents saw change as preventing complacency and as "keeping staff on their toes", that was seldom stated as its purpose. It was seen as an opportunity to increase staff awareness of new approaches, methods and materials; to reflect upon current practice; and to evaluate their effectiveness, that is, "to think more deeply about the work they (staff) ask pupils to do." They expressed concern about the narrowness of teachers' views and the need to alter perceptions. It could be deduced that these middle-managers saw themselves as agents of influence with wider and more long-term views than their colleagues.

Changing teaching method was a frequently identified purpose: in the interviews there were eight references to "pedagogic" and seven to "better teaching"; in addition to eleven classified as

affecting pupil learning. From the nineteen questionnaires, there were two specific responses to "better teaching", twelve to pupil success and three to "better learning". New methods were seen to bring a welcome freshness or new outlook which increased the degree of relevance for pupils and could maximise an untapped staff potential. The interaction resulting from change could increase staff learning and reduce insularity as this comment observes:

"People don't like professional isolation - the more contact you can have with teachers at a professional level the better. Performance in teaching is related to contact with colleagues professionally because that's how we learn. We learn to improve from other people. We don't generate improvements from within ourselves mostly. We plagiarise - that's how people learn and, therefore, improve."

Whilst such integration promotes a new subject identity and co-operative working among staff, it can also unify as this comment illustrates:

"In terms of trying to unite a fairly disparate group, Integrated Studies is a kind of belt that you strap around us all and that keeps us in. It has a useful management effect. The cynic might suggest it's artificial."

Individual respondents cited other idiosyncratic reasons for introducing change, such as, safeguarding a minority language, ensuring staff employment, lack of promotion opportunities. The general purpose was to improve the nature of classroom teaching for greater effectiveness.

To summarise, the data supports the theoretical view that innovation is a management function and that its purpose is to bring improving alterations to current practice. The data indicates that

the sampled middle-managers shared a common concern to improve educational provision. They saw innovation as a way of bringing about improvements, for example, to teachers' styles, method or attitudes, and recognised that it could influence other aspects of their work, like a sense of community, relationships between staff, working process. The key reason for introducing change expressed by both samples, was to benefit the pupils by improving the curriculum offered to them, Table 6. To bring this about the staff had first to be influenced. Whilst pupils were identified as the reason for introducing change, in the sense of being the direct beneficiaries, the staff represent the means for achieving these benefits. This difference may be accounted for by comparing "staff" with "curriculum". The curriculum could be described as the cerebral element: an intellectual jigsaw which can be interconnected by tactical and practical actions. The staff represents a different challenge, and, given the degree of reflection and consideration afforded to staff by middle-managers, a greater challenge. Designing the logistics of an innovation is a different matter to gaining the support of the teaching staff. As a group, the staff is complex, disparate and diverse. It cannot be adjusted or manipulated by intellectual exercise like the curriculum. The following section III.2 examines the role of teachers in curricular change and the strategies middle-managers employed for its introduction.

### III.2 Approaches for introducing innovation

If curriculum development aims to alter classroom practice, it might seem self-evident that teachers represent an important consideration. In both samples, responses to questions about the process of introduction referred most frequently to staff or staff-

related issues as Table 9 illustrates. That teachers are significant for effecting change, as Holt (1987)(17) argues, seems to be borne out in research evidence. He cites, for example, HMI in the DES (1979) paper and Sarason (1982) as reporting teachers as being more significant than resources. The high profile given to inservice training by numerous contributors to Hopkins and Wideen (1984)(18) reflects the central role of teachers in implementing initiatives. Like Elliot, Leithwood et al (1982)(19) noted that teachers are in the best position to understand what pupils need and that change strategies should not interfere with this autonomy. Indeed, Holt (1987) advocates a new starting point for innovation - in the experience and practice of teachers - in preference to a technocratic approach founded on a series of activities which are regulated by laws and theories. He argues that other methods of innovation have failed because the teachers' classroom role has tended to be ignored.

This role can be recognised in the list offered by Dean (1985)(20) in her anecdotal commentary on what motivates teachers. She includes pupil learning; enthusiasm for teaching the subject; recognition, praise and encouragement; the opportunity to take responsibility and to contribute; the challenge of gaining new professional skills; inspiration from others; and career prospects. The following section looks at some of the issues middle-managers might consider about teachers and their attitudes to change: it may explain why both examples of middle-managers felt the need to influence teachers.

### III.2.i The significance of teachers

Teachers are important in curriculum innovation for several reasons. Firstly, teachers' decisions about curricula seem to

reflect their view of the classroom. Studies reported in Leithwood (1982)(21) of Canadian research into the central issues concerning curricular decisions, indicate the importance of teachers' decisions in two respects which are pertinent to this study. In the first respect, Leithwood, Ross and Montgomery (22) noted that the most influential cluster of factors upon teachers' decisions is student need, characteristics and responses; the second most influential is teachers' backgrounds, skills and preferences. Another study by Wahlstrom et al (23) makes a connection between these two clusters: they noted that teachers' assessments of students are closely related to their own personal beliefs, classroom environments and subject areas. The inter-relationship of student assessment and teacher's self indicate why teachers' decisions are relevant to curricular change.

The teacher's personal needs represent another aspect of the teacher's self. Macdonald and Leithwood (1982)(24) investigated which of their basic needs, teachers attempted to satisfy through curricular decisions. The researchers classified basic needs as self-actualisation, esteem, affiliation and security, according to the Maslowian hierarchy. Teachers' responses were categorised and ranked within these four groups. The category "affiliation with students", achieved the highest number of responses; student affiliation was identified as meaning student interest and understanding, children's enjoyment, emotional attachment, students' friend, and student-teacher communication. Given these identifications, the researchers deduced that the achievement of pupil progress and good relationships was a significant influence upon teachers' decisions. It seems to be based on an assumption that decision-making is a reflection of personal basic need, not

explicitly declared but an acceptable assumption. They report that teachers need support and help in increasing their effectiveness.

However, the satisfaction of personal need can be problematic. Cooper (1984)(25) raises the issue of teachers' conflicting interests and its effect upon their classroom decisions. He sees the conflict as between status and promotion and may be related to the previous point about teachers' needs and the following discussion about subject status. He argues that teachers' career interests may influence their response to innovation; younger teachers, for example, may be involved in activities which senior staff may interpret as undermining established procedures. Initiating change in these circumstances could damage their career prospects if it were seen, for example, as disrupting the status quo. This view illustrates the importance of the school's view of change and, in particular, the head's interest in, and support for, initiatives. A middle-manager, appointed to introduce change, may experience no conflict in this respect if there is compatibility of expectation. However, were an initiative required which necessitated, say, a cross-curricular direction incompatible with a head of department's expectations, conflict might ensue.

Goodson (1984)(26) in the same text pursues a related argument. He sees teachers' material interests as being interlinked with specialist subject and their own development. As a result, such issues as pay, promotion and conditions of employment, may influence teachers' decisions about involvement in change and the way in which their actions are interpreted by middle-managers. It seems acceptable to assume that if a teacher wants promotion and sees the implementation of change as a way of achieving promotion, he/she may do so; however, this kind of motive is likely to remain undeclared.



Certainly, it appeared only once in this research. Both Cooper and Goodson propose a re-appraisal of subject definition to resolve this likelihood. In addition, both writers are reflecting a particular theoretical perspective. In essence, these issues range across the antithetical aspects of a teacher's work which may reflect the nature of a school when it is viewed phenomenologically, as an incipient anarchy. Whether this view is accepted or not, the writers do offer new ways of reflecting upon curricular issues. On the one hand it draws attention to the conflicts a middle-manager might experience in relation to the head, the subject or the extent of an initiative and, on the other, relates to the point made earlier about the perceived narrowness of teachers' interests. (III.1.ii purpose 2)

Thus far it has been argued that teachers' curricular decisions may be influenced by the factors affecting their assessment of pupils, their own backgrounds, skills and preferences; and their personal needs, both basic and material. There is also evidence to indicate the influence of perceptions of the subject taught upon those decisions because of the nature of the teaching relationship. Teaching could be described as an interactive event in which pupil and teacher learn from each other as well as teach each other, consciously or otherwise. It is likely, therefore, that the interaction can influence both parties and may affect plans for initiatives.

An example is offered by Measor (1984)(27) who argues that teachers and pupils negotiate and realise the curriculum by their interactions. Further, she argues, pupils' views can constrain teachers' actions and thereby limit curriculum development. Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(28) identified the influence of pupils working as powerful agents against change in the classroom,

especially against teachers' innovating in isolation. The point being made here is that teachers' perceptions of their work with regard to their specialist subject and its perceived importance, as realised through the interactive relationship with pupils, may influence their curricular decisions. This need not necessarily suggest a restrictive view since teachers' work is very subject-oriented by their training, the exams they conduct, the textbooks they use, even their professional journals.

Studies presented in Goodson and Ball (1984)(29) illustrate, for example, the embodiment of different values in different curriculum subjects and indicate implications for managers which are reflected in this study. Goodson's (30) own study examines the relationship between subject status and the allocation of resources and the level of teacher involvement for reasons of career enhancement. He argues that academic subjects enhance teachers' career prospects, thereby creating a conflict of interests. An example of such a conflict is presented by Burgess (1984)(31) who notes that teachers deem a subject worthwhile according to rigid, academic criteria and to a perceived subject status hierarchy. Ball (1984)(32) also noted a relationship between perceptions and subject status. This study supports some of these findings, in particular, that teachers are perturbed about the relationship between subject status, funding and promotion. This issue arose more often among the "pastoral" innovations than among the more recently high status academic subjects like Science. Although funding, especially lack of, was frequently mentioned by interviewees in terms of a subject status hierarchy of financial priorities, it seldom was identified as a major implication for effecting change. The view that well-funded academic subjects enhance career prospects, was not supported. The

interviewees made few comparisons between subjects; they tended to focus on their own areas; this may also reflect their satisfaction with their own budgets or the opportunity at middle-management level to attract the status, funding or promotional prospects they wanted. This opportunity may not be perceived to be available to the more junior staff in the research studies reported here.

In addition, the effect of teacher perceptions upon pupil perceptions of teaching subjects may be significant for planners who aim to influence the attitudes of staff towards change. Player (1984)(33) concluded from his study of views of, and reactions to, the curriculum of unmotivated pupils, that teachers are very real to their pupils and that the perceptions teachers convey to their pupils are significant to the level of pupil engagement. If teachers express negative or anti-pathetic attitudes towards new methods or materials, they may influence pupil responses; it seems likely that this notion was implicit in middle-managers' desire to alter staff attitudes and to increase awareness of the benefits of change.

Finally, Woods' (1984)(34) account of Tom, an art teacher, brings this discussion full circle in his conclusion that, for some teachers, the curriculum can be an expression of self and of personal beliefs, values and attitudes. In a single account, he appears to confirm the conclusions of the studies in Leithwood et al (1982)(35) that teaching is a personal activity through which personal needs may be satisfied. Thus, for an innovating manager, recognition of those needs and the influences at work upon teachers' perceptions, should be a prime consideration.

The following summary of this research evidence about the significance of teachers may illustrate the implications for middle-managers intending to introduce innovation in school. It may be

particularly relevant to those whose role is perceived as one of leadership and for whom the effect of their intended innovation will impinge upon the working environment of their colleagues. The evidence attempted to identify what factors may predispose teachers to implement change by looking at three areas:

- \* what influences teachers' decisions
- \* the teaching situation
- \* the significance of subject identity and status

It was noted that teachers are significant to curriculum development as a consequence of the interpersonal nature of teaching to which both partners, teachers and pupils, bring their own values, perceptions and opinions. There seems to be a cycle of influences within the classroom relationship. Teachers' values and perceptions guide their assessment of pupil needs and may be transmitted, directly or otherwise, to the pupils. Pupils reciprocate, communicating their own perceptions or values, and can, in turn, influence their teachers' decisions. In addition, it is argued teachers seek to satisfy their personal needs through their work but may experience a conflict of interest. Thus, it emerges that teachers are significant to curriculum development in four particular ways:

- \* their perception of the classroom
- \* their personal needs
- \* a range of interests, personal and educational
- \* perceptions deriving from the interactive pupil-teacher relationship.

It could be justifiably argued that these reasons emerge

because the evidence presented is largely phenomenological or interactionist. However, it was noted by Tamir earlier that such

methods promote new understandings which Holt (1987)(36) observed were essential since previous approaches to curriculum innovation has been less successful than desirable. Stenhouse (1984)(37) recommended researchers to study their own work and to share their expertise, understanding and conclusions. Alternatively, it may reflect upon the interests or bias of a researcher whose own experience as a head of faculty has highlighted the role teachers play in implementing curriculum development, a view expressed rigorously by middle-managers in this study.

The middle-managers revealed an understanding of the relationship between teachers' perceptions and behaviour, opinion and experience and a likely effect upon implementing change, as this comment illustrates:

"Disadvantages from other people's perceptions and insofar as they are disadvantages for them, then they are disadvantages for me; if someone thinks it's a waste of time, then it's a disadvantage from my point of view. Hence one of the problems is to overcome resistance to change and to enable people to have an accurate perception of what they're getting into.... One could identify two processes - formal and informal. I could say there's only the formal but I know that there's a more subtle and less overt process which can nevertheless be very influential to people."

The term "resistance" was used by four interviewees and in two questionnaires, and was perceived to indicate in both the interviews and the questionnaires anxiety, feeling threatened, reluctance or a sense of isolation. Such anxieties were seen to relate to questions of professional competence, expertise, subject or staff status, increased workload. Nicholls (1983)(38) defines resistance as such

anxieties and Gray (1979)(39) describes it as an organisational characteristic which is an inevitable consequence. The middle-managers seemed to accept these concerns as natural and their strategies reflect an interest in overcoming them.

Whilst some respondents seemed to be relatively unsure about managing change, others had identified problems and potentialities and recognised factors likely to influence their management of change, such as, inherited attitudes and conditions, resistance, firmly established practice, prejudices, and the quality of relationships. For some, being new-comers was perceived to be partially advantageous. Within these differences in both samples, it is possible to distinguish between those interventions or strategies concerned primarily with staff and others which will be discussed in Chapter IV. The staff-related interventions emerge from the responses to interview questions 7 and 8 and questionnaire question 5. They have been categorised in the following discussion in three common areas:

- \* consultation
- \* investigation
- \* training

(Table 10)

### III.2.ii. Consultation

The significance of staff consultation to successful innovation was illustrated earlier in this Chapter in III.1.i. The following discussion identifies both the rationale and the approaches recommended by theorists and relates to the data in terms of the tasks and purposes of managers. It has to be assumed in the absence of other empirical studies that middle-managers share an understanding of the process and purpose of consultation with that expressed by the heads in the following comments.

Sutton (1985)(40) identifies the nature of the community of a school as a significant reason for an effective consultative process. He argues that, as intelligent and communicative people, teachers want to be involved in making decisions, especially those which affect their own circumstances, work and environment. From personal experience as a head, he offers the following view, as a foundation for such a process: consultation should be limited and conducted according to an efficient and consistent system since its purpose is to garner ideas, not to franchise a majority vote. His argument that consultation makes decisions more palatable to the recipients, may depend upon how far consultation is limited.

Although Paisey (1984)(41) accepts the principle of consultation especially with regard to Sutton's point about palatability, he sees another purpose for consultation. Paisey argues that consultation is significant because it can facilitate the kind of exploration of ideas which supports innovation. Likewise, Smith (1984)(42) sees the advantage of consultation not in reaching decisions, but in establishing a climate for debate.

The findings of this study suggest that consultation has, in fact, several purposes - not only to explore ideas but also to help decision-making, to anticipate problems, to prepare plans - with the central desire to resolve a curricular need. John (1980)(43) believes that, whether such a process is formal or informal, it should be appropriate to the school and the task. There seems to be a link between the degree of formality or informality and the purpose of the consultation as the middle-managers perceive it. The informal approaches mentioned by the interviewees were exploratory, intended to sound out responses and attitudes, whilst formal consultations, for example, faculty or year meetings, were directed towards

establishing working structures for change, formats and foundations. This difference seems also to be related to the contexts and circumstances in which innovations were to occur, as the middle-managers saw them.

At times, as the following comments may reflect, what middle-managers expressed as exemplifying a consultative approach could be described as coercion or persuasion or even concealed imposition. It seemed always to be initiated by the middle-managers themselves. Informal consultation, for example, can be useful in the early stages as this head of faculty describes:

"I wanted to sound out the perceptions of the Faculty and my ideas about changes in the early weeks of the job. Brief chats gave me an opportunity to talk to staff as any new person would but, obviously, I also used it to introduce ideas about change."

Such opportunities seem to have occurred under a range of circumstances, and the interviewees created situations as well as grasping unexpected opportunities as each of the following comments illustrates:

"I deliberately put eggs, beans and chips on the wall (children's art work) where staff can see them so that they will talk to me about eggs, beans and chips and what goes on. I try to make things a high profile so that people who walk past here will see what's going on."

"It was a great advantage being redecorated because I could provide new display boards in such a way that the classroom layout was no longer appropriate. So, I could discuss with people individually, aspects of their rooms and persuade them by illustration and by demonstrating personal benefit. The



different layout encouraged people towards working in groups which is essential for mixed ability teaching."

The middle-managers saw such occasions as valuable for establishing the idea of change in a new context, especially where they believed there might be resistance. The following comment illustrates a newcomer's desire to influence attitudes and to establish the tone, atmosphere or vocabulary conducive to co-operative working within an environment altered by change:

"At the first Faculty meeting, I talked about styles of management and asked staff to indicate preferences. I wanted them to see that I wanted to use a process which was more permissive than they were perhaps accustomed to. A division of ideas between consults and sells. It didn't tell me much but it put across the idea that we were going to engage in collaborative policy-making and decision-taking. That was the idea I wanted to suggest."

In this example the head of department explains why she discouraged a particular vocabulary in order to promote participation. She saw a need for a shared and mutually understood vocabulary in order that consultation could be effective. It represents a stage towards awareness raising:

"I've tried to avoid using the word remedial except in a specific instance, such as, when there is a problem that can be remedied... If it's a chronic problem which will be alleviated rather than remedied, I don't. Remedial has connotations of being of less value, of less importance. The children don't like it. They label themselves and the teacher remedial. I try not to encourage it."

Whilst many respondents anticipated that consensus achieved by

consultation would increase acceptance, the next example suggests that physical circumstances may promote co-operation:

"It was difficult to see how it was to be done, so I actually started with my office and re-organised it to make it an open place, to make all materials available to staff because there's no point in a head of faculty hogging all the latest books. In the re-organisation process, it meant moving furniture into the faculty office and, to some extent, re-organising in there - and, inevitably, towards a more co-operative set up."

It may be significant that each of these comments were made by new appointees. As a group, their responses reflected in general a desire both for participative management and decision-making and to create a working environment in which that would be more possible than initially appeared likely, one which was accessible and open. Individually each comment reflects the concerns of each respondent within their own working situations, namely, increasing staff involvement, encouraging a participative atmosphere, embracing the needs of ancillary staff, promoting access to resources and facilities and appropriate attitudes to change. They seem to be collective concerns.

The effect of such strategies is gradual but nonetheless deemed necessary. As the following comments from both samples illustrate, consultation works at two levels - it allows debate and encourages practical involvement. As an umbrella term, it covers many of the descriptions noted in the introductory paragraphs as theoretical notions. However, the data illustrates that there are different tactics for "consulting", ranging from the apparently democratic to the coercive:

"Won support of staff. Delegated responsibilities so that

everyone felt involved. Regular meetings to discuss progress."  
 "... you've got to go round it. I think you have to accept that not everyone is going to be on the same wave length and work the same way and, therefore, you've got to use other strategies."

"It's been a process of osmosis for a while - it's coming but it isn't complete. I'm doing the dripping water on stone approach. I want to change things without anyone knowing it - so imperceptible and in an acceptable way."

The last comment is interesting and exceptional in seeing change as an event which is acceptable through its process, almost as being covert and unnoticed. The interviewee saw herself and her small number of staff as a department which serviced other teachers. It may also reflect her self-effacing temperament.

The formal consultative process took place in meetings for departmental, year and faculty staff, and in one case, with the Governors. Each school in the interview sample had an established system for regular meetings to which all staff were accustomed and attended. The following comments illustrate the relationship between middle-managers and their staff in these meetings. The first reveals a desire to involve staff in directing their own future:

"For the first week, I watched. My agenda for the Faculty meeting in the second week was set up to ask where do we go now? There were thirteen in the faculty and they had a long discussion of where they saw themselves."

If this comment represents a democratic approach the next offers a contrast. It combines a reflective understanding of staff needs and anxiety, some deviousness in introducing a minor alteration to ways of working, and a divisive strategy which proved successful:

"At my first Faculty meeting, I attempted to re-assure everyone there'd be no great changes and proposed one specific change which had been suggested privately by my assistant, so I knew there was support there. They argued amongst themselves and I listened. At the end of a heavy argument, I suggested we conduct an experiment for a fortnight to see if it worked. Obviously, once you've tried something, people get accustomed and there's less resistance. It was one way of testing the water for later change."

One interviewee found the formal consultative process across the school excessive and ineffectual:

"The consultation process went on and on for ever and I was sick to death of it, I can tell you. We went through all this palaver of a Governor's meeting and all this discussion.... I think we went over the top a bit, frankly. I know other schools where this has all just been done and any questions answered afterwards and, by the end of it, I wished we'd done just that."

To summarise, the evidence seems to suggest that consultation was, almost without exception, a significant aspect of introducing change. Its importance relates to:

- \* the degree of interaction between middle-managers and their staff
- \* the anticipated influence upon attitudes
- \* encouraging participation
- \* raising awareness of options and possibilities
- \* developing co-operative working

Informal consultation was discussed at greater length than formal which may signify another factor. The process places the middle-manager in a leadership role by implication. In these respects, the

evidence here seems to support other studies, except that there is little indication of a consistent and systematic approach. It seems to have been replaced by informality and tactical opportunities. Indeed the data indicates that consultation can be more broadly understood than theory suggests. As noted earlier, the sampled middle-managers employed different ways of consulting their staff and intended different purposes. For some it was a genuine gathering of ideas and viewpoints whilst for others it was the sowing of ideas and for others a clarification of the way forward. It seems that consultation offered a means of preparing staff for an innovation which the middle-managers anticipated introducing. It seems likely that they "consulted" on the scale of democratic to coercive as a consequence of temperament, personality, leadership style, or circumstance. This is not known and might prove worthy of further investigation.

### III.2.iii. Investigation

It could be argued that investigation is a form of consultation since the strategies described in the preceding section represent enquiry or investigation at a local level and by informal methods in order to ascertain staff attitudes and perceptions. As Table 10 shows, some interviewees used investigative methods in tandem with their consultation process. As with consultation, there may be a link between the kinds of investigation undertaken and the leadership style, circumstances or temperament of the innovating middle-manager. There is insufficient data in this study to clarify such questions. Investigation can be interpreted in a broad manner to encompass a range of strategies, intending to explore, understand, discover and promote ideas which could facilitate change. A narrower interpretation can focus on sources of information, such as, research

papers, field examples, reports.

Investigation may be as significant for effective innovation as consultation. Preedy (1984)(44) noted House's (1981) report that top-down change strategies which view innovation as a systematic process within the context of shared values and attitudes, failed to reflect the subtleties and influences which can emerge from debate and negotiation. She supports consultative and investigative strategies which encourage negotiation and ensure that the interests of junior members of the staff are served. The very origin of the initiatives may require this approach.

Lindblad (1986)(45) recorded that initiatives tend to come from staff in high, formal positions and that both position and formality lend authority to the process of persuading staff to adopt change. He noted that informal discussion between staff represented only 25% of the communication of ideas and experience whilst written reports, teachers' one-day seminars, departmental and staff meetings, in that order, were the most regular forms of such communication. It would seem that, given this evidence from Preedy and Lindblad, middle-managers who anticipate introducing innovation should consider the effect of the hierarchical structure.

Bennet and Desforge (1985)(46) argue that dissemination and experimental intervention programmes can ensure practical outcomes from educational research. They refer to Galton et al (1980) and Bennet et al (1984) who suggest that dissemination can help overcome professional reluctance, although it is not clear how far it leads to greater changes in practice, and to changed attitudes, Nesbit (1980). The dissemination of ideas occurs in a number of ways, one of which might be individual research or investigation. Table 10 records the range of investigative activities middle-managers devised in order to

promote change and to encourage staff involvement. These activities have been categorised into two broad groups under the elastic term investigation as follows:

- \* experiment or "research" by trial projects, discussion documents, questionnaires, working parties, either self-initiated or delegated
- \* reviews of staff, pupils or curriculum, initiated either by middle-managers or a headteacher

Empirical and theoretical evidence is interwoven with this investigation's findings.

The first category - experiment or "research" - embraces academic as well as informal experience. Five of the twelve interviewees had conducted academic research in education as part of study for a second degree which, they said, had guided their thinking about innovation. Comparable data was not available from the questionnaire sample. Other experiences of research were non-academic. One interviewee, see Interview C Appendix C, participated in an experimental intervention programme which, as a collaborative project, bore the characteristics identified by Tickenoff and Ward (1983), and noted by Bennet and Desforge (1985)(47). Such projects can be characterised by opportunities which encourage an examination of the teachers' concerns and teacher involvement in joint decision-making. They recognise the research aspect as well as the outcomes and acknowledge the complexity of the classroom situation. The project combined research with teachers' experience under the guidance of external consultants and local advisors, and developed a framework, negotiated in working parties by teachers from four schools, within which trial teaching modules were devised. These were immediately implemented.

The ACSTT (1980)(48) notes such working parties can usefully

examine issues if the composition is carefully designed, if the terms of reference are precise, and time is allocated. Whilst these conditions may relate to larger, investigative or national working parties, they are also applicable to the example from this study because the teachers were investigating ways of presenting new material by new methods. Although these teachers were not academic researchers, the group convenors were, and, for teachers who can feel isolated, the informal contact is beneficial. As Shipman (1985)(49) notes, the value of collaborative work in this way is in the shared experience and knowledge as a form of investigating options. Mitchell (1985)(50), a head of faculty, points to the possibility that alternative ways of thinking may not emerge; such groups can become incestuous in their thinking: the benefit may be only in the enhancement of the teachers' skills.

Another form of investigative activity, in its broader definition, is the curriculum review which all interviewees and some questionnaire respondents had experienced either as total whole school reviews or departmentally. Duffy (1985)(51) argues that a total curriculum review offers an effective way of increasing teacher participation in an enquiry into school policy. It provides a catalyst for more general curriculum attention and gains wide staff involvement. Five interviewees had participated directly in such a policy review either in the early stages or before introducing changes. As a result of the DES circular 6/81, each school had conducted a curriculum review in which three interviewees had participated as heads of faculty or department. Whilst this experience was thought useful, the following comment illustrates how the consequences can be painful and unpleasant and, as in this example, lead to the imposition of unwelcome change:



"The school embarked on a curriculum review with heads of faculty and heads of year and any other teachers interested in curriculum development. A series of meetings were planned by the head and some other members of the hierarchy. The idea was to try and look at the curriculum very closely and Languages came under review and we, I suppose, had a large portion of time; so, obviously, we came in for a bit of scrutiny."

Internal faculty reviews had also been conducted as part of the curriculum review programme. One of the newly-appointed heads of faculty interviewed had encountered strong staff resistance to any rethinking of the faculty's aims and objectives whilst a second gained a positive response which moved her proposals forward:

"We started to say what did we want the children to come out with at 16+? We rewrote the aims of the faculty and basically kept coming back with answers which said let's do Integrated Science."

Another head of faculty who wanted to develop a policy for language across the curriculum, involved his own staff in the preparation of a questionnaire by which he intended to sound out staff attitudes, needs and interests. The results of his questionnaire were used for planning training. Thus, the questionnaire had four possibilities: to involve his own staff, to enquire into whole school opinions, to review needs, and to plan developments. The following comment explains the process adopted and the mutual concerns of the faculty as the middle-manager saw them:

"We thought about different areas of language and its importance. We thought of all the questions we wanted to ask and put them together and decided these fell into different areas. The questions were all devised in a surreptitious way

because we didn't want to receive the answers we wanted; we wanted honest answers. It had to be so designed as to ask straight-forward questions about teaching. We tried it on ourselves."

Not only were staff reviews conducted but in one case a pupil survey was conducted which Reid (1984)(52) argues is important since pupils are "consumers" of the curriculum. Their responses should guide content decisions. In the same text, Measor (53) comments upon the neglect of researching pupils' perceptions especially of subject status which, she argues, are significant. She records a number of sociological factors, namely, adolescent culture, gender, social class, ethnic origins, which influence pupils' view of the curriculum. These perceptions can constrain teachers and limit realisation of the curriculum. Rudduck (1984)(54) notes the importance of allowing time for exploration and negotiation of the teacher-pupil relationship for the curriculum to be effectively translated into action. The following comment indicates an understanding of this issue and of Reid's argument about pupils as consumers:

"Lots of kids say we don't want to do this. We explained to them what we're going to do with this sort of innovation. We're not asking them to make the decision, but the children have these issues discussed with them because they are the clients. We asked the children in the second year to design the covers for their course in the fourth year. They are important, and, if we didn't sell it to the kids, we'd have failed."

Although interview comments often implied recognition of pupil concerns, only one head of year conducted a survey. Her comment

reflects not only the often unstructured nature of investigative activity in school but also a lack of recognition of the effects of teachers' classroom management and performance upon pupils' perceptions of their learning experience. Theoretically a survey could influence the construction of a teaching programme; in practice, however, in this example, it served only to confirm her opinions:

"I asked groups of fourth years to write down the things they liked about the course, things they disliked, anything they thought should be in it but wasn't.... Almost nothing came up which we hadn't already thought of which was interesting."

Trialling material seemed to be an alternative strategy to pupil surveys for exploring pupil opinion, especially where it accommodated feedback and discussion. Three interviewees ran trial projects before implementation, and in each case they were working with new methods and new materials. Of the other nine interviewees, three were introducing innovations which they had successfully worked on in previous schools and could be loosely defined as having been trialled albeit under different circumstances. The following comment records the benefits of trials and demonstrates how teachers can become confident and learn to work together before embarking upon implementation:

"They (the staff) all agreed to have Integrated Science in the third year, so we started to do that. We did it in staff groups, mixed according to subjects so that one physicist, one chemist and one biologist worked in a group to write a module and that helped because they got to know each other better. I wanted to break down the subject barriers in preparation for Upper School teaching."

It can be deduced that the investigative strategies employed by the middle-managers were intended to encourage staff to think positively about the changes which had been decided upon. This seemed to happen in two ways:

- \* by lending validity to their proposals for change by successful demonstration, by offering field experience and by providing information
- \* to illustrate the practical benefits of change.

Investigation, in this sense, means proving and approving rather than testing or exploring for possible rejection. There was no evidence of investigation leading to abandonment of plans. In some cases it was imposed as with the curriculum reviews; in others it was encouraged by the head, for example, the intervention programme; and others were initiated by the middle-managers to endorse their positions. Thus, it tended to focus upon staff rather than pupils; upon positive outcomes rather than experiment; upon practical issues with classroom relevance. Its effectiveness was evaluated by the middle-managers. It could be described as a form of persuasion by management. The next section illustrates how investigation was built upon in staff training.

#### III.2.iv. Training

This third category of staff-related interventions represents the most discussed or noted strategy adopted by middle-managers when introducing change. Morant (1981)(55) argues that education and training are closely related: education being concerned with extending professional development by a series of experiences and activities whilst training focusses upon one of several such activities with the purpose of leading to the improvement or acquisition of skills and techniques. In these terms, the

theoretical emphasis of training is vocational. Morant defines inservice education as intending to widen and deepen the knowledge, understanding and expertise of teachers' professional work through activities which are essentially and specifically designed for that purpose. He believes it enables teachers to assess their own role in a changing society and to advance their own careers. The premises of these definitions are the framework for the following analysis of training as part of teachers' inservice education, even though it is likely that theory is not necessarily practicable.

Morant (1981)(56) distinguishes between three types of training, school-directed, school-resourced and school-focussed, all of which are related to schools and their needs, and provide another aspect of the framework of this discussion since they parallel the experience of the middle-managers. School-directed training is planned, initiated and controlled by the teachers in school. School-resourced draws upon the expertise of the staff and the equipment, materials and accommodation in the school. School-focussed draws upon each type to meet the needs of the teachers and the school in order to improve the quality of teaching. It can be adapted to accommodate major and minor innovations and be linked to school policy in particular. Whilst there is insufficient data to draw conclusions from the questionnaires, it is evident that the interviewees' training was school-focussed in general. Four innovations were directly related to school policy; two resulted from headteacher - initiated curriculum policy; three interviewees were appointed by the head to initiate change which could represent an indirect form of school/ headteacher policy. To summarise, training means for the purpose of this study:

- \* improving or acquiring skills

- \* through specifically created activities
- \* to improve teacher performance
- \* generally conducted in school
- \* in response to school and teacher needs
- \* sometimes linked with school policy

The need for training was identified in Bolam's (1978)(57) study. Its contribution to teachers' career development was noted in the DES (1985)(58) document. Henderson (1981)(59) argued its effectiveness in improving professional performance can be measured by relating the nature of the teachers' learning to their subsequent actions. Paisey (1983)(60) argued it is both desirable for, and essential to, effective teaching. The implication common to each of these references is that the skills teachers acquire as a result of inservice training, especially school-focussed, will be transferred to their classroom teaching. This assumption relies upon other conditions being met, some of which will be discussed in the following analysis.

Firstly, do teachers feel they need more training? Paisey (1983) argues that the level of change in schools necessitates progressive training through inservice work. Hawkins (1981)(61) concluded from his experience that teachers are aware of their need for training - in his study thirty-seven of forty-two staff took up training opportunities. Ashton (1981)(62) argues that, because teachers recognise particular problems in their work and the need to improve, they want to participate in training. It is their practical needs which incline their interest towards classroom or subject-related rather than academic training. He believes that, when these needs are carefully identified, appropriate training will be effective. This relationship may be significant because some

research contradicts the value of training. As Bennet and Desforge (1985)(63) noted, Gage and Coldarci (1980) found few differences between the control group, that is, teachers who had been trained, and those teachers who had simply received new material, and Crawford and Stallings (1984) reported that teachers who had had training, implemented curriculum development programmes no better than those who had not.

There is evidence in this study to suggest that training can improve teacher performance when a) there is an awareness of the need for training and b) teachers' needs and interests are accurately identified. This evidence has been gathered from the responses of each sample as follows:

in the interviews:

8. What was the process of development?
9. What were the needs of your staff?
10. Did you conduct any training?
11. Was the level of need fulfilled?

in the questionnaires:

4. What might be the disadvantages of carrying out such change?
5. How do you anticipate implementing your ideas?
6. Do you foresee any constraints upon implementation?

As Table 10 illustrates, all the interviewees employed, devised, and initiated some form of training to aid the introduction of change and which conformed to the six criteria noted earlier with some deviations. This training included their own, self-initiated and run training in school, with or without an advisor or external expert; one with an external agent; and one in full-time, professional re-training at an institute of higher education. For one innovation, the introduction of a second language, the training was informal in

comparison with the others, having been initiated by the teacher responsible for the new course and with her middle-manager's support. In all other cases from the interview sample, the training was structured on a formal and official basis with tacit or explicit support from the headteacher.

The training seems to have extended over a period of time, starting with an initial introductory phase and spreading over several months and up to one year. It was also offered to new-comers where development was progressive. Industrial action, taken by teachers, seems to have curtailed the extent of the training because it was identified as a management initiative in the schools in which the interviewed middle-managers were employed. The innovations occurred during 1984 and 1985 when teachers refused to support management initiatives as part of a campaign for improving salaries and resources.

In the following analysis of the data, the function of in-service training is expressed in a range of comments. It was seen to be an opportunity to allow teachers to explore the possibilities of change in a practical, working context in which they might learn, gain confidence and adjust to new approaches and their implications. The following comment takes account of the stress or anxiety teachers might experience when approaching new ideas or methods, and how training can illustrate the relevance of understanding and application to real situations:

"Anything new feels like pressure. Teaching is a profession and when they close the door, they do very much as they like. People take notice of you to a lesser or greater extent. There are some who've been teaching long enough to know how much will make a good contribution to a child's education and there are



others who don't. They've got to learn. Anything you can see happening and that you can control, you will accept better than if somebody says it will happen."

The attention to confidence, understanding and practical experience reflects concern about the sources of teachers' attitudes, such as, anxiety, a desire for success, judgement by peers, availability of resources and support, in relation to classroom performance as the next comment illustrates:

"My teachers are anxious about success in the classroom, the materials, children's behaviour and their success, the way to use resources; and this change is really about new attitudes in the classroom. I want to encourage them to see that teaching is mixed ability work whether the group is setted or not, that every single child is important."

Such factors as time for understanding and preparation, the level of engagement and commitment, personal concerns, stress and pressure were seen to be significant influences upon teachers' attitudes both towards training and towards the proposed changes. The middle-managers seemed to realise that coping with such factors required skill if they were to be successful in promoting positive attitudes through training, as this comment illustrates:

"I realised we needed new materials and inset, so I planned Faculty meetings which weren't onerous, had an agenda, time limit, refreshments and a convivial atmosphere to encourage exchange and positive ideas."

Thus, there seem to be common aims among the interviewees to provide training which would build confidence, reduce anxiety and illustrate practical relevance of the proposed change to classroom circumstances. Whilst there was diversity in the ways in which the

training was approached, there seems to be a common attempt to fulfil those aims, largely according to the models of school-focussed training offered by Morant (1981)(64) and described at the beginning of this section.

Although Morant (1981)(65) concluded from his own experience that schools can find difficulty in implementing their own training, the five conditions he proposes as essential to effective training seem to have been met by the interviewees. These conditions are intended to relate to training across an entire school but can be usefully applied to departmental or year teams - they are:

- \* to serve the needs of the school
- \* to be initiated and planned by the staff
- \* for staff
- \* on school premises
- \* using school resources.

These conditions applied in full to five interviewees' training programmes. Of the other seven, five included such variables as outside experts or other premises. Ashton (1981)(66) identifies two additional factors which middle-managers in both samples had considered. He notes that the relevance of classroom application should be clear for teachers engaged in considering change and that there should be adequate time for discussion and reflection. He also comments, as did the middle-managers, that co-operative training needs a range of different skills because co-operative working can be a new experience for many teachers. The middle-managers' comments supported this view and illustrated the opportunistic element which seems to recur in management methods - in this case, as an incidental form of training.

Insufficient time affected the degree of training felt by both

samples to be appropriate for effectively managing innovation not only in terms of opportunities for staff to acquire skills and experience, but also for developing the new or altered relationships seen as intrinsic to those changes. The following comments illustrate some of the issues:

"In my faculty, there are some people who are pretty militant about what they will or won't do in school hours or out. Three others are wishy-washy. It doesn't fall on union lines because some who are quite interested and want to do something about it, are affected by union action, so if they want to put in some commitment, I'll encourage them but I'm not going to force the issue. It would be too sensitive to use free time because there's enough pressure on staff from the unions without exposing them to more."

"A half-day closure influences the effectiveness of inservice - we're talking about people who dissent as well - they're going to be made to come. They've no choice. It's only when you give dissenters a chance to really evaluate - like rejecting Christ before you read the Bible - they are put in that situation and everyone is working as a team, the dissenters also, in that situation. If it's in school everyone has to participate, so you'll have everyone's co-operation. It will not be for the selected few. Certain things are for those who don't know - not those who do - it's brought to them here. I think, being in school, they can place the expertise in their own environment."

"We had two sessions: one with the advisor and one with X (an expert) but those two made such a difference in the change of attitudes of the staff; one wonders how much more could be

done if we'd had more."

Concern about having sufficient time for training was often inter-related with concern about staff who dissented, appeared disinterested or who were perceived to be unco-operative. The argument seems to be that, given sufficient time, those staff who are less positive towards change will be won over during the training.

There were mixed feelings about the kinds of trainers and the training venue. As the last two comments reveal, venue and expertise seem to be linked with staff attitudes and the need for persuasive or coercive strategies. Two faculty heads engaged external trainers, an issue which will be briefly examined here.

The research literature reveals a debate about the appropriateness of engaging outside experts or trainers. Four case studies reported in Donoghue et al (1981)(67) identify features relevant to this study. Cripps (68), for example, concluded from his middle school survey that the value of external support was in the facilitation of reflection and in aiding a change in attitude, in some cases quite radically. Heppel's (69) study noted external support as helping reduce staff hostility towards innovation when the training was appropriate. He believed it encouraged recognition of a need for training and staff involvement. Both studies point to an influence upon staff attitudes through external support which was a key concern of the middle-managers in this study. It could be attributable to staff recognising the expertise of outsiders as being superior to the insiders they know, whose weaknesses they have observed, and whose ideas may have already been received with displeasure. The origins of the experts may also lend authority to the ideas they bring to training sessions. The third study by Leer and Timms(70) records the views of a head and a classroom teacher

about the effect of the support given by HMI and DES courses and by the local education authority adviser upon the development of a language policy training programme. The two contributors saw the benefits, respectively, as identifying which areas to explore and in the acquisition of analytical skills. Again, the consequences were an increase in staff support and changes in staff attitudes.

A fourth study, reported by Hamilton (71), notes the significance of head's endorsement of training for increasing staff awareness of a need for change and for developing staff confidence. Thus, external advisers may be helpful where innovation is related to staff attitudes and where training is supported by the head.

Local education authority advisers were engaged as trainers by two interviewees. Hands (1981)(72) describes this role as essential to aiding change but believes access to subject-specialist advisers may be limited by the demands and numbers of schools within an authority. He argues that advisers can promote high standards of attainment but may be limited by financial cutbacks. At a time of considerable change as at present with TVEI extension, changing patterns of Inset, and the introduction of the National Curriculum, accessibility may be further restricted. The advisers engaged by the interviewees provided workshops and assisted in the organisation of the training. The following comments explain how and why outside experts, particularly advisers, were directly involved as trainers or were influential over the strategies they employed. Each comment also reflects the individual effect of these opportunities within their own teams in lending authority to the middle-managers' ideas, by offering effective training to enthuse individuals, and by increasing staff participation:

"I used an inservice adviser's afternoon to introduce the idea

of curriculum change. I talked about my philosophy. We tried to devise aims and to think in the broadest terms about what I wanted to do. I primed the adviser and got him to support my ideas - a bit sneaky perhaps. He was pretty supportive."

"The expert has more effect - it's the novelty and somebody else's voice, they're used to hearing me in the staff room....

R (the adviser) is very motivating. He had boxes full of stuff but he couldn't do half the things because the staff were so involved."

"My new teacher attended the adviser's course, so she could bring back ideas along the lines I wanted. As she was their colleague, the staff could ask her questions, use her ideas, without it being obviously pushed by me."

Thus, the effect of advisers' training was varied both in the level and degree of influence: the role was perceived to be supportive of the middle-managers' intended changes. For one interviewee, however, the adviser had failed to support her, especially when she felt she needed that support:

"There was a lot of hue and cry with the Adviser. He just talks! He never came to support me. I heard that he gave the deputy heads a bad time at Shire Hall but he never came down to grass-roots here - to help me or to say to the head, 'Think again, mate!' There was no help from him. He may have talked big at Shire Hall but he never supported me."

Whilst advisers were, in general, seen to be helpful in training strategies, the employment of other outside experts raised mixed feelings about their influence as the following two comments illustrate. It is interesting to note that both commentators discuss the question of expertise, the availability and the influence of it

upon staff, and the problem of staff responses to such trainers:

"The outsiders were important. I may know everything about language across the curriculum; I may have read hundreds of books, I could make a whole lecture with quotations to the people in front of me but they know me. They won't listen to me half the time. You bring in an outsider and it's a novelty on the first impact. And some outsiders are very good, anyway, because they have the one thing prepared for a whole year and they go from one corner of the country to the other, saying the same thing. And they remember it by heart and all the gestures and all the acting they have to do with it - it's part of the performance - how you put it across. You need an expert, really performing."

"I decided it was dangerous to bring in so-called outside experts because if you bring someone in, they're always a disappointment because people's expectations are high. It's not the fault of the people coming in; it's just it's difficult to work out local problems if you're not local. We probably had all the expertise we needed between us."

These differences of opinion seem to be related to staff perceptions of the quality of the training and the credibility of the trainers, and, as a result, the effectiveness of the training. In some interviews, this concern was related also to the training venue as the following comment illustrates:

"We had one session at the Teachers' Centre and it was good. They all said, it wouldn't have worked if we'd done it in school. It's neutral ground. A lack of interruptions. You feel on show in school. It's better to go out because you can hide yourself away in the Teachers' Centre. And you worry

about failure - it's better if someone else does it. It's easier."

An important purpose of the training session was to apply the anticipated new consciousness and concepts to the preparation and development of appropriate resources for the daily classroom implementation. Respondents commented upon the need for good resources for effective change and which also serve teachers' needs in the classroom. Comments about developing resources seem to indicate not only a recognition of teachers' needs and attitudes but also of the leadership role of middle-managers as part of their job. The interviewees seem to have guided their staff in the preparatory investigation as well as the development of resources, drawing from a range of experience. The following comments indicate the differing nature and degree of their leadership in these respects:

"I used to bring plenty of ideas to workshops and say, 'What do you think of this?' I felt as though I had to present a fait accompli because they wouldn't prepare their own materials. One or two did but not a great deal. I'd present a rough draft and they'd chip in and then I'd give a copy and they'd say yes or no."

"I took the Faculty to see the network at H. because it's impressive. They have to see it because there's no point of it being in the cupboard because in an organisation where you rely on the commitment and time given up voluntarily for the organisation to be innovative, it's got to be self-motivating and you've got to show people some advantages of a system before they'll put their time into it. If you just say, 'It does this', you won't get anything. I laid on a demo and they told me how good it was and how they'd use it. We get as many



people as we can to see the applications when there's new software."

Clegg (1981)(73) notes that the aftercare stage of an ideal inservice training programme is essential to the maintenance of teachers' confidence and for the translation of their acquired skills into increasing opportunities for learning. Seven interviewees engaged in a form of aftercare by progressive or continuing training, according to the perceived needs of their staff and their circumstances, as these comments illustrate:

to train others:

"The two teachers who were involved in producing the project, have been closest to the ideas of the project - each went in with a member of staff while it was being taught to guide them through the manner in which we would expect it to be taught. It is planned that, before anybody does it this year, that everybody will have an inservice session to go over the material that they're expected to teach and the way; and it's the way they're expected to teach it which is of more importance."

to support new staff:

"I team teach with two probationers every week for two hours. Others will ask, if it's a new topic, 'Can I come and work with you because I shall be teaching that eventually?'"

"We've tried doubling up groups with part-timers, being well-organised and having resources ready. And it works."

for reluctant newcomers:

"The Faculty weren't ever so kind actually and it was difficult for him because he would voice opinions which were anti-integrated work when he first arrived and some were a bit cruel

in meetings and said, publicly, 'Well, tough, we're doing it and you either come along with us or you go'. I don't think that sort of comment is ever so helpful but he got the message."

Finally, it can be deduced from the interview responses that training is recognised to be helpful to, and supportive of, innovation for a variety of reasons including familiarisation, enjoyment, practical collaboration, increasing experience and experiencing success:

"... it's more effective actually to have to work in groups yourself and know what it's about and then come back and realise well, perhaps I could do that with a group of children, the things that I've just experienced whatever be the content."

The perceived value of training was not, however, only in the acquisition of skills, knowledge or experience, but also in increasing self-awareness, improving staff relationships, inter-departmental collaboration and fun!

"I felt it was very important to develop the idea of a corporate group in which people talked with each other, sat together and shared ideas. I wanted to increase their sense of unity, of one department working together. Until I achieved that there was no way I was going to succeed with curriculum development because they were such a very disparate group.

People need to work together. They need comfort and solace.

They need somebody to turn to when things are going badly and it isn't always the head of department they want to talk to."

"The sessions were a lot of fun - there was a lot of learning, a lot of taking on the naughty, thick pupil, and in fact I think that helped even more because we learned to accept

criticism. They were good fun."

This final comment seems to encapsulate the central intention of the training instigated by the interviewees - to achieve co-operative and collaborative working. To summarise, the common aims of the middle-managers' training were

\* to build confidence and reduce anxiety

\* to illustrate the classroom relevance of the innovation.

The approach was two-fold: firstly, practical in clarifying concepts, exploring methods and preparing resources and, secondly, personal in the development of staff co-operation and interaction.

Behind these activities lies an implicit statement about effecting change. Collaborative working means producing materials and ideas for the teaching of a course or unit of a course. It is implied that such collaboration will lead to acceptance of the intended change because teachers will feel less anxious and more confident, less isolated and more supported, less unprepared and more competent; in total, more able to adopt new ideas and to implement them. The training strategies imparted new concepts as well as dealing with the practical considerations of preparation, materials and resources. It could be deduced that collaborative working encourages teachers to identify their needs and may reduce reluctance to adopt new ideas.

There seems also to be a link between collaborative working and the kind of training offered which emerges as a common factor in the interviews. The CDT innovation was introduced to a team in which co-operative relationships were well-established and since its perceived greatest need was for resources, its training focussed on that provision. The Integrated Humanities and Science and mixed ability innovations focussed on developing an interactive team through the

preparation of resources and units in order to draw a disparate staff group together. Each required changes to teaching and learning methods which were thought to be best achieved by changing the staff interaction by training. Those innovations involving staff from a range of disciplines, the Personal and Social Education core and the Network projects, instituted less training but more consultation to establish a clearer central direction. Likewise, the language across the curriculum and the Special Needs projects were longer-term developments, concerned essentially with staff attitudes and raising awareness.

Thus, the in-service, school-focussed training, initiated and described by the interviewees, was able to respond to the internal needs as the interviewees understood them. It offered training in skills, staff education, and aimed to increase understanding. It seems also to be compatible with Morant's model (1981)(74), referred to earlier. Training was conducted in most cases by the middle-managers for their own staff, drawing upon their own expertise in response to their own needs and circumstances.

Its purpose was to facilitate innovation. It demonstrates recognition of the need for training at least to counteract anxiety and at best to increase competence. The interview sample generated considerable data about how the training was conducted. Some used outside trainers or external venues to promote variety and interest, detachment or a philosophical approach to lend credibility. Others set up workshops and materials for teachers to examine practical issues, to prepare resources, and to relate to classroom conditions. Training extended beyond that time and staff: there was team-teaching, feedback from courses, probationer and newcomer training. The relationship between education and training, noted earlier by

Morant (1981)(75), is endorsed by the common intention of developing the teachers' education by the acquisition of skills and by increasing understanding and self-awareness. The activities which improve teachers' skills and techniques, for example, workshops for resource preparation, writing units, and group experiences, are also the routes towards influencing attitudes. Their comments also reflect Marland's (1981)(76) view of the value of inservice training to the implementation of innovation. He argues that it enables staff to acquire the necessary experience and it facilitates the development of attitudes appropriate for effective change. Although none had conducted a structured evaluation, all the interviewees believed that their training had influenced the success of their innovations. It could, however, be argued that the continuous evolution of the faculty, departmental and year teams through the participative activities and collaborative approaches of consultation, investigation and training described in this section of this chapter, is evidence of success. The following section explores the structure of these teams and team-building for maintaining innovation.

### III.3 Team-building: maintaining innovation

This section discusses team-building, an approach common to both samples for maintaining innovation. It reflects Elliot's argument (1985)(77) that an understanding of the contingencies teachers face when implementing change is essential. It examines how team-building can promote positive staff attitudes by staff development and subject identity.

Goodson (1984)(78) argues that subject coalitions like Humanities, can increase subject identification and status because of

the number of staff within the faculty, the shared values, the range of roles and common interests. The academic status of a low-level subject may be increased. Holt (1981)(79) questions whether teachers' perceptions are limited by subject boundaries. He argues that, when subject identity is strong, the subject specialisms defeat egalitarian comprehensive principles. The evidence presented in this analysis seems to support Goodson's view: subject identity was promoted by middle-managers by building staff teams through staff training and development.

Gray (1982)(80) argues that staff development increases the level of individual competence of teachers, even though it may lead to a questioning of current approaches. His concept of organisational development which emphasises the role of the individual in an organisation, portrays the school as a sharing and supporting community which is open and accessible. He sees such openness as desirable because organisations tend to be repressive, emphasising conformity, order and control. Stability becomes more important than the purpose of the organisation. The focus on the collective as opposed to the individual is depersonalising: hence the need to encourage individual growth. The range of qualities individuals can bring into schools can be the source of fruitful relationships. Achieving this state requires considerable skill, as Paisey (1984)(81) pointed out, and is the prime responsibility of the head of department, according to Marland (1981)(82).

Team-building represents a practical expression of that responsibility as well as the application of management skill. It encompasses the sense of subject identity and the related sharing of values and expertise. As Jay (1983)(83) explains, the concept of teams in an organisation introduces another dimension into

management. It moves from the notion of management as being performed by a single individual with the perceived qualities of a good manager towards a view of management as a means of combining and building upon the qualities of individuals within an organisation. It can be an attractive management concept because it may encourage individual talent and recognise individual qualities and strengths, whilst drawing across a range of staff, regardless of hierarchy or status.

The central concept in Belbin's (1983)(84) research is the "team role" which defines how individuals can contribute to the organisation, according to their characters, personalities and qualities. His thesis favours three arguments of a philosophical and practical nature, each of which is applicable to the educational situation. Firstly, given the increased education of the employed population, the desire to contribute to management decisions is greater than in the past. Secondly, it is morally and intellectually unacceptable for one individual to make all decisions in a process which is very complex, because personal limitations lead to mistakes and oversights. Thirdly, as the nature of the employment market is such that it is difficult to bring together people with similar personalities in order to specifically create a team, the existing group should be developed as a prospective team.

Paisey (1984)(85) drawing on experience and research in schools, confirms these arguments. He believes schools become vulnerable when the decision-making is left to one individual. The demands arising from its complexity are often too powerful to be met by the inspirational judgements of one person.

Everard and Morris (1985)(86) draw a comparison between educational and industrial contexts. They suggest that, because

teachers work alone within the classroom, the opportunities for team work are reduced. This seems, however, to be a narrow interpretation of the concept of a team and of the ways in which teachers work. If a team implies working together on any range of activities and with a degree of democratic control, of shared decision-making and contribution, there are numerous opportunities for team work in schools. This study, for example, offered evidence of team work among teachers in a variety of contexts both within classrooms as in team teaching and outside in cross-curricular activities. Classroom practice offers examples of pupils working in teams on problem-solving activities. In addition, there is one example in this study in which the perceived isolation of one group of teachers resulting from policy decisions, increased its sense of harmony and unity as a team. It is questionable if the mechanistic approach to team-building recommended by Everard and Morris (1985)(87) is likely either to be appropriate or effective in schools since the goals of educational and industrial organisations are so disparate.

They also raise the question of the definition of and agreement upon goals, an ability which, in their experience, teachers fail to effectively demonstrate. Rust (1985)(88) identifies the setting of objectives, either long or short term, as one of the leadership functions of a middle-manager. His concept of leadership is akin to dictatorship, a concept which Belbin (1983)(89) discards as morally and intellectually indefensible. The notion of objective setting at departmental level is also in conflict with Belbin's (90) view of a team. He believes departmental objectives should reflect corporate objectives which will be indicative of the school ethos, and, as a result, team work is likely to be successful. The establishment of an appropriate ethos or climate is in Belbin's view, central to



effective teamwork. Thus, team leadership will be characterised by a trusting nature; by a strong and morally-based commitment to the organisation's goals and objectives, and a miscellany of such personal qualities as self-discipline, calm and practicality.

Belbin (1983) sees a relationship between team building, leadership and objective setting as a corporate activity. Objectives will be successfully achieved where professional knowledge is related to the team's function and when behaviour and interaction promote the team's work. Team effectiveness will depend upon the following factors which represent a summary of Belbin's (91) five principles:

- \* a balance between the team and its task
- \* recognition of individual qualities and their relevance to the team's work
- \* deployment of resources to maximise team roles.

Paisey (1984)(92), writing from an educationalist's perspective, describes an effective team from a similar base, namely, that it should possess a range of ability and that each team member should contribute to its work one or more personal ability. The concept of the individual's contribution to the team can be allied with notions of affiliation and association with a group. Handy (1980)(93) argues that group affiliation provides a base for individuals and can produce better and more considered ideas. It enables the individual to satisfy social needs, to define self within working relationships, to gain support for achieving objectives, and to share in a common purpose, a view supported by evidence in this study. Handy identifies three determinants of group effectiveness:

- \* the task
- \* intervening factors, that is, leadership, process, motivation
- \* outcomes, that is, productivity, member satisfaction.

The data analysis which follows, will illustrate recognition of the relationship between team effectiveness and management. It may also serve to refute Everard and Morris' contention, noted earlier, that effective teamwork is difficult to establish and sustain in schools and Rust's notion of group leadership as manipulative control. It should reflect many of Belbin's interpretations of effective team-building. The staff group was described in unsolicited comments in every interview as good. This may be attributable to a variety of possibilities: to a sense of achievement in having introduced change in practice; to a sense of success as a manager; as a reflection upon personal effectiveness; as a consequence of actual teacher involvement; or to a sense of team loyalty in the presence of an outsider, namely, the interviewer. The following comments represent initial impressions of the staff group and indicate a desire to relate to colleagues, a sensitivity towards staff needs in changing circumstances, and a recognition of the middle-manager's function:

"I liked them as people, the large majority of them, because they're very friendly and enthusiastic and warm. I felt I was going to be able to work with them straight away but I had to get away from feeling intimidated."

"When I was appointed, I intended to take things slowly because my appointment had caused disappointment for some people in the department. Therefore, it seemed necessary to allow time for the department to settle down, to get accustomed to me in this role, not to feel threatened, not to feel their lives were unduly disrupted, in order that should I wish to make changes, they would be co-operative."

Within these comments about how middle-managers perceived their staff

is a strong sense of self in relation to others in terms of effect upon others, of personal competence, and of personal responsibility. It may be significant that such comments were frequent among newly appointed middle-managers and seem to reflect a desire to associate with the group.

Handy's (1980) view of group affiliation, noted earlier, is reflected in comments from both samples and in the following comments from two experienced heads of faculty who had been in post for at least two years. They may indicate what the newly-appointed commentators were hoping to achieve in order to be effective managers and team-builders:

"If you identify with a group of people that identification is a source of strength which can be tapped."

"It's having the right staff, at the right time, in the right place, and, if people feel they've got someone enabling them to do the job, it's OK."

These perceptions of staff also indicate the middle-managers' recognition of their role, the ability of individuals, the need for diversity, the value of team morale and support, and a desire for successful task achievement. The range of skills required by a head of faculty, department or year who intends to develop an effective team, can be summarised as follows:

- \* encouraging individual skill and ability
- \* shaping teachers' objectives towards task completion
- \* promoting new insights, ideas and solutions
- \* investigating and reporting back to team
- \* evaluation
- \* creating team morale by support
- \* reducing errors and thereby protecting the team by attention to

detail. An interviewee observed:

"The head of faculty's job is to allow others to work effectively, so you provide the resources and structure within which they can operate - but I think that's very optimistic. You tend to mop up crises."

This comment reflects the reality of daily circumstances; a realism which might relate to team-building since it is possible some individuals may resist team-work. The team-building process was linked with training activities. The provision of resources, for example, was regularly identified as a determining factor for group effectiveness and as an influence upon changing staff attitudes. Where staff had adequate resources or could prepare their own, the innovations were seen to proceed successfully. As a team activity, developing resources brought staff together for either preparation or selection of material. It also clarifies the relationship between task and outcome. This relationship was evident in many interview responses; the following clusters of comments demonstrate the relationship and how it influenced effective team work. They also indicate the range of middle-managers' considerations and activities in the process of promoting positive attitudes to change by team-building.

The first cluster of comments refers to the practical achievements of the teams in terms of changing or adopting new classroom methods, in the preparation and application of new teaching materials, and, as intervening factors, of improvements, intentions for the future, and career mobility. The comments can also be interpreted as evaluations of the middle-managers' actions:

\* methods:

"I was grateful people wanted to try and, to that extent, my

hopes have been fulfilled as we teach in mixed ability groups, having adopted new approaches."

"There is more group work now and more discovery of sorts and more attention to that sort of thing, so that the teacher can concentrate on the child who needs help rather than just focussing on the whole amorphous mass."

\* staff:

"My expectations have been more than realised. I've got some first-class teachers but they are better, more rounded professionally, and more capable as teachers and innovators as a result of their experience."

\* career development:

"We definitely have courses that are more worthwhile for the children, that cope better with the ability range. They definitely know more and are becoming better science teachers themselves and it has made them more mobile in career terms."

The second pair of comments discuss outcomes for the teaching staff of a more personal nature, the membership satisfaction type, which were perceived to be advantageous in terms of increased involvement, flexibility, acceptance, risk-taking and kudos:

"... to try and involve the people who came forward and said they wanted to be involved because we certainly got more people saying they wanted to be involved than we could use."

"They're more able to take risks because there's a climate in the department which says take the risk, if it fails, don't worry we'll support you. I think they do take more risks than a lot of people."

The third point illustrates the increased ability of staff to interact and to relate to each other in a more positive way than

before the changes occurred. It can be interpreted as the product of the first two examples of effect, that is, the wide range of benefits from change, namely, improving pupil learning through changed methods and materials, better resourcing and the prospect of more in future, increased staff experience and improving career opportunities. The second set of comments reflected the benefits staff might have recognised as their own, such as, professional development, sense of achievement, recognition and status, personal and professional flexibility, greater participation and contribution to the team. Here, the middle-manager discusses her perceptions of her staff within the new structure and conditions, interpreting staff responses as being the outcome of team-work:

"They were thrilled with what they'd got as a big group and they saw it. Getting together in groups was so good for them - getting support from each other - because they started to talk about their work and realised that there were lots of people who have problems with getting children to understand, with girls being disaffected, having discipline problems. There were lots of them wanting to do something different and, I think they found the more contact they had with each other in a professional way, they wanted to bat ideas around. And that's increased. We don't do anything on our own any more."

The inter-relationship between task and outcome demonstrated in the preceding, offers a number of deductions which may suggest how team building encourages progressively positive attitudes to change. Its effectiveness seems to be related to middle-managers' recognition of individual differences and needs which can be classified as reciprocal acceptance of the individual, recognition by each member of team commitment, and increased understanding through the shared

experiences. This includes the recognition and acceptance of different ways of working, of needs and of choices as a condition for effective team work which must be adequately met, even by compromise if necessary:

"There's a general acceptance that things can be taught in a different way or even that the material could be different, so there's no great opposition to the fact that you're asking somebody to do something in a different manner."

There is a suggestion that the middle-managers' own commitment may be a persuasive influence upon the team and that personal interests can foster individual engagement. These comments record the kind of support which can emerge from an effective team, as both necessary and available, and with unexpected outcomes:

"By admitting the difficulties I had - it's important for a head of department to admit they have problems, they can't always do what's required of them, or they don't quite understand something - for me to be honest. Because it can then build up other people's confidence because they say, 'My God, if she doesn't understand in her elevated position, then it's okay if I find it hard'. It gives people who're worried about their egos and the way they present themselves, a chance to say, 'Well, what do you do when pupils crawl up the wall?'"

"I was surprised about the expertise among the staff."

"We need continuity as the school grows and progresses in order that people will understand the ethos, the developments and the changes in a long-term strategy."

As one interviewee noted successful outcomes are related to expectations, that is, that people expected success, it is appropriate to consider the question of staff expectations since they

can be a measure of success either for the teaching staff or the managers. If there is a high level of expectation of success, then outcomes will be measured accordingly. If a manager anticipates, for example, a low level of staff involvement which, in practice, is exceeded, then the outcomes may be described as excellent. Where expectations are realised, the achievements may be described as successful. Since judgements of this nature are difficult to quantify, it is necessary to observe that expectations of the team or its leader can influence perceptions of attitudes, performance, achievement, outcomes and, by implication, managerial ability. Few interviewees were able to state whether or not they felt staff expectations were satisfied. It was evident that heads of year or department who were new to their schools, had gained a more appreciative view of their staff during the innovation phases.

"Expectations" is a convoluted, almost tautological concept, difficult to unravel. In order to do so, the following discussion attempts to ascertain, if possible, if expectations could be a significant element in the management of change. What is difficult to divine in this kind of research, as opposed to a longitudinal study, is how far the expectations expressed after the event relate to those experienced before it. It may be that, as a product of the experience of introducing change, expectations are modified or remembered differently. Nonetheless, the perceptions explored in this section could be defined as impressions of experience and, as such, provide a basis for tentative conclusions.

The following comments represent an axis, a middle point, for understanding how far the expectations of the middle-managers were felt to be fulfilled on the basis of personal judgements: the first in the satisfaction of setting up a project and the second in



evidence of an innovation in operation in the classroom:

"I've done what I think I set out to do in that I've got it off the ground. We've passed the point of no return, and it's become institutionalised. I think I am a starter of things, not a finisher."

"The work I'm seeing is excellent. Even though there's teacher action, I think it's settled, going quite well, and people are doing the right sort of work. I'm quite satisfied with it."

The following two comments reflect the differences in expectation and, possibly, fulfillment, between team staff and the middle-manager. Both were newly-appointed with experience of similar innovation in their previous jobs. A critical element may be the basis of personal judgements - the overview or vision of the end product:

"No, there's not really a match between their expectations and mine. I expected all my staff to be very enthusiastic but you know from experience that people don't share your enthusiasms because it creates problems for them. And why should they if they've not had your experience of knowing this idea is effective? It's not really likely that staff responses will match your expectations."

"You don't expect big things with curriculum change because for them the grass is always greener. People's expectations are very high and, because the most important thing that makes teachers successful is personality and no matter what support you provide, professional support, individual or new materials, rooms, kids and classes, 80% classroom success depends on the skills of the individual. Therefore, if I introduce change, only 20% of it will have impact. I told them about

expectations - I said I don't expect that much but you set your sights as high as you can to take a step in the right direction."

This final comment in this section on developing the teachers' role strikes at the heart of the matter and brings the discussion full circle:

"I thought the project might have repercussions on people's thinking about teaching methods and that they might change. Imperceptibly, it affects their thinking and it's always things like this which can't be measured mathematically, it changes over time. The moment we begin to question, the human mind modifies its own ideas."

Thus, team-building as a process for maintaining change seems to demonstrate that middle-managers recognise the significance of the staff role for effective implementation of change, and show a sympathetic awareness of staff needs, both practically in the classroom and personally in terms of emotional reactions. It indicates a sense of commitment to successful innovation through accommodation of those needs. As teams are developed through joint activities, the staff are involved in decision-making and planning for change maintenance. Team-building differs from consultation, investigation and training because it is concerned with interactions, personal qualities and emotions at an individual level.

As a consequence, the progressive responses of staff to the proposed changes were perceived to be increasingly positive, especially as the staff group manifested the characteristics of a team engaged in 'working co-operatively' towards joint purposes. From the evidence in these small samples there would seem to be a correlation between theoretical notions of effective team management

and the practice. The manipulative and objectives - related management theory seems to be less appropriate to an educational organisation in which imaginative thinking and co-operative working are essential to effective management of innovation.

#### III.4. Concluding remarks

This chapter has examined three aspects of the middle-management involvement in effecting change; its purpose, approaches for its introduction and implementation and maintenance. It has argued that, for change to be effective in schools which are complex organisations, appropriate management is essential. The management function is two-fold: it requires actions which are related to the school's global purpose, that is, its ethos and policies, as well as the purpose of the innovation and it requires an ability to engender or promote a sense of common purpose and goal achievement among the departmental, faculty and year team.

As the roles, function and attitudes of the staff is the single most significant emerging consideration, the management of change is directly and primarily concerned with personnel as opposed to facilities, resources and theories. For this reason, the approaches for introducing change are staff related. Although each category of activity identified seems to have a different function and to serve a different need, there seems to be a vigorous inter-relationship. Consultation aims to influence. Investigation highlights the practicalities and problems of application. Training is intended to develop expertise and positive attitudes. The underlying intention of all three categories is to persuade staff that the proposed innovation is worthwhile for a variety of reasons, but especially to improve teaching and learning.

They also demonstrated how the atmosphere for change was established. Within this climate new practice is explored and gradually established through training, the development of materials, the preparation of schemes and the planning of units. Thus, simultaneously, both the concept of innovation and its necessary structure are born. As a result, teachers become increasingly familiar with both concept and practice, gain confidence through experience and develop acceptance, tolerance and interest. The new becomes the familiar. In addition, the perceived hierarchical status of the middle-manager lends authority and support to this development.

The staff group is perceived by the middle-managers to play a significant part in implementing the innovation, supporting other recent empirical studies. They believe that acceptance of the concept of innovation by the group is the first priority and that the degree to which this acceptance occurs, will depend upon the teachers' needs, attitudes, perceptions, and working relationships. They report that acceptance increases with developing understanding, the acquisition of skills, the preparation of resources and increasing experience which supports Elliot's view (1985)(94) that teachers understand underlying goals and principles once they have begun to implement.

Top-down models of management tend to identify teachers as inhibitors of change to be manipulated for change to occur. This polarisation casts the teacher in the role of an agent effecting the organisation's aims. This investigation offers another perspective. It places teachers in the forefront, at the first stage of innovation, because, as the middle-managers noted, innovation cannot occur without acceptance and acceptance derives from teacher

involvement in implementation. The practical experience enables teachers to value the change for themselves and their pupils, and to support it. Whilst this difference might be described as semantic, it can also be seen as recognition of the role teachers play in curricular decisions. It recognises their expertise and experience; it draws upon their skills and competences; it attempts to offer a kind of partnership within a hierarchical structure. Thus, teachers are at the forefront of innovation as skilful practitioners valued for their expertise.

It could be argued that these findings have emerged because of the nature of the study. The dearth of contextual research evidence on middle-management itself has meant that this chapter has drawn upon the theory of management and change from a whole school perspective instead of in relation to sub-systems, attempting to apply it to that sub-system. A basic premise has been that a middle-manager should promote innovation. Secondly, the study investigates the perceptions of the initiators and innovators. The following comment from an interviewee encapsulates the dilemma of attempting to distinguish between strategies and process, between reality and perceptions, between teacher role and teacher acceptance:

"It's difficult to make a distinction between a strategy which is bottom-up but, in reality, top-down. I call it a participative mode but the reality is I mostly get my own way. But did I get my own way because mostly people accepted that what I said was reasonable? You can get your own way by being persuasive, not being imposing. Human nature tends towards thinking of it being imposed rather than persuaded because somehow we think it's not right to be persuaded. Imposing

implies a mechanism to protect oneself."

The investigation has drawn exclusively upon the perceptions of the innovators, the middle-managers, which may be problematic. However, it may indicate that, by adopting an alternative perspective, we are gaining fresh insights about the management of innovation. The next chapter explores the management connections.

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## Chapter IV

### The Influence of Senior Managers

Analysis of the research findings, part II: relationships within a hierarchical management structure and their influence upon innovation.

## Chapter IV

### The Influence of Senior Managers

#### IV.1. The management context

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## Chapter IV

### The Influence of Senior Managers

Analysis of the research findings, part II: relationships within a hierarchical management structure and their influence upon innovation.

The previous chapter examined some of the personal and practical issues faced by middle-managers when introducing innovations into their schools and, in particular, with their teams. In this chapter their work is explored beyond the team perspective in the broader context of the school and its management structure, organisation and innovations. The first section looks at some of the theoretical management issues of the school as an organisation in order to illustrate the context. The second section presents an analysis of the relationship between the middle-manager and the senior staff in the management hierarchy, especially the involvement of the head in innovation. Theory and empirical studies, specific to the topics, are discussed before the data is dissected; some relevant evidence is also interwoven with the data as appropriate.

#### IV.1 The management context

Some writers propose that all teachers are managers. Sutton (1985)(1) argues that, because responsibilities in schools overlap, the roles are reversible, that is, not only are all teachers managers but all managers are teachers. The nature of a teacher's job requires degrees of management, especially in the classroom, as a consequence of working with a group of individuals within a relatively confined space on a particular activity. Rust (1985)(2) records seven teacher-as-manager functions, ranged sequentially from planning to evaluation, which illustrate this point. The career and

promotional structure of teaching tends to ensure that most managers in schools have been teachers and many senior managers retain part of their day for teaching for a range of reasons which are not relevant here. Whilst it may be true that all teachers are managers, this study is concerned with a more specific understanding of management which refers to management of the institution not management of the classroom. In this sense, management means the specific activities conducted by people whose designated task extends beyond classroom management and learning.

Paisey (1984)(3) observes that, if the study of management in schools takes account of the individual differences, characteristics and problems of schools, it can provide useful insights. Management in action, he argues, crosses boundaries because it affects a range of issues and questions about the provision of education. Its primary concern is for the membership, that is, pupils and staff, and for the organisation, and may be guided by specific principles. A record of middle-managers' perceptions of innovation, as in this study, can identify some of the issues of management in action but only from that particular perspective. A broader picture could be gained by exploring the perspectives of junior and senior staff as well as the other partners of education, such as, parents and pupils. Nonetheless, the principles identified by Paisey have been illustrated in this study; they are:

- \* awareness of the possible contribution of individuals by recognising the organisation's tasks and the staff's skills
- \* identification of the processes and practices which encourage effectiveness
- \* the inter-relationship of accommodation, staff, opportunity and approach.



They seem to be more expansive than those derived from industrially-based theories of educational management which were discussed in Chapter III, and indicate the possibility of developing a new approach or model of management. Glatter (1980)(4) notes a trend away from analytical management approaches towards a broader view of the school in its wider social and environmental context. This trend is attributed to the increasing size and complexity of schools which were seen to require formal organisational patterns for line and staff management. Whilst there may be fewer large comprehensive schools in the late 1980s as a consequence of falling rolls than in the previous two decades, the increasing significance given to group dynamics and inter-actions of a school may encourage new management approaches. In a smaller school, a head may interact more frequently with more members of staff. In addition, as Dean (1985)(5) observes, management styles are developed by individuals in the course of fulfilling the tasks of the role. She refers to a variety of models from which that style may progress. Each represents a continuum of personal characteristics and actions as these examples illustrate: the democratic - autocratic; the theoretical - practical; the analytical - intuitive; the planned - spontaneous. Paisey (1981)(6), similarly, relates style to execution of task but adds that it can also be described by how colleagues assess that style and its implications for them over the long term. He notes that, within these styles of management, there are four possible orientations for managers: towards the job and its personal implications; towards the system and how it functions; towards the notion of product in relation to people; and towards tasks and relationships. It would seem that style and management function are related in terms of how the function is interpreted both by the

managers and their colleagues: Dean's examples may represent this spectrum of interpretations. The orientations may indicate a manager's understanding of how function can best be effected. So, a manager may believe his style to be democratic since his orientation is towards tasks and relationships which involves, for example, consultation, discussion and delegation, but is seen by his staff to be autocratic.

The relationship between style and function may be especially significant in the case of management of innovation which is the central interest of this study. If innovation means an alteration to current circumstances, it follows that how (style) managers implement (function) is likely to be significant both for the staff and the organisation. If a systems or behavioural approach is adopted, such considerations are minimal because staff can theoretically be controlled and manipulated to respond as required. If, however, managers acknowledge the potential contribution of the individual (Paisey 1981)(7), then it is possible they will acknowledge the effect of their actions upon the individual and his response. In addition, since a manager's team of staff is likely to be diverse, if not disparate, is one management style appropriate? Can one style respond to a range of individuals? Managers who can adopt styles eclectically, may better be able to respond to their staff.

Management of change is related not only to staff and style but also to context: in this study, to schools as institutions whose purpose is defined and whose structure tends to be hierarchical. Thus, the management of innovation, because it is not concerned with daily maintenance, may differ from everyday management and be significantly involved with the inter-related

aspects of the school. The next section explores some of these aspects in its discussion of the hierarchical management relationship and with reference to theory and amplification from the research data.

#### IV.2. The hierarchical management relationship

The structure of an organisation can represent a description of the jobs and relationships within it. Sutton (1985)(8) points out that hierarchical management has been maintained in schools since 1984 as a result of the new salary structures which allocated additional allowances for staff with managerial and organisational responsibilities. The 1987 revision of teachers' contracts with its main scale and allowances A - E may have re-inforced the situation, as Sutton sees it, by increasing the differentials according to a hierarchy of tasks between the grades.

A hierarchical management structure differentiates the levels and areas of responsibility and authority. It is characterised by a figurehead and a network of sub-systems, managed by staff responsible to the figurehead. Senior staff, that is, deputies and senior teachers as defined in II.1.i. The interview sample, exercise school wide responsibilities whilst middle-managers, that is, heads of faculty, year and department, operating a "sub-system", are responsible for a specific area in the first instance. The implications of this context are suggested in this comment:

"We have to operate in a power system which puts authority with me not with my staff. And, despite my methods for participation, you can't alter the supra-system - the culture of hierarchical relationships which you inherit - and you're bound to be influenced."

Each of the interviewees was employed in schools which operated the hierarchical management structure depicted by Fig. 1. It would appear that the questionnaire respondents worked within similar structures.

Related issues of status, power and authority were discussed in Chapter II. In this chapter, the perceptions of the middle-managers may clarify their relevance to the management of innovation. One interviewee, a deputy head, discussed explicitly the effect of her invested authority in encouraging change, positively and negatively. All interviewees observed that the head's authority, status and power represented influences which "make things happen." Some interviewees observed they themselves enjoyed sufficient status to effect change. Collectively, middle-managers seem to see status, power and authority as factors supporting task execution but not necessarily ensuring innovation. Innovation cannot be imposed - it must be introduced, accepted and implemented within an active partnership.

Both samples were invited to comment on the involvement, either practical or desirable, of senior staff in their attempts to introduce change. It was noted earlier that the term "senior staff" also indicates people in a different position, effectively with higher status than the middle-managers, for example, head, deputy or senior teacher. There were a few comments about deputy heads and one director of curriculum. The respondents discussed, however, their relationship with the headteacher and his/her degree of engagement and interest in their work, almost exclusively.

This concern may be attributed to several factors. The headteacher represents the apex of an internal hierarchical management structure and the point of ultimate accountability within

the school for both its management and its organisation to the community and educational partners. He or she is accountable to the governing body. Secondly, of the interview sample, six respondents had been appointed by the head. Thirdly, the interviewees identified initiatives for change taken by the head which had led directly or indirectly to their innovations. Other possible factors may emerge in this section in which the relationship between the middle-managers and the senior staff, particularly the head, is explored. It will illustrate how headteachers were involved in innovations - the degree, level and perceived reasons - and the effect of this involvement, if any, upon the introduction and success of the changes. It may serve to develop any tentative model for middle-management. This section looks first at the issues within the notion of a hierarchy in the context of schools and innovation.

Lindblad's Swedish study in the nineteen-seventies (1986)(9) noted that 42% of the participants in the surveyed innovations were recruited by headteachers or education departments. He concluded that participants in innovation tend to occupy a high formal position within a hierarchy and that work in schools is initiated from senior positions. Can it be concluded, therefore, that schools need a hierarchy in order for change to be initiated?

The consequences of a hierarchical structure are debatable. Belbin (1983)(10) noted that a rigid hierarchy can reduce effectiveness, especially where management teams operate. It can restrict the entry of the most suitable individuals into the team or reduce their participation once within it. However, Packwood (1980)(11) argues that a hierarchy can serve as an integrating mechanism by responding to individual needs at different levels and

allowing a variety of working relationships. He notes that a school's hierarchy is particularly complex because of the division between academic and pastoral curricula and the subsequent fragmentation of accountability. It could be argued that this division is what allows the differing levels of response. His other point about accountability seems to be a key issue because it relates to overview.

Traditionally the one person who has sustained a complete overview of the school, especially of the curricula, has been the headteacher. Accountability has traditionally rested in that post. For these reasons, Packwood, like Sutton above, noted that the power and responsibility of the head have significant implications for the exercise of values and judgements within the school.

The curriculum, suggests Watts (1975)(12), represents only a partial source of a head's power and largely because of his/her degree of involvement in determining it. Without full co-operation between the head and the staff, this power, he argues, could be redistributed to an autocratic Shire Hall, a view pre-empted by the 1988 Education Reform Bill.

Such discussion may be academic if Gray's argument is accepted. Gray (1982)(13) expressed scepticism about the exercise of power for such altruistic reasons as ultimate responsibility. He argued that heads reserve power in order to protect the office from an erosion of status. This power can be exercised through the head's authority and freedom as a controlling mechanism. He promotes a view also expressed by phenomenological researchers, that where change is perceived to threaten personal or individual needs, the head can resist and restrict real negotiation. To date, the head's authority has been delegated authority, originally through

the articles of government, from the local education authority and from the governors. Although the head's authority may have changed in recent years, for the purpose of this research, much of this discussion remains relevant since it is concerned with innovation managed 1984-5.

To summarise, a hierarchical management structure differentiates levels and areas of authority and responsibility. It is endorsed in schools by an organisational structure with senior and middle-managers; by salary and promotion structures; and by the legitimising authorities to whom schools are responsible and by whom they are financed. As it is the structure within which the sampled middle-managers attempted to innovate, its advantages and construction may prove relevant to their success. In terms of internal innovation within schools, the hierarchy may be disadvantageous by discouraging individuals from participation but advantageous in providing stability and, by implication, appropriate conditions for change. Both by role and title, at the zenith of this structure is the headteacher who may enjoy considerable power, legitimised by the authority of management, Slater (1985)(14). The headteacher is the topic of the following discussion.

#### IV.2.i. The role of the head

The role of the headteacher is well-documented and more clearly identified and more often researched than the role of head of year, department or faculty. The head seems to be a key figure with an important role when the quality of leadership given by the head is linked with the effectiveness of the school. References are frequently made in the literature to two DES (1977)(15) documents as having identified the head as the main influence upon the formulation and achievement of the school's aims because the

leadership of schools determines its success.

Sutton (1985)(16) argues that, as a result of the development of larger and more complex schools, the demands upon the head teacher have grown. The role has evidently changed during the past twenty five years. Conway (1980)(17) argues there is little recent evidence to indicate that the petty despots identified by Musgrove (1971) in his study are alive and well today. Indeed, Morgan et al (1983) and Buckley (1985), cited in Weindling and Earley (1987)(18), illustrate the increasing complexity and scope of the headteacher role. Weindling and Earley (1987) suggest contributory factors which account for this change, such as, the effects of comprehensivisation, falling rolls and recent legislation upon the composition of schools, and the pressures of greater parental choice, the increased deployment of industrial action by teachers and demands for greater accountability.

Interpretations of the head's role have also changed. Hughes (1976)(19) identified two traditional aspects of a head's work, namely, teaching and administration. Bernbaum (1976)(20) argued for a new model to incorporate the changing expectations of education, the changing world and the application of management techniques whereby the head is seen as a trained administrator and as a less dominant figure who recognises staff potential and expertise. Concern was expressed by Taylor (1976)(21) about relating interpretations of the head's role to the size of the schools, especially when it leads to an emphasis on management. Whilst supporting the view that an understanding of organisational analysis may lead to the resolution of some problems within comprehensive schools, he believes that analogies between industry and schools are confining. The consequences may be a division of the academic



community, the fostering of conflict and dispute, and doubts about authority.

The analogous managerial perspective fires debate. Sutton (1985)(22) depicts the headteacher's role as an executive managerial function. He believes a similarity of role means that heads can draw upon the experience of managers in industry, especially with regard to staff management. His proviso, that the acquisition of staff management skills should be related to the particular problems of schools, is endorsed by other writers.

Whilst there may exist similarities in management function, the fundamental difference lies in values. Taylor (1976)(23) depicts function as control, delegation, communication, departmental autonomy, bureaucracy and budget. In addition, he argues that business ethics may not be compared with the moral principles which guide human relationships. Gray (1982)(24) seems to support this view when he notes curricular decisions as being concerned with the critical and personal interest of pupils and their future. He sees the facilitation of the process of teaching and learning as any head's first qualification. The position of the head is, therefore, crucial because a head is accredited very considerable power which denies responsibility among other members of staff. HMI in DES (1977b)(25) identified power-sharing on the head's part as a keynote of effective school organisation and administration.

Everard (1984)(26) endorses this view. He notes that the changing social and economic environment serves only to enhance the importance of the effectiveness of a head's interpersonal skills and of a capacity to work with, and through, others. He observed that a study by a seconded head, Jackson, revealed that heads not only lacked management training but also failed to see themselves as

managers. A clue to this perception may lie in the title "headteacher" which, given the changing nature of the role, may be anachronistic. Heads have tended to achieve their position through promotional steps from the classroom as Weindling and Earley (1987)(27) observe. For those heads with a strong academic interest or background, the trend towards an administrative executive function may be anathema. It is possible that they experience a personal conflict between their understanding of the purposes of education and the need to deliver a curriculum by the management of staff. Lack of work experience outside schools or management training prior to headship, may exacerbate this conflict.

Weindling and Earley (1987)(28) note that the initiatives from central government to fund senior school management training and the increasing number of publications on school management, some of which are referred to in this study, have focussed attention on recognition of the need for training for heads.

Everard and Marsden (1985)(29) suggest that mutual support between heads and industrialists is mutually beneficial. However, they state that any such partnership between industrial managers and heads, working on the issues which heads raise, must start with a clear examination of practice to be beneficial.

Thus, the hierarchical position of the head identifies a theoretical role as teacher and administrator - an executive manager as well as leader - who may have achieved this position as a consequence of teaching rather than managerial expertise and who may have some managerial experience though not necessarily training.

What constitutes the head's role? Lyons (1974) and Jackson, both reported in Everard (1984)(30), found that heads, in practice, dealt with a high density of tasks which were characterised by

brevity, variety, and discontinuity. Any reflective thinking occurred outside school. Hall, MacKay and Morgan (1986)(31) confirmed these findings. Indeed, the POST project conducted by Morgan, Hall and MacKay (1983), referred to by Weindling and Earley (1987)(32), reported that approximately three hundred secondary headships were advertised each year but that only one local education authority in eighty-five could provide a job description.

Hughes (1976)(33) noted two aspects of the role - teacher and innovator. Mitchell (1984), cited by Field (1985)(34), observed that curricular change draws upon both the head's experience as a teacher and upon skills as a negotiator and manager. Weindling and Earley (1987)(35) note that this aspect of the head's role is well-documented in research studies in the United States, as Fullan's (1982)(36) review records. It is not employed in this study because of the differences between the roles of principals (U.S.) and headteachers as a consequence of cultural and administrative differences.

There is considerable evidence to support Hughes' (1976)(37) description of a head as an innovator. Nicholls (1983)(38) cites Dickinson's (1975) finding of twelve out of fifteen heads as the initiators of change and particularly change which responded to perceived need within the schools, as being supported in her own study (1979). She notes the head as a key figure in terms of innovation, particularly with reference to the degree of support a head lends to it and in ensuring that the conditions are appropriate for implementation. The previous chapter has indicated a similar finding in this study. Where a head failed to recognise the range of issues involved, innovation was unsuccessful in terms of the difference between intended and actual outcomes. Her study also

highlighted the significance of the relationship between a headteacher's management style and the kind of innovation and related decision-making. An inconsistency of style evident, for example, in the means of communicating with staff, resulted in confusion.

It would seem that the consensus of both theoretical and empirical writing is towards increasingly participative management. Handy and Aitken (1986)(39) observed that heads were in a difficult position in striking a balance between autocracy and autonomy. Weindling and Earley (1987)(40) cite Nockels' (1981) refutation of the notion of autocratic leadership styles and Sutton (1985)(41) reported from his own study that the volume of work and the stressful nature of the job create such pressures on heads that they need to delegate, especially to gain time to review their long-term objectives and the general condition of their schools.

Duffy (1985)(42) urges recognition of the need for a structure to facilitate participative decision-making because many staff in schools are not close to, or directly connected with, the management structure. The form of such a structure should be cross-curricular so as to reduce subject interests. He believes that staff involvement is likely to increase when staff become aware of the implications of decisions as a result of their involvement in exploring particular issues. In addition, participation is likely to be most effective when informal discussion represents a significant part of the decision-making process.

In his critique of participative decision-making, Davies (1983)(43) observed that, where middle-managers are involved in decision-making, their perceptions of the wider issues of school policy will be extended beyond their areas of actual responsibility

and, as a result, their commitment to that policy will increase. If this is true and if middle-managers are responsible for the work of teams of teachers, the implications of the relationship between middle-managers and heads are significant.

Gray (1982)(44) writes that, whilst such teams can be supportive of policy, they depend upon the working environment created by the head. This argument has two facets: on the one hand, the team could represent a competing power base, challenging the head's authority and administration. On the other, it could be acquiescent to that authority which is what Gray understands because he believes most teachers prefer the head to make decisions at a particular level.

The middle-manager - head relationship may be important for other reasons related teachers' careers, as Phipson (1981)(45) notes. Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(46) observe that, because teachers' careers are made and experienced within schools, the values of the head and the organisation are significant influences upon their careers. In one respect, this observation relates to Gray's point about the working environment but it may also relate to such issues as promotion, rewards, patronage, job satisfaction and self-esteem. It is this relationship which is explored in the next pages.

The following survey of the middle-managers' perceptions may illustrate the role of the head as being, in practice, relatively similar to the theoretical role. Those interviewees who had enjoyed satisfactory relationships insofar as the head's involvement had matched their expectations, also expressed an understanding and appreciation of the head's policy and personal qualities as the following comments indicate:

"The head attracted fairly extrovert people - the questions she asks are concerned more with subjects - she's looking for a wide range of interests."

"The head wants breadth and balance in the curriculum. There's concern that children should take more responsibility for their learning which we're trying to do, and to take a more active part in their assessment of their own work and that's something we're trying to achieve."

The importance of keeping the head informed was observed by eight interviewees and in one questionnaire and for a range of reasons, for example, in order to reduce opposition from "senior management" to new schemes; to keep the head up to date on developments; and to clarify the intention of new activities in the classroom. Informing the head could promote positive attitudes towards middle-managers' actions.

Communication seems to be a significant factor in unsatisfactory relationships. Sutton (1985)(47) noted the importance of developing an effective structure since good communication is problematic in comprehensive schools. Among the interviewees, the school in which the greatest degree of dissatisfaction with the head and the senior staff was expressed, was also the school in which the middle-managers expressed the need to keep the head informed. The minutes and agendas of all management meetings were regularly sent to the head at his request. What was felt to be lacking was the personal communication which Sutton notes as important.

This personal access to the head may be related to the significance middle-managers attribute to the head in terms of the success of their management of innovation. The following comments

indicate a relationship between success and support, recognition, understanding, developing full staff participation and the head's implicit authority:

"Much of the planning stage is down to me and others but they (senior staff) will be kept informed of progress and materials will be shown to them. It is important to tell them and get them to appreciate what is going on. A department must be seen to be pulling its weight."

"The department is on the change and he obviously has wanted to instigate the change but he has to work through me. If he hadn't wanted this change, he would have appointed someone else. There's an undoubted link between his support and my work."

To summarise, the head was seen to be an effective influence upon the management of change with the authority and power to persuade, support and encourage. Explicitly or implicitly, heads are seen to be engaged in promoting staff involvement in change by policy decisions, engagement, example and control. Although middle-managers saw heads as facilitators in terms of funding, resourcing and other practical elements, this aspect of the role was subordinate to the staff function. This perception would seem to emphasise the views expressed that innovation is primarily concerned with changing staff attitudes and that its success lies in accomplishing this change and drawing on staff expertise.

The heads seem to work through middle-managers to introduce change in various ways. The new heads were more closely identified with the changes than the old who tended to initiate and then delegate. The authority of the head seems to be handed in part with the delegated responsibility for organisation, training, planning

and implementation.

The head's authority was perceived to be greater than that of other members of the senior team. Although deputy heads were referred to occasionally as useful for gaining funds and transmitting ideas, their function was identified as mediators and practical facilitators, often for gaining access to the head, and with a lesser or greater degree of effectiveness.

Heads were described by middle-managers as policy makers with the vision or a curriculum overview essential for change and particularly by newly-appointed staff or where they were themselves new to the school. Interviewees working with new heads tended to discuss and explore their perceptions in greater depth as if trying to establish an understanding of a new colleague. This phenomenon was also noted about newly-appointed middle-managers in respect of their own staff. Heads were perceived to identify school rather than subject needs and to be able to recognise how and where in the curriculum innovation was required. Those heads who were very specific about the area and reasons for change and their expectations, seemed to be viewed more favourably than heads who were not. The lowest level of fulfillment of a middle-manager's expectations of a head seemed to occur among newly-appointed staff under old heads as one head of department said of his own staff:

"When you're new, expectations are unrealistically high."

Whatever the level of support, the degree of engagement or the execution of the head's function, the middle-managers believed they had successfully managed the introduction and implementation of change. The head's contribution to that success can be summarised as: reflecting managerial and administrative skills; understanding and overview of curricula; invested authority. The following pages



look at ways in which a head innovates in relation to a middle-manager.

### The head as innovator

This study offers support for the view of the headteacher as a key figure in innovation from the perspective of the middle-manager. In their comments evaluating the success of their innovations, six interviewees nominated the headteacher as one causal reason: six interviewees expected support from "senior staff" and nine identified such support as being the headteacher's responsibility. Eight felt they needed this support because of a range of conditions and circumstances particular to their anticipated change. Of the questionnaire responses, eleven expressed the feeling that a headteacher should be involved in actions for change; seven noted a need for involvement and four sought support specifically from the head. In addition, "senior management" was recorded in eighteen questionnaire responses either as a constraint or disadvantage because of such issues as finance, the timetable, allocation of rooms and resources, and opposition to proposed change. There were proportionately more negative comments about senior staff in the questionnaires than in the interviews.

The headteacher figures prominently as an initiator in the interviews and in four ways:

- a) direct headteacher initiative and action
- b) headteacher initiative through decisions about staff
- c) middle-management initiatives with tacit headteacher support
- d) apparently independent middle-manager initiatives.

The first two categories are related because the headteacher figures prominently as initiator. They include six initiatives, that is, half the interview sample, which occurred under heads who took

specific and evident actions to promote change, for example, by appointing staff explicitly to initiate change, by supporting innovatory proposals, and by inviting initiative. The third and fourth categories are related insofar that the head remained a background figure, that is, was not closely identifiable as initiator of the projects. Thus, these categories indicate the degrees to which a head may be involved in middle-managers' innovations.

The following analysis attempts to identify particular actions or characteristics of the middle-managers and the heads so as to draw more generally applicable conclusions. It will be supported by evidence from other studies and, where possible, by questionnaire data.

#### a) Direct headteacher initiatives and action

The two innovations in this category are the expansion of the Special Needs Unit combined with head of First year and the introduction of a second European language into the curriculum. They each occurred in different schools. Other differences and similarities which may prove significant, are listed on the following page for reference in reading the interpretation:

Similarities and differences in circumstances of the example of direct headteacher initiatives:

	Expansion of S.N. Unit	Introduction of 2nd Language
Head-teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- first headship</li> <li>- new to authority</li> <li>- in first year of appointment</li> <li>-</li> <li>- arts graduate</li> <li>- appointed head of department to initiate change</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>second headship</li> <li>10 years in authority</li> <li>four years in post</li> <li>male</li> <li>science graduate</li> <li>instructed head of faculty to introduce change</li> </ul>
Middle-Manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 15 years experience as teacher</li> <li>- previous post:scale 2 head of small dept. for one year, different school</li> <li>- newly appointed to scale 3</li> <li>- female, late returners</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>18 years teaching experience</li> <li>6 years as head of Faculty in this school</li> <li>scale 4</li> <li>after career break</li> </ul>
Change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- cross-curricular</li> <li>- staff 1.5</li> <li>- voluntary</li> <li>- similar</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>subject-based</li> <li>4</li> <li>instructed</li> <li>capitation sum</li> </ul>

The differences between the two headteachers may be significant. Weindling and Earley's extensive study (1987)(48) observed that new heads played a major part in innovation and were originators of almost all the changes occurring; new head was classified by being in post two years or less. In addition, new heads were more likely to perform this role from initiation to implementation than old heads who tended to delegate the task to the senior team and maintain a watching brief, having once initiated. These findings are supported by this study. The nature of the management context, if determined by the head, may be significant for staff effectiveness as other empirical studies illustrate. Sikes (1984)(49) and both Hunter and Highway (50) and Nias (1980)(51) identify the managerial context in which teachers work as a major influence upon teacher morale, motivation, commitment and job

satisfaction.

The expansion of the Special Needs Unit was implemented by a teacher who was newly promoted to a school with a new head. Her understanding of the broader reasons for the innovation relate to another finding of Weindling and Earley (1987)(52): that new heads who are concerned about the local community's view of the school, introduce changes which will promote the school's public image. The head in this example wanted to improve liaison with the feeder primary schools and to reduce his falling pupil roll, a problem identified by 36% of the heads in the Weindling and Earley (53) study. To this end a video was produced in which the Special Needs Unit featured prominently and which was interpreted by the interviewee as having two purposes at a time of teacher industrial action, firstly, to circumvent teachers' non-attendance at parents' meetings and, secondly, to promote the school, and in that order. The element of risk in innovation referred to by other interviewees is reflected in the following comment about the problem of expanding Special Needs teaching with regard to the local community's view of the school:

"He wanted to give a good taste of the school, of what new parents would think important - First years, computers, sixth form, options, tutorial work - he'd no need to include us in the video because we're insignificant compared with the number of children other departments see... There's also a problem - if a school has a thriving Special Needs department, in the eyes of the parents it has some sort of reflection on the general standard of the school. So it isn't always a good thing. People assume there's a lot of children failing in the classroom."

An innovation which extends across the curriculum, may require a high profile and develop a new image within the school in order to achieve its purpose. Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(54) observed from their studies that teachers' clothing and personal appearance were central to conceptualisations of a proper teacher and to acceptance by both colleagues and pupils. This head of department related such perceptions to her own role and to relationships with parents, staff and pupils:

"If I turn up in a smart outfit, I alienate myself automatically from these children whereas I'm trying to promote the department in the school so that it's not seen as a sin bin with scruffy people, teachers in boiler suits. The sin bin carries the old values of children who are not valued, who can't behave. If the behavioural problem comes attendant to a literacy problem, that's fine, but I don't want any child being sent to me because of behavioural problems. That's the other teacher's problem."

In order to resolve some of these issues the head of department identified the need to win the co-operation of her colleagues across the school and the support of the head. It was given by clear identification of her role and of his goals for the school, by using the unit himself, and by ensuring full resourcing and teacher substitution when required.

The second innovation in this category of direct headteacher initiatives was instituted in another school in which the head, in his second headship within the same authority, had been employed for six years. As the result of a curriculum review, it was decided that a second language should be introduced. There is no record of the head's intentions but the head of faculty explains it thus:

"It's happening increasingly across the country through language departments in most schools. Headteachers tell each other and vie with each other. They're only human - about my age. They're looking for the next promotion, Adviser, Inspectorate, and they've got to show something good."

She interpreted the change and perceived lack of consultation as reflecting a general philistinism which the following comment illustrates:

"They cut back on Languages because it's a poor relation. Arts? Who needs it? It's a prejudice against foreign languages. We're a voice in the wilderness. It's a national sickness. We, as a country, don't feel it's necessary."

Her perceived isolation, as a result of the head's decision, was one aspect of the problem. Her "options" were unattractive: some staff redeployment if they didn't innovate and an angry and anxious staff if they did. Capitation and resources were also reduced. As she said:

"We are demoralised. Our subject is demoralised, more and more so. I feel we're not here to turn out Maths animals, Science animals, but to give the child education and part of education should include a study of language at some level. It widens their understanding of other nations and I hope it puts paid to a lot of prejudices they have."

This experience appeared to be not only a rejection of her subject expressed as a disregard for its educational contribution and relevance, but also a rejection of herself, her style of working and ultimately her competence: a very personal response to a professional decision. Her explanation which follows, is a reminder of Gray's (1982)(55) observation about heads' reserving power as a

source of protection. It reflects the findings of Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(56) that teachers believe they can be perceived as a threat to the head's authority and, consequently, reduce their promotion opportunities:

"Maybe it's only here but I think it's increasing more and more unfortunately - a levelling-off. Gone are the days when you were allowed to be colourful, and have your own personality and do it your own way. Now, if you're different, they're uncomfortable because they operate with blinkers on. They want to see it straight ahead - they don't want to see any diversities. They don't want a challenge, especially from women with ability, at the top."

Unlike the first example in this category of direct headteacher initiatives, the change seemed to require reduction in one area in order to extend the curriculum; it was not perceived as development. Whilst it could have been seen to enhance the status of Modern Languages by increasing the curricular range, the manner of introduction seems to have caused this negative interpretation. The differences between the two initiatives, in perceptions, understanding and attitudes, seem to lie in their management by the head. The first example reflects management by a rational - empirical strategy being expansive, supporting and initiating and offering rewards of status and patronage. The second exemplifies the conventions of management by authority, a power-coercive strategy, in which an imposed policy is threateningly persuasive upon the middle-manager.

b) Headteacher initiatives through decisions about staff

Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(57) propose that the most important influence a head can exercise to determine the school

context is by appointments and promotions. The sensitivity of the task can lead to a wide range of speculations and hypotheses about heads' intentions, values and high degree of freedom to organise and administer their schools, a freedom shown here in four examples of decisions about staff appointment and involvement. Integrated Science (1) was the direct and intended consequence of a staff appointment. Integrated Humanities (2) and mixed ability teaching (3) were introduced by two heads of faculty, newly appointed explicitly to bring change, albeit unspecified. The fourth example, a first year Science module (4), was developed in the same school by an "old" head of faculty because of the head's decision to participate in a research project when another local school withdrew. Whilst it cannot be substantiated, because there is no record of the head's intentions, a desire for change seems evident.

There are several characteristics common to three of these middle-managers which might be generalisable. Each was newly-appointed, having had experience of innovating in their previous schools. Each expressed concern about integration and team work. Each held a second degree in education and demonstrated an awareness of the national issues in education in their responses. Each served on more than one advisory committee either regionally or nationally. The innovations they introduced were identified as curricular improvements which affected both method and content for their subjects and reflected current educational trends. Their heads were experienced and in second headships.

In the first example the head appointed the head of faculty with the explicit intention of introducing Integrated Science into the curriculum. The interviewee recognised the school's capacity for, and the head's interest in, such change during her interview:



"I could see the head was keen because G. has a climate which makes innovation relatively easy because the head and the senior staff always want to be fairly up with curriculum innovation. It's a school with a head who's anxious to be at the forefront of educational change."

This candidate experienced a high degree of compatibility and expressed the view that she had enjoyed a large measure of job satisfaction through her relationship with the head and successful innovation.

Whilst the next two interviewees expressed similar sentiments about the success of their work, their perceptions of their relationship with the headteacher were less favourable. That the nature of the changes to occur within their faculties, as a result of their appointments, was not explicitly clarified in their job interviews, may be significant. They both acknowledged that they were appointed "to change things". The first interviewee, example 2, saw himself appointed as "a change agent" and like the second interviewee, example 3, because of the state of the faculty and the head's expectations; the latter explains:

"It was made quite clear at the interview that there was a considerable need for change, that the faculty had quietly gone its own way for a number of years and that it lacked the kind of leadership the head wanted to see - you know, more control, direction and an improvement in discipline, the level and success of teaching, standards."

Both interviewees tried to identify why, even though they felt they had successfully fulfilled the intuited and amorphous expectations of the head, his involvement and interest had not met

their expectations. He appeared to be disinterested.

Both also expressed discontent with the senior team, particularly in the perceived low level of interest, support and involvement. Their expectations of senior staff, particularly deputies, seem to be related to their perceptions of that role and of the individual's capacity to fulfil it:

"Although you think senior staff are appointed because they're educators and good administrators, they seem to have lost the perspective of the classroom teacher. They don't seem to realise the stress and that teaching is very hard work."

"We had a liaison with senior staff but it didn't take long to realise that R. just wasn't up to scratch, she wasn't much help. Even though she made the right noises, no one took any notice of her."

These two examples of innovation could be representative of the delegation aspect of the head's work which Weindling and Earley (1987)(58) note is more customary among "old" heads, that is, more than two years in post. The perception of an unsatisfactory relationship could be attributed to aspects of the delegation process, for example, the quality of communication, clarity of intention, or to high and unrealistic expectations of being newly appointed or to differences in professional attitudes and personal needs.

The fourth example in this category illustrates delegation by a route other than appointment and promotion. This head of science, already working with the head in the same school, was asked to participate in a research project, funded by a research institute. The transcribed interview C in Appendix C offers a full account. The influence and effect of the head in supporting the project is

implicit in this comment about staff acceptance of a new work load:

"People realised this school is committed to taking part in the Project and will accept it as part of their teaching load."

The central feature of the four examples discussed in this category is that the heads were perceived by the middle-managers to have established a climate within their schools in which change was welcomed and positively encouraged by the decisions the heads made.

(c) Middle-management initiatives with head's tacit support

The common denominator in this category is cross-curricular engagement: the upper school Personal and Social Education (PSE) core course and the Computer Network in one school and Language Across the Curriculum in another. The innovators were, respectively, deputy head, head of faculty and head of department and had been in post two, six and six years. The head of department worked under a new head whilst the other two worked in the same school and felt they enjoyed successful relationships with the head.

The Personal and Social Education core course, PSE, was followed by CSE pupils only whilst GCE children, who represented about 30% of the cohort, followed six instead of five options. The proposed change was to extend PSE, to include it in the core curriculum for all pupils. It provides an example of the consultation process which can precede innovation, especially to promote positive attitudes of acceptance among staff, pupils and parents. The proposal seems to have originated from the deputy head whose interview (B) is transcribed and included in Appendix C, and where her commitment to PSE is extensively discussed. The central issue to be resolved before introduction and implementation was the acceptance by the teaching staff of a change in the core curriculum

and, by implication, the reduction of options and the uptake of Science for pupils. She noted peripheral problems about the ways of teaching PSE, for example, the appropriate facilities for group work, the time of day, furniture, whether to examine or not, pupil-teacher relationships. However, what seems to emerge as most significant in the interview is the notion of staff resistance as, like Nisbet (1975)(59), she saw teachers as resisters and followers, a problem she felt was occasionally insurmountable because of her lack of choice in staff since some were volunteers and others press-ganged. Her status as deputy head may have compounded this problem as she explains here:

"It's probably assisted and detracted. I suppose that with the best will in the world some people will do what I ask just because it's me or my role and you can't get away from that. However much you like to think it didn't happen, I'm sure it did. On the other hand, I think some people would say 'no' on principle because it was the deputy head asking - to be perverse."

The consultation process which is described in detail in the transcribed interview B, Appendix C, was intended to ensure a broad sounding and records a difference of opinion about the process between the deputy and the head, not about methods but about extent. The deputy felt the process had been too involved and attributes the head's insistence on a full consultation to his desire to be democratic, informed and flexible and not using the authority inherent in his position to succeed. She thought her position as a deputy may have been another consideration since no other issue had been so fully explored by staff. This example raises a number of questions about the effect of authority, delegated or inherent, upon

the implementation of innovation. The exercise of authority by resourcing and funding is evident in the next two examples.

Industrial action was identified as a problem for full implementation in that example whereas in the following two examples it was seen to be a decisive constraint. The setting up of a computer network evolved from a Maths Faculty which had a core of keen computer students, described by the head of faculty as "boffins", whose enthusiasm had resulted in the installation of five computers. As the increasing interest, especially from parents, led to developing the network for wider use, two problems emerged, both resolved by the head. Fresh accommodation was provided and the flourishing parent-teacher association committee, chaired by the head, voted a large proportion of its funds for that year to financing the network. As the head of faculty observed, "The money flowed in". Industrial action started at this point and, in his estimation, prevented progress to what had been a successfully introduced but not implemented innovation. This success was attributed to senior staff involvement, specifically the head's support in encouraging the staff, in welcoming the proposal, and in helping to promote and fund it. In the next example, the interviewee, in a different school, drew comparisons between his previous head and the new head regarding the first mooting of a Language Across the Curriculum policy and their understanding of the issues. It endorses the relevance and range of headteacher support. The head of department responded to the new head's interest, despite his misgivings about an English specialist developing such a policy, and devised a questionnaire in conjunction with his departmental staff for distribution amongst all staff. The headteacher was the first to return it completed which was interpreted by the head of

English as support. Implicit in the following comment about the significance of the head's support is the notion of a head's authority as a persuasive power able to dispel or dilute opposition:

"I always approach people individually, but I always know I must receive the support of the headmaster. If HM doesn't want it, I won't even start anything. I am very convinced. I have worked with many headmasters. I have seen many staffrooms and I know when the head is behind a thing, howsoever much opposition there may be, when it comes to the public display of opposition, it won't come. Human nature is such."

Although the characteristic initially identified as common to each example in this category of middle-management initiatives with tacit headteacher support, was the cross-curricular aspect, the head's support emerges as instrumental to the successful introduction of change. The support is seen to be offered in several ways but most clearly in the direct and indirect effect of the head's authority upon staff whose engagement is significant to the proposal being effected.

d) Apparently independent middle-management initiatives

Whilst the head's influence seemed to figure to lesser or greater degrees in the previous category, it earns only a passing reference in this category. All three innovations here were introduced within the same school by middle-managers who had worked for more than ten years in that school and, therefore, with the present head and his predecessor.

In the first example, the introduction of problem-solving in CDT, the head was timetabled to teach in the faculty during the time when the change was introduced and was thought to have a clear sense

of the faculty's work. The details of how the course was introduced can be read in transcript A, Appendix C; essentially it was gradual and perceived to be a response to educational trends and pupil need. The consequences of the head's teaching involvement led to an internal staff promotion and the support and independence the head of faculty wanted.

The second example, Fabrics Technology, was introduced in a department within the same faculty by the head of department and with the head of faculty's encouragement. It was proposed to counteract classroom discipline problems which the head of department saw as indicating a need for a new approach to both subject content and method. Support from senior staff, namely, a deputy, was also seen as essential especially for funding, although the following comment suggests some ambiguity:

"People make great promises but they don't happen. You need senior staff to encourage you."

The last innovation in this category concerns the introduction of a new tutorial curriculum for first year children by a head of department who was promoted internally and sideways to head of year. The initiative developed from her involvement, her observations of the previous head of year, and recognition of her work by senior managers who attended her meetings with tutors. She felt that the head offered little of the support she would have welcomed to resolve the problems which she felt were particular to pastoral initiatives, as she explains here:

"You've got terrific constraints. You've got the limits of the timetable - people who don't want to do it, who don't want to change. You've got limits in the building. You've got a faculty structure with its resistance." The Director of,

Studies could help but it didn't happen. The school isn't that bothered because it lacks vision. There's a lack of consultation - the pastoral and academic curriculums should be complementary - they shouldn't be split."

The characteristic common to this category of independent initiatives was the lack of reference to headteacher involvement. However, what has emerged is that a member of the senior team was involved in the work of each middle-manager. In two of the three examples promotions were seen to have resulted from that contact. In addition, the first interviewee felt satisfied by the level of support he received from the head whilst the other two felt it had been less than expected.

To summarise, this analysis has drawn upon the perceptions of the interviewed middle-managers of heads as innovators. It has attempted to identify aspects of the headteachers' role in the management of change by categorising the interviewees' experience in four groups. Whilst many of the quoted comments are individual, there are some general comments reflected throughout which are supported, to some extent, by questionnaire data. Firstly, the material supports the notion of the head as a significant figure, as both administrator and innovator. Secondly, it illustrates a variety of relationships arising between heads and middle-managers which may reflect differences in management styles and circumstances. Thirdly, it seems to suggest that heads exercise different degrees of leadership; that they initiate change in a variety of ways through their staff; and that they may be significant for teachers' careers.

As a generalisation, the head's authority seems to be diffused through the middle-manager and, as a corollary, that heads may seek



out staff who can accommodate that role. The middle-managers in these examples tended to be enthusiastic, able to lead initiatives and to understand the process. As recipients of delegated authority, they seem to work in a form of partnership with the head, albeit unequal in skills, power and authority. The head's authority is expressed in several ways - by promotions, funding, imposition, support, developing a new profile. New heads may involve themselves more in innovations whilst old heads tend to delegate. There are too few examples in this study for definitive statements on this point; however, other studies offer similar evidence. Whilst during the data collection, it looked as if the middle-managers were independent initiators, the analysis of the data has revealed this interdependent relationship with the head. It would appear that, when heads are not directly involved, they operate through the hierarchical management structure especially through deputies. This is perceived to be less than satisfactory because the level of support does not match expectations. The following discussion explores this aspect and draws on data from both samples.

#### IV.2.ii. The senior team

Interaction with other members of the senior team, that is, with deputy heads or senior teachers, represents another aspect of the relationship between middle-managers and heads, especially in a situation of innovation. Weindling and Earley (1987)(60) note that relationships between the head and the senior team, especially in schools with new heads, can determine the kinds of change implemented. In addition, given the complexity of the head's role, it is likely that aspects of that role will be delegated to deputies in a hierarchical structure. Some schools nominate a deputy as Director of Curriculum, for example. Weeks (1986)(61) observes that

deputies represent the executive power in the school and that, with a slice of this power, they can act purposefully.

The isolated position of the head was noted earlier; if the senior team is supportive of the head, this loneliness may be mitigated as Weeks (1986) observed. Weindling and Earley (1987)(62) refer to Matthew and Tong (1982) who noted the role of the deputy in contributing to this possible partnership of shared responsibility. Weindling and Earley confirmed that heads favoured a team approach to school management and commented positively on the team contribution of deputies to joint-planning and decision-making.

However, clarification of the deputy's role has been problematic. Todd and Dennison (1980)(63) reported in 1978 that 75% of the surveyed deputies found a discrepancy between their actual and their ideal role. It was attributed to insufficient opportunity to fulfil that role because of interference from administrative tasks and because of a lack of adequately defined status. Less than 50% of that sample believed they experienced difficulties with colleagues. Weindling and Earley (64) confirm that roles and responsibilities are more clearly defined at the time of their study into curriculum and timetable; pastoral care and administration.

Thus, whilst the roles of deputies may be ambiguous, their hierarchical position seems to indicate a measure of authority, responsibility and power, if only from the superordinate status in relation to middle-managers. The extent to which that role can be fulfilled may depend upon the head's capacity to delegate, to involve deputies and to encourage individual responsible action. How middle-managers interpret the action of deputies, in particular, in relation to their innovations will be illustrated here. The interviewees were asked what the response, interest or involvement

of senior staff was in their innovation. Six interviewees noted it was "helpful": five of the six referred specifically to the headteacher and one of the five found only the headteacher helpful; the sixth commented directly on the support given by deputy heads. The other half of the sample indicated 'unhelpful' in their responses.

For the questionnaire sample, the question was framed differently: "Is your senior staff likely to be involved in the process?" Of twelve responses on nineteen returned questionnaires, eleven ticked the 'yes' box and 1 the 'no'. Thus, eleven of nineteen questionnaires and eleven of twelve interviewees referred to a need for the support. The exception among the interviewees was working on an externally initiated research project, (Table 12).

The responses from both samples offered a range of reasons for the desirability of senior staff interest, as Table 13 illustrates, and this range will be presented in two classifications. However, the following comment summarises a consensus view:

"I don't believe any innovation takes off in a school unless senior staff are behind it."

The first group of reasons is related to perceived problems about staff, in particular, their attitudes to change and their degree of participation. Support from senior staff was thought to be useful in resolving the problem in three ways: by increasing the status of the project and, by implication, the credibility of the innovator among colleagues; to encourage co-operation if senior staff were seen to be involved and, thereby, reduce dissent; as exemplars of commitment. Secondly, their reasons relate to the difficulties middle-managers experience or anticipate in their work. They saw senior staff as being able to overcome funding or financial problems

and to offer recognition or guidance to middle-managers.

Those interviewees who had enjoyed less favourable relationships with their heads, tended to be more critical of the senior team as a group. Their comments recorded a need for support in the accomplishment of their innovations and the desire to be effective and successful. They believed this support should come from other members of the senior team such as the deputies. This study records the dissatisfaction some middle-managers feel when previous experience is not matched:

"There's not been a lot of engagement and it's shattered my beliefs a bit. I've mostly worked with senior staff who see innovation as great. I had a view of senior staff as people who were good at their job, innovators themselves, good at encouraging people and were respected as such, and would support. That's been shattered a bit here."

or when there is a conflict of interests:

"The head of department is sometimes in a position of conflicting interests between representing the department's views when they're different from my own view of the school's needs. I found a lack of sympathy from senior staff for this position, so, if I put my department's view fairly strongly, I'm not seen as supporting senior management."

The source of disenchantment was identified by some middle-managers as in the narrow attitudes and prejudices of the deputies. They expressed a feeling of a lack of recognition for their skills and successes, and of flexible thinking among senior staff:

"Senior staff are so reluctant to adjust their view of staff and they don't recognise how much effort they put into adapting and becoming more effective teachers."

"They'd really like clones. They fear anything different.

They fear competition. They'd like us all to be cloned grey."

Whilst this last comment may seem bizarre, its language powerfully expresses two images of senior staff which here refers to deputies. "Clone" implies manipulation by authoritative control and "grey" suggests mediocrity and paleness, being neither white nor black. It also reflects the superordinate/subordinate relationship and notions of challenge to the status quo and a fearful retention of conformity for stability. Finally, it is dismissive in its tone. Whatever the reasons which might account for this comment, it embraces the sense of disappointment and disillusionment expressed variously by middle-managers from both samples about the involvement of deputies in their changes for the reasons presented in this section. Ideally, they anticipated their support in various forms and expected it by virtue of hierarchical position and its presumed authority and power, if not, professional expertise. Ideally, authority would be marshalled to help facilitate a change in staff attitudes towards innovation. Ideally, because of their hierarchical proximity, deputies could be gatekeepers with access to the head and his authority for the provision of funding or resources. Ideally, deputies, because of their presumed expertise, could provide the recognition most middle-managers wanted for their efforts and success.

#### IV.3. Concluding remarks.

This chapter has considered the question of the management of change within a hierarchically structured organisation. It has looked through the eyes of the middle-managers at their understanding of their role and their relationships within that

structure. It examined the management context, the relationship between the head and the middle-managers with passing reference to deputies. The head's significance was demonstrated, from interview data, as an influential authority exerted by direct initiatives, policy decisions, judgement of need, staff appointment, promotions and overview - a mixture of persuasive-coercive and rational authority. These actions, however, provided conditions and opportunities for middle-managers to introduce change.

The following observations summarise the issues and some implications. The data seems to support much of the research evidence and theory on the role of the head as a significant element of innovation. At the apex of an hierarchically-structured organisation, the head is invested with authority as leader, administrator and innovator. Some of this authority is divested, probably because of the gargantuan nature of the role, to deputies and to middle-managers to a degree which seems to be dependent upon the head's management style. It is difficult to identify how far that style corresponds with management models because it is not evident from this study how the heads interpreted their actions. In addition, the head's expression of the managerial role may have implications for teachers with regard to the quality of their working environment, their self-actualisation and promotional opportunities either as reward or experience. The middle-managers' reported perceptions seem to reflect not only how they interpret their own needs but also the function of heads and their deputies. It was particularly evident from the interviews that middle-managers had developed a conceptual understanding of the head's role but that it did not always match their understanding of reality. The idealised head may be as tenuous a concept as the ideal middle-

manager or deputy!

For some interviewees, the head had not fulfilled his/her perceived responsibility towards them. For others, the relationship had been satisfactory and satisfying which could be accounted for by a number of considerations, for example, realistic expectation, recognition of the multiplicity of demands upon a head, understanding and sympathy with a head's individual style of operation, or different levels of need.

Nevertheless, the middle-managers believed they had been successful at innovating. This belief may be founded in two considerations about management structure. Firstly, however unsatisfactory the relationship between the senior team, that is, heads and deputies, and middle-management may be, it need not follow that a hierarchical structure impedes innovation. If the working environment is appropriate, heads of year, department and faculty may find opportunities to employ their skills and expertise. Secondly, a hierarchical structure may support the institutionalisation of particular policies and, thereby, promote an ethos favourable to change within which the middle-managers can function effectively.

The evidence suggests this is a key area for the head. Middle-managers acknowledge that heads have both the power and the vision to foster effective change. They recognise the importance of access to the head to tap that source and attempt to gain access by regular contact and communication and information. Whilst deputies could facilitate that access, their effectiveness was seen to be limited. In one respect, this generalisation endorses the notion of the power of the hierarchy and its influence upon innovation. However, if middle-management innovations were seen as bottom-up

initiatives, it endorses the idea that a hierarchical structure need not impede change. It is clear that the involvement of the head is significant and recognised as such by middle-managers. Another factor to be considered may be the nature or type of innovation which is difficult because this study has specifically avoided type - it has concentrated upon the process of innovation. It may be an area for further investigation. Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(65) cite evidence in their study of middle-managers to indicate that good heads of department can operate successfully regardless of the qualities of the head. The following chapter looks at middle-managers' skills and characteristics.

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## Chapter V

### Middle-management: Tasks and Qualities

Analysis of the research findings, part III: how middle-managers see some of their tasks and qualities.

## Chapter V

### Middle-management: Tasks and Qualities

#### Introduction

#### V.1. Task definitions

#### V.2. Middle-management in practice

#### V.3. Qualities of middle-managers

#### V.4. Concluding remarks

## Chapter V

### Middle-management: Tasks and Qualities

Analysis of the research findings, part III: how middle-managers see some of their tasks and qualities.

#### Introduction

This chapter examines how middle-managers view their own role and how they function with regard to innovation. It is proposed here that there are parallels between the managerial activities of heads and middle-managers which have implications for the way in which change is managed. Chapter III explored the reasons for innovation identified by middle-managers and examined the strategies commonly employed to introduce planned change. Chapter IV attempted to place this work within a hierarchical context by exploring the relationship between heads and middle-managers. This chapter builds on that experience by looking at how middle-managers perceive their role and function. What seems to be emerging is a correlation between middle-managers and headteachers as managers in relation to innovation.

To illustrate the similarities and differences, Table 14 draws a comparison between the managerial tasks of heads as identified by Field (1985)(1) and those of middle-managers. If it is accepted that a middle-manager is a delegated role in a hierarchical structure, many of the similarities appear self-evident. However, the tasks are contingent upon not only how far the head will delegate, but arguably on the expertise of middle-management to fulfil these tasks. If the differences are acknowledged and the role is placed in context, middle-management could be seen to represent a microcosm of the head's managerial role for several



reasons. The super-ordinate - subordinate management authority is implicit in the school's management structure. The internal team responsibilities are often hierarchically structured too.

Frequently, there are nominated assistants to middle-managers, for example, deputy head of department, assistant head of year, and in faculties, heads of departments. How different in essence is the authority of a middle-manager from that of a head? Whilst the areas of responsibility, for example, to the local education authority, parents and governors, and exercise of power may be different, both middle-managers and headteachers are responsible for staff and pupils and answerable to significant others. Whilst heads are responsible for delivering the whole curriculum, middle-managers are limited to subject specialisms or curricular areas, for example, Languages or Technology.

If it is agreed that middle-managers are the driving force of change, as Phipson (1981)(2) speculated, some understanding of how they operate would seem intrinsic to understanding effective school improvement and management. In addition, if the middle-manager is the leading team professional resolving issues relating to specialist subject knowledge, curriculum, staff development, the quality of teaching and learning, and an executive dealing with budgets, forecasts, stock control, resourcing, forward planning, the demands are heavy for one who is also a classroom teacher. How are these three activities, of the teacher, subject professional and executive, combined? In his review of a range of empirical studies, Ribbins (1985)(3) notes a lack of coherence in what understanding is available of middle-management because studies have relied upon functionalist or interactionist frames of reference.

## V.1 Task Definitions

The extent of the middle-manager role may be exemplified in the issues investigated by Zeldin (1984)(4). His case study employed research methods similar to those used in this investigation to examine management concerns about school-based curriculum development based on a team approach. These concerns combined curricular with management questions in three areas which relate particularly to this study:

- \* the planning and implementation of a new course
- \* the intellectual and pedagogical aspects of course development
- \* the connections between structure, organisation and intention.

Zeldin concluded that effective curricular planning is dependent upon the deployment of resources, time, pupil talent, and staff expertise and involvement. These issues were raised by both samples in this study as has been illustrated in previous chapters and serve here to reflect some of the demands that planning alone makes of a middle-manager. However, middle-managers are not concerned with planning alone.

This is illustrated in surveys of role. Dunham (1978)(5) reported role conflict and role confusion as major sources of stress for heads of department. His survey of ninety-two comprehensive schools represents a significant sampling and, given the increase in responsibilities at management levels since that survey, may be particularly relevant today. He noted that role confusion arose from the multiplicity of head of department functions as subject teacher, tutor and manager. Role conflict occurred because the extent and range of interactions with pupils, colleagues and parents impose conflicting demands upon the role. The middle-manager role seems to be task directed.

It is difficult to avoid sustaining the concept of management as a task-oriented role because much of the theory and many definitions reinforce the notion. Interpretations or descriptions of management, for example, have tended to focus upon those areas in which managers act. This point is illustrated by Ribbins (1985)(6) in his review of the role of the middle-manager in the secondary school. He cites Bailey (1983) who identified the new responsibilities of middle-managers resulting from the growth of the large comprehensive under four headings: staff control; pupil control; resource control; communication. All four headings express action. In a discussion of role conflict, Ribbins refers to Lambert (1975) whose research recorded that heads of department see themselves as more task- than person-centred: this investigation suggests a move towards person-centred functions. A third example, noted by Ribbins, is the classification by Hall and Thomas (1977) into managerial, representative and academic which relate respectively to departmental management and control, representation of department to school and vice versa, and all aspects of teaching the subject. From these examples, two conclusions can be drawn - firstly, that middle-management requires a diversity of action and secondly, that effective middle-management could be preceded by training. However, training may reinforce the task orientation. The middle-management course from which the questionnaire sample was drawn, illustrates this point in the topics it covered, that is, concept of management, departmental performance, improving teaching, and people and performance, Appendix A4.

A middle-manager seems, therefore, to be engaged in work which is very varied, which requires a range of skills and which calls upon academic and pedagogic knowledge. Secondly, and perhaps as a

consequence, this work may cause confusion in understanding and conflict or tensions in performance. When this interpretation - a structural-functionalist concept - is examined in relation to this investigation and its focus on a middle-manager as an innovator through his/her perspective, several points arise for discussion which are summarised here.

A number of propositions have been offered. It has been argued that greater understanding of the role is desirable. It has been hypothesised that the role microcosmically mirrors the head's management role. It has been illustrated as a potentially stressful and demanding role with a strong task orientation. Therefore, it must, firstly, be asked how acceptable are theoretical and organisationally-constructed definitions of function which anticipate possible or desirable practical and instrumental interventions? As a corollary, can a phenomenological approach reveal a relationship between perceptions and interactionist-functionalist definitions? Secondly, can a definition of intention about a designated position within a structured organisation reveal anything? The position itself determines the managerial relationship and interaction. Thus, are such definitions helpful to gaining insights? Thirdly, were the hierarchical position also linked with predictable outcomes or behavioural expectations, the definition becomes closed because it defines an intended role. Are these questions resolved by job descriptions which tend to be 'idealised: staff do not necessarily match these descriptions nor share the expectations of their compilers.

Thus, another definition could arguably be appropriate: a definition based on actual role, that is, what middle-managers think they do, a phenomenological view. The following analysis attempts

to identify the actual role of middle-managers. Firstly, it records what they perceive their role to be in practice and, secondly, it records the attitudes and feelings they express about their work.

## V.2 Middle-management in practice

"Heads of department are both managers and teaching staff and it's a very tricky situation and very difficult to keep the two together."

"What they (heads of department) have a terrific job to do is to establish what their brief is and I've found it myself (head of faculty) when I've changed roles - what is my brief? It's not always clearly specified and, therefore, I have a job to cope."

These two quotations, the first from a questionnaire and the second from an interview (Interview A, Appendix C), illustrate the difficult nature of the middle-management task. Some aspects of it were described in Chapter III. In their discussion of the nature of managerial activities, Webb and Lyons (1982)(7) observe that some of the questions posed by such analysts as Mintzberg and Burns about industrial management, may be applied to educational institutions. They argue that managerial behaviour is personal, idiosyncratic and contingent upon perception of need and pressure rather than planned and systematic, a view not entirely supported by the evidence of this study. However, that it may be contingent upon context is illustrated by the introductory quotation. The list of executive skills, cited by Webb and Lyons(8) adapted below, provides a useful resume for this examination of management in practice:

- \* bureaucratic and clerical,
- \* administrative

- \* planning resources and strategies
- \* leadership
- \* counselling
- \* peer and professional affiliation
- \* negotiation
- \* decision-making
- \* evaluation

In his handbook for heads of English, Allen (1983)(9), HMI and former head of English, observes that a department can rapidly lurch from one crisis to another if it responds to immediate needs and demands. He recommends the adoption of an overall strategy to overcome that condition. The responsibility for designing and implementing that strategy lies with the head of department, he argues, and can be part of staff development through departmental meetings. The implication is two-fold: firstly, the head of department bears responsibility for departmental leadership and, secondly, within a democratic environment in which initiatives seem to be created on a top-down basis.

Marland (1981)(10) observes that the leadership function is indirectly allocated by the head as part of the delegation process and requires a range of skills, namely, intellectual, administrative and interpersonal, all of which are covered by the Webb and Lyons list. Rust (1985)(11) notes specific leadership functions for heads of department, namely, representation, training, objective setting and exemplary work. This view, whilst typical of much theory on management, seems to represent only a part of the picture.

Bone (1983)(12) distinguishes between leadership and responsibility. He sees leadership as being concerned, in practice,

with initiating change and requiring the capacity for problem-solving, insightful thinking, and interpersonal skills because change management is related to staff involvement. Since innovatory activities attract attention and often promotion, leadership, he argues, is generally exercised by staff with authority. Thus, leadership is influenced by position.

Management tasks may be determined by context, situation and need, all of which require a range of skills for their effective execution. As crisis management is undesirable, planning which can take account of context, situation and need is essential and should be undertaken by the leader of the departmental or year team. Leadership emerges as a key function for middle-managers and is allied with particular personal qualities and skills. How far does the theory match the data in this study?

Since the designation "middle-manager" implies leadership, it is difficult to ascertain directly how the two samples interpret the leadership aspect of their role. It can, however, be deduced or extracted from analysis of responses to questions: for example, in the interviews to questions about their own and their staff's expectations, their discoveries, what they might have done differently, and in the questionnaires in the reasons attributed to the successful introduction of change. The quality of leadership was referred to as significant in both samples: six responses referred directly to leadership in the interviews and on the questionnaires seven responses noted the ability to inspire.

Leadership is seen to be essential to the management role, especially for initiating activity, because it embraces the capacity to identify need for training and development. It also implies control, for example, of the pace of change, the degree and extent,

as this comment indicates:

"I am in a minority in my own department. They wanted mixed ability 11-16 and they also wanted the core to be taught by one teacher, regardless. But the exam results have to be as good. All eyes are upon us. So I said no because I'm not sure we're well-enough equipped to teach mixed ability all the way through yet. I suggested that we weren't all as confident or had all the expertise to do all the units just yet. There was a sigh of relief from some at this."

The same interviewee recognised that control of how she exercised her leadership was important too if she were to avoid a maternalistic and non-participative style. Leadership seems also to involve understanding other people's needs and recognising their potential. This capacity may be related to thinking flexibly and looking for opportunities, as well as delegation. Dean (1985)(13) observes that delegation is a problem for leaders because it entails relinquishing authority. As interviewees observed, it involves the risk and its implications, perhaps of relaxing control or of finding a member of staff adequate to the task.

It could be argued that delegation is an autocratic device for reducing the middle-manager's work-load. However, if it is understood as increasing staff experience by sharing ideas and drawing on the wisdom and expertise of staff, it can be seen to be mutually beneficial. As Sutton (1985)(14) observes, it can be equated with good management when it is structured. He proposes that schools draw upon industrial models because managers in other institutions are more effective than those in schools in relinquishing specific responsibilities, at supporting and monitoring, at developing trust and confidence between colleagues.



Whilst this is arguably a generalisation, there is some evidence in this study to support it.

Whilst the ability to delegate requires trust and confidence in staff, it also requires the ability to communicate effectively, which Sutton (15) observes is difficult in practice in schools. Nicholls (1983)(16) identified from her study four reasons why communication is difficult in an innovatory situation, all of which have been expressed here, namely, doubt, uncertainty, the element of risk and a temporary sense of incompetence. In an innovation there are many uncertainties because the outcomes are not necessarily predictable. Whilst Nicholls referred to communication about the dimension of the innovation, about how teachers interpret its scope and effect or express their anxieties, conflicts of interest or understandings, her reasons can also be applied to aspects of implementation and everyday experience. The ability to communicate with colleagues was noted in six interviews, and on three questionnaires. In addition, eleven interviewees and six questionnaire respondents linked effective communication to the early stages of innovating.

Leadership seems also to be related to a particular view of the specialist curricular area which middle-managers develop. Their professional experience seems to influence their understanding of both purpose and approach for effecting change through a variety of classroom experience and study. As a result, middle-managers seem to develop a commitment to innovation, especially with regard to their own teaching subject; it was described as a philosophy in six interviews and on nine questionnaires. Table 8 categorises the resources from which middle-managers believed they had developed their view of innovation into (a) professional and (b) practical

education, reflecting a range of possible influences, the former outside the school and the latter within.

Category (a) - professional education - reflects the view of Houle (1980) cited by Morant (1983)(17) that professionals should be concerned about continuing education throughout their working lives, even beyond their professional entry qualifications, because it can regenerate their work. The data supports this view: middle-managers gained both skills and understanding. The interviewees made proportionally more reference to higher education than the questionnaire sample. This might be because they worked in authorities close to London and local universities with extra-mural departments whilst the questionnaire was conducted in a rural authority on the M4 motorway. Overall, there were three times more responses about continuing education from the interview sample: a difference which might be significant for future investigations. No distinction emerged about which courses were preferred.

The literature suggests that the professional education of teachers is significant to curriculum development and in two particular ways; firstly, as an influence and, secondly, for its practical relevance. Hoyle and McCormick (1976)(18) in their discussion of the high level of influence through the decentralisation of education, point to the role of both national and local government whose influence can be exerted in a number of ways, such as, policy statements, White papers, and committee-led recommendations, or by the allocation of resources, advisory services and inset provision at local level. Hands (1981)(19) identifies the effect of county advisers and in-service organisers upon the practice of participating teachers who transfer their experience into schools. Clegg (1981)(20) argues that HMI, because of their contribution to DES courses, can

penetrate the system and build upon teachers' strengths. Morant (1981)(21) concurs, arguing that HMI bring fresh ideas as well as new subject matter or techniques into schools, especially when these are developed locally.

In recent years the idea of the teacher as researcher has led to increased involvement of teachers in classroom research and an opening up of educational experience, understanding and theoretical writing. Bannister (1981)(22) describes the value of his own B.Ed. experience after twenty years' teaching as bringing new insights and greater job satisfaction in four ways, all of which relate to the data:

- \* contact and interaction with other teachers
- \* relevance of course to personal experience
- \* sharing varied experiences of fellow students
- \* expertise and accessibility of tutorial team.

The capacity to transfer the learning acquired on advanced courses was noted by Morant (1981)(23) who believes they encourage application. Jackson (1986)(24) emphasises the importance of inservice education as an opportunity to reflect upon the purpose of education when teachers are allowed time and support. He believes that attempts to operate education as a social control is less likely when teachers involve themselves in classroom research because they demolish the myth of the academic expert. As a result, the quality of classroom learning improves.

Walker (1985)(25) illustrates this point by reference to Nixon's (1981) argument that research evidence tends to reach teachers only through the academic network and cites Cane and Schroder's (1970) finding that teachers tend to reject academic research because of its language: a condition which can be altered if Jackson's thesis is accurate. The skills of a particular profession are assumed to be

based in a systematic body of knowledge which will change as a result of research and development. It is perhaps surprising that perceived inaccessibility prevents transmission of that knowledge to the professionals, the teachers. It was not an area examined by this study. Mitchell (1985)(26) points out that the combination of experience and reflection can provide insights which contribute to understanding how to improve the quality of learning because it relates to an understood working context. Nine questionnaire responses noted 'thinking' or 'self' as sources of ideas for innovation which seems to endorse the significance of reflection.

Continuing professional education can be influential upon curriculum development when it generates ideas with practical classroom relevance; it allows reflection and consideration; it increases knowledge and understanding. Both samples recognised courses as a major source of ideas locally and nationally whether organised by advisers, the DES or in higher education. They had illustrated a number of points to middle-managers, for example, that particular methods worked, how to develop materials, the philosophical or theoretical background to ideas. Ideas and "inspiration" were most frequently noted:

"I was very lucky because I got a tutor who was brilliant and I could really relate to. He had a way of putting Art into a practical context and that was what I needed... He gave me some inspiration and lots of ideas that you could go away and work with".

This comment is indicative of middle-managers' criteria for appropriate courses, namely, relevance, encouragement, regeneration, progress in ideas and thinking, the opportunity for transfer of new ideas. It may not reflect the experience of teachers in general;

personal experience can colour teachers' impressions of the usefulness of courses. No distinction was made by the respondents from which it is possible to identify which courses proved particularly significant. There is insufficient data to draw conclusions here.

Category (b) - practical experience and contacts - draws upon the criteria of relevance, application and transfer and may also relate to perceptions of expertise. Not only does this category enumerate more sources for ideas through practical experience and contact than category (a), it also illustrates the range of perceived opportunities. Arguably, it could suggest a resistance to academic research but seems more likely to reflect middle-managers' practical considerations of satisfying immediate, even urgent, need with apparently fool-proof remedies sometimes. Maintenance, argues Nicholls (1983)(27), requires so much energy from teachers that it impedes the introduction of innovation. It could be argued that, by introducing examples of good, effective practice from such courses in order to maintain their work, teachers facilitate innovation. In the questionnaires, 'colleagues and other teachers' occurred eleven times, outranking all other responses in frequency; however, because it is a broad identification, it may cover some of the other sources noted in the interviews, Table 8.

There are several considerations here. Firstly, teachers value practical or classroom-related experience and are capable of drawing upon it and extending it; and secondly, this kind of contact may assist curriculum development. Thirdly, practical experience may be more significant to developing innovation than theory because of its perceived relevance, availability and proven success. For practical reasons daily exchanges are more accessible than a course. Fourthly, that a school curriculum review was the second most identified source

of innovative ideas in the questionnaires, may endorse the need for relevance, especially situation-specific, when introducing change.

It can be deduced that the middle-managers sampled demonstrated a clear sense of what innovation they wanted to introduce and its purpose. Their comments reflected an understanding of the principles of innovation or a sense of commitment as a result of a number of opportunities, such as, previous working contexts, reading, further education projects or theses, and practical experience. Involvement in activities beyond the school, such as, on working parties or through professional associations, was cited as a significant influence upon the development of a philosophy as this comment illustrates:

"I served for 6 years on the Subject Committee of the Schools Council for CDT and, obviously, the curriculum development projects that came through there, would be seen in schools in 5 to 10 years time.... so, what the emphasis was on the projects coming through, led me to get my act together."

Practical application is important if middle-managers intend to introduce change which their colleagues will implement. As this concern with practicality seems to be more important than the rationale of theoretical arguments, it may reflect upon the nature of the middle-managers' role. Whilst the move towards action research can promote interest in the theory of development, and some interviewees identified research as being useful in their thinking, the working context is highly relevant.

Whilst previous experience was contributory to developing philosophies, at least four interviewees felt that they could not directly transfer that experience to another school because circumstance and need were different. They felt a need to modify

their philosophies and intentions in order to match their current school or the current climate. Modification and adaptation of ideas seems to be related not only to pragmatic considerations, but also to the opportunity and time to reflect and explore supported by reviewing the experience of other teachers involved in similar work. The following comment illustrates the process for this head of science:

"I went to meetings with a group of schools interested in Integrated Science - I read about their work and made contact through headteachers to visit and team teach and get a feel of it. I was convinced. So, I introduced it in my school."

Access, exploration and understanding were recognised by seven middle-managers as increasing their confidence.

Morant (1983)(28) links promotion with professional development. He believes competence can be increased by collaboration and practical experience and identifies four sources of professional development in Morant (1981)(29). They are contact with pupils and colleagues, increasing professional responsibility, engagement in whole school reviews, and promotionally-created job development. Both samples in this study recorded this range of opportunities. Of the questionnaire sample, fourteen were already middle-managers, one was newly appointed but not in post, and three others sought promotion. Six stated "promotion" as their first reason for attending the middle-management course from which the sample was drawn and this seems to endorse Paisey (1984)(30) who observed that course attendance can enhance promotion opportunities. The questionnaire sample also cited the acquisition of skills and knowledge as reasons for course attendance, reflecting an interest in promotion as this comment indicates:

"I've got to be good because I might be competing with another

head of faculty for my next job."

The evidence is slightly different for the interview sample of whom five were newly-appointed and two linked their appointment directly to the head's endorsement of their commitment to change. Promotion offered the opportunity to realise a commitment or philosophy.

Middle-management in practice indicates a leadership role and its associated issues of delegation, responsibility, risk-taking, decision-making and communication. The data also indicates a particular understanding or a specialist view which is translated into the requirements of the working context. This philosophy or commitment is the result of continuing professional education, particularly DES courses, and practical contact with teachers. It emphasises the importance of the relevance of change to existing practice and circumstance.

It could be argued that such deductions are self-evidently consequential. However, they may suggest criteria for identifying effective middle-managers, namely, vision, practice, and commitment, in this way. Serious professional interest in a particular subject can lead certain teachers to develop a series of views, a philosophy about that subject. In consequence, this may lead to promotion, especially if it is linked with a broader concern with educational issues and possibly further study in higher educational institutions through which both vision and outlook are extended beyond the confines of the subject speciality. These capacities may facilitate appointment into management posts. This three-phase process of developing a philosophy about the relationship of a teaching subject to wider educational concerns, provides a basis for translating ideas into practice when promoted to middle-management.

The data suggests that middle-managers are teachers who develop



another perspective of education. Initially they are "subject" specialists in either academic areas like Science or Humanities or in pastoral work, say, a tutor or counsellor. In time and as a result of a range of experiences, they develop a different view which may extend beyond the classroom, beyond academic knowledge, and beyond the pedagogy. This view is described here as a philosophy which could be said to represent a commitment to education which differs from that of the classroom teacher. It may be expressed in particular viewpoints, initiatives, actions or the application of ideas. This "philosophy" may introduce a second factor, vision or the capacity to anticipate and to envisage, and encourage such teachers to seek promotion so as to implement their ideas or variations of them within a different framework. If vision and philosophy are combined with an ability to review and evaluate in order to identify where improvement and/or innovation are required, a model of middle-management may emerge.

The components of this model are a broader perspective, beyond the subject and its classroom boundary, towards the school as a unit and the department as a sub-system. It takes into account both the range and level of institutional need, and reflects consequential thinking. In terms of pupils, it allows examination of such issues as learning and motivation, discipline, environment, means and content of the learning process. In terms of staff, job satisfaction, subject identity, group coherence and methodology, can be considered. As a sub-system, the relationship between department and school can be explored through questions about enhancing the reputation of the school, its external relations, its policy, and interest in cross-curricular co-ordination. The middle-manager may, therefore, be distinct from the classroom teacher because of these factors - vision,

commitment, philosophy and ability - characteristics of an extended professional. The next section explores this idea further.

### V.3 Qualities of middle-managers

There is little empirical material on this topic. Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(31) listed qualities which teachers perceived as being important for academic departmental heads who innovate. They include earning staff respect, being sensitive, able to plan carefully and argue cogently, discrimination or perceptive judgement. Dunham (1978)(32) listed seven different areas in which a head of department operates with other people, namely, the headteacher, other departmental and pastoral staff as well as own staff; parents and pupils; administration, staff appointment and staff development. It could be assumed that a head of department should be able and versatile in order to deal with such a range of complex interactions effectively. Bayne-Jardine (1981)(33) itemises those abilities he thinks are desirable in heads of department and which can be duplicated from a range of anecdotal and theoretical sources. These abilities reflect the variety of interaction noted by Dunham, namely, to co-operate and relate to the whole school; to observe and listen to one's own and others' expectations; to manage resources effectively; to plan for the future; and to delegate.

This summary incorporates the executive skills listed in V.2. Although termed abilities, they imply a degree of skill or expertise as well as personal attributes or qualities. Depending upon circumstances, particular expertise may be necessary for specific contexts, and the first section on management tasks recorded skills common to all sampled middle-managers. Functionalist management, organisation and change theory tend to identify skills and factors

which facilitate change. Phenomenological research, on the other hand, tends to identify characteristics which may be idiosyncratic. This study has drawn upon both sources of research and theory but has failed to uncover a list of qualities or attributes which might be found desirable for middle-managers effecting change. In addition, limited empirical evidence about middle-managers specifically makes substantiation of the data presented here difficult, and, in the question of qualities, impossible! However, it may be possible to offer tentative proposals by matching the interview and the questionnaire data.

Table 15 records the personal qualities the middle-managers in both samples deemed essential for the effective introduction of innovation. It should be qualified by recognising that qualities which are described as desirable, are not necessarily thought by the middle-managers to be apparent to others nor to be exhibited in themselves. Secondly, such a table might be argued as representing an ideal, a concept which this research has attempted to avoid by offering different people's perceptions of their reality. However, because the comments draw on middle-managers' reflections of their own experience as they understand it, and, therefore, are personal, it may be assumed that the table is not idealistic but a record of reality.

The following comments have been selected from both samples and reflect the earlier discussion of management in practice within an organisational context which is complex and hierarchically structured. They illustrate how the middle-managers see themselves in relation to the people they work with most closely, that is, in their faculty, department or year teams. The comments may reflect a continuum of management styles, and a recognition of differences in

perceptions." They tend also to demonstrate a concern for personal effectiveness which seems to be related to being accepted by other staff. Particular qualities for acceptance like an approachable manner or being "ordinary" may be difficult for the innovator who is eager and committed, as this comment illustrates:

"You have to have a lot of patience and a lot of tact and they don't always go together. They're not really compatible with innovating. There's a difference between bludgeoning into change and being acceptable in your methods. It's easy to become a crank because change means risk."

Reflective and analytical thinking is implicit and the following comment indicates the importance of clarity and purpose in relation to the quality of vision and discriminating judgement:

"You need clarity of objectives because you have to know what you want to achieve and to leap from knowing in the present to what you want in the future."

Putting these ideas into practice requires both skills and personal qualities. The ability to communicate, for example, covers a number of skills, attitudes and attributes. A skilled communicator is prepared to listen and demonstrate tact, and not only to write and speak clearly. However skilful a communicator, acceptable a leader and purposeful a thinker a middle-manager may be, these efforts may be fruitless if he/she is insensitive. Some respondents talked of diplomacy which suggests discreet manipulation, but in fact may represent sensitivity, as this comment reveals:

"There's always a compromise element. It has got to be done tactfully. It's got to be diplomatic, without hurting people, that's very important."

Relationships between middle-managers and their staff seem to be

concerned with a form of communication, that is, talking and listening, which is open and responsive, and acknowledges concerns.

"Well, it's subtle things like being able to compromise, negotiate, to plan and anticipate. It's the capacity to listen to what other people want to tell you; to acknowledge the significance of other people's anxieties and problems as real, anxieties which need real, constructive answers."

"You want a good relationship with those who have to accept innovation."

This comment is revealing in a number of ways. The desire for a good relationship may be related to personal needs of friendship or harmony, a desire for success at work, but it also reflects the super- and sub-ordinate management roles in the words "have to accept innovation". Thus, communication requires sensitivity because of the management styles which seem to operate - persuasion, coercion - and the hierarchical relationships.

Thirdly, the data indicates what qualities were demonstrated to achieve the concept of 'effectiveness' in relation to the conditions for innovation. One head of faculty identified ideal effectiveness as being a 'tasks-relationship orientation'; others presented a similar understanding but in different vocabulary. The following comments seem to illustrate the extent of a tasks-relationship orientation which respondents experienced with the staff who, it was always clear, were central to their effectiveness. The qualities which promote success both with and through the staff, seem to fall into two categories reflecting a capacity to respond to personal and professional needs. They suggest those qualities which concern personal needs, such as, winning and giving support, for a personal sense of confidence and autonomy among staff:

"You need to be able to see what people's strengths are and build on those strengths. You provide opportunities for confidence, competence and success. It's important to be aware of people's needs and to recognise their differences which have to be tolerated and supported."

Almost as a corollary, professional need indicates the encouragement of independence through progress, increasing confidence and autonomy in decision-making, especially at an individual level:

"They knew that the classroom was still their own place and that I wasn't going to control it and that if they didn't feel like doing that today, they had the freedom to choose. I believe this freedom is very important. Teachers are innovative and, a bit like being self-employed, they like to explore their own ideas."

The tasks-relationship orientation can also extend beyond the departmental staff to include perceptions of the team's relationship with, and contribution to, the school, its curriculum and its policies:

"I like to be involved in the general life of the school rather than just be stuck in my own little corner. I feel that I am doing what I have to be doing. As a teacher, I should be teaching in the classroom and know as much as I can about teaching and about my subject. I should know about the school too. I should be as loyal as I can to the school and its reputation, except that I mustn't become subservient to a system. I should have an individuality of my own so that I can say what is wrong and where it is wrong, like a family."

The following comment serves to illustrate a number of ideas emerging about the qualities of a middle-manager. Given the extent

of the role and the range of interactions and demands, it would seem to require people who are sensitive and aware as well as being ambitious, creative and committed:

"Being head of faculty gave me opportunities to explore my philosophy and presented a bigger challenge from scratch with new people which is attractive. In fact, I relish it. I don't mind the insecurity or the possibility of losing face - the emotional danger - because you can be let down. It was a risk. I was pretty convinced I was pretty right. I was also fairly convinced I could convince other people that I was fairly right."

This sentiment was expressed in almost all the interviews, quite unsolicited. At the individual level, what was particularly evident in that sample was a strong awareness of self and the responsibility of the role. This responsibility was, in some cases, attributable to the expectations of the school and its community as well as accountability. The self-awareness was demonstrated in the interviewees' explanations of their behaviour and responses, as has been illustrated, and in reflective self-criticism.

There was also a sense of responsibility for the team, not solely for the individual alone, evident in the interviews. It could be argued that the success of the team reflects not only upon the expectations of the school, but also upon the competence of the middle-manager, and that the sense of responsibility for the team reflects a desire for personal success. It seems, though, to be connected with an understanding of professionalism by regarding the needs of others as important and by adapting so as to accommodate them even when it may lead to a different rate of progress or approach. This final comment for this section reflects the altruism

middle-managers express:

"We are all professionals. We all know when we discuss children and education we ought to be doing something about it. I'm sure most of the teachers felt it was important because it was to do with children's progress."

#### V.4 Concluding remarks

The analysis of middle-management role and function suggests it is a complex task, especially if related to the strategies and team-building activities outlined in Chapter III, and involving a variety of actions and interactions.

Theoretically, middle-management is shown to be a task-oriented function which is variously described in the literature but seems to indicate three common tasks: managerial, representational and academic which seem to derive from the manager as a teacher, subject professional and administrator. Functional effectiveness was related to four factors: resources, time, pupils and staff. Leadership, a key function, is related to a philosophy about curriculum development and requires the ability to delegate, initiate, communicate and control. The analysis of research data reports on this key function, suggesting also that it requires particular personal qualities to be effectively executed. The data also suggests that middle-management in practice is more relationship-oriented than is theoretically defined. It was suggested that descriptions of actual role may be more relevant than those of intended or defined role. Three elements emerge concerning middle-management function from both samples:

- \* a clear sense of curricular responsibility
- \* an understanding of the concept of team work



\* the satisfaction of professional needs.

However, effectiveness may be related to personal qualities, skills and a view of the role. Each respondent saw managing change as part of the fulfillment of the role; none noted delegating that task to team deputies. None of the interviewees had received or participated in management training. All the questionnaire respondents completed the questionnaires at the beginning, if not before, of the first day of a middle-management training course. It is interesting that both samples expressed clear views and opinions about their roles and functions and could identify similar desirable qualities, skills and abilities. If this understanding has not been gained from middle-management training, as seems possible, this question follows: Are these ideas and interpretations acquired by experience? It seems possible that the capacity for self-knowledge and awareness is a significant contributor to effective middle-management. A new model for middle-management might include the maxim First Know Yourself.

To summarise, middle-managers perceive themselves as proactive managers as well as teachers in what may sometimes be a changing capacity. Leadership is an important aspect of their work and includes such concepts as leading professional, inspiration and initiating. Delegation and the control of the pace of change are responsibilities within leadership. Staff development represents another responsibility, namely, recognising potential and ability.

The ability to perform these tasks was gained in part from professional education as well as practical experience, a view supported by the literature. There was insufficient evidence in the data to draw many conclusions; one generalisation indicated that courses were particularly important. Some middle-managers

expressed the influence of practical experience as well as professional education upon their developing a philosophy about education. Flexible thinking enabled these philosophies or commitments as they were also described to be put into practice. The desire for promotion seemed to be related more frequently to altruistic rather than financial or other reasons.

As well as being proactive and reflective, middle-managers see themselves as requiring a range of inter-personal skills and personal qualities which related to managing staff sensitively and responsibly. This evidence seemed to counterbalance the literature which tends to depict a task-oriented role, and to identify middle-managers as people with vision, ability and commitment; hence the tentative parallel with heads.

Can the hypothetical parallel between middle-managers and heads be supported from these findings? The following comment from a head of faculty about his own role identifies the issues:

"You have to take account of my actions as a policy formulator and my activities as an executor of policy because people get the two mixed up. It tends to lead people to be confused about the role that a leader takes in managing change."

Whilst both middle-managers and heads may be formulators and executors of policy, albeit at different levels in the organisation, their positions in a hierarchical structure might be thought to influence their actions. So, a head might be more task than relationship oriented, because of his invested authority, than a middle-manager. However, there is very little evidence in this study to suggest that middle-managers see themselves as exercising authority in order for innovation to occur. What might be more significant is to understand how staff perceive the middle-manager,

a prospect beyond the scope of this study. This understanding might lead to a new model of middle-management, being able to indicate how middle-managers differ from staff at both ends of the hierarchy.

The next and final chapter on the research findings places the work of the middle-manager in a perspective of the whole school and may illuminate the parallel proposed in this chapter.

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## Chapter VI

### Evaluating the Effects of Innovation

Analysis of the research findings, part IV: the middle-managers' perceptions of the effects of innovation, their criteria for and methods of evaluation, and some implications.

## Chapter VI

### Evaluating the Effects of Innovation

#### Introduction

#### VI.1. Evaluation

- i. Pupil learning
- ii. The teachers
- iii. The middle-managers
- iv. Parents

#### VI.2. Accountability

#### VI.3. Concluding remarks.



## Chapter VI

### Evaluating the Effects of Innovation

Analysis of the research findings, part IV: the middle-managers' perceptions of the effects of innovation, their criteria and methods of evaluation, and some implications.

#### Introduction

So far this study has presented an analysis of how middle-managers perceived the introduction and maintenance of innovation, what management skills and personal qualities facilitate innovation and how middle-managers see their relationship with more senior members of staff. In a model of innovation these chapters describe initiation, implementation and incorporation. The concern has been about innovation as a process rather than individually; therefore, it takes no account of scale, range, scope, factors which might influence effectiveness. This chapter deals with evaluation. As the last in the analysis of the findings, it explores a wider perspective in order to place the influence of innovation in the context of the whole school and its relationship with its community. The chapter aims to understand why and in what ways innovation is influential and how this influence can be measured in theory and in practice. It attempts to identify what might be the implications of this understanding for the managers of change.

Each research sample was invited to comment on the significance of change: the questionnaire asked: "How do schools benefit from innovation?" Qu. 12, Appendix A2, and the interviewees were asked: "What is your own view of the value of innovation?" Qu. 21, Appendix A1, the final and penultimate questions respectively. 75% interviewees and 57% questionnaire respondents affirmed that the

value of innovation to schools was in its improving effect. It was thought to affect pupils and teachers most, Table 16. It may be pertinent to recall that these two groups were also identified by middle-managers as the priorities in their perceived reasons for introducing change, discussed in Chapter III.

This chapter differs slightly from previous chapters because it follows two strands. On the one hand it records and analyses the sampled middle-managers' perceptions of the effect of their innovations, their criteria for evaluating their work and in relation to the school. On the other it offers an analysis of these evaluations within a framework of accountability. This approach has been adopted for two reasons: firstly, to relate purpose for innovating with outcome and secondly, to understand how schools benefit from innovation. There may be a link between the two, Table 18.

Before proceeding it is worth noting that during the research and writing of this thesis, a range of issues has developed in education - evaluation and accountability are two examples. It seems appropriate that such issues should, where relevant, be integrated into the thesis because they reflect developments since the research was conducted in 1985 and may influence both reader and writer of this thesis, consciously or otherwise. As evaluation and accountability will be discussed in the body of this chapter, two other issues - school effectiveness and school improvement - will be briefly discussed here in relation to innovation.

Terms like school effectiveness, school-focussed improvements and school improvement suggest a changing empirical perspective for innovation which is evident in definitions. Glatter (1988)(1) sees school improvement as being distinctive from "its elder cousin

'innovation'" (p.125) because it focusses upon comprehensive improvement whereas innovation tends to refer to curriculum matters. He describes it as a sustained, systematic effort intended to change learning conditions and other related internal conditions in one or more schools. It offers a bridge between innovation and maintenance and can result from "modest modifications of routines," (p.126).

Wideen and Andrews (1984)(2) present a view of school improvement which is based on a set of different ways of looking at schools so as to create better places in which quality teaching and learning can occur. They suggest that teachers' awareness and understanding of the process of change should be increased so as to encourage flexibility in attitude and practice. This should be supported and facilitated by people outside the school with appropriate expertise and by encouraging a diversity of practice. Wideen and Andrews seem to focus more upon staff than pupils. Whilst studies of school improvement tend to be action-oriented, the literature on school effectiveness, as Reid, Hopkins and Holly (1988)(3) observe, tends to identify characteristics or criteria for depicting effectiveness.

Research by Caldwell and Spinks (1988)(4) set out to identify highly effective schools by a reputational, rather than empirically characterised, approach. Their study in Tasmania invited nominations which were matched against forty-three characteristics drawn up by the researchers from literature reviews. These characteristics were grouped as climate 20, leadership 11, curriculum 4, decision-making 3, outcomes 3, and resources 2. It was not anticipated that every characteristic would be found in each school. Of the 'climate' group the most frequently selected characteristic was "the school has clearly-stated educational

goals", (p. 30). The leadership of the headteacher was a significant element of the designation highly effective, especially with regard to recognising teachers' needs, efficient sharing of duties and resources, high degree of awareness of events in school, encouraging staff involvement and skills, and continual review toward goals. Caldwell and Spinks (1988)(5) observe that it is customary for goals to be described as desirable outcomes, but suggest a different approach in their recommendation of considering goals in relation:

- \* to outcomes for students
- \* to learning experiences for students
- \* to the provision of resources
- \* to the management of the school.

They argue that a school which identifies its goals within such categories, has a fundamental set of beliefs which have shaped these goals and a high degree of sensitivity to individual needs and differences.

These new terms describe a form of change in schools that encourages more localised and school-directed innovation which might be curricular or organisational. Such schemes as Teacher-Related In-Service Training (T.R.I.S.T.) 1986 and Response to Teacher Initiatives (R.T.I.) 1987 focussed on school needs and enabled teachers to work collaboratively towards the solution of school issues.

In addition, these approaches can encompass the internal and external demands upon schools which were described by HMI (1980)(6) "In establishing a proper content of learning, schools have to be responsive to many demands upon education. They have to be sensitive to the hopes of parents for their children and to the

values of society, locally and nationally. They have to be mindful of the expectations of employers...." (p. 5). The vocational aspect was noted in a DES White Paper (1985)(7) on government policy:

".... encourage schools to do more to fulfil the vital function of preparing all young people for work." (p. 1). "A curriculum.... will serve to develop the potential of every pupil and to equip all for the responsibilities of citizenship and for the challenge of working life in the world of tomorrow."(p. 5). This study supports the notion that schools can be more effective when management acknowledges the contribution teachers can make; a view expressed by the DES (1985)(8): "The professional work of the teacher also involves playing a part in the corporate development of the school... This requires... the professional attitude which gives priority to the interests of those concerned and is constantly concerned to increase effectiveness." (pp. 10-11). As HMI (1988)(9) observe the capacity to solve problems is a characteristic of an effective school and in DES (1980)(10) note the need for the climate for change to be accompanied by the appropriate management skills to effect it. Previous chapters in this study offer supporting evidence.

Hargreaves (1984)(11) observed that the overall quality of teaching in each school is dependent upon the quality of teaching within departments. In a more recent study, Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(12) noted that middle-managers were seen to be the key to improving the quality of the learning process. The following analysis of the data presents the middle-managers' perceptions of the consequences of their innovations and the ways in which they thought their schools benefitted. It looks first at some of the issues.

## VI.1. Evaluation

Evaluation and review of the curriculum represent one of the characteristics noted by DES (1988)(13) of effective schools. HMI(14) observe that good evaluation schemes provide a positive impact on a school's ability to respond to the demands of society. They noted that a "number of schools" (p. 6) used such schemes. Departmental evaluation seems, however, to be less satisfactory. Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(15) noted that, although evaluation was acknowledged as important for departmental improvement, systematic review processes seemed to be completed only rarely. Several reasons may account for this finding: Earley and Fletcher-Campbell discuss role confusion, and the samples in this study referred to shortage of time. Thomas (1985)(16) noted problems about perceptions of evaluation as a source of power and control, especially of increasing control over teachers, which arise from the ambiguous relationship between evaluation and decision-making. This relationship is illustrated by Harlen's explanation (1983)(17) of evaluation as a process by which information on a range of topics is acquired and criteria are established for judging that information - as a basis for decisions. There were three examples in this study in which curriculum reviews were seen to be leading towards decisions about axeing courses or reducing staff.

Thomas (1985)(18) argues that evaluation is a complex concept and process. On the one hand, he sees it as a well-established and accepted activity in education practised by teachers with regard to pupil performance as well as their own and colleagues' work and, on the other, he believes it is viewed as a major innovation, regarded with hostility and scepticism. This disparity could be related to the nature and effect of decisions; Alexander and Adelman

(1982)(19) offer a definition of evaluation which distinguishes between levels of decision-making. Given two levels of evaluation, formal or public and informal, they distinguish between institutional and educational decision-making and evaluation. Educational decision-making, for example, can cover the feasibility of course proposals, assessment of pupil performance, and appraisal of teaching and learning by evaluation. Thus, it is concerned with policy judgements which may be publicly scrutinised and, consequently, creates an institutional vulnerability. They see evaluation as having three aspects in its judgements about the worth and effectiveness of intent, process and outcomes; the relationship between these three components; and resourcing, planning and implementation for innovation.

Elliot (1983)(20) offers another interpretation by analysing the political context of self-evaluation. He attributes teachers' resistance to evaluation to inadequate resourcing for self-evaluation, to anxiety about competence and control, Thomas' point, and to a lack of clarity about purpose. His view of evaluation as a logical form of professional development is supported by the findings of Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989)(21) who also noted heads of department were reluctant to accept that role.

Mortimore (1983)(22) in disputing criticisms of self-evaluation as undermining teachers' confidence, points to its other advantages for staff development. He argues that teachers are concerned about effectiveness and that self-evaluation provides an opportunity to focus upon particular aspects of the school, often beyond the individual teacher. Indeed, he proposes it can result in changes which are more likely to endure than those negotiated with external advisers because it can provide insights into classroom

performance. Weeks (1986)(23) links self-evaluation with self-development, as being significant for teachers wanting to retain their autonomy and professionalism and for schools to establish independent identities. Elliot (1983)(24) observes that self-evaluation requires time for examination of the issues and a management style which is open and participatory, and Baker (1984)(25) notes from his case studies that support from like-minded colleagues can help the process. These concerns were raised by the samples in this investigation.

The literature also reveals a debate about self-evaluation and questions of confidentiality, accountability, and autonomy. Nuttall (1981)(26) considers whether accountability and professional development can be incorporated in one process like self-evaluation. He observes that, because tensions can arise at personal and professional levels as a result of internal and external influences, teachers need a process which avoids self-justification. Whilst Mortimore (1983)(27) distinguishes between self-evaluation as professional development or as accountability on the grounds of confidentiality, Shipman (1983)(28) argues that compatibility is essential if self-evaluation is to be useful. Like Weeks, he sees it as a source for strengthening teachers' confidence about their work, in particular to counter external criticisms, and to facilitate change. Elliot (1983)(29) observes that compatibility relates to accountability. As this will be discussed later, suffice to observe here that Elliot argues that accountability, in the sense of answerability rather than contractual, is compatible with professional development when the self-evaluation is deliberative, that is, dialectic. The data collected for this study seems to support these arguments for self-evaluation even though the process



was informal, individual and often team-based.

Proposals for self-evaluation in partnerships and through understanding, reflecting and sharing, are supported by evidence from a New Zealand study, reported by Robinson (1984)(30), which recorded an experiment to foster self-evaluation and self-improvement through in-school review. The conditions identified as essential to successful achievement of the goals of the review were:

- \* internal staff commitment where there was a clear understanding of the problems to be examined
- \* good negotiation skills to encourage understanding of how the proposed methods could resolve problems
- \* a sharing group able to discuss, to test ideas, willing to take risks, non-hierarchical
- \* outsiders were useful where opportunities for discussion were limited and where communication upwards in a hierarchy was restricted.

Tamsett (1982)(31) observed from his study that professional problem-sharing offered a means of problem-solving. However, Rudduck (1986)(32) noted that insufficient opportunities existed for teachers to share experiences and the philosophies underlying their practice which supports Elliot's (1983) point about time. Rudduck deems this understanding essential to change management because it promotes a sharing of meaning and values.

Skilbeck (1988)(33) takes the idea of partnership further to embrace pupils, teachers and the community of the school for achieving effective curriculum development. To some extent his view reflects Kogan's (1986)(34) consumerist model of accountability as a partnership of shared responsibility and mutual accountability. Skilbeck (1988)(35) notes that, although there may be a disparity

between parental and teacher expectations and interests, effective communication is the first priority.

Whilst the data seems to support the concept of self-evaluation through deliberation, action and problem-solving as a form of evaluating curriculum development, it barely reflects this last aspect of consumerist accountability. As the following presentation reveals, reference to parents or the school's community is sparse by comparison with references to teachers or even pupils.

As is evident in the year references, much of the material presented in this discussion has been published since the field research for this study was undertaken in 1985. However, analysis of the data seems to suggest that middle-managers were engaged in a form of reflective self-evaluation before and after initiating change under the conditions described by Robinson, cited earlier. Their common aim could be defined as school improvement through individual initiatives and, in some cases, with regard to whole school effect and policy. The following responses record some perceptions of the complexities of evaluation which reflect not only assumptions about the nature of evaluation based on individual experience but also an ambiguity about the purpose of evaluation. Some responses criticised lack of progress in evaluation, suggesting some of the reasons, such as, teachers' industrial action, time management, pragmatism.

Reflective questions in the interviews revealed that middle-managers had re-evaluated their staff and their expertise; they had discovered an unexpected degree of staff enthusiasm, a desire for new methods, staff expertise, new relationships which seemed to indicate the value both of training and of staff involvement. As training was also seen to be instrumental to successful

implementation, assessments of the degree of success of the innovation offer related insights. Interviewees identified changes in teachers' perceptions, an increase in co-operative teaching, increased job satisfaction. The following comments about how success is measured illustrate this point:

"You evaluate by how teachers respond, for example, teachers teaching at a new level and with support - being prepared to do it because one spin-off of innovation is the new way of working together and that's just as important as what goes on in the classroom. In fact, it probably enhances it."

"The classrooms have opened up. I've done a few observation sessions - they were reluctant but what I saw was child-centred lessons. They now provide a wealth of activity for the kids with lots of opportunity for learning, group work and interaction."

Evaluation seems to be based upon observations of classroom activity, teachers' responses in terms of their methods and relationships, and upon an indefinable personal response as this comment illustrates:

"We've got more confidence because of the changes we've made. I feel so much happier about what we're doing. You know sometimes it's wrong - it's a gut reaction."

Can hindsight represent a form of self-evaluation? As the following comment illustrates, it may be valuable as an indicator not only of problems but of other factors which may influence the process of evaluation:

"With hindsight I might re-define the issues because why do you need to know if people's expectations are fulfilled? Does it lead to satisfaction? If expectations are too high, people

question management. They're probably not fulfilled anyway because expectations would have been unrealistically high because I was new and three probationers and for many of the staff it's the first time they've engaged in anything like this. They probably expected something great which makes evaluation very difficult without a system!"

The observation concluding that quotation illustrates the difficulty for this study in making out a case for self-evaluation as it is described in the literature. With only one exception among the interviewees, there was no clear definition of evaluative actions. Indeed it could be deduced from some of the interviewees' comments, that the research interview was the first opportunity. These reflections represent a review of strategy and approach as an aspect of evaluating progress and improvement for teachers and pupils. What emerges from many responses is self-evaluation in terms of personal performance in achieving change, and the next comment seems to exemplify the level of personal involvement middle-managers experience:

"Having spent a long time trying to work it out, I would have been disappointed to have to scrap the whole thing but, on the other hand, I'd rather find out it was workable before we introduced it large-scale. So, to find whether it was a success or failure, was important and I would prefer it to be a success but, on the other hand, had it been a failure, I wouldn't have minded too much. It would have meant we'd have to go back and find something else to do..... If you try something, you've tried it."

Whilst this final observation may not entirely reflect the spirit of evaluation and school effectiveness, it represents a sense of

curiosity and openness which can encourage evaluation. The data indicates that evaluations are made more of people, actions and process than of product. The middle-managers seemed to be interested in outcomes at both personal and professional levels as illustrated in the following categories:

VI.1.i. pupil learning

VI.1.ii. teachers

VI.1.iii. middle-managers

VI.1.iv. parents

VI.1.i. Pupil learning

Middle-managers identify change in pupil learning as the most important influence of innovation: the benefit to pupils accounted for the highest number of responses to the question "What is the value of innovation?" Table 16. That it was "better for pupils" was cited in ten interviews and in five questionnaires. Other interview responses included "better product", "relevant education" and "increasing pupil success". The questionnaire responses were less detailed. In addition, responses to interview questions 17, 18, 19, Appendix A, indicated that the success of innovations was evaluated in terms of the quality of pupil learning. This was identified as a change in pupil perceptions, increased learning, the development of new concepts, and pupil engagement. If evaluation and accountability can be linked, the way in which middle-managers assess the effectiveness of change may prove significant. Becher et al (1981)(36) noted that teachers may experience difficulty in objectively and unambiguously assessing the progress of individual children because the daily life of the classroom provides evidence which requires reflective analysis. This suggests both time and

skill which is indicated in this extract from Schools Council Working Paper 70 (1981)(37): "A teacher's professional expertise consists..... of this ability to assess standards and judge capability. Both depend on careful observation, appraisal and recording of children's work and development." (p. 65). As a process evaluation is important because of its inter-relatedness with such considerations as perception, accountability, and ambition. Firstly, only one interviewee felt the innovation had been fruitless. Secondly, two interviewees had conducted structured evaluations. Thirdly, as nine interviewees offered no formal evaluations, their responses could be defined as subjective. However, they all offered specific criteria as measures, many of which are recorded in empirical studies of accountability and in models for self-evaluation and review.

Harris and Bell (1986)(38) in their examination of the implications for teachers and learners in changing roles, note that assessment and evaluation can be instructive and influential when encouraging innovation in teaching strategies. They observe that, in this changing relationship in which the learner accepts greater responsibility for learning, strategies and styles of evaluation should be problem-related. Evaluation which is criterion- or objective-based, raises questions about the relevance and negotiation of criteria and the identification of learning not included in the evaluative scheme. In addition, the responsibility for evaluation can be shared by both partners if the process is concerned with improvement and collaborative change.

They argue that there is a range of activities and methods for assessment which can be conducted in such an active relationship. These ideas are supported by evidence from the responses of the

interviewees in their descriptions of the way by which they judged the success of their innovations. These measures seem to fall into three categories which are outlined in the following interview quotes: the nature of pupil responses; the type of learning; and the perceived outcomes.

The nature of pupil responses categorises the middle-managers' perceptions of how pupils' classroom behaviour altered as a consequence of the new methods, materials or teaching strategies. It reflects a concern for pupil involvement, participation and engagement, which is expressed as enjoyment or happiness, or in behaviour:

"The children seem happy to come and that's the yardstick I've got, and children who won't go anywhere else, will come.

"You can see it happening in the classroom. The children are responding very well."

"They get involved and are far more interested."

The second category, the type of learning, covers a wide range. Harris and Bell (1986)(39) categorise the learning activities pupils engage in, that is, memorising, decoding, creating and loving, as four learner roles respectively: receiver, detective, generator and facilitator, each being inter-related. The data indicates a recognition of this inter-relationship for problem-solving and group work which, for particular interviewees, was the target for effective change. Other interviewees commented upon relevant problem-solving specifically, the importance of pupil understanding and pupil autonomy and of self-determining learning:

"The content we're happy with. We do see that the idea of kids working in larger groups and doing more problem-solving as opposed to doing more experiments could filter through to

other areas. We were trying to give them problems which were simulations of what they might come across outside school, that they could use their scientific knowledge to solve."

Evidence of success was also presented by interviewees in their evaluation of the outcomes or consequences of experiences in more tangible examples. In his discussion of classroom accountability, Becher et al (1981)(40) notes pupil motivation as one of the most difficult problems for teachers; the degree of acceptance of responsibility for it varies. One finding of their Sussex accountability study indicated that teachers perceive their responsibility in relation to their role identification, classroom organisation and pupil assessments. Another was that the public aspect of pupils' work, for example, art work, projects, and pupil behaviour are for some teachers an informal accountability. The interviewees offered numerous such examples as these comments illustrate:

"..... the folder work went up leaps and bounds ..... they like doing their folder work and keeping it together in a folder. You can build on things then. That was the major thing."

"We were having discipline problems because of boredom and that's much better."

As middle-managers, they also had an overview of other aspects of organisation which generated evaluative comments. The option system was referred to as a reflection of success - when children elected at 13+ to continue that subject, it was seen to indicate successful change for a number of reasons.

"It's had a great pay-off on the options uptake. The kids weren't choosing it. We knew it would be taken off the



curriculum if we didn't do something. And we did and it worked."

It could be argued that the content of such observations represents part of the logic of teaching. Alternatively, it suggests a form of moral accountability because it seems to illustrate acknowledgement of a responsibility to ensure a particular quality of learning.

#### VI.1.ii. The teachers

The second category most frequently noted by middle-managers as having benefitted from change was the teachers in the departmental or year teams, Table 16. The significance of teachers as a resource is noted by Thomas (1985)(41): the financial cost of ensuring adequate staffing in schools indicates that teachers represent the single most important resource. Consequently, there are serious implications for managers about ensuring appropriate staff development for change with respect to developing skills, awareness, understanding and new attitudes to learning, management and pupils. The consequence of inadequate preparation of staff is two-fold for pupils: learning is less effective and access to education unequal. The importance of staff development was discussed in Chapter III: it is intrinsic to school development because it increases teacher competence.

Morant (1983)(42) recorded daily experience as a source of professional development for teachers because it offers of continuous and increasing expertise and competence. He also cites evidence that teachers may not necessarily be concerned with career advancement: both Lyons (1974) and Hilsum and Start (1974) reported that considerable proportion of teachers preferred success in the classroom to hierarchical career progression. Becher et al

(1981)(43) note that classroom privacy permits a generous level of autonomy for teachers within a circumscribed framework. Both these points - classroom experience and its related autonomy - raise questions about how staff development may be conducted and perceived.

Aoki (1984)(44) draws attention to this problem when he argues that, where curriculum implementation is concerned with competence, the teacher then represents the focal point of the process. If implementation is recognised as a practical action as opposed to the application of theory, the teacher can be acknowledged as a performer. It becomes necessary to examine the underlying assumptions as well as the prevailing conditions in school and to evaluate accordingly in order to accommodate subjectivity, values and motives. His research in New Zealand is appropriate to this study because it reports parallel concerns.

Similarly, Australian research, reported by Eltis et al (1984)(45) on projects aimed at initiating school-focussed action, emphasises the concept of professional growth in preference to notions of deficiency. They argue that teachers need external support to overcome the problems of classroom insularity.

In addition to this argument about the importance of staff development because of financial cost, the career patterns and classroom experience of teachers, is a fourth consideration, perhaps implicit in this discussion of the perspective of the individual. This is examined by Sikes, Measor and Woods (1985)(46) who argue that recognition of the teacher as an individual is relevant to staff development. They interpret a teacher's career as being intrinsic to individual life experiences because it is the product of the relationship of the teacher to his circumstances and

experience. Understanding this relationship is essential to effective management. Elliot (1985)(47) argues, like Aoki, that teachers' decisions are influenced by their understanding of the classroom: teachers examine the feasibility of implementing change in concrete or practical terms. Like numerous other researchers, Stenhouse (1975), Leithwood (1982), cited in Chapter III, Elliot recommends understanding how teachers make decisions about curriculum development.

Many of these ideas seem to be supported by this study. The responses of middle-managers evaluating their work, seem to recognise the practicality of curricular change, the importance of the classroom teacher's role, the rationales of teachers' decisions. This recognition can be described as representing Becher's professional accountability; it may also stem, to some extent, from their own experience as classroom teachers who have gained another perspective from within a different level in the school's hierarchy. The degree to which individuality of teachers is recognised varies: middle-managers seem to see their staffs as groups as well as individuals. The interviewees' perceptions recognise a desire for competence and for personal and professional development in varying degrees among their teachers. The greatest number of responses have been categorised as professional improvement, Table 16. The following examples from the data are arranged so as to illustrate what seems to be a progressive effect, starting in the classroom through the teacher group gaining expertise to the team towards the future.

Middle-managers explained how the changes they had introduced, had influenced methods, materials and attitudes within the classroom, affecting both pupils and teachers. New attitudes and

approaches gave teachers ownership of their work, a new confidence and enthusiasm, and a greater degree of expertise. The children were gaining success with new approaches to learning, and relationships between teachers and pupils were thought to have improved. These changing attitudes, the increasing confidence and competence were developed through the sharing, exploring and implementing of new ideas and represent teachers' learning:

"It's about teaching and learning, not just for the children, but for the teachers too. It's a kind of on-going inservice training and appraisal."

"One teacher said to me, 'I have to admit I've learned a great deal from you and you've improved my classroom teaching'. I think that kind of response is as valid a criteria of success as exam results."

Autonomy is still possible within this interactive and positive environment:

"Teachers need a sense of control which comes from having planned and organised materials for themselves because they understand their classrooms."

These three elements of learning by implementing with some autonomy contribute to professional growth. The following comment illustrates the degree of job satisfaction which can result from school-focussed action and an understanding of teachers' needs in relation to whole school curriculum:

"I see innovation as a marvellous tool for helping teachers to re-assess and appraise their work in a fairly secure, unthreatening way. Innovation appears to be about adapting what goes on in the classroom. It helps teachers to progress, to develop new techniques, change their view of the classroom.

It can revitalise people in a long-term way. A course of three days can, but they get back to the grind and a lot is lost because of the pressures."

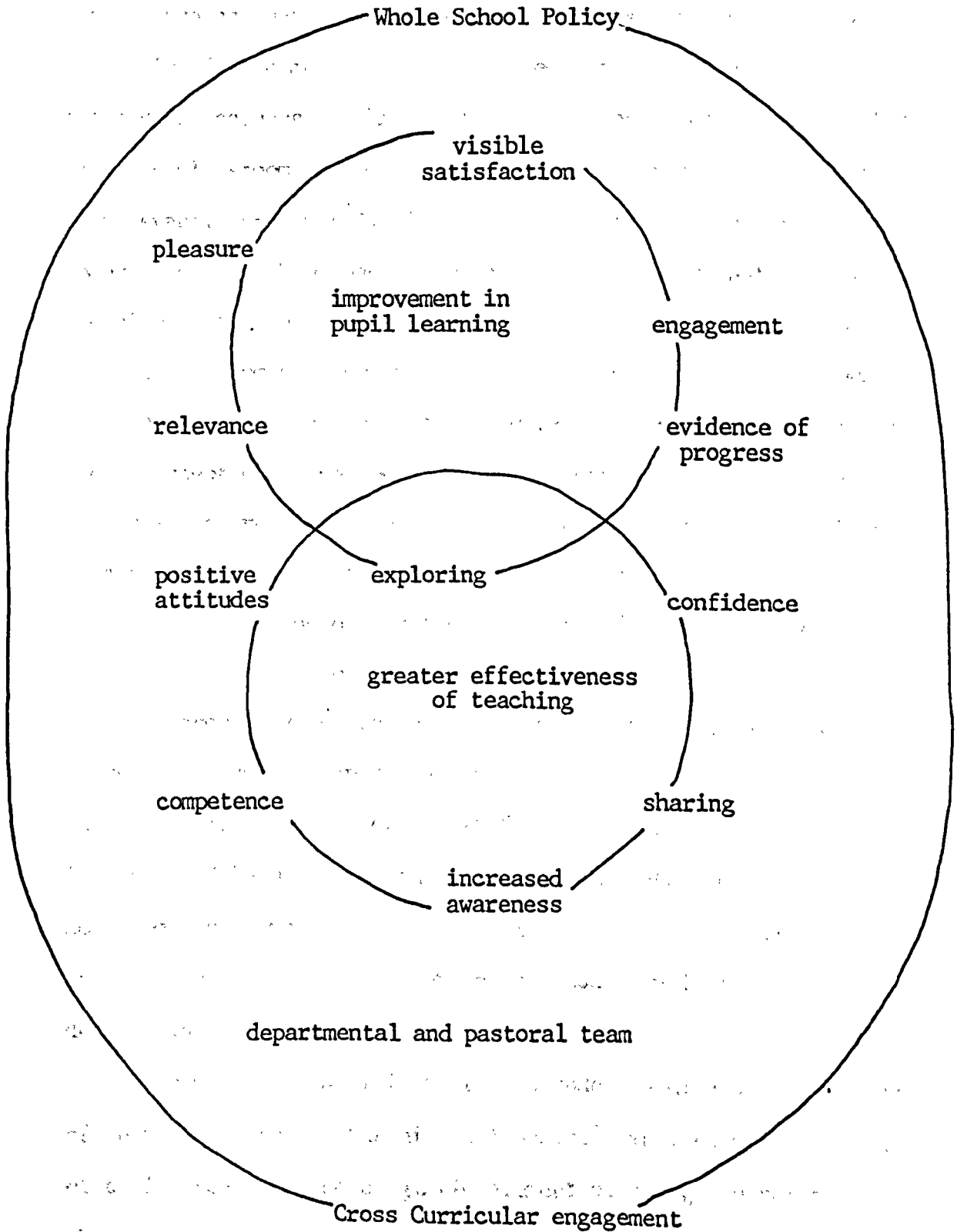
The effects of innovation can be evaluated at another level beyond individual competence in the work of the team itself in effective co-operation and unity and that team in relation to the school's organisation and for cross-curricular work, as this comment illustrates:

"It helps staff work as a corporate body which is important because that's how people develop new ideas. If there are good relationships within the team, people are often happy with their work and spread the news."

Finally, this progress augurs well for future developments. Believing their staff had gained confidence, increased competence, thought positively about change, and worked co-operatively together, the middle-managers considered how they would approach future initiatives.

Sikes (1984)(48) reported that teaching, as a career, appears not to be particularly satisfactory: in her study 58% claimed job satisfaction in a representative sample of 1,100 teachers in 31 schools. She concluded that management style and strategies were significant for teacher morale, motivation and commitment, especially at the time of falling rolls. Her findings are relevant not only to this section about how teachers seem to benefit from innovation, but also to the next in which how managers feel they benefit from innovation is discussed. Fig. 3 represents a synopsis of this discussion so far.

Fig. 3. a diagrammatic summary of middle-managers' perceptions of ways in which the introduction of change can benefit schools



### VI.1.iii. The middle-managers:

The middle-managers thought they had gained by introducing change, Table 17. Their responses seem to fall into two groups, namely, professional development and increased understanding of curriculum development. As the sampled managers were also practising teachers who had reached their positions hierarchically from the classroom, much of the discussion of the preceding section is relevant, particularly Elliot's point about gaining greater understanding of how teachers make decisions and Morant's view of the significance of teacher development for school effectiveness.

Curriculum development enabled the middle-managers to develop their own professional skills and to gain insights into the process. These perceptions have emerged from personal observations, teachers' comments, interpretation of behaviour and response, team reviews or discussions, and, in one example, an internal follow-up survey. Practical action and observations seem to offer the main source of these evaluative comments. Their responses reflect a sense of personal growth by understanding innovation and its management, by increasing personal expertise, by learning to adapt and be flexible as a manager, and to recognise staff need rather than assume and impose. Middle-managers commented upon the nature of their achievements as providing fresh insights about the change process and its management and upon which they could build for future developments.

The next comment illustrates an understanding of the process of change in terms of the middle-managers' own view of the influence of a hierarchy and the pragmatic element of change in relation to what has actually occurred and why:

"Most of the ideas came from me and were received by and large

because of the status relationships that existed, that is, the ideas were in reality top-down. The change was in direction - to participation and to actually doing something."

Several interviewees also recognised a kind of professional accountability which was new for them - of working for and within a team - and which represented an aspect of personal success as this quotation illustrates:

"What was personally rewarding was that the skills were there. I enjoyed encouraging and nurturing the staff as much as the children. In a sense, it's almost more rewarding because adults are a greater challenge because they can circumvent or subvert your authority in a way children can't."

Thus, whilst there seems to be some consensus amongst most of the interview sample about the benefits to teachers and pupils, the responses tend to be more idiosyncratic for the managers as individuals. Their comments tend to recount personal benefits or subject specific improvements. However, when listed with questionnaire responses, some more general observations can be made. The significance may lie in perceptions of leadership as a function which operates for others and is evaluated more vigorously in terms of effect upon colleagues or pupils rather than self. What this chapter seems to illustrate in these three sections - VI.1.i. Pupils, VI.1.ii. Teachers and VI.1.iii. Middle-managers - is an inter-relationship between the three groups with a progressive or ripple effect which was summarised diagrammatically earlier in figure 3.

#### VI.1.iv. Parents

Elliot (1981)(49) noted that teachers expressed a greater



awareness of accountability or answerability towards pupils and colleagues than towards parents. This distinction seems to be supported by the data in this study. There were very few references to parents in any of the evaluations of the innovations. It was noted six times for evaluating effect and twice for evaluating success, Table 17.

That parents featured less prominently than in other research may be attributable to the samples of this study. The curricular scope was wide: humanities and science; lower and upper school; pastoral and academic; all affected pupil cohorts. The areas in which concern about parental response was expressed were those changes which were visible to parents in practical subjects like CDT, those which affected the 13+ option choices like the pastoral core, and those which might have influenced examination results like Integrated Science.

Parents were perceived by those middle-managers who commented, to be negative influences upon schools, obstructive to innovation. The comments indicate the home-school relationship is complex, lacking sufficient communication of ideas and intentions and a sharing of values. The lack of response from parents was interpreted as positive by one middle-manager:

"I've discovered that I haven't had many letters or complaints and that's very important to me. That would frighten me to death if people were saying, This is not right! What are you doing with our kids for this amount of time?"

To summarise, the findings on evaluation have been presented in terms of the criteria by which the middle-managers evaluated their innovations and the areas which were perceived to be affected. The process of evaluation was unsystematic and informal, largely

self-evaluative based on observations, colleagues' comments, pupils response, and a kind of sensitive intuition! The appropriateness or acceptability of such evaluations may depend upon how much credibility is given to phenomenological methods. It could be argued that bias is inevitable in self delusion, unspoken motives, ambition, self interest. As one head of faculty said:

"My insights are through rose-tinted spectacles, and I'm probably the last person who's likely to interpret the politics of curriculum change accurately."

Pupils and teachers were perceived to be most influenced by the innovations. Pupils learned in more constructive ways, like problem-solving, and from better materials. These changes encouraged pupil autonomy, good classroom discipline, positive attitudes and a good uptake on 13+ options. Teachers gained professional development, increased competence and confidence, and job satisfaction. These gains promoted collaborative team work and future developments. Figure 3 attempted to illustrate the spin-offs which middle-managers identified. They, themselves, saw innovation as good for their individual professional development, especially as managers, which seemed to be expressed as a professional accountability. The lack of reference to parents raises questions about accountability which will be discussed in relation to evaluation in the following section.

## VI.2 Accountability

Reid, Hopkins and Holly (1988)(50) observe a relationship exists between the quality of pupil achievement and school effectiveness which in the present era of accountability is significant. Evaluation can be linked with accountability. Sockett

(1982)(51) observes that accountability interconnects with purpose and outcome. Bridges (1981)(52) defines it as explaining to others. Models illustrate this relationship.

Becher et al(1981)(53) examined policies of accountability in schools in their study in middle schools, the East Sussex Accountability Project(1979), and in a review of the literature. As their work foreshadows many of the changes instituted in more recent years in education, especially as a result of the Education Reform Act (1987-8) and new contracts for teachers, it matches the circumstances prevailing in schools at the time of this study and, therefore, offers an appropriate framework for discussion. The five dimensions of accountability offered are summarised here:

\* three types of accountability: contractual, moral and professional - the latter two being more frequently articulated by teachers than the former. 'Contractual' refers to accountability to employers or politicians; 'moral' indicates answerability to clients, that is, parents, pupils; and 'professional' relates to responsibility to self and to colleagues.

\* a specificity of the demands of accountability policies, described as problem-solving and maintenance. Briefly, these two elements mean, respectively, identifying problem areas needing solution and the preservation and possible enhancement of the overall quality of the school: a combination of maintenance and school improvement. The other three dimensions of five concern the interaction between the institution and the local education authority which does not fall within the scope of the evidence presented in this study since no respondent discussed it! They are:

\* the complimentary roles of the institution and the local education authority

Fig. 4. Diagrammatic juxtaposition of two frameworks for accountability with interpretations from the data

Frameworks of Accountability

Becher et al (1981) empirical types	Possible Groups A. from data B. not in data	Kogan (1986) theoretical models
<u>Moral</u> - answerability to:	A Pupils Parents	<u>Consumer/Market</u> by partnership
<u>Professional</u> - responsibility to:	Teachers Middle-Managers	<u>Professional</u> by self-control
<u>Contractual</u> - accountability to:	B Employers Politicians	<u>State/public</u> by managerialism

- \* the nature of transactions between each group
- \* the degree of formality in the operation procedures.

Kogan (1988)(54) offers a theoretical analysis of three models of accountability, critically examining the Becher East Sussex Study (1979) and the Elliot et al Cambridge Project (1981). The models are described in terms of control by different groups, namely, the State or public; the professionals; and consumer or market. These models provide numerous points of reference for this study because accountability was perceived by both research samples to encompass all three forms of control in education. Kogan's models are:

- \* public control as exercised by a group which includes elected representatives, appointed officials, headteachers and other managers in schools
  - \* teachers and professional administrators comprise the second group
  - \* consumer control may emerge through partnership in State schools or, in the private sector, by market forces - the former is relevant here.
- (Fig. 4)

This third element of "consumer" is significant, especially with the increased opportunities for parental involvement under the Education Reform Act (1988) and the voluble concerns of the "market". It is indicated in both Becher et al (1981) by "moral" accountability and in Kogan's (1986) "consumer" model, the difference between the two being to whom it is expressed and by whom it is controlled respectively. Both reflect the relationship between school and community. Caldwell and Spinks (1988)(55) offer another framework for accountability. They argue that schools should be managed in such a way as to demonstrate implementation of national and local guidelines devised by legislation, policies, priorities and negotiated agreements. They suggest three accountability patterns:

- \* to a central authority
- \* to the local community
- \* to the governing body or school's policy group. (p. 21)

As an alternative model, it emphasises the importance of involving parents, staff and students and a form of management which will not only ensure such participation but can acquire and develop the necessary skills and knowledge for effective self-management. Whilst this may require considerable adjustment if translated into English schools which have been accustomed to centrally determined budgets, policies and plans with a measure of local and internal autonomy, the model seems to provide an opportunity for sharing control between the groups to whom schools are accountable and the schools themselves in a working partnership.

If teachers can exercise professional accountability through participatory decision-making, and, as a result, schools will improve, their involvement is desirable. If it is acknowledged that parents and other members of the community have expectations or requirements of education that deserve recognition and incorporation, their involvement is also desirable. Each can offer a different perspective which can, arguably, aid school managers in identifying both problems and opportunities. As Glatter (1988)(56) observes a multi-perspective of the school is desirable for school improvement.

Figure 4 attempts to illustrate how this discussion relates to the findings on evaluation in this study. It seems to suggest some cognisance of accountability which relates to the models discussed. For example, Becher's types match the data chronologically: professional and moral accountability seems more evident than contractual. Whilst responses in the data could be compared with all Kogan's models, again professional accountability is most evident.

This could suggest that, where middle-managers enjoy professional control, they exercise professional accountability towards self and colleagues as well as moral accountability towards pupils but not parents. This lack of reference to parents may reflect what Paisey (1984)(57) describes as a gulf between teacher and parental values. Becher (1981)(58) noted that teachers claim to take parents' views seriously. It is an area worthy of greater investigation.

### VI.3 Concluding remarks

This chapter has attempted to place the middle-managers' evaluation of innovation within the context of the process of evaluation and models of accountability and the context of changing interpretations of innovation. The findings indicate both the criteria for evaluation and the areas deemed to have been improved by innovation. It has been argued that the data indicates an interest in school-based innovation which relates to notions of school improvement and effectiveness. In addition, a measure of accountability could be deduced especially with regard for teaching staff and pupils. The perceived spin-offs of innovation indicate an interest in developments across the school rather than within the specifically-managed areas.

However, the chapter remains unsatisfactory because the evidence is tentative and raises four particular questions, namely:

- \* what form of evaluation is appropriate?
- \* who should evaluate?
- \* are expectations significant to the evaluation process?
- \* can valid deductions be made?

The first consideration relates to the time of this study. The field research was conducted in 1985-6. It pre-dates or coincides with some of the published empirical and theoretical evidence

presented in this chapter which reported findings from research conducted at the end of the nineteen-seventies and in the early nineteen-eighties, for example, the East Sussex (1979) and Cambridge (1981) Accountability Projects. Numerous review schemes, checklists and proposals for evaluation of effectiveness were available at the time of the field research, for example, Keeping the School Under Review, ILEA (1977), Starting Points in Self-Evaluation, Oxfordshire (1979), Signposts for Evaluating (1981), and G.R.I.D.S. (1982). The opportunity to record their usage was available to both samples. However, there was no indication of any awareness of application of such materials for evaluating the middle-managers' projects. Why they were not used remains unclear.

In addition, both samples reported that innovation benefitted their schools. The extracts quoted have been taken almost exclusively from the interviews which suggests that an interview itself may offer evaluation on an informal basis as a form of accounting. As was noted in Chapter II, the intention of the research method was to explore meanings and understanding phenomenologically. It could be argued that, as there were no formal evaluation processes, the middle-managers' reflections are subjective and anecdotal. Their perceptions of the success of their work may have been influenced by personal motives and by assumptions about the experiences of pupils and teachers. Evaluative comments could arguably refer either to the middle-managers' own success as managers or to the success of the innovations they introduced. If a middle-manager's interpretation of innovation is as an experiment, then logically to have experimented is the success - evaluation is not necessarily intrinsic, as has so far been assumed. Thus, it could be argued either that more explicit evaluation was appropriate or alternatively, that, for the interview



sample, the interview represented a form of evaluation.

This raises the second question of who should evaluate? There seems to be a correlation between the reasons managers identified for wanting to implement change and of the areas in which change was desirable, and their perceptions of the consequences of change. This correlation could be interpreted differently - either as the successful accomplishment of middle-managers' objectives or as outcomes feeding off objectives because of limited perspectives; evaluation by tunnel vision. Alternatively, it could be seen to demonstrate the effectiveness of school-focussed improvement. However it is interpreted the correlation begs the question that, if evaluation is to take place within faculties by individual teachers, should the initiators create the checklist or criteria and, if so, how? If, for example, innovation represents a stepping stone to promotion through recognition, acknowledgement or as appraisal because teachers' careers are made in schools, who should assess its success?

The third question considers the issue of expectations in relation to success. Only two interviewees said that their expectations had not been fulfilled, but five said their expectations were not high, of whom one declared his expectations had been exceeded. Nine interviewees felt they had been successful but six were implementing modifications as a result of their experiences. Firstly, do low expectations yield perceptions of a high rate of success? Secondly, the difficulty may lie in the research method: it could not identify what were the middle-managers' expectations when they started their projects; it can only record what they remember them to have been. These memories could have been adjusted as a consequence of outcomes and with hindsight.

The fourth question refers to the problem of drawing conclusions

about evaluation, accountability and school effectiveness in a study as diverse as this because the middle-managers were attempting to change different areas of the schools' curricula autonomously. This variety and the individual's autonomy present problems for finding parallels in evaluation and accountability issues as supporting evidence, when the basis of the analysis is criteria-centred. . . . However, this basis might be too restrictive, too narrow, for a study which is essentially interactionist in method, and concerned with understanding and presenting perceptions of contexts. If the rationale of the method is accepted, that is, that what people say or write is what they do and think or did and thought, then some of these problems are dispelled. Innovation and its introduction need not be viewed as self-aggrandisement or as politically motivated. It could be recognised as what both samples say it is, namely, an opportunity grasped, rather than created or manipulated, to contribute to school improvement. The evaluations of the success of the innovations can be viewed not as self-appraisals but as recognition of achievement for both the middle-managers and their teams. If it is agreed that what people say is an acceptable perception of reality, then it is possible to recognise that the middle-managers' intentions as innovators were altruistic, reflecting a corporate responsibility.

Three tentative conclusions might be drawn. Firstly, that the significance of innovation, from the middle-management perspective is in its contribution to the achievement of school effectiveness. Secondly, that evaluations can indicate a degree of professional responsibility and accountability which bears some resemblance to Kogan's (1986)(59) model of professional accountability and Elliot's (1981)(60) answerability. Thirdly, that there is an indication of a move towards self-evaluation and monitoring within the sampled schools

among individual managers; unconscious, localised within subjects, and concerned with the effects of interactions between staff, between staff and pupils, and, to a lesser extent, between parents and school. Improvements were noted in pupil learning, staff competence and personal management skills, all of which indicate conditions for greater school effectiveness within the broader definition offered by other evidence. However, these conclusions require further investigation.

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## Chapter VII

### Summary and Conclusions.



## Chapter VII

### Summary and Conclusions

#### VII.1. The context of the study

#### VII.2. The findings of the investigation

#### VII.3. Suggestions for further research

## Chapter VII

### Summary and Conclusions.

This final chapter attempts to draw together the strands of this thesis into a cohesive summary of the findings of the data analysis in conjunction with other empirical research and the theoretical perspectives. Chapter I offered the hypothesis that middle-managers are significant for the introduction and implementation of innovation in comprehensive schools and identified some of the related issues. Chapter II explained the rationale for, and the methodology of, the research approach. The analysis of the research data was presented in Chapter III, IV, V, and VI in a sequential examination of aspects of middle-management in relation to innovation. Chapter III discussed middle-managers' perceived reasons for innovating and identified which strategies they used for introduction, and how team-building facilitated implementation. Chapter IV placed the middle-managers in their hierarchical context by looking at the effect of their relationships with more senior staff and Chapter V noted some of their managerial activities. Chapter VI recorded their perceptions of how schools benefit from innovation.

To recap, the investigation aimed to discover how middle-managers see the process of innovation and the possible influences of a hierarchical management structure. The data was collected by qualitative methods: interviews in late 1985 and a questionnaire in Spring 1986. Phenomenological study can be interpreted as presenting a private and closed world in which the evidence becomes mutually supportive. The purpose is to enter the perspective of the individual and, in this investigation, to understand how middle-

managers see their engagement in curriculum development. The ability, therefore, to maintain a pre-suppositionless approach requires rigour and objectivity; the issue of truth was addressed in II.4. The multi-disciplinary nature of educational study allows various levels of theorising about, say, school organisation, to develop from prescriptions and technological theories towards universal theory. In this thesis it moves from the commonalities in the middle-managers' perceptions of strategies, for example, through a discourse on existing literature towards theory.

Although the inherent rationale that what respondents say or write is what they have experienced may be questionable, it is argued that perceptions of experience accurately reflect the perceiver's own perspective. This rationale implies trust and confidence in the sampled groups to record their understandings accurately and honestly. It also recognises the possibility of unconscious motives, prejudices and bias. The interviewees were selected because of their experience as innovators as defined in Chapter II. The questionnaire sample was self-selecting because the respondents were participants in a middle-management course in a different authority, and were unknown to the researcher. Chapter II.1 indicated sufficient similarities between the two samples and between the questionnaire and the interview schedule for substantiation and for some comparisons to be drawn with confidence. Further research might fruitfully examine alternative ways in which management roles are perceived, from other perspectives and of other participants.

The analysis has tended to inter-relate different and differing schools of thought either theoretically or empirically in order to achieve an unprejudiced and open understanding. The

literature survey drew upon a range of studies and arguments so as to examine different standpoints. However, it has also attempted to draw upon evidence relating to the prevailing circumstances of the investigation in two ways. Firstly, it has looked at pre- and post-investigation literature and, secondly, it has tended to review qualitative studies, relating to England and Wales.

Arguably, the levels of theorising in this study - from rule of thumb to investigated studies - and their sources represent a shortcoming. However, it has been necessary because of the degree of applicability of organisation theory to schools and a lack of relevant theory. It is anticipated that, by reviewing the data and relating its common features to the literature, the findings may generate new understandings. The analysis was presented in Chapter III, IV, V, and VI so as to narrate the middle-managers' experiences sequentially through their perceptions of managing innovation. We have attempted to integrate recent developments relevant to the research and the findings of a major study on middle-management, publication expected in 1989.

This chapter offers a synopsis of the theoretical - empirical context of the study, noting writers cited and referenced in earlier chapters and dated to indicate pre- and post-investigation literature. It is followed by a review of the research findings and recommendations for further research.

### VII.1 The context of the study

Two arguments recurring in the literature, namely, that innovation is essential for schools and that it represents a significant management function, are supported by the data. The significance of innovation is related to discussions about the role

of schools in society, Gray (1979), Schmuck (1980); the purpose of education, Brighouse (1983); and the need for an educated population, Handy and Aitken (1986). Such issues contribute to the complexity of schools as institutions because of conflicting perceptions and expectations, Paisey (1984), and highlight differences in theoretical understandings of schools as organisations. Writers from an industrial and organisational theoretical perspective, for example, Everard and Morris (1985) and Gray (1979), afford only marginal significance to the purposes of schools as a distinguishing characteristic, suggesting little difference between the management of change in schools and in other institutions. Others argue that it is the type of membership that distinguishes schools from other organisations, Handy and Aitken (1986), because of the range of human interactions, Paisey (1984); the variety of influences upon it, Frith (1985); and the nature of the decisions to be made by it, Holt (1987). These arguments seem to take into account both the context and circumstances of schools as organisations as well as questions about the nature of knowledge and pedagogy.

The primary concerns of managers in schools were identified as the actions and inter-relationships of the members and the organisation, Paisey (1984). Management principles were proposed which, in part, mirror these two concerns. Leadership which harnesses individual ability for group action towards goal achievement, summarises a theoretically appropriate management style, Dean (1985), Paisey (1984). Recognition of the need for change represents a characteristic of positive management, Everard and Morris (1985), Marland and Hill (1981). Managerial effectiveness seems to be equated with the management of resources

for the purpose of changing education, Paisey (1981). Industrially-based models of management seem to emphasise control as a key issue; control which ensures that only those tasks relevant to the accomplishment of objectives are fulfilled, Gray (1979).

Differences between schools and other organisations relate not only to purpose and staff, but also to the management of change, Gyte (1985). There is evidence to suggest that new approaches to management in schools are emerging. Whilst the influence of centre periphery models remains, it seems less dominant as the trend towards more participative management styles gathers momentum, Bush (1980). Models of change management increasingly indicate the importance of preparatory stages, Gyte (1985), Morant (1981), and recognition of local circumstances, Tamir (1985). This trend was attributed to several factors in the literature: to closer links between educational research and teachers' experience, Taylor (1986), and to the increase in qualitative research, Pinar (1986), which highlights practical issues, Tamir (1986). Top-down models of innovation were reported as having failed because they neglected the subtleties of school issues, House (1981).

Considerable theoretical and empirical evidence points to the significance of teachers to any considerations about the management of innovation, Holt (1987), Hopkins and Wideen (1984), Leithwood (1982). It is reported that teachers are in the best position to understand pupil needs and that their autonomy should not be impeded by change management, Elliot (1986), Leithwood et al (1982). Teachers' decisions are influenced by their perceptions of pupil need and by their own backgrounds, Leithwood et al (1982). Their assessments are related to their own beliefs, classroom environments and subject areas, Wahlstrom (1982). In addition, teachers attempt

to satisfy their own needs through their work, MacDonald (1982), to achieve self-actualisation, Woods (1984). Teachers' curricular decisions seem also to be related to perceptions of the subject taught in terms of its status with pupils, Measor (1984), how it is resourced, Goodson (1984), and within a hierarchy of competing subjects, Burgess (1984). Participation in innovation may create conflicts for teachers because of perceived effects upon their career progress, Cooper (1984), and their material interests, Goodson (1984).

Another important consideration about change management is the hierarchical structure which is different in schools, especially secondary schools, than in other institutions in some respects. A proposed definition of hierarchical structure included differentiation of levels and areas of responsibility, a figurehead and sub-systems. Differing interpretations of the possible effect of such a structure upon change management were evident in the research literature. On one hand, a hierarchy may obstruct innovation by reducing the effectiveness of team approaches, Belbin (1983), but on the other, it can operate as an integrating mechanism by responding to different levels with the organisation, Packwood (1980). The status of an innovator may be significant because initiatives tend to emerge from staff in high, formal positions, Lindblad (1986).

The headteacher was noted as the traditional figurehead of the hierarchy because of the power and responsibility associated with the role, Packwood (1986), Sutton (1985), which was linked with control of the curriculum, Watts (1976), and thought to be retained so as to prevent any erosion in status, Gray (1982). The role of the headteacher is well documented. Traditionally, it has been seen as a teaching and administrative role, Hughes (1976), but is reported

as changing, Sutton (1985). Its growing complexity, Morgan et al (1983), was attributed to a range of factors. Whilst industrial management models may be applicable because the head's role can be paralleled with executive management, Sutton (1985), the issue is debated in the literature. The role of the headteacher was described as teacher, administrator and innovator, Dickinson (1975), Hughes (1976), Nicholls (1983).

The relationship between the head and the senior management team may determine the kind of innovation occurring in schools, Weindling and Earley (1987). The hierarchical structure can facilitate delegation of authority by the headteacher, Weindling and Earley (1987), so that the senior management team can share executive power, Weeks (1986). Headteachers appear to favour a team management approach, Weindling and Earley (1987), in a partnership of shared responsibility, Matthew and Tong (1982). A lack of role definition and the interference of administrative tasks may inhibit deputy heads from fulfilling their role, Todd and Dennison (1980). There seems to be little empirical evidence on the nature of the relationship between heads and middle-managers. Where middle-managers are involved in participatory decision-making beyond areas of responsibility, they gain a broader view of the school, Davies (1985). Their teams can be effective if an appropriate working environment is created by the head, Gray (1982), and their effectiveness may be related to career progress, Phipson (1981). It was speculated in a discussion of management styles that parallels may be tentatively drawn between the tasks and functions of headteachers and middle-managers.

The range of middle-management functions as subject teacher, tutor and manager and the demands of these tasks were reported to



cause role confusion and conflict, Dunham (1978). Anecdotal commentaries offer recommendations for middle-managers, especially for heads of department. Able leadership and a range of interpersonal skills are priorities, Marland and Hill (1981), Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989). Theoretical interpretations of the role suggest it is task-oriented in terms of skills, Thomas (1977); activities, Webb and Lyons (1982); and desirable abilities, Bayne-Jardine (1981). It seems to be under-observed, especially regarding innovation, Ribbins (1985).

This study attempts to present such evidence; the data suggested approaches to change management which were common to both samples. They were categorised as consultation, investigation, training and team building and are discussed more fully as a major finding in VII.2. Each category was surveyed in the literature, of necessity at whole school rather than middle-management level.

As recent developments and as aspects of innovation, the notions of school improvement and effectiveness and related issues, such as, evaluation and accountability, were touched on. Accountability can be defined in different ways: Kogan's models (1986) are based on the nature of control exercised by different groups upon or within the school and Elliot's by evaluation - contractual accountability by standardised criteria and answerability by negotiated criteria. This model can be related to Becher's (1981) three types of accountability - contractual, moral and professional - especially the latter two. These two models, Elliot and Becher, were apposite to this study because they precede the changes to teachers' contracts in 1987 which may have endorsed contractual accountability.

The literature on evaluation raised a number of issues. For

reasons related to power and control, evaluation could be seen as threatening to teachers, Thomas (1985). Self-evaluation was discussed because it reflected the process identified by the two study samples. Numerous advantages were noted. It can encourage professional development and accountability, Mortimore (1983); teacher confidence, Weeks (1986); institutional change, Shipman (1983); and develop the partnership between teachers and pupils, Rudduck (1986), between teachers, pupils and the community, Skilbeck (1988), and between teachers and parents, Robinson (1984).

The research literature notes the significance of staff development. Teachers represent a considerable financial resource, Thomas (1985). Their careers are influenced by their working environment, Gray (1982), and the degree of job satisfaction they experience, Sikes, Measor, Woods (1985). Teachers are described as needing opportunities for professional growth, Aoki (1984), Eltis et al (1984), because of the often insular nature of their work, Sikes, Measor, Woods (1985). Their expertise is inherent in their classroom experience, Elliot (1985). Although classroom progress may be difficult to measure, assessment and evaluation can be instructive to innovation, especially when shared between teachers and pupils, Harris and Bell (1986). Evidence suggests teachers see themselves as more answerable to pupils and colleagues than to parents, Elliot (1981) and Becher et al (1981), but at an informal rather than contractual level, Becher et al (1981).

Theoretically and empirically, evaluation and accountability are linked with school improvement. As the quality of teaching in schools is dependent upon the quality of teaching within departments, Hargreaves (1984), the management implications are numerous as the following summary of the data findings illustrates.

## VII.2 The findings of the investigation

The data offers middle-managers' interpretations of their own work of managing change within their own contexts. It seems to support much of the evidence presented here on the management of innovation. Whilst their accounts describe innovatory rather than routine management, the skills and qualities they identified indicate that innovation and its continuance is a major aspect of their work. The evidence reinforces the expectation that innovation is the central task of middle-management in a hierarchical structure. It was noted in Chapter III that the reason for introducing change most frequently offered by the middle-managers was to improve the quality of pupil learning.

Whilst some respondents seemed relatively vague about change management, others had recognised the factors likely to influence the ways in which they introduced and maintained their changes. These factors tended to be staff-related, for example, resistance, anxiety, prejudicial perceptions of pupils, firmly established practices, inherited attitudes and working conditions. For some respondents, being newly-appointed was seen to be advantageous either because they were unknown to their staff or because they were thought by staff to be "new brooms". Unfamiliarity and expectation served the innovatory purpose. In addition, a majority of the respondents were convinced that the strength of their own commitment to change and its likely contribution to school effectiveness could surmount much of the perceived staff reluctance. The middle-managers also recognised that they had to learn to work with the existing staff because few were able to make fresh appointments.

The data revealed three common approaches for introducing innovation - consultation, investigation and training - all of which

seem to reflect the significance of teachers' involvement and concerns about staff participation noted in the research literature earlier. Consultation took place formally and informally, although the latter was more frequently discussed. Informal consultation was intended to sound out the staff's ideas and feelings about change; it seemed to be a gradual and opportunistic process because of the variety of circumstances in which the middle-managers operated. It seems also to have attempted to establish a commitment to innovation, especially where middle-managers anticipated some reluctance or anxiety among staff, and to generate a conducive atmosphere in terms of tone, vocabulary and consensus. Although unsystematic, the middle-managers seemed concerned to promote participatory decision-making within their staff groups, having first identified where and why innovation was necessary.

Formal consultation seems to have served a different purpose. It seems to have been conducted in faculty, departmental and year team meetings which were a regular feature of the management calendar for the interviewees. Its purpose was to achieve the structure, formats and foundation middle-managers perceived as necessary for effective change. Whilst it is apparent that the middle-managers often anticipated that staff could be involved in directing their own futures, some employed manipulative techniques, even deviousness at times to ensure staff participation. The leadership role was much discussed.

Both formal and informal consultation were perceived as significant contributors to the effective introduction of change. Although conducted less systematically and consistently than theoretically recommended, it seems to be more significant than other research evidence implies. It seems to serve the following

purposes:

- \* to encourage participation
- \* to influence attitudes
- \* to facilitate interaction between staff and middle-managers
- \* to raise staff awareness of options and possibilities
- \* to develop co-operative working.

Both the purpose and application of the second common approach, investigation, are similar to the first, Table 10. As an umbrella term, it covered experimental work, curricular reviews, pupil and staff surveys, visits to other schools, observations, trial projects and working parties. Although this evidence is drawn from both samples, the interviewees offered specific and detailed examples which could be examined closely. For example, one interviewee was engaged in a research project funded jointly by a philanthropic research institute and the local education authority. This supported evidence that such contact promotes collaborative working, Shipman (1985), and teachers' skills, Mitchell (1985). Curriculum reviews, noted by both samples, can increase teacher participation in curriculum development and generate ideas, Duffy (1985). There was little data explicitly about the value of surveying pupil opinion, Reid (1984), for better understanding of pupil perceptions, Measor (1984), in curriculum negotiation, Rudduck (1984). The single purpose of these investigative opportunities - to influence staff attitudes positively towards change - seems to operate in two ways:

- \* to lend validity to the middle-managers' proposals for change by demonstrations of success, by offering field experience and by providing relevant information
- \* to illustrate the practical benefits of change.

Training was the most frequently noted and most widely used approach to aid the introduction of innovation, Table 10. With one exception among the interviewees, all the middle-managers sampled employed formal group training, and it was evident among the interviewees that the training was officially encouraged with tacit or explicit headteacher support. Training was seen to present opportunities for exploring the possibilities offered by innovation within a working context in which teachers could learn, adjust and become confident. It provided an environment in which anxiety and concern about success could be safely expressed and alleviated by increasing practical experience and competence. In these ways, training was perceived to be influential in promoting positive staff attitudes about change. Such attitudes were thought to be essential for effective change because it required understanding, preparation and teacher commitment.

These findings support much of the empirical evidence and the theory which cites the need for training within a working context, Ashton (1984), and for appropriate skills and conditions, Morant (1981). The main problems noted by the middle-managers were insufficient time and dissenting staff: they seemed to reason that, given sufficient time, dissent and non-cooperation could be surmounted. There was no consensus within the data to support evidence of the desirability of engaging external trainers or of using external venues. Some middle-managers argued that local authority advisers could provide support and indirect influence where they were part of a training programme. However, the degree of influence depended upon both the advisers' credibility and the quality of training as perceived by the teachers.

As an enjoyable experience, training was thought to be

effective when it was practical because teachers familiarised themselves with new approaches, methods and materials. In consequence, it increased teachers' experience, their collaborative and co-operative working and, ultimately, their sense of success. For new middle-managers, training was seen as a way to develop happy working relationships with their staff.

Collaboration through training was seen as particularly important because teachers felt less anxious and more confident, less isolated and more supported, less unprepared and more competent about the changes. The training sessions explored new concepts about learning and teaching as well as dealing with practical considerations, such as, preparing materials and resources. It was deduced from the interview sample that a relationship might exist between the kind of training the middle-managers offered and the nature of the change being introduced, the staff relationships and needs, and teaching subject. It seemed to interconnect with Morant's (1981) model of school-focussed training. Whilst training seemed to reflect the middle-managers' commitment, the lack of evaluative data raised questions about how middle-managers assess their success as trainers, and, ultimately, as innovators.

The data generated on team-building may resolve some of these questions because it is an activity which seems to be concerned more with maintaining and institutionalising change rather than introducing, which is why it is omitted from the strategies' categories. Both samples noted team work and team building and the interviews offered detailed information. For example, they noted that initial or early staff responses to proposed changes indicated anxiety about the practical consequences of change in the classroom and concern about the ability to adapt and adopt changes both to

their teaching roles and to their working practices. These concerns were perceived to centre on professional competence, skill, responsibility and accountability, particularly, on success in the classroom. It was observed that, in both samples, there were differing degrees of response to teachers' concerns - some expressed sympathy whilst others were dismissive - and that this was related to interest in team-building.

Those middle-managers who promoted team-building identified some of the advantages cited by research evidence, namely, group affiliation, especially for the new middle-managers; availability and engagement of staff qualities and skills; and good staff morale. The latter may be attributable to two factors: firstly, recognition that a period of innovation can be unsettling or disconcerting and secondly, the period during which the interviewees were introducing change, coincided with teachers' industrial action when managerial interventions were resisted. In addition, team-building was seen to be beneficial for adopting new methods, for preparing new materials, for future developments and for enhancing teachers' careers by increasing their experience and expertise. At a personal or individual level, the benefits were identified as member satisfaction through involvement; greater flexibility as teachers; ability to take risks; and kudos within the school as a result of the status accrued as recognised innovators. The interaction of the teaching group was thought to benefit pupils by improving the quality of the learning environment. For the middle-managers, team building brought a sense of personal success for themselves as leaders, as managers, as a result of its professional consequences. They believed they had learned to be effective, to compromise and adjust. They enjoyed seeing the influence of their



own philosophies in practice and gaining their staffs' support. The most success was thought to be evident in changes in teachers' attitudes about improving pupil learning.

Although this study reports on events which occurred in 1984, and, therefore, pre-date much of the cited evidence, the analysis of the data suggests that the middle-managers were concerned about the issues of evaluation, accountability and school effectiveness. 75% of the interviewees and 57% of the questionnaire responses reported that innovation improved the educational provision in school, Table 16. They noted evaluation presented problems. None had used any of the published self-evaluation methods or materials. Evaluation was seen to be complex. The industrial action taken by teachers had thwarted management initiatives for evaluation; the main problem being sufficient time for the practical process of evaluation. A desire for success may have coloured their perceptions of their achievements.

The criteria for evaluating those achievements centred upon the staff in their teams for whom they identified increased job satisfaction because of classroom success, and an increase in personal confidence. These successes were thought to have influenced other areas of the curriculum where innovation had not been introduced but where new techniques were adopted, and, in some cases, school policies were also influenced, (Figure 3).

In intuitively evaluating the outcomes or successes of their innovations, the respondents identified pupil learning, the staff and themselves; reference to parents was minimal. Improvements in the quality of pupil learning was evaluated in terms of how pupils perceived subjects taught, an improvement in learning rates, the acquisition of new concepts, and altered pupil engagement in the

learning process. The middle-managers stressed specific aspects of classroom behaviour, for example, participation, engagement, enjoyment, as demonstrating how pupils responded to new teaching approaches, methods, materials. Learning was thought to have increased in its effectiveness because it included problem-solving, group work, pupil self-study, and resulted in increased pupil understanding. The outcomes of these changes were thought to be evident in a reduction of discipline problems, the increase in option uptake in particular subjects and the quality of practical work.

The teachers were categorised as the second group to benefit. The middle-managers recognised the practical nature of curriculum development, the significance of the teachers' classroom role for effective implementation of change and the value and import of their decisions to curriculum development. They saw both professional development and increased competence among their teachers. Some specific improvements were identified with consequential effects. For example, improved teaching methods and materials in conjunction with positive staff attitudes led to confidence and competence whilst permitting professional autonomy and responsibility. With perceived increased job satisfaction, staff worked more collaboratively and co-operatively than previously, as teams, from which the middle-managers deduced that a good foundation for future developments had been established.

Parents were mentioned infrequently in this study and in general terms as measures of the success achieved, as an evaluative criteria. There is insufficient evidence to draw conclusions.

Finally, innovation was seen by the middle-managers to have benefitted themselves as individuals. They had not only achieved

personal professional development in acquiring and extending their range of skills and abilities but had also gained a greater understanding of curriculum development, particularly of the relevance of teachers to change. Their personal growth was described in terms of increasing their own expertise as managers and innovators, as having become adaptable and of gaining new insights; it seems, however, to be idiosyncratic.

It seems that where middle-managers enjoyed professional control, they exercised professional accountability as defined earlier. They identified four areas of achievement which bear comparison with degrees of accountability, especially "answerability", Elliot (1981), and support the "professional" and "moral" types of accountability, Becher et al (1981), and Kogan's professional model. Although no formal evaluative schemes were employed, middle-managers expressed moral and professional accountability, especially in interviews, towards both pupils and teachers but less obviously, parents.

This study also set out to examine the context in which the middle-managers introduced innovation, namely, the hierarchical management structure. It was noted in Chapter IV that middle-managers referred more frequently to their relationship with heads than with other members of the senior management team even though the research questions offered a wider framework. Several reasons were proposed for this disparity, for example, the role of the head as a figurehead, as innovator, and as immediate employer and, thereby, the point of middle-managers' accountability. Middle-managers perceived the head as a manager which supports both the theoretical and empirical interpretation of the head's role.

The quality of the relationship between the middle-managers

and the headteachers seems to be influenced by the two inter-related factors. The relationship was perceived to be satisfactory when middle-managers expressed an understanding of the head's role and when his/her level of involvement in the proposed change matched their expectations. However, personal access and a regular information flow to the head seemed to be additional elements of their perceptions. Middle-managers perceived the head to be significant to the success of their innovations in four respects:

- \* to gain staff support
- \* to offer recognition of their work
- \* to share an understanding of their intentions
- \* to encourage staff participation.

These expectations support evidence from the research literature about the deployment of the headteacher's authority as a persuasive influence upon staff for the formulation of policy decisions about innovation which the middle-managers in this study observed as both practical and necessary for the success of their own work.

Heads were perceived to be policy-makers whose vision was essential for identification of school rather than subject needs; however, specification of need was welcomed by the middle-managers. Where middle-managers were newly-appointed, they reflected at length in the interviews upon the relationship with the head. In addition to deployment of authority, the heads' contribution to successful innovation was related to their managerial and administrative skills. It was possible to illustrate from the interview data different levels of headteacher influence, namely, by direct support, through staff appointments, by tacit support and even in apparently independent innovations.

The data supports evidence of the headteacher as manager and innovator and as an influence upon teachers' careers by virtue of the quality of the working environment and promotional and self-actualisation opportunities. However, it differs from much of the cited evidence in Chapter IV about the senior management team. In general, perceptions of the senior managers were negative: they were found wanting on both staff- and management-related issues. The middle-managers expected the senior team to lend support and thereby status to their work so as to gain staff co-operation and to reduce staff opposition, Table 12. They also anticipated personal recognition and understanding as well as guidance and encouragement, but were disappointed. The senior management team was occasionally found useful for gaining funds but this was a minor issue for middle-managers. Senior staff were presented ideally as mediators and facilitators because of their access to the head; however, when they failed to meet these expectations, they were bi-passed. Those middle-managers who enjoyed satisfactory relationships with the heads, tended to be more critical of the senior team than those who did not. It seems likely that, where senior staff fail to meet middle-managers' expectations, personal contact with the head will be fostered. Thus, contrary to theory but complementary to empirical studies about how deputies feel about their work as senior managers, they were perceived as unsatisfactorily fulfilling their roles. This failure was attributed by middle-managers to narrow attitudes, inflexibility and limited horizons. The interviewees were particularly critical about the lack of recognition of their ability and success. Both samples indicated a sense of disillusionment about deputies.

The middle-managers' perceptions of the hierarchical

relationship seem to illustrate an appreciation of their own roles as managers, supporting much of the evidence on the management of change in schools. The data analysis indicates leadership of the staff group with the purpose of initiating as a key middle-management function. Whilst it could be argued that this observation is self-evident because the research explored the management of change, its relevance is in suggesting several criteria for effective management, emerging from a middle-management as opposed to whole school perspective. For example, the middle-managers perceived their success to have resulted from a combination of their subject overview, their relationship with other teams and their experience as classroom teachers. This experience allowed an empathetic understanding of their own staff's problems. The overview gained from a middle-management position, facilitated need identification. Together these elements indicated which approaches were appropriate for introducing and maintaining change, taking into account the needs of staff, pupils, school, and the community. Thus, it could be deduced from the data that leadership signifies the ability to understand circumstances, context and needs; to recognise staff potential; and to exploit the most appropriate opportunities to achieve success. In addition, middle-managers perceived leadership as embracing delegation and its associated elements of risk, trust and confidence in staff, as an ability which is learned and requires both skill and personal qualities. As leaders, they perceived the purposes of innovation to be numerous: to improve pupil learning and teachers' pedagogy as well as resolving perceived problems of inequality of opportunity for learning.

The middle-managers expressed a commitment or philosophy which

had developed from a range of experiences and continuing professional and/or higher education. Courses featured as significant sources of inspiration, especially where time for reflection was available and ideas with direct relevance to classroom circumstances.

It was difficult to offer evidence about either the function of middle-managers or the desired qualities for fulfilling their tasks which could be substantiated by this research. However, personal qualities seem to be a significant factor for effective management. The data indicates which qualities promote close working relationships, especially where middle-managers seek personal effectiveness through friendship, harmony and personal acceptance. Diplomacy, sensitivity, openness and responsiveness were frequently cited. The middle-managers also noted the importance of qualities which facilitate analytical, reflective, visionary and discriminatory thought and which engender confidence, independence and awareness in their staff. Innovation was perceived to demand ambition, creativity and commitment. Team success was seen to be achieved if middle-managers were self-aware and self-critical. A hierarchical structure seems to promote innovation.

To summarise, the data indicates that middle-managers adopt common approaches to introduce innovation and that the power of the head is diffused through them in a hierarchical structure. They articulate an understanding of the purpose of innovation in relation to the function of a school which is influenced by courses and practical experience. The common approaches for introducing and maintaining innovation are generally applicable and suggest parallels between the management tasks of heads and middle-managers.

A degree of accountability was surmised but little systematic evaluation was evident.

### VI.3 Suggestions for further research

These findings, resulting from phenomenologically approached investigation, offer a basis for corresponding studies because the design and structure are repeatable. Examination from different points in the hierarchy, with other samples both random and larger, or other methods, could increase an understanding of middle-management, especially in relation to change, and greater school effectiveness.

For example, how middle-managers achieve competence is an untapped area. It seems to be learnt in post where the necessary skills are acquired through mentors, observations, and discussions. It requires the application of that learning reflectively and skilfully with the help of personal qualities and attributes. It could be argued that middle-management requires people of a particular calibre who are dextrous at learning, reflecting and synthesising. This competence could improve with training; further research might examine what motivates middle-managers and facilitates their competence. It might review the roles of other staff in curriculum development, such as, departmental staff or deputies; alternative training approaches. A study examining innovation from its infancy to its implementation could be instructive.

Secondly, further contextual research might illuminate our understanding of school management since the assumptions on which educational organisation theory has been based, may inadequately represent the reality of the organisation's context. Conflicting



theories of educational management tend to be value-laden. Such research might examine the diversity of theoretical notions and assumptions by analysis of educational management in context. There seems to be insufficient evidence of this kind. In addition, it seems that researchers with experience of education either as practitioners or observers, are more optimistic about events within the complexities of the educational context than those who postulate from non-educational backgrounds. It could be argued that the starting points of organisational and management theorists with industrial backgrounds lack the contextual understandings which this study has attempted to illustrate.

Such work might also examine the feasibility of developing a blue-print for educational management in schools. Not only is management an evolving concept as is seen in institutions other than schools, but schools evidently differ from other institutions. Thus, it is likely that management in schools also evolves, possibly, because they are different institutions, accountable to a number of disparate groups. The data indicated a high degree of compatibility between staff function and interaction which, if an organisation is understood to be represented by and through its staff, could signify a new focus for management theory. Thus, management research and possible models might investigate how compatibility in these terms is achieved as a guide for greater effectiveness.

Contextual analysis of management may offer additional insights about how managers effectively introduce change. Innovative approaches which link aims with performance, have identified apparently clear and logical steps towards change. However, this study suggests that management can be a pragmatic,

discontinuous and idiosyncratic activity which employs more verbal than written communication. It notes the influence of further professional and higher education courses upon middle-managers' thinking. Additional research could develop these findings.

The hierarchical context may merit further investigation as the study indicates that innovation can be encouraged in a hierarchical system where authority is diffused. How the headteacher perceives function and role may therefore be significant to new developments. Further study might examine whether a hierarchical structure is inevitable and necessary in comprehensive schools and if change might be effected without it.

Finally, an examination of how schools evaluate their work seems important. Whilst identification of the level of impact of innovation introduced into the schools was beyond the scope of this study, it does illustrate the advantages of school-based change in responding to internal and external influences locally. The identification of common elements in the middle-managers' approaches suggest a range of options for increasing school effectiveness. When related to the involvement of teachers, the effects upon pupil learning, the curricular context and delivery, it suggests a growing professional accountability. In addition, if such approaches encourage teachers themselves to appreciate the possibilities for increasing their professional competence and for developing their professional knowledge beyond their subject specialities, teachers can become their own theorists and, in consequence, develop relevant assessment and evaluation procedures. Given increasing demands from outside schools for accountability in education, further research might indicate the nature of the relationship between school-based curriculum development and expressions of accountability. As

central control of the curriculum and assessment seems to be increasing viz. the National Curriculum and the Education Reform Act (1988), this relationship may be significant.

Such a small study is not only replicable but also points towards numerous new areas for research. It has illustrated that the management of innovation can be an insightful and educative process. In this respect it resembles the process of research. The observation of this head of faculty provides a fitting conclusion to this study:

"The insights and experiences I'm describing to you would never have been possible if I'd never engaged in the process. The quality of my perceptions is higher."

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[The following text is extremely faint and illegible, appearing to be a list of references or a bibliography.]

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## Appendices

Appendix A

Appendix B

Appendix C

Appendix D

Appendix E

Appendix F

## Appendix A

### Methodology

A.1. Interview Schedule

A.2. Questionnaire

A.3. Letter to course applicants

A.4. Course outline

A.5. Preface to handbook for academic middle-managers

Appendix A  
Methodology

## A.1. Interview Schedule

### A. Involvement in innovation

1. How did you become involved?
2. What was the source of its development?
3. What was your perception of that source?
4. Why was it introduced?
5. What positive reasons did you see?
6. What disadvantages, if any, did you anticipate?

### B. Introduction to your staff

7. How did you introduce the innovation?
8. What was the development process for it?
9. What were your needs, if any?
10. What training did you employ, if any?
11. Were your needs fulfilled?

### C. Acceptance

12. How did your staff respond
  - a) initially?
  - b) over time?
13. What were the expectations of your staff? and why?
14. What were your own expectations?
15. Have you made any discoveries?
16. Is there anything you would have done differently?

### D. Implementation

17. Do you think the innovation was successful?
18. How do you evaluate its success?
19. Can you describe why/why not it was successful?

### E. Whole school perspective

20. Did you expect senior staff to be involved or interested?
21. What is your own view of the value of innovation?
22. What do you think are the qualities of an innovator in schools?

A.2. Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to gather information about you and your school anonymously. Your responses will augment Ph.D. interview data, collected within different and unidentified authorities, on the views of middle managers, ie, Heads of Year and Department, of change in secondary schools.

Some questions on this page require only ticks in one or more boxes; others requiring words or numbers as answers are indicated by ..... Thank you very much for assisting in this research.

- 1. Are you a) already a middle manager?
- b) appointed but not yet in a new promotion post?
- c) seeking promotion?

2. In which type of school do you/will you work? Please tick more than one box:

- comprehensive
- 11-16
- 11-18
- rural
- urban

other? please specify.....  
group size.....

3. which scale are you/will you be on?.....

4. Please give details about your present/future department:  
teaching subject.....  
total number of teaching staff in department.....  
number of non-specialist teachers.....  
number of part-time staff.....  
other staff? .....

5. For how many years have you taught?.....

- 6. Are you a) under 39 years of age?
- b) over 39 years of age?

7. which is your specialist teaching subject? .....

8. What are your reasons for participating in this course?...  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

The following questions are asked on the assumption that you anticipate making changes in the near future in your present or new post. Please respond as fully as you can with this assumption in mind. Use a continuation sheet if you wish. Thank you!

- 1. What change(s) do you want to make?.....  
.....
- 2. From what sources do you get your ideas?.....  
.....
- 3. Why do you want to make change(s)?.....  
.....
- 4. What might be the disadvantages of carrying out such change(s)?  
.....

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- 5. How do you anticipate implementing your ideas?.....  
.....
- 6. Do you foresee any constraints upon implementation? Yes  No   
If yes, please specify.....  
.....
- 7. Is your senior staff likely to be involved in the process?  
Yes  No  If yes, please describe how.....  
.....
- 8. Will you be able to judge how successful your change(s) has been? Yes  No  If yes, please say how.....  
.....

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- 9. Please list some of the changes either large or small which you have taken part in during your teaching career.....  
.....
- 10. What do you believe are the special qualities, if any, that an innovator must have?.....  
.....
- 11. How important is it, in your opinion, that senior staff should have experience of introducing change?  
a) very   
b) fairly   
c) not at all
- 12. How do you think schools benefit from innovation?.....  
.....

May 1986



### A.3. Letter to Course Applicants

/PP

22nd April, 1986

Dear Member,

Re: Middle Management INSET Course 1986

Thank you for your application, which has been accepted, for the above INSET Course. In preparation for the course will you complete the attached "Personal Statement" sheet and send it to . . . by Friday, 9th May 1986 (this will also serve as your acceptance slip).

This information is requested by . . . to enable him to prepare certain aspects of the course to the individual needs of course members, and the composition of working groups.

Please inform your Headmaster of your acceptance, and may I remind you that it is essential that you attend the whole course. If circumstances have changed and you are unable to take up the place offered, please let me know as there is a "waiting list".

Also enclosed is a questionnaire from a practising teacher who is doing research into aspects of middle-management. It would be greatly appreciated if this could be completed and handed to the researcher on your arrival on the Friday. However, it is a "voluntary activity" and is not part of our course.

The programme for the Introductory Day, 23rd May:

9.00 a.m.	Arrivals - coffee
9.15 a.m.	Introductions
9.45 a.m.	Introduction to Course
10.00 a.m.	"The Concept of Management in Education" - Lecture
11.00 a.m.	Coffee
11.30 a.m.	First Workshop: "Styles in Management"
12.45 p.m.	Lunch (provided)
2.00 p.m.	Second Workshop: "Personal Strengths and Weaknesses"
3.15 p.m.	Tea
3.30 p.m.	Third Workshop: "Management of Time"
4.15 - 4.30	Review

I look forward to meeting you next month.

Yours sincerely,

Course Organiser

### A.4. Course Outline

#### Middle Management for Secondary Teachers

May - November 1986

1. Title: "MIDDLE MANAGEMENT" based on the needs of Secondary School teachers who carry special responsibility over and above their actual teaching commitments.
2. Course Director:  
Course Co-ordinators:

3. Course Aims: To develop Middle Management skills by:-
- (a) formulating individual objectives and strategies for course members
  - (b) widening the experience of educational practice of course members by implementing individual programmes in their schools
  - (c) following up implementation of objectives in schools with monitoring and evaluation by the participants both as individuals and as members of a group
  - (d) considering how Middle Management skills developed may be effectively used in the course members' schools.
4. Location of Meetings:
5. Duration: May - November 1986
6. Pattern of Meetings:
- (a) preparation work
  - (b) 1 introductory day at - 23rd May 1986
  - (c) 3 full days at - 23rd - 25th June 1986  
(residential)
  - (d) 6 'local' sessions (evening) - September/November 1986
  - (e) 1 separate full day at - 22nd November 1986
7. Course Content:
- A. Advance preparation  
Each course member will be asked to write a short personal statement giving details of previous background and experience, present job and its context, and major management needs or interests.
  - B. Introductory Day at \_\_\_\_\_, Friday 23rd May 1986
    - (a) Personal introductions
    - (b) Lecture "Concept of Management".
    - (c) Individual and group work on Management.
  - C. Three Day Residential Course, Monday - Wednesday, 23rd-25th June 1986
    - Day 1 Key lecture: The Performance of the Department  
Discussion  
Individual and group work on Departmental Evaluation
    - Day 2 Key Lecture: The Improvement of Teaching  
Individual and group work on objectives and the cycle of improvement
    - Day 3 Key Lecture: People and Performance  
Individual and group work on motivation and staff development  
Preparations for area group work.
  - D. 6 Evening sessions of approximately two hour duration at local schools September - November 1986
    1. Monitoring of progress through group discussion  
Guidance and attendance by the director and/or tutor consultants
    2. Case studies to be presented for discussion/visiting speakers
  - E. Final One Day Conference, Friday 23rd November 1986 to include:-
    1. Report back from groups
    2. Discussion
    3. Key lecture: "Management in the next Decade"
    4. Course Objective 3(d) .... "considering how middle management skills developed may be effectively used in the course members' schools".
- March 1986

A.5. Preface to a handbook of guidance for heads of departments and heads of faculties, issued by one authority in which the majority of the research interviews were conducted.

TO: THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT  
FROM: THE HEADTEACHER

I hope that this booklet will be of value to you and help you to fulfil your very important role in the school's team to the best of your ability and for the maximum benefit of our pupils.

I trust that you will read this document as a 'guide to good practice' using the ideas within the booklet in accord with the organisation and policy of this school. If you have doubts about the relevance of any part of the booklet please discuss it with me. The supplement indicates the support which is available to you and your colleagues from the Advisers.

- 1 I delegate responsibilities to you. You are therefore responsible and accountable to me - in some cases via other senior staff.
- 2 It is your responsibility to enable and encourage each child to benefit fully from the work and expertise of the teachers in your department.
- 3 You are a leader: leadership must be given.
- 4 Good standards are your responsibility.
- 5 You are the subject expert in your school. I rely on you for expert advice.
- 6 You should ensure that you and the teachers in your department contribute fully to the extra-curricula activities of the whole school.
- 7 You should never be satisfied with your department until it is highly efficient, harmonious and effective - and possibly not even then!
- 8 You should be aware of the objectives for the school and of likely changes.
- 9 You should foster and encourage good relationships within the school community.
- 10 You have an important role in the management of the school. Having played an active part in the framing of school policy you must then support it fully.
- 11 From time to time you should assess your work as a Head of Department. I hope that this document will help you.

## Appendix B

### Tables

1. [Faint text]
2. [Faint text]
3. [Faint text]
4. [Faint text]
5. [Faint text]
6. [Faint text]
7. [Faint text]
8. [Faint text]
9. [Faint text]
10. [Faint text]
11. [Faint text]
12. [Faint text]
13. [Faint text]
14. [Faint text]
15. [Faint text]
16. [Faint text]
17. [Faint text]
18. [Faint text]

## Index

1. Innovations introduced by interview sample.
2. Reasons for course attendance: questionnaire sample.
3. Career information: interview sample.
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5. Identification of innovations after Morant (1981).
6. Reasons for introducing change.
7. Sources of ideas for change.
8. Sources of continuing influence upon thinking.
9. Categories of factors influencing strategies.
10. Classification of strategies for change.
11. Perceived needs for successful implementation.
12. Expectations of senior staff.
13. Categorisation by degree of head's involvement.
14. Management tasks compared.
15. Descriptors of middle-management.
16. Perceptions of the benefits of innovation.
17. Criteria for evaluating success.
18. Relationship between estimated benefits and needs.

Table 1

Innovations introduced by interview sample.

Computer network

Design technology, lower school

Fabrics technology, option 13+

First year tutorial curriculum

First year Science

German as a second language, option 12+

Integrated science, upper school

Language across the curriculum

Mixed ability teaching, lower school

Personal and social education, upper school

Social studies, lower school

Special needs unit extension

Table 2

Reasons given for course attendance by questionnaire sample and related to current career information.

Reasons given/frequency	Promotion category		Age		Current Scale point (1986)				
	A	B	-39	+39	1	2	3	4	DH
	promotion	6	2	6	-	1	1	4	-
to acquire knowledge	6	-	5	1	-	1	5	-	-
to improve skills	5	-	5	-	-	-	4	1	-
for personal development	2	1	2	1	1	2	-	-	-
to exchange experience	1	1	2	-	-	1	1	-	-
recommended by									
1. colleagues	2	-	2	-	-	1	1	-	-
2. professional tutor	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
in new role as trainer	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-
instructed to attend	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-

A = already a middle-manager

B = seeking promotion

This table indicates that staff seeking promotion recognise a need for further skills and knowledge.

Table 3

Career information: interview sample of 12  
common characteristics of respondents

Schools:	
11-18 comprehensive, urban	12
Position:	
Head of faculty	7
Head of department	3
Head of year	2
Scale point:	
Deputy head	1
4	9
3	2
other	-
Age:	
-39	7
+39	5
Number of staff in team:	
0 - 5	4
6 - 10	4
11 - 15	4
ancillary	5
Number of years teaching:	
5	-
5 - 10	5
10 - 15	4
15+	3
taken career breaks	2





Table 5

Identification of the twelve innovations discussed by the interview sample according to definitions by Morant (1981), Chapter III:

Innovation: intentional change to both structure and function, concerned with intention, process and achievement.

Computer network

Language across the curriculum

Integrated science

Social studies

Mixed ability teaching

Design technology CDT

Fabrics technology

German

Renovation: an adjustment to current practice

First year tutorial curriculum

Personal and social education

Special needs unit extension

First year science

Table 6

Categorisation and frequency of middle-managers' responses regarding their perceived reasons for introducing change.

Interviews (12) (19) Questionnaires  
Reasons for introducing change

A. relating to education

A.1. School development

need	8	5 progress
relevance	8	
other change occurring	5	

A.2. Curriculum

integration	4	4 improve syllabus
subject)identity	4	1 safeguard subject
}status	2	1 exam failure
}'problems'	2	
option system	2	

A.3. Pupil Learning

to attract pupils	6	5 for pupil success
improve learning	5	3 for pupil need
stereotyping	2	2 indiscipline
gender	2	1 more practicals

B. Relating to Staff

improve teaching	5	3 better teaching
attractive to staff	4	3 team development
alter narrow attitudes	3	
develop team	3	

C. Other

explore own ideas	5	2 commitment
headteacher effect	5	1 headteacher effect
newly appointed	3	
personal challenge	2	
previous middle-manager	1	

Table 7

Sources of ideas for innovating middle-managers, both samples, ranked according to interview response frequency.

	<u>Interviews</u>	<u>Questionnaires</u>
sources/number of responses	12	19
own philosophy	6	9
courses	6	2
other schools	6	3
experience of innovation	5	6
"reading"	5	4
previous job	4	-
DES courses	4	1
colleagues	4	11
professional organisations	4	1
"experience"	4	3
degree (second)	3	-
experts	3	4
advisers	2	-
published materials	2	-
subject committees	2	-
school reviews	1	-
journals	-	7

Whilst lack of specificity may cause overlap between categories, it seems evident that practical experience, of self and others, is a significant source of ideas, especially among the questionnaire respondents.

Table 8

Sources of continuing influence upon middle-managers' thinking.

<u>Sources</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>	
	<u>Interviews</u>	<u>Questionnaires</u>
	12	19
a. professional education		
courses	1	2
educational reading	2	1
DES courses	3	3
professional organisations	3	3
higher education	4	
b. practical experience and contact		
other schools' practice	1	5
experience of innovation	2	
own teaching experience	3	3
previous job	4	
colleagues and other teachers	5	1
advisers	6	4
experts	7	
working parties	7	
published resources	7	
curriculum review	7	2

Table 9

Four categories of factors influencing the strategies adopted for introducing innovation, ranked according to response frequency.

<u>Interviews</u>		<u>Questionnaires</u>
<u>Factors categorised</u>		
A. <u>Staff</u>		
staff attitudes	17	10 staff attitudes
resistance	9	9 persuasion
difficult relationships	2	4 co-operation needed
high staff workload	4	1 high staff workload
industrial action	3	4 high workload Head of Dept 2 need for training
B. <u>Curriculum</u>		
examinations	3	3 syllabii
pupil attitudes	1	3 pupil discipline
C. <u>Management</u>		
cost	3	11 finance
negative feedback	3	6 resourcing 4 time 4 timetable
D. <u>Others</u>		
school's reputation	5	2 failure?
parental attitudes	3	1 senior staff opposition
senior staff view	1	

Compare these categories with those in Table 6.

Table 10

Classification of strategies interviewees employed to introduce change.

Strategies classified	Number of interviewees
<b>1. Consultation</b>	
informal) individual	7
) group	7
formal: team	6
<b>2. Investigation</b>	
review of) pupils	1
) staff	2
) curriculum	3
) faculty	1
research by working party	
trial	4
papers	4
questionnaire	1
<b>3. Training</b>	
inservice) in school	10
) out of school	2
) by advisers	3
) by external agent	2
resourcing by) preparation	7
) investigation	5
) staffing	4

Table 11

Middle-managers' perceptions of their needs for implementation of innovation, ranked according to frequency. Interview data only.

<u>Perceived needs</u>	<u>Number of responses</u>
training	14
time	8
resources	6
working together	4
increase in capitation	4
resource preparation	3
support	3
example	3
facilities	3
headteacher's patronage	2
self confidence	1
none!	1
Specific training needs deemed essential	10
in/external trainer	13
to change attitudes	9
insufficient opportunity	7
to prepare resources	4
to develop class skills	4
to prepare modules	2
to evaluate	2



Table 12

Categorisation of middle-managers' expectations of senior staff involvement in innovation and the reasons for those expectations.

	<u>Number of Responses in</u>	
	Interviews Questionnaires	
Descriptions of expectations		
of senior staff:		
to be helpful	6	
to be involved		11
to not interfere	4	
to not be involved		1
Categories of their reasons		
1. <u>Personal</u>		
need help	8	7
assume help available	3	
expect help	6	
need head's opinion	4	1
2. <u>View of headteacher as</u>		
committed to innovation	7	
policy maker	6	
staffing policy, in particular	4	
having access to community	4	
requiring inservice	4	
a significant figure	2	
3. <u>View of senior staff as</u>		
supporting role	9	4
responsibility in job	7	1
providing financial help	7	2
liaison on curriculum/timetable	6	1

Compare with Table 13 on headteacher involvement

Table 13

Categorisation of innovations, interview data only, according to degree of headteacher involvement.

a) direct headteacher initiative and action:

expansion of special needs unit

German as second language option 12+

b) direct and indirect headteacher initiative through decisions about staff:

Integrated Science

mixed ability teaching

Integrated Humanities

first year Science

c) middle-management initiatives with tacit headteacher support:

computer network

language across the curriculum

Personal and Social Education

d) apparently independent middle-management initiatives:

Design Technology

Fabrics Technology

first year tutorial curriculum



Table 15

## Descriptors of middle-managers:

## A classification of responses

Skill/Ability	Int(12)	Qu(19)	Traits/Qualities
can convince others	11	6	
execute ideas	9		
communicates well	6	3	
overview	5	2	
clarity of objectives	5		
innovation skills	4		
diplomacy	4	1	
can follow through	3	3	
can train	2		
	9	4	commitment
	7		relish innovation
	7		imaginative thinker
	6	1	leadership
	4		hard work
	4	1	good example
	4		values change
	4		risk taker
	4		problem solver
	4	3	patience
	3		dynamic
	3		self critical
	3	3	persistent
	2		vision
	2		doesn't dally
	2		courageous
	2		cautious
	2		sense of humour
	1		willing to learn

It is evident that traits are noted more frequently than skills, which suggests personality is a significant factor in effective management.

Table 16

Middle-managers' perceptions from both samples of how schools benefit from innovation , ranked according to response frequency,

<u>Interviewees' responses</u>		<u>Questionnaire responses</u>
Benefits		
A. <u>for Staff</u>		
good for teachers	10	6 motivates teachers
staff job satisfaction	7	4 develops staff
staff gain confidence	5	3 increases expertise
		2 improves teaching
develops own skills	3	
good for own career	3	1 substitute for promotion
form of appraisal	1	
B. <u>for School</u>		
good for pupils	10	5 motivates pupils
better "product"	10	4 up to date
relevant education	7	4 relevant education
increases pupil success	5	
develops curriculum	3	
		2 good school publicity
		2 increases money flow
cross-curricular work	1	1 new ideas
		1 more efficient

Compare these results with the perceived reasons for change, Table 6, and the factors influencing strategies, Table 9.

Table 17

Categorisation of seemingly implicit criteria for evaluating the success of innovation, interview data only.

Evaluation of pupil learning

changed ) concepts	14
) perceptions	10
increased engagement	7
options uptake	3
results and testing	4
pupil survey	1

Evaluation of teachers' development

changed perceptions	9
acceptance	7
self-critical	7
job satisfaction	7
greater involvement	6
co-operative teaching	5
staff confidence	4
autonomy protected	3

Middle-managers' personal progress

good preparation	4
personal credibility	3
career prospects	3
own management skills	3
staff appointments	2
personal conviction	2

Other Criteria

parents' concern	6
parents' acceptance	2
Headteacher's support	6
industrial interest	3
HMI report on inspection	1

Table 18

To illustrate the relationship between perceptions of innovation as beneficial to schools in specific areas and the areas initially identified as in need of change.

Questionnaire categoriesInterview categories

## \* Value of innovation

self  
teaching and learning  
pupils  
teachers

self  
learning  
teachers  
school

## \* Areas of benefit

curriculum  
methods  
staff  
resourcing

pedagogy  
pupil learning  
teacher activities  
staff development

## \* Areas needing change

curriculum  
methods  
staff

curriculum  
staff  
school

Appendix C

**Transcriptions of Three Interviews**



Index of transcriptions

Interview A: Head of Creative Arts Faculty

Interview B: Personal and Social education Co-ordinator -  
Deputy Head

Interview C: Head of Science Faculty

## Interview A

The first part of the interview was a general discussion about the project and the role of the interviewee. The interviewee mentioned that they had been involved in the project for a long time and had seen it develop from a small idea to a large-scale operation. They also mentioned that they had worked with many different people and had learned a lot from them. The interviewee then discussed the challenges they had faced during the project and how they had overcome them. They mentioned that they had had to deal with a lot of uncertainty and had had to make many decisions on their own. They also mentioned that they had had to work long hours and had had to sacrifice a lot of time and energy. The interviewee then discussed the results of the project and how they felt about the outcome. They mentioned that they were proud of what they had accomplished and that they felt that the project had been a success. They also mentioned that they had learned a lot from the experience and that they would be happy to share their knowledge with others.

The second part of the interview was a more detailed discussion about the specific tasks and responsibilities of the interviewee. The interviewee mentioned that they had been responsible for a lot of different things, including planning, organizing, and implementing the project. They also mentioned that they had had to work with a lot of different people and had had to coordinate a lot of different activities. The interviewee then discussed the specific challenges they had faced during the project and how they had overcome them. They mentioned that they had had to deal with a lot of uncertainty and had had to make many decisions on their own. They also mentioned that they had had to work long hours and had had to sacrifice a lot of time and energy. The interviewee then discussed the results of the project and how they felt about the outcome. They mentioned that they were proud of what they had accomplished and that they felt that the project had been a success. They also mentioned that they had learned a lot from the experience and that they would be happy to share their knowledge with others.

## Interview A

In this interview the head of faculty describes the introduction of a new Design Technology course in years one, two and three. The discussion illustrates the implementation process within one department which was part of a large, multi-disciplinary faculty, and within a particular context. The process was developed by the head of faculty.

The interviewee had been head of the Creative Arts faculty for approximately nine years, had graduated over fifteen years in the same school from his first post as woodwork teacher. Creative Arts encompassed craft, design, technology; painting, pottery and art; music; home economics; parentcraft and fabrics. It employed over sixteen full-time staff within five departments each managed by a head of department, and supported by three technicians. At the time of the interview, the interviewee was acting as deputy head in the same school.

Qu: How did you become involved in this innovation?

R: I went on a DES course seven to eight years ago and looked at Graphics as a foundation course and gradually permeated that through the department.

Qu: How did you do that?

R: Initially, doing the graphics altered my interest and opened up the possibilities of design work because it's virtually a design-based course. The design-base emphasis is probably one of the weaker things in CDT. People have always been good at practical things but not so good at designing things and, in addition, it was a very practical course where you sat down at a drawing board and did the actual things that people would find difficult ... added to which, I had J. in the department who was Art-trained and obviously would relate easily to that type of work; and so it was easy to bring it back into school and to feed back into the system.

Qu: From which aspect did you pick it up?

R: I picked it up from the point of view that we needed to go rather more design-based than we were. I was very lucky at that stage, because I was very much in touch with what was happening nationally in southern area and locally, and so I could see what trends there were. If you don't keep up with trends, you get left behind. So it was very important that we went in the right direction.

Qu: Can you explain how your external involvement allowed you to know what the new trends were going to be?

R: I served for six years on the Subject Committee of the Schools Council for Craft, Design and Technology, and obviously, the curriculum development projects that came through there, would be seen out in schools in 5 - 10 years because it takes that time to put them through. So, what the emphasis was on the projects coming through led me to get my trends quite clearly established. So, really, I was getting forewarning or pre-knowledge before other people.

Qu: Why did you feel it was important not to get left behind?

R: Because I've always strived to keep my department and my faculty up to date, to maintain the very good traditions and the

skills-based approach we need to have, to build upon that but to keep a framework of common-sense and work that staff can associate with, so that they have some sense of security.

Qu: Do you feel any pressures outside the integrity of your subject not to be left behind?

R: No, it's always been my thing to try and keep in touch with what was good practice, is current practice and was likely to be future practice. That way you maintain a fairly lively and outward-looking unit.

Qu: What was the relationship between developing from the Graphics course to setting up the foundation course?

R: It was, first of all, labelled a foundation course - the Graphics course - but what it did do was alert me because there are different facets to this course with about six different people working with over one hundred teachers in the same area. We did displays of work we'd done, following up what we'd done on the course about six months later, so you could actually go back and look at what you'd achieved. It was quite impressive. I'd done some of that work in school and that had rubbed off: people had been conscious of that. Also I'd run courses in the County because we formed a CDT foundation course which resourced and gave inservice training in the County. We did have an impact - not just in this school but across the County.

Qu: What was your view of the D.E.S. course?

R: I was very lucky because I got a tutor who was "brilliant" and I could really relate to. He had a way of putting art work into a practical context and that was what I needed - I'm a very practical person, not particularly artistic but I can understand how you do things if you give me the right framework and the right rules. That's what he gave me. He gave me some inspiration and lots of ideas that you can go away and work with.

Qu: How did you bring it back into school?

R: We formed the support group of people who went on the course - there were about half a dozen from this authority we agreed to meet every so often to compare notes on how we got on. Obviously you've got to do some work with the kids and that gave me the impetus. When you're doing that in a school, other people see what's going on and, if they like it I think it's good, they start taking an interest and it starts going through. At that stage, we were doing inservice work around the County which obviously rubbed off - doing kits, charts and displays - and people were getting interested - not ramming it down their throats but commenting. I'd like to have a go. There was a willingness to take part. At that stage, J. started to get into it - could see what was happening and then moved on to work with me on that and she did the same course a year or so later and, therefore, was in tune with what I was doing. That rubbed off onto A. and between them, they produced quite a lot of resources material. That led onto J. going for a year to B. and was able to develop a lot of resources and, now, that's come back into school and we're building on it.

Qu: Was your role of head of faculty at all significant?

R: It was incidental because we didn't have a very cohesive pattern in the lower school - we were very much woodwork, metalwork

and plastics, and we needed a much more cohesive approach, and that was the vehicle we could actually associate with. People are quite glad to be able to work on design side and not lose a skills-based approach. It was appealing to them and they knew they would be going CDT and it was a realistic and attractive package. People could understand it and be successful. Folder work went up leaps and bounds.

Qu: At what stage did you officially change to foundation?

R: We did a syllabus revision about two years ago when we identified this design-based foundation course went on.

Qu: How did staff respond to doing a syllabus revision?

R: They always respond quite well to that. I am very lucky in having fairly open-minded people - they're not too closed in and won't look at new things. That was the second major syllabus revision we'd done through. It was effective.

Qu: How much guidance did you offer?

R: We tested it out. If you test out and it seems to work, you can afford to go ahead and work with it. It was quite a tightly-structured design-based foundation course that we were instituting and people were not given a great deal of flexibility in the approach they took but they were given flexibility in what they did in that course and so it was process rather than what they were making. So, you had the individuality; the creativity that was required but you had covered the processes that you wanted. It was very important to maintain classroom independence - it's my philosophy for a student or a teacher - they must feel something is their own. If they don't have the ability to work on their own and create something, then it's boring and it's dead.

Qu: What problems did you anticipate?

R: It depends on your staff: some are open-minded, some will have to be pressed and cajoled and you've got to be bloody-minded with them. We've got one person who needs to be pushed and, if you do, you get a reasonable result, but you have to do the pushing.

Qu: Why do you get a "reasonable result"?

R: Because you're not prepared to take second best. If you employ people, they'll work for you; they like to be part of something successful and they want to be part of that success, so, if everyone else is doing it, I better do it. You work on that basis. If you have to get to the nasty stage which is the last stage I want to, they're doing it for the wrong reason.

Qu: Why do people want to be part of something?

R: Because it's exciting; it's magical; it's got charisma. Kids like doing it and so, the motivation is second to none.

Qu: What was the initial response of your staff?

R: I've never had a problem in that respect in CDT - in any of my departments. They get insecure in moving away from very skills-based work - that was the major problem but we'd already done that in the previous revision. We'd identified process and were able to build on that, as it wasn't really a threatening situation.

Qu: Is the nature of the subject relevant there?

R: You're quite used to working together in workshops. We have an open situation where workshops are linked, so you're driving in and out to get equipment, etc., so you know roughly what's going on, what the atmosphere's like, what's being done and although it's a bloody nuisance in some ways, it's very good because people can see what's going on.

Qu: Was this attitude sustained as the innovation progressed?

R: Yes. The work I'm seeing now is excellent. Even though, there's teacher action, I think it's settled, going quite well and people are doing the right sort of work. I'm quite satisfied with it.

Qu: What did your staff need and want?

R: Generally, speaking, in my area staff need the resources to do the job - they've got the ideas, the ability. They get a lot of inspiration from J. because she resources things well. It's the resourcing that's very important. There are lots of resource sheets - kids like working with them; they like doing their folder work.

Qu: What are resources?

R: Materials and worksheets. It's having the right stuff, at the right time, in the right place and, if people feel they've got someone enabling them to do the job, it's okay. There's a lot of pre-preparation - last summer term, we were making stuff for this year non-stop and so preparation has been good. J. is the human dynamo and there's always a dynamic element in any department; she gets a lot of things done and is behind everybody. A. is the technical expert and D. has the odd, bright idea and between them they spark off each other. B. is quite good on electronics and we recently introduced technology into the work, so, if you use his expertise, it all gets together.

Qu: Who has central responsibility?

R: A. has been spearheading. J. got a scale 2 for lower school CDT which came out of that work.

Qu: What's your brief as head of faculty with someone running a department?

R: I leave my department heads to do their job and I don't bother them until something goes wrong. I fight hard for them on certain issues, like reports, or money or whatever needs doing, that I've got an overview of. I have to hold the balance of power between four equally able scale 3s. So, really, I'm the co-ordinator.

Qu: Does that suit your staff?

R: No, they would want more involvement. They would criticise me because I'm not as involved as I should be.

Qu: Why?

R: They want leadership. They need to feel somebody is taking an interest in what they're doing. They need to be autonomous in their own areas but they need me to see what's going on in those areas and that's the bit I don't do (acting deputy head at present). I've got split loyalties - what's more important? The school or the faculty. Very often the school has to come first. Before I was around much more and aware of what needs were, but the thing has grown up and

when a scale 3 HOD has done the job for a number of years, you don't need to be in there very much. So, whereas they might feel they need me more, they don't actually need me more. What they need is someone to approve of what they're doing. There is a different role as people become established.

Qu: Why do teachers need approval?

R: Everybody needs somebody's approval. Everyone needs to feel their work is valued and what they're doing is roughly the right sort of thing that they should be doing. What they have a terrific job to do, is to establish what their brief is and I've found it myself when I've changed roles - what is my brief? It's not always clearly specified and therefore I have a job to cope. Many teachers find that.

Qu: Do you think this is related to a hierarchical situation?

R: Somebody has to take leadership and go on and do things. We had a democratic school in the past and that was fine. It led to an immense amount of involvement but a very funny viewpoint from outside because you couldn't identify who was doing what and many people couldn't associate with that because it's not acceptable to many people.

Qu: How do you evaluate?

R: Recently, I haven't been out to see what's going on. I'm not as informed as I was when I would have known exactly what the standards and levels were. I'm not as familiar. I feel we're moving in the right direction and we're maintaining the impetus, even though teacher action has taken a snipe at the whole school. We are improving and our work will pay off.

Qu: How do you judge if an innovation is successful?

R: You judge by the numbers that come through into fourth and fifth year options and whether you keep the market share or not. Obviously, I want to see, and should be seeing, more girls coming through into traditional boys' subjects and more boys through the traditional girls' subjects. We've been very fortunate in that we've established basic courses that have had boys and girls throughout and have done for ten years and that's not been the practice in education generally. We did make that move and it's very acceptable: nobody thinks about it anymore. It's normal. But, we still don't move through enough girls into boys' subjects and girls into boys'. It's a sadness and I don't think it's because the actual opportunity isn't there. I think there's a terrific stereotyping on what boys and girls should do - it's parental to a very large extent because parents don't expect boys to do cookery as a job, generally. They don't expect that girls will do engineering. It's alien to the way they see things. They will have, if not a direct effect, an incidental effect on how kids respond.

Qu: Does the school reinforce stereotyping?

R: Well, certainly, if all your H.E. teachers are women and all your CDT teachers are men. That's why I'm so glad to have J. and that's partly why I've made sure she is effective. Girls do associate with her. They see her working machines and they think - she's only little and she can do it - so can I. I'm sure there's a knock-on effect.

Qu: Are there other factors to gauge success?

R: It's looking at the kids' work. Are they involved? Are they doing what they want to do? We've brought in working in pairs, making games, team work, which is fairly innovative, and has led to successful work and we're seeing a build-up. We know what the standard should be and it's improving.

Qu: Do you get feedback from the children?

R: Yes. In years one and two, very sound. We had a disastrous year with third year last year because we had a week on, week off system which was the worst thing that ever happened to us, and, now we've gone to a modular course in the third year. I think that's working. My feeling is we're doing a more compressed amount of work in modular time.

Qu: How did you know you had a problem?

R: The kids didn't know what they were doing. The staff didn't know what they were doing. Everybody was confused. If anybody introduced anything else into the timetable like a concert, it was four weeks before you saw those kids again and they really didn't know what they were doing then. If we'd been an action as well, I don't think we would have survived. It hit our options.

Qu: Do you get feedback from staff?

R: Teacher feedback is quite good inasmuch that people are reporting on how they've got on with each unit and feeding it on to the next person so that he knows what that group is like, so we're finding there's a carry over.

Qu: What is the value of innovation?

R: Keeping the school alive and, if you don't keep the school alive, it dies and that's essential to any child and any teacher. You've got to keep a live atmosphere - if you don't have that, you don't have a school.

Qu: What do you mean by a live atmosphere?

R: It's feeling that it's fresh, a feeling that it's interesting, a feeling that I want to be part of that and it's got to be fresh enough to be interesting for both teachers and children so that, when they know there's a model course in the third year and someone else is making a model car with an electric motor, they want to get there. They want to do it because it's exciting and interesting. I want to do it! It has a knock-on kids talk to each other. They do get a lot from talking to each other and looking forward to things. It's exciting, isn't it. It's like looking forward to options. If it's boring and got no incentive, it's awful.

Qu: How does this display itself?

R: I don't think we have any discipline problems and I wouldn't expect it in a workshop but that's having people that are fairly well-established, fairly mature in their approach in a very structured, safe atmosphere. It cannot be anything else.

Qu: Who creates that atmosphere?

R: The teacher does in their own room because the kids are coming into their own room. It is their own room, it is the situation they're operating. It is well-structured. It is well-organised. They know what the rules are. They know the safety code. They are



provided with an apron so that they have a working feel when they come in the door. They know where they get their equipment from, where it goes back to. There are expectations as they come in, that are built in and they continue to operate to those expectations if you set them right in the lower school. If the foundation is right they'll continue into the Upper School.

Qu: Has the team worked together for some time and is that relevant?

R: The newest one is about two and a half years. There's an optimum period of service in school for a teacher. I think they are reaching their optimum. It's to do with a time of build-up, a time of consolidation and a time of run-down. I think a period of five to six years is the build up optimum - then you start to run down unless you do something else or have something else to do.

Qu: What have you discovered?

R: That you mustn't build on and modify what people feel comfortable with. If you build steadily and reasonably progressively, you make progress. If you change all the ground rules, they've got nowhere to go, nothing to base it on and they've got no standards. What has been very good is that we've maintained our practical standards and the finish, design and written work is good and we have lost something but we've gained a lot. That's vitally important. You are always accountable to parents and your work goes home - it's one of the few subjects that is tangibly shown to everybody. If it's no good, it's taken home and shown. If it's very good, it's taken home and shown. It might be thrown away if it's rubbish, but that kid may be very pleased with that piece of work. So, if it isn't a true reflection of what parents think they can do, they're very disappointed with that and they'll say so. That reflects on the school and the department. I've discovered I haven't had many letters or complaints and that's very important to me. That would frighten me to death if people were saying this is not right! What are you doing with our kids for this amount of time? because we have a fairly good slice of time. To my estimation, we're fairly successful to the head we're reasonably successful and, probably because we do things around, we are seen to be successful in the community.

Qu: What was the response of the senior staff when you initiated this work?

R: At that stage the head was working in the faculty and, not being a specialist, that was difficult but he would have had a very good indication of what was being done. I'm sure that was instrumental in J. getting her Scale 2 because he actually saw what she did, how she resources him, how she kept it ticking over without making a big fuss but things operated because of her and I'm sure that had an effect. I also think he was quite perceptive in drifting through and picking up what the atmospheres were and so he'd have a pretty good idea of what was going on. I would sit down and tell him what was happening - I'd go in and say look so and so is doing well or X isn't pulling their weight this term - exactly what I felt was the position in the faculty.

Qu: Why did you do that?

R: a) because he needs to be updated and kept in touch and also I need to relay that information so that I need to pass on. I'm not

a person who holds everything to me - I might do it by accident but I quite like to pass on information because it's probably of use to someone else, not just to me.

Qu: Did you feel you had the support you wanted, if you needed it?

R: Yes - total support but not very often. What he did for me - which was the best thing he could have done for me - was to leave me to run my show. I thought he would come in and put his feet in it - everything I was doing because that was the way he spelt it out on the first day "I'm going to get a grip of this place and sort it out". He didn't do that and to his credit. I responded to him quicker than some people and consequently, we've got a very good working relationship because I think he realised what I could do and would do.

Qu: What qualities does an innovator need?

R: You've got to be very discriminating because you're bombarded with things you could do and you've got to be clever enough to identify the areas you really should be taking on board. It's very easy to get hooked on every bandwagon that's going and then you're in trouble. At one stage, we had a dichotomy of whether to introduce technology or Design Technology - we chose design technology because it bolted on to our foundation course better and we've now started to introduce through Fabric technology. We got the basis right. We did one thing correctly, got it going, established it and moved into the next bit. It's a build-up and a refinement.

Qu: How do you decide what's right now?

R: Gut reaction. It's part of my job to see what the trends are, to be the think tank; I had to be the person in touch, aware and in front of and to look at where we were going. I had to give the direction.

## Interview B

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## Interview B

This interview describes the introduction of a personal and social education course into the upper school core curriculum, years four and five. Until this change, the course had been offered to less academic pupils who studied a five options examination course in addition to Maths, English and R.E. The remainder, about one third of the cohort, followed six examination subjects in addition to the core. As a compulsory addition to the core, this innovation may be seen as a modification rather than a radical innovation. However, its inception required acceptance by a wide audience, that is, pupils, staff, parents and governors.

The discussion indicates circumstances for innovation different to interviews A and C, that is, pastoral work with a disparate group of teachers with no subject identity, and of an innovation which is overtly concerned with attitudinal change. The interviewee had joined the school in mid 1981 and initiated this process of acceptance in 1983. The course started in 1984. As deputy head her teaching responsibilities varied; her central responsibility was to co-ordinate the school's pastoral curriculum which was deemed to be progressive.

The interview took place during the term when the interviewee was on a part-time, one term, teacher-fellowship at a local college of higher education and absent from the school three days per week.

Qu: How did you get involved in the introduction of this course in this school?

R: I was involved from the beginning and I always thought it should be for everybody and, therefore, it was only a question of working at it from the time I arrived to get it pushed through. It wasn't part of my brief for my job. I just thought it was important and worked at it.

Qu: Why did you want it to be introduced for all?

R: Because I think it is something everyone ought to do; it's part of a basic core curriculum. It's my philosophy of what education is about - that part of it should include this, and so it's a case of persuading everyone else to go along with you.

Qu: Had you had experience of PSE as a core curriculum ?

R: Yes, and that influenced my view. It fits in with all the other things that I think is right about education and what I thought ought to be compulsory for children, what they ought to have rather than what they just want.

Qu: Would you like to expand?

R: As long as all these matters are part of the curriculum, it doesn't matter where or how it's done, well, a reservation on how it's done. It's not an academic subject as such - it shouldn't be treated as such - it should be approached in a different way, using different methods. It should happen in every school across the board for every child. It's all part of a philosophy of a pastoral curriculum which is decided what is important for every child before they leave school in the total package and then it should be delegated to various areas of school to be done, be it English, Maths, Geography, Social studies.

Qu: How has your philosophy of a pastoral curriculum developed?

R: Through experience, talking with other people, getting involved in things outside my own school, and seeing people in other schools, reading - I could say all the usual things but not everybody bothers to do these things.

Qu: What do you consider to be "the usual things"?

R: All this doing things outside one's own school and linking with other schools and meeting people who are thinking along the same lines and discussing. There's been a very good forum that I've been involved with in NAPCE (the National Association for Pastoral Care in Education), which is the nitty gritty of the whole basic discussion.

Qu: How did you first get involved with NAPCE?

R: My predecessor was a founder member - a little group of people, mainly people in further education and higher education - but obviously linked with people in schools as well as working with theory and more and more becoming a demand from schools that we ought to look more seriously at this whole area of the curriculum and would it help if we got together to talk about it together and became one body instead of individual lights in the darkness, as it were. And so it proved because membership keeps up and people do get enormous support for the work they're doing.

Qu: What things did you have in mind for working outside schools?

R: I got involved in health education which I consider a component of the pastoral curriculum. Home Economics which is my original subject, already dabbles in these areas, and therefore the interests were already there. The co-ordinating job really stemmed from Health Education and particularly home economic programmes which gives you the idea of actually finding out what is happening in your school across the board for Health Education which I taught before - as a review and drawing up the results in such a pattern that everyone can see what you've been doing and where Health Education is appearing across the whole curriculum. That was a very successful exercise because it was clear very quickly where the gaps are, where the overlap is, and obviously what to pick if anything.

Qu: Could you apply this review process here when you joined staff?

R: Yes - I've done a review of PSE - two or three years ago.

Qu: How did you decide to go about setting up a core course?

R: It grew - none of these things happen overnight - but all the things like asking the children what they thought they wanted - that has gone on all the time, mainly in an informal way at the end of a series of lessons or at the end of the year. I asked groups of fourth years to write down things they liked about the course, things they disliked, anything they thought should be in it but wasn't and reflecting with members of staff who'd been involved, what they thought about it - it's quite interesting that the members of staff who've been involved and are successful are for it and one or two who've been involved partly through time-table constraints rather than because they wanted to be - it's a self-fulfilling prophecy - "I don't think this is a good idea, I don't want to do it so, therefore; it's not going to work" - so, therefore it doesn't.

Qu: Is it possible to overcome that problem?

R: With some people, not at all and with some people, it's not worth trying and you've got to go round it. I think you have to accept that not everyone is going to be on the same wave-length and work the same way and therefore you've got to use other strategies and hope you don't have to use them (those teachers) or give them something different to do, if you really have to use them, by avoiding having them time-tabled for PSE but that's a long-term strategy. One or two I suspected thought it would be a disaster and it was, and, therefore, made more reservations that it shouldn't happen again. I think also without a doubt it wouldn't happen with just me working at it on my own. All these things, first of all need the support of the Head because he could obviously put a block on it very easily if he didn't want this to happen. The time-tablet, as well, can throw it totally away by giving you all the wrong people, hopeless times like end of day on a Friday which would really ruin the whole ethos of it.

Qu: How did you acquire the head's support?

R: I don't think I needed to as it happened because he already felt it was a good thing; so it wasn't as though I was having to totally change an opinion. He already supported this - he had also taught in schools where it had been a cross-curricular thing - totally across all the abilities. Then, really, the next way to influence staff was to actually look at the proportions of children who did any better. Was it worthwhile for the children to do six options? and in fact it proved that it wasn't. I suppose there was this thing that the one real sufferer might be the Science Department because they... we already had a policy that children shouldn't do three sciences but this made it almost impossible to do three sciences and obviously this raises the question of whether this is a good thing or a bad thing. As it happened the majority of the senior staff have thought it wasn't a necessary thing - there were ways round that as well. If you need a third science as well, it can be done. Therefore, it wasn't, in our view a true stumbling block although lots of people thought it was.

Qu: What other aspects needed consideration?

R: Basic things like which room you're in makes an enormous difference, partly because if you're going to do group work you might need to move the furniture and obviously some rooms are easier and more adaptable than others. It puts constraints on people: if you're going to do group work and they're next to a very quiet class or they're in a room where there's a partition and noise is likely to go through and you'll disturb other people and people feel they don't want to do that. Then, in this school, there's a lot of that type of work anyway, and it all liaises with the pastoral work which has already been going for six years anyway - so that whole idea that people should do things where people move around in classes, isn't a totally strange one in this school. So, the whole thing was there already; it just needed a boost and pulling together, a bit more structure than it already had and encouragement.

Qu: What did you see as the disadvantage?

R: I find that very hard because mainly the only disadvantage which seemed to have any weight was the business about not so many exam options being taken and, really, the facts proved it wasn't a problem - that they weren't doing any better - and, if they were

taking eleven exams, on the whole they were getting worse overall results. If they took nine or ten, they were more likely to get better actual grades in the subjects they took which was very important because it's the grade that actually counts in the end and, as long as you've got five or six, it's okay really. There are all the worries about noise, moving furniture, distrusting other people. Some people had a real concern about the way of working and the whole philosophy would be that it shouldn't be a lot of written work; it shouldn't have an exam at the end; it was the place for talking out feelings and attitudes; and developing some skills rather than just the skills of reading, writing and regurgitating which we do such a lot of when it comes down to it. Many people are threatened by the mere fact that you sit down with a group and sit on the same level and talk to children and some people find that very hard to cope with. Again, although we've had a lot of new staff who haven't had the benefit of much training, having done a lot of work on tutorial work and inservice, a lot of people had already started to move towards that sort of approach to children, at least in tutorial work if not in their own lessons. There has been a distinct change in the pattern of classrooms, etc. and that must say something. There isn't the didactic teaching going on as it was. There is still a lot going on but there is more group work and more discovery of sorts and more attention to do that sort of thing, so that the teacher can concentrate on the child who needs help rather than just focussing on the whole amorphous mass.

Qu: Has your role as deputy head assisted you?

R: It's probably assisted and detracted in that... I suppose with the best will in the world, some people will do what I ask just because it's me or my role and you can't get away from that. However much you like to think it didn't happen, I'm sure it must do. On the other hand, I think some people would say "No" on principle because it was the deputy head asking - to be perverse. Some you win some you loose. In the end, you've to talk to people individually to either let them express their fears or concerns about it and give them an answer or accept that.

Qu: How did you set about implementation of the core course?

R: Partly based on what children wanted - thought - having a lot of them - more than 2/3rds were already doing it - so we already had a fairly structured course anyway and really, almost nothing came up which we hadn't already thought of - which was interesting - staff were all asked for anything they thought ought to be put in. There was a governors' meeting where it was all explained to them - the pros and the cons.

Qu: Why was it necessary to do that?

R: Good question! I think we went over the top a bit frankly. I know of other schools where this has all just been done and any questions answered afterwards and, frankly, by the end of it, I wished we'd just done that! I think the Head was very concerned that it would not be seen to be pushed in by senior staff, by anybody; so everyone had their say. We went through all this palaver of governors' meeting and all this discussion about that. The governors were very supportive, particularly the ones in industry. We had a parents' evening and we had a booklet. That was the time, I did start to produce the booklet which is a brief resume of

various modules that we're doing this particular year but no promise that we'll do exactly the same next year because I can't until it's fixed because that's one of the things about our system because it's a flexible one that varies slightly from year to year depending on the people involved and what we think we ought to put in for the next year and who are around. The staff involvement is very important. We had a staff meeting to discuss this as well - staff were also asked what things ought to be put in and nothing came up that wasn't already in or had not been considered. We had about three letters from parents, saying they didn't think it was a good idea - they didn't want their children to do this. One actually went to the County. But the Head replied, in the vein that of all these fors and againsts, and we've decided for. Again, people would wonder whether the Head was open to discussion about this. If he had had real antagonism from a lot of people, he would have come down on the side of not implementing without a doubt. Whatever other people think, he would have done.

In fact, there were so few voices really against, and that usually stemmed from fear of having to do it, concern - a slight concern that this is all too undisciplined, too out of control, it's not traditional, standards are falling and all that encompasses it and obviously some people expressed that fear. The parents partly felt the one or two who did complain - that they would be doing all this at home and one hopes they are - that's the whole point, the back-up of what's happening at home because we know from research that what we do in school, has very little effect in the end, on what children do. So, we can only hope to work with parents - we're certainly not going to change attitudes that much. If you really follow that through and start thinking about it seriously, you wouldn't do anything at all. So, you've got to feel that hopefully you're opening a few doors and windows and will just widen their area of choice and their skills to make the choices.

There's always a problem with the position of being a head - he wanted everyone to be consulted. One always feels - at least the heads I've known reasonably well - always feels that people suspect them of pushing things through and of not consulting and of having made up their minds before and, whatever anyone says, that's what they're going to do. I think he really wanted to try to make this quite clear that this wasn't what was happening because they get accused of that so often and I think, that, often, it isn't true. Maybe sometimes it is, of course, because of the nature and of what they're wanting for the whole school. People who haven't got that overview of what's happening in the whole school because sometimes it doesn't quite suit one little faction, feel 'Oh well, he's decided that already' And I think, therefore, he really wanted everyone consulted. If you were going to consult parents and teachers, then the governing body was another group to include. He has retreated on questions where there hasn't been adequate support. The consultation went on and on for ever and I was sick to death of it, I can tell you.

Qu: What needs, otherwise, did you see as necessary to implement this course?

R: Well, I think to reassure them that - to try to involve the people who came forward and said they wanted to be involved because certainly, we got more people saying they wanted to be involved than we could actually use. So, obviously, to use what expertise we could, and obviously, given the restraints of time-tabling and how



much they were needed in their faculties - so to use that goodwill and to build on that. Important to show it was being properly structured and thoughtfully set out and that it had a rationale behind it and that sort of thing.

Qu: How did you demonstrate that?

R: We had a lot of meetings of people who were interested and we talked about the methods that should be used and a general pooling of ideas before actually sitting down and pinning down who was actually doing what. Earlier I'd written a brief rationale which I keep looking at and can't see any reason to change from what things have gone on and what has been said. It hasn't really in essence changed from the original plan.

To go on to the staff involvement, our system actually runs on the expertise of individuals, albeit wanting to make sure we do get core elements in it all the time and, on the whole, I've tried to ask people to do things that are not connected with their normal teaching load.

Qu: Why did you feel it was a good idea to invite staff to pick an area outside their normal teaching expertise?

R: It's been a very good thing mainly because about three years ago everyone was at last starting to realise that one string to their bow wasn't going to get them very far and how were they going to widen their experiences in school? So, there were two benefits - partly to use expertise they had that they were normally never going to be able to use in school, an interest perhaps, a hobby, - this doesn't follow for everyone. Some people do do something that is related to their subject but quite a lot have done something that is quite outside their normal teaching load and so - this idea of qualifications, of experience, of doing things which aren't just their own subject and I think people started to realise this might get them a bit further.

Qu: Is this significant to a teacher's approach to teaching in a completely new area?

R: Yes, it makes them relax a bit more about the way they do it. They feel because it's something they're just interested in and because they've done a bit of homework on it and to be able to talk to the children about it. They've been able to work in a more relaxed way with them and this insistence on having no test at the end - alright if they didn't get through it, it doesn't matter because perhaps, the things that have cropped up from talking to the children, are more reliable. Several of them have without a doubt increased their expertise in that area. There's no comparison to do any of that, obviously. Several people, obviously, put themselves out to learn quite a lot more about the things they were interested in to be able to work with the children. So, I think, the fact that on the whole it's not their normal lesson has given them a more relaxed attitude in the way they talk to the children. And, of course, the grouping - we have had in the past very nice, small groups - but it's now creeping up to eighteen which is much less easy - fifteen is infinitely better but I doubt if we'll get back to that again - though that was one of the penalties we had to pay in a way with having everyone involved. It has really meant the numbers have had to come up to eighteen because of staffing. It's a fairly extravagant thing to staff on eighteen where, in another option, you'll have some groups of twenty-five - although you might have

some fifteens, you'll probably have more of twenty-five, so you'd have less numbers of staff on at that time.

Qu: Did the smaller groups seem attractive to staff?

R: Maybe - yes, probably.

Qu: Did you offer staff any training?

R: Other than talking - We used to have regular meetings of the people involved to tell the others what they were doing because when I first came here, there was a lot of anxiety about what the others were doing. There weren't so many people involved but they really didn't know what the others were doing - They'd been asked to do this bit and didn't know what the others were doing. So, I got them together and they told each other which was a good start because they felt more comfortable about the whole thing because they actually knew where their bit fitted in. I really built on the tutorial work that had been done in methodology, and there were obviously quite a number of people with a lot of experience in that area. So, really, it was a sharing as much as anything and ideas. I feel very strongly that the co-ordinating role is very important. I've been anxious about it recently because things have been going on - being fed into the school which are not fitting in - Fine! Good valuable things but we need to know where they should go in relation to the tutorial work and PSE and subject areas so that we're not getting overlaps and too much of the same thing in the same place. Thinking about it, there aren't probably too many people with this overview of this cross curricular thing which is happening in school, that I have. That made me start to think I must get somebody else more involved in the co-ordination, because the fact that I'm not always here, I wasn't able to quickly pick up on what was happening. I guess I couldn't have picked it up quick enough, but, to me, that's very important and I realised that probably apart from T. because he has this overview, he and I are probably the only two people who really have a cross-curricular view of what's happening in school and have been involved more than the headmaster and deputy, because obviously, the head takes a watching brief and let's us get on with it and that's one of the great advantages of him, quite frankly, and I realised that really isn't good enough - we need more people more aware of these cross-curricular links.

Qu: Is there a need to share the responsibility?

R: Yes. Obviously, feedback would be very nice. I don't particularly look for that but, yes, it would be a good thing because you need feedback as to whether it's going the right way. It's so different at the moment - not being able to get together with people.

Qu: Did people need training in methods?

R: It's happened over such a long period here that, really, there wasn't any great change to do with putting PSE for everyone. It was a development. People didn't need help any more than they do anyway and I would say they still do. It's high time we did some more on that without a doubt. It wasn't a priority - we must do something so they can do this work - it's been an on-going thing, building on what's already been going on, encouraging people to go on courses where this is the actual way of working because although you can work on how you might work with children in groups, it's more effective actually to have to work in groups yourself and know what

it's about, and then come back and realise well, perhaps I could do that with a group of children, the things that I've just experienced whatever be the content.

Qu: Were such experiences more possible on outside courses than in school?

R: We've had both but, of course, it's been quite a while since we've been able to do anything in school. (Industrial Action).

Qu: What have been the progressive responses of the staff?

R: With not having had much feedback lately, for almost a year, it's hard to tell. When you get them together - the people who do it - they're amazingly enthusiastic - I'm constantly surprised. I suppose they get a certain amount of immediate feedback from children, and most of them are the sort of people who are prepared to ask the children what they think about it. That gives them immediate feedback which keeps them going or they modify their programme and that's all part of their agreement with me that they should modify it, if it doesn't work. So, the syllabus as such isn't so static that it can't be changed so that gives them a feeling of 'well, if that doesn't work, I'll do something else', so again there's a relaxed feeling about that which I think they appreciate. They certainly do that and come back and tell me what they've done because really, the responsibility for each module has been given to the teacher concerned. So, as long as I know the heading and a rough sort of aim, then the five or six lessons is entirely up to them and they just tell me. It's taught on a cyclical basis.

Qu: Do you see any need to service your staff whilst there is Industrial Action?

R: Well, there must be lots of ways I ought to, whether I do is another matter altogether. At the moment, the most I can do is talk to individuals about how it's going. Resources, of course - continually resources come into school and to my notice one way or another. I feed them out to whoever I think is the most appropriate person who might make use of that - or contacts or names of videos, speakers, etc. So, that's an on-going thing that happens all the time and this is why I get very concerned when resources go bang into somewhere and I'm not sure where or not, it being part of the overall pattern. So, without a doubt, I try to establish a measure of control because there was a lot of anxiety and concern before I really started trying to keep tabs on all this, about things that were being repeated and being missed and some particular groups of children getting things over and over in every area and so, I would say I've been reasonably successful in that. Probably not cut it out altogether although I have a feeling the thing might have got away from me for a bit for various reasons.

Qu: Have your expectations been fulfilled?

R: I don't know about expectations - hopes maybe would be a better way of putting it. Yes, I think that, on the whole, it is successful which is what I wanted it to be. Again, we come back to this business of how much influence can we really have? - but that's all too depressing to dwell on too much - so I'm afraid I'm not prepared to think about it too much.

Qu: What would you have done differently?

R: If I were doing it again, probably, less consultation! I think some of the work on curriculum development that we've done to get F. off the ground, I think if we could do it more through working parties to which anyone was invited, we might have got to the same result because as long as it was made that anyone who felt strongly one way or another was welcome to come and put their point of view, we might have got it with rather less hassle and time. Working Parties are important because I wouldn't dream of doing this without consultation and that would be a different way of doing consultation really. People might feel it's less formal and it might cut down on the sense of my authority as a Deputy and that might help; it would be a good thing.

There are lots of other things I'd like to do - again time-consuming on this like looking more at attitudes - there's an enormous amount of work to be done in this field and, given a whole year off, I could do it. But, without that, it's a case of priorities and time. There's a whole lot of work on attitudes to Health Education and Personal Matters; what parents think about it all. There's an enormous range of work about parents in the community, getting them more involved with school work and that goes right across the curriculum, I think. When I talk to other people in other schools who're doing some of these things, I feel quite inspired to try and then the weeks go by and I still haven't done anything, which is all a bit frustrating.

The basic ideas that are in our core - that everyone ought to have the chance to discuss and look at and have an opportunity to think about and time given just for that, that's okay. I think we've got the basics right. There is, of course, a whole different way of running a course like this which is to write it, lesson notes, worksheets, etc. that are all filed and whoever does it, does it all. So you get one group at the beginning of the year and you work with them right through the year and you just change your topic and specialists have actually written the topic. That isn't the way I chose to do it but I know several people who have. It has the advantage of one person working with one group which has for and against, of course, so you get more continuity. Perhaps, the danger there is that they end up doing the topic they like rather than the ones they don't like and cutting those out and that, of course, happens in subject areas, people do that. They subvert the syllabus because they don't like doing that and don't quite have time to do it. So, by getting people who actually want to do each module - the way we do it - I hope that each child is getting some enthusiasm from that member of staff in that area but we don't get the continuity right through the year. The actual logistics of working the system where it's all written down are enormous and that wasn't the way it was already started here and so I didn't get involved in that because it would have been a whole different ball game.

Qu: Did you make any discoveries about the process of innovation?

R: Nothing that I didn't know! It's a lot of hard work. You've got to keep with it and not be put off by set-backs which are bound to happen. You've got to use all sorts of different strategies to find the way to what you want to do.

Qu: Did you anticipate "set-backs"?

R: I think I anticipated enough because of the involvement I'd already had with the same sort of work - that some people feel it's

interfering; that it's something teachers shouldn't be asked to do; and all those sort of things. Those arguments were already well-worn, so it wasn't really any different. It was just repeating them again. It's all part of the hassle, having to go all over it again from my point of view but not from that person's point of view, so you've got to do it. And how important it is to get a group working together - a staff group - where it's implementation of this type. I wouldn't consider trying to do it all myself on my own, not in a million years and, so, it's vital people should work as a group and, therefore, support each other and give each other ideas about where to go next. Any of this sort of innovation wouldn't happen without support from the top - that could be easily squashed immediately. We hardly spent any money. We've really made do and mend. We could draw up a list of things we need but that, really, wasn't the aim to put that extra aggravation into the system because it was a hurdle and, maybe, that was in the back of my mind, that it shouldn't become so demanding that it needed masses and masses of resources. Fortunately, we've always had a small amount of money allocated to it, so I didn't actually have to press for that to happen. It's one less problem to face.

Qu: How can you measure your success?

R: By pupils and staff reaction and feedback from people like employers. There's no way of sounding whether it's the course or whether it's everything we do in school; it must be in the end. We do get feedback from employers every now and again, saying what nice children I get sent from X and that's really been happening. But why that happens? Goodness knows. There could be any reason. I feel that the whole thing about the tutorial system has changed the school attitude of some of the staff in school - it's changed the ethos of - we're in danger of slipping again at the moment for all sorts of reasons - but there has in the past been a real lack of confirmation in this school and that's been a deliberate policy, worked on for several years, and that was very noticeable when I first came. I suppose the whole situation as it is now (Industrial Action). We're in danger of slipping back to where we were.

Qu: How does that manifest itself?

R: In confrontation staff with children; children with children; aggravation from outside; and I think we're on a slippery slope at the moment, on an edge.

Qu: Why is this happening?

R: Because people aren't working together, lack of contact and discussion, so people aren't aware of what people are doing. They just don't see each other. It's a great loss and it could take up six years to get it back again and that's very worrying. And, while all that's happening inside school, what are they thinking about us outside? which is even worse. It's not easily resolved. Even if things were sorted out tomorrow, it would take us financially - we're actually going to have to sit down and think seriously about how, as a school, we're going to get back together. Building bridges - very important. And yet, there's so many good things going on in this school - appraisal for a start. Everywhere I go, I preach this message. People are petrified about the whole idea. We have had a lot of consultation about all the things we've done and we seem to have a group of people who are prepared to try things. There are very few if you talk to them on their own or in a group,

who aren't prepared to have a go at something which is very good because there are some other staff who dig their toes in and won't do this at all. So, you can't tell whether that's because of particular personalities, whether it's the leadership from the top, whether it's the general ethos of the school, the acceptance that it is interesting to look at other things and it might actually help develop your own career. We have put quite a lot of emphasis on the fact that individuals should have careers and should be thought about. I think the staff appraisal has helped to push that idea, that it's not just lip-service to the whole thing and that, if people demand some sort of inservice training, we will try to do something about it. We might not be able to do it this year but, perhaps, we can do it next year. Something will be done. A lot of the in-service training has stemmed from that. People don't say very much but, in many schools, this just doesn't happen. People may get sent off on the odd course because, they've expressed an interest in something but it's not as positive support and I think there is around here whether people recognise it or not.

Qu: What would you say are the qualities that an innovator needs?

R: Perseverance and patience, first of all because it doesn't happen quickly. Maybe a certain amount of confidence in their own ability and ideas and philosophy because it will be questioned all the way along the line and and so you've got to feel fairly strongly about what you're trying to do and yet be flexible and prepared to change the peripheral ideas, if not the basic ideas, in the middle of it. You've just got to start and not put it off.

Qu: What's your feeling about the value of innovation in school?

R: I suppose people do get to the stage of thinking, 'Oh not again! Another thing that's different' and I think that does have to be carefully balanced. For me, it's absolutely essential to keep the thing alive but then, that suits me and not other people. To keep the whole business of education alive because I think it can get into a rut just so easily. It's so comfortable to sink into mediocrity, to think about academic things and not keep up. You don't have to put yourself out to get to know people, talk to people; if all you're concerned about is this book or this context - it's very easy, comfortable and non-demanding. It won't change for some people because they don't want to know anymore and the academic thing - it's very exciting if you actually get into it - really, it's a total self-indulgence and it is lovely without a doubt, as we know, but it's not the real world. My term at B (college of higher education) has shown me that - I could go off there and live for the rest of my life, delving into the library and discovering all these things people have done and finding out more but it's escapist really and the research is all very interesting but it's all figures, fact and paperwork and thoughts and a lot of it isn't related to people. It's not the nitty-gritty of relationships which is what life's all about really. This relationship bit is too much for many people because they're so busy coping with their own, they can't cope with anyone else's; themselves and their circle. That's one reason people can't cope with teaching because the whole business of having to project yourself and not think of yourself and cope with everybody else's worries and concerns and anxieties and forget about your own, is too much for some people. That's my feeling from working in research.

## Interview C

## Interview C

This interview is concerned with the introduction of one module into the first year Science curriculum. The head of Science describes the involvement of his faculty with a curriculum project which was jointly funded and supported by a philanthropic, industrial research institute and local education authority. Four schools participated in the Project which ran for three of the planned five years. Modules were developed for years one and two in English, Humanities, R.E., Science, and Technology by subject teachers in working parties.

The interviewee had been head of the Science faculty for eight years; the faculty was organised departmentally with heads of Biology, Chemistry and Physics.

Qu: How did you get involved in this project?

R: An invitation to attend a preliminary discussion session to see whether there could be any possible benefit from following such a course. Following the initial discussion and working parties, then it was decided to adopt some of the ideas into the curriculum starting with the first year.

Qu: Where did the initial invitation come from?

R: Presumably from the education authority plus the institute - internally through the school.

Qu: Why did you decide to take it up?

R: It seemed like a new approach to tackling some of the traditional topics within science, a new way of teaching some of the topics that could give a new outlook on some of the things we've already been doing anyway. When you've been doing the same things for several years running, and the lower school Science is a course which has been running for ten or fifteen years in most schools, you forget that there are other ways of doing things, and so once you're reminded that there are other ways that might be better or might be worse, till you try then out you don't really know.

Qu: What did you perceive to be the advantages of taking up a new approach?

R: A different commitment from the kids; a different way of working for the kids; really to see whether they could get anything more from the traditional material which we were putting over and still do put over in that the material which has been slotted in so far doesn't replace anything in the syllabus but simply adds to what we already do - to give some extension work which is tackled in a different manner.

Qu: What does a greater commitment from the kids mean?

R: As opposed to simply being presented with a particular experiment to do and being expected to follow the lines of that experiment rigidly, the kids are being asked to think about what they are doing and to plan a bit more for themselves. So that they've got to be a bit more committed to the actual problem that they're trying to solve and to come up with some of their own ideas, although the ideas are quite limited anyway by the materials which you make available for them to use, the materials are not unlimited.



Qu: How is it decided what will be learned in Science?

R: We always like to think that the syllabus is up to date and the content of the course we decide ourselves, but basically we follow a national course which is the Nuffield Lower School Combined Science which every other school in the Project also follows and the only thing that changes is the order in which we do the work in. Basically, by the end of year two, all the kids in all the four schools will have done the same work.

Qu: What did you imagine might be the disadvantages of such a project?

R: I don't think there can be any disadvantages from the point of view of the teaching in that, if you find it doesn't work, then you've tried it and can always revert back to what you have been doing. There's no need to repeat it each year if you find it's not suitable. A disadvantage could be perhaps on the organisation part-time. It did take a long time to organise what is basically eight double lessons. It did involve a lot of preparation, so staff time is a disadvantage in that you couldn't possibly put that amount of preparation time into every eight periods of work we do. Once you've really tried it out the once and you know what you're doing, then the time element decreases. That's the main disadvantage. Cost is not a disadvantage since it only involves what we're using at the moment.

Qu: Did you have any views about the Institute as an innovating body?

R: Initially I thought they would be a bit more involved in what the school was doing; that we would see a bit more of the people planning the project. I thought they might come up with a few more directives, a few more ideas along the lines which you can follow - whereas, in fact, we probably deviated from their original aims to some extent in science and we now are moving back to their original aims of more industrial bias to the work. I didn't have any idea of what the Institute was. I had no idea that they did quite a lot of educational projects that this authority had been associated with them in the past on previous projects. It gives the feeling that they're not just an organisation, an outside body, that thinks they know what schools should be doing. They have got some obvious and proven expertise that you can draw upon. Certainly, they give the feeling of being able to rely on them and knowing what they're doing, although sometimes they're not very clear about what they want you to do. That's where the input of the people that are actually teaching the material comes into it - in that they can say what is actually feasible and the others can say what they want. The two don't always match up but there's usually a good, a reasonable balance.

Qu: Would you have found more ideas desirable, and, if so, why?

R: Not so much more ideas but I think the things which we did settle for in the end were not particularly - although the methods of approaching the material were different, the actual material which we were dealing with were not actually much different to what we'd always dealt with and I think we could have done with a few ideas about ways in which we could have diverged quite drastically from what we're already doing. I don't think we've done that. We've settled for what we're familiar with and slightly altered it's format.

Qu: And why have you settled for that?

R: Because it's going to be something which is acceptable to the other staff which are going to teach it. If you were to introduce something which is quite radical, there could be a lot of opposition to everybody trying it. You always go for something which you think you can cope with and you feel you're safe with, although the methods of teaching it are quite different. If we'd gone for different methods and new material, we wouldn't have got anywhere. Whereas, at the moment, we feel as if we're making progress.

Qu: Why might there be opposition?

R: The time element for one. The amount of work that's got to go into producing that amount of work. If it's something that's radically different, people might need a lot of persuading that it's actually worthwhile. If it's going to be radically different and take up a reasonable length of time, you've got to decide what you're going to take out. It's very difficult to find anything that's not worthwhile in what you're already doing.

Qu: What do you think makes a project acceptable to your staff?

R: I think you've got to feel when they've taught it, not necessarily that they've taught it well, but that the kids have got something from it; that preferably they've enjoyed doing it; that it's given them a slightly different outlook on what science is about; that they realise that they've got to work in teams sometimes as opposed to pairs which they do sometimes - work in larger teams; that they've got to sometimes be involved in the planning of what they're doing. From the staff point of view, if you can walk into a room and see the member of staff sitting down and apparently doing nothing and the kids working away and talking to each other and actually doing something positive, then all the previous work has been worthwhile and the member of staff actually has got it as you want it. If the kids, when you walk in are doing nothing and the member of staff is trying to flog 'em to get 'em to do something and has produced endless worksheets about what they should be doing, then I think you've lost the point of the project.

Qu: Why do you think this school became involved in this Project?

R: Because C. dropped out - by default! I presume we weren't in there in the first place because we were making a bid for TVEI and this Project didn't intend to take any TVEI school. Supposedly, we've got the atmosphere in which some sort of change would not be met with too much opposition. It could be a place which is conducive to change. A head who's not against innovation and is quite happy for the innovation to occur providing he's sure that it's for the right reasons.

Qu: How did you introduce this Project to your staff?

R: At the moment, it's only being trialled so only three or four members of staff have had any contact with it; two actually teaching it to their groups and two in there helping to teach it. It was introduced, since they were familiar with the fact that we were involved with F. as a school. It was introduced as an extra - a module of work fitted into the existing scheme of work - they seemed quite happy to prepare their own material for the lessons that they were going to teach which, in the initial stages, was only a short amount of time since each one of them only trialled one of the modules.

Qu: How did you fit it in the current scheme?

R: Since it was only a trial and it was very short, there were no great problems. It was only a week's work in effect. They were only trialling one of the three modules for two double lessons. The total is eight double lessons. It's the maximum that we consider can be put in without taking something out. We can't take anything out because we consider it all to be of use. It introduces no new knowledge but rather new methods of solving problems using that knowledge.

Qu: Why did you adopt that aspect of technique as opposed to knowledge?

R: We were trying to give them problems which were simulations of what they might come across outside school - that they could use their scientific knowledge to solve. So, rather than being told that you can purify salt in a certain manner, they were told to imagine they were on a desert island and had got salty, dirty, muddy, water and you've got to produce from it - the salt, the mud - get rid of all the gunge. So, they're presented with a problem. In the other module they're presented with a mixture of materials all muddled up and they're told the relative values of each of them, not necessarily the correct relative values but a relative value, and different groups are told to extract things of different value. So, they've done the purification, the separation techniques, and they're applying it to a different problem in groups to come up with an answer.

Qu: What process did you adopt to implement this?

R: I gave the staff the booklets. One had helped to create them. It wasn't significant that they weren't involved in the production of the module in that the production of the module was by a very small group in which not everybody could be involved. They were involved in the stages of the initial discussion as to what the module should be or where it should go, but it's been accepted as very much part of the normal teaching load and that's where it's an advantage that it's material that they're largely familiar with. It's the technique of teaching it that's different.

Qu: How did you train your staff in this technique?

R: The two teachers who were involved in producing the project, have been closest to the ideals of the project. Each went in with a member of staff while it was being taught, to guide them through the manner in which we would expect it to be taught. It is planned that, before anybody does it, this year (the whole project) that everybody will have an inservice session to go over the material that they're expected to teach and the way they're expected to teach it which is of more importance. With it only being trialling in small units to see if we thought they would be feasible, there was no point in having inservice training for everybody. So, now that we've decided having trialled it in this school and the other three, that the units are feasible, then it's being adopted as a part of this year's curriculum, for the first year. Now is the time for the inservice as opposed to before you knew if it was going to be accepted or not.

Qu: Is there anything else you need?

R: No. People realise this school is committed to taking part in the Project and will accept it as part of their teaching load.

Qu: What contributes to this acceptance?

R: We're always looking for different ways of teaching material. Science isn't a subject which stands still although, as I say, some of the syllabus hasn't changed for some time. Our third year curriculum changes just about every other year. Fourth and fifth year changes fairly regularly, so we're always changing things anyway. We're not just teaching the same stuff we were teaching fifteen years ago. So, there's a genuine acceptance that things can be taught in a different way or even that the material could be different. So, there's no great opposition to the fact that you're asking somebody to do something in a different manner.

Qu: Were staff happy with it?

R: The ones that trialled it were very happy and, in fact, considered it to be quite a feasible and quite a good way of teaching the science material we're teaching at the moment. The overspill has been mainly on technique rather than on content. The content we're happy with. We do see that the idea of kids working in larger groups and doing more problem-solving as opposed to doing more experiments, could filter through to other areas.

Qu: How does this recognition of the possibility of a transfer by staff manifest itself?

R: As opposed to simply producing the three modules of work for the first year, there's now a suggested list of areas where the technique could be used, so any staff that want to use it, have actually got a list of suggestions of where it's applicable.

Qu: Did a member of your staff compile that list?

R: It was the Working Party - two members from our school and two from the other schools because we have a common syllabus. We're working jointly with the other three schools, we're not working on our own. All four schools are doing the same work.

Qu: Has the enthusiasm of the initial event sustained itself?

R: Amongst the people who are teaching it, I imagine they've forgotten all about it since nobody's tackled this element for this year yet. Amongst the Working Party that's producing the work for the following year, I'd say it's been maintained. I would have expected it to be sustained because we knew what we want and, so, not a lot of time is spent in committee discussion work in that there is already a lot of agreement about areas we should look at, therefore it's just a question of getting down to it and discussing those areas. We look at our common syllabus and areas in which we think the approach we're trying to adopt could be used. Once we've identified an area in which that approach could be used, we start to plan the extension work to go with that part of the syllabus which can then be tackled in a different manner. We're still in the trial stage and other colleagues have not really had an opportunity to be involved. So, until they really become fully involved - four are likely to be fully involved because it means time off school and since only a certain number can be allowed out of school at any one time, if you send somebody different, then somebody who's been involved in it would have to stay off and since we're looking for continuity, it's more likely to be the ones who've been involved in it are likely to continue to be so. There is an end plan because we're working on four schools, we can't as a school go ahead and plan our own work and call in part of F. because we're

working in conjunction with the four schools. People have made suggestions. At the end of this first year module, people did make suggestions as to what other areas it could be applicable. They're not being followed up to the same degree of a detailed handbook or teachers' guide, but they are an appendix to the Teachers' guide which is being produced, suggesting to other people what might also be done.

Qu: Did your own expectations match the response of your staff?

R: Yes. They weren't over-keen to start with probably, but, on the other hand, having tried it, they enjoy doing it. You're always a bit anxious about trying something new. Nobody likes to be a failure. If they find that it doesn't work, you're a failure in your own eyes and perhaps in the eyes of the kids. So, you're always dubious about trying something that's different. If it works well and you can see it works well, then you're quite happy with it.

Qu: Did you feel it was necessary to take any measures to help your staff overcome any anxieties they might have?

R: It was such a small amount of work in the trialling that there weren't any anxieties. It was a case of "give it a go and if it works, it works, and if it doesn't, it doesn't, let's see what it's like". Since it was a trial, it was just as important to find if it worked as if it didn't work. We were just as interested to find out if it was a total waste of time and the kids got nothing from it and the staff didn't enjoy doing it. That was as important as finding out that they did enjoy teaching it. So, the input from the staff was very important in that they did make suggestions as to a few things that could be changed which didn't seem to work very well and their feedback was really what the decision to continue with those modules and introduce them as part of everybody's work, was really based on.

Qu: Did you feel success or failure was particularly important?

R: Having spent as long time trying to work it out, I would have been disappointed to have to scrap the whole thing but, on the other hand, I'd rather find out it was workable before we introduced it large-scale. So, to find out whether it was a success or failure, was important and I would prefer it to be a success but, on the other hand, had it been a failure, I wouldn't have minded too much. It would have meant we'd have to go back and find something else to do. If we'd found it a failure, presumably the other three schools would have found it a failure. Had they come back glowing and saying it was brilliant and we'd said it was lousy, then there would have been questions to ask as to why we found it lousy. If you try something, you've tried it.

Qu: What did you discover about innovation?

R: It can be a very slow process. That the amount of time spent to plan a very tiny innovation has been enormous and I wouldn't like to be involved in planning a huge new one. I should imagine by the time you've got it sorted out, whatever you've innovated, it would be out of date. It's been enjoyable - talking - even what hasn't come out - what hasn't been written down and published, you've still got good ideas from meeting with other people and chatting to them about their suggestions and also things which thought could be good ideas, to have other people disagree with you and chat about why they don't think it's a good idea, has been equally valuable. I

think later, when everybody has got to teach it and is expected to teach it, handling staff will be important. The big advantage is that we're only introducing a small-scale thing and even, in its entirety, it won't take more than eight double periods of work, therefore, it's only a small addition to the work load. We found the first year syllabus was too short anyway. It should be familiar work to the vast majority of staff so it's not going to be something that they should object to, and certainly the two that tried it last year, will also be doing it this year with three other new people.

Qu: Would you have done anything differently?

R: With the situation being difficult (Industrial Action), there would have been a lot more discussion about why it's being put in, what we're trying to get from it, and I do think the initial inservice training should have been a bit earlier because then you could have asked people for positive ideas for the following year. Apart from that, I think the introduction has been reasonably smooth.

Qu: How are you going to judge the success of your innovation?

R: That's difficult - subjectively, whether or not the kids seem to get something from it, whether or not they can solve the problems which you set. If none of them can solve it and they're all lost, then I'd say it's not a very good innovation. If they all enjoyed doing it and they all managed to get something that appears to them to be right, then I think it's been reasonably good. Since we're not examining any new knowledge, you can't really set them a test on it and I don't think that would be the point of it. Hopefully, they might themselves take up the idea of group work and actually want to be a bit more involved in what they're doing. With such a small amount, it's difficult and you're not going to change anybody's attitude towards science or the scientific approach, so I think at the moment we can only say we're measuring it subjectively.

Qu: Do you see innovation as being something to help change attitudes?

R: It depends how you can change an attitude. Somebody who perhaps saw nothing in science and didn't enjoy doing experiments, you might say no matter what they did they've got a negative attitude. If suddenly, they start enjoying science and it rubs off on all aspects of the work that they're doing, you could say they've changed their attitude and that's a good, positive point from that innovation. If it's a temporary change, then as soon as they go back to doing whatever they used to be doing, they still couldn't care less and don't enjoy it, then there's not really been an attitudinal change.

I think teachers' attitudes as to how they can manage the lesson could be changed in that they can cope with kids doing a lot more group work; although, of course, in science most staff are used to the kids coping with working in groups, and getting on on their own and doing experiments but certainly, you can see how they can work in larger groups and hopefully organise themselves. That could be something that you could hold to and use again.

Qu: Will you evaluate in other ways?

R: Until we try something out which is larger, something totally different, I don't think there can be a way of measuring the success or failure of such a small piece of work in any manner that you can

actually write down. You could write down a whole list of objectives and you could then tick off at the end of the day whether you feel those objectives have been met and that could be your form of evaluation. Your objectives could be for the children to work successfully in groups, for them to be able to plan an investigation, to carry out the investigation, to produce the result. At the end of the day you can measure those things and you can say that thing has been a success or not. In a lot of ways, I think that's what I mean by subjective because it's up to the member of staff who's judged it, as to whether or not you consider what they've produced to actually be adequate or not. They might all end up with a result but you might not consider that to be adequate, so it's up to the member of staff's opinion really. You can lay down objectives. You can lay down whether or not they've been met, and so you could measure the success of it.

Qu: What do you think is the curricular value of your Project?

R: I think we could develop it so as it develops to more links across the curriculum - there are definite bits of work we've been looking at, definite links with Geography, and the social sciences. The main benefit would be if everybody who's been working in their own little departments, were able to discuss what they're doing because there must be a lot of common approaches which perhaps, if they're identified, could be of use throughout the school and not just with the kids that are involved in this.

Qu: What was the senior staff involvement in your work?

R: Not really for the work we've been doing in this school. We've also developed three modules for the Primary school and we've had feedback from their teachers and kids and the advisory staff that have been into the primary schools. So, we have had feedback about the Project because that was, in fact, the first piece of work we did. A very positive response - so much so that the thing is in a publication form for dissemination widespread and other schools in the area have taken it up to encourage their "feeders" also to do the work.

Qu: What are your own feelings about this innovation?

R: Yes, it's been worthwhile. Anything that produces a slightly different pattern to the day; anything that can help to blow away the cobwebs or anything that can change your outlook and the fact that each day is more or less the same, is worthwhile. I'm sure if you went through thirty years of doing the same stuff, the thirty years would seem like sixty. If each day or now and again, you're doing something different and trying something out, I'm sure you personally would gain a lot from it. I'm sure you'd enjoy your job more and get more satisfaction from it. It's something new and something new should really give you an impetus and probably spurt you on in what you're doing elsewhere. I find spending a bit of time doing some of this work, meeting other people that I would never meet normally, seeing their point of view, talking particularly to the Primary staff, working with them, is quite eye-opening - realising what they expect their kids to do is far beyond what perhaps I would have expected a group of that age to do. The way that they successfully organise their kids to do practical work is different to what I expected. Their expectations of what their kids can do, are higher than I had thought. What I consider would take a long time, they generally consider to get done in a much

think later, when everybody has got to teach it and is expected to teach it, handling staff will be important. The big advantage is that we're only introducing a small-scale thing and even, in its entirety, it won't take more than eight double periods of work, therefore, it's only a small addition to the work load. We found the first year syllabus was too short anyway. It should be familiar work to the vast majority of staff so it's not going to be something that they should object to, and certainly the two that tried it last year, will also be doing it this year with three other new people.

Qu: Would you have done anything differently?

R: With the situation being difficult (Industrial Action), there would have been a lot more discussion about why it's being put in, what we're trying to get from it, and I do think the initial inservice training should have been a bit earlier because then you could have asked people for positive ideas for the following year. Apart from that, I think the introduction has been reasonably smooth.

Qu: How are you going to judge the success of your innovation?

R: That's difficult - subjectively, whether or not the kids seem to get something from it, whether or not they can solve the problems which you set. If none of them can solve it and they're all lost, then I'd say it's not a very good innovation. If they all enjoyed doing it and they all managed to get something that appears to them to be right, then I think it's been reasonably good. Since we're not examining any new knowledge, you can't really set them a test on it and I don't think that would be the point of it. Hopefully, they might themselves take up the idea of group work and actually want to be a bit more involved in what they're doing. With such a small amount, it's difficult and you're not going to change anybody's attitude towards science or the scientific approach, so I think at the moment we can only say we're measuring it subjectively.

Qu: Do you see innovation as being something to help change attitudes?

R: It depends how you can change an attitude. Somebody who perhaps saw nothing in science and didn't enjoy doing experiments, you might say no matter what they did they've got a negative attitude. If suddenly, they start enjoying science and it rubs off on all aspects of the work that they're doing, you could say they've changed their attitude and that's a good, positive point from that innovation. If it's a temporary change, then as soon as they go back to doing whatever they used to be doing, they still couldn't care less and don't enjoy it, then there's not really been attitudinal change.

I think teachers' attitudes as to how they can manage the lesson could be changed in that they can cope with kids doing a lot more group work; although, of course, in science most staff are used to the kids coping with working in groups, and getting on on their own and doing experiments but certainly, you can see how they can work in larger groups and hopefully organise themselves. That could be something that you could hold to and use again.

Qu: Will you evaluate in other ways?

R: Until we try something out which is larger, something totally different, I don't think there can be a way of measuring the success or failure of such a small piece of work in any manner that you can



actually write down. You could write down a whole list of objectives and you could then tick off at the end of the day whether you feel those objectives have been met and that could be your form of evaluation. Your objectives could be for the children to work successfully in groups, for them to be able to plan an investigation, to carry out the investigation, to produce the result. At the end of the day you can measure those things and you can say that thing has been a success or not. In a lot of ways, I think that's what I mean by subjective because it's up to the member of staff who's judged it, as to whether or not you consider what they've produced to actually be adequate or not. They might all end up with a result but you might not consider that to be adequate, so it's up to the member of staff's opinion really. You can lay down objectives. You can lay down whether or not they've been met, and so you could measure the success of it.

Qu: What do you think is the curricular value of your Project?

R: I think we could develop it so as it develops to more links across the curriculum - there are definite bits of work we've been looking at, definite links with Geography, and the social sciences. The main benefit would be if everybody who's been working in their own little departments, were able to discuss what they're doing because there must be a lot of common approaches which perhaps, if they're identified, could be of use throughout the school and not just with the kids that are involved in this.

Qu: What was the senior staff involvement in your work?

R: Not really for the work we've been doing in this school. We've also developed three modules for the Primary school and we've had feedback from their teachers and kids and the advisory staff that have been into the primary schools. So, we have had feedback about the Project because that was, in fact, the first piece of work we did. A very positive response - so much so that the thing is in a publication form for dissemination widespread and other schools in the area have taken it up to encourage their "feeders" also to do the work.

Qu: What are your own feelings about this innovation?

R: Yes, it's been worthwhile. Anything that produces a slightly different pattern to the day; anything that can help to blow away the cobwebs or anything that can change your outlook and the fact that each day is more or less the same, is worthwhile. I'm sure if you went through thirty years of doing the same stuff, the thirty years would seem like sixty. If each day or now and again, you're doing something different and trying something out, I'm sure you personally would gain a lot from it. I'm sure you'd enjoy your job more and get more satisfaction from it. It's something new and something new should really give you an impetus and probably spurt you on in what you're doing elsewhere. I find spending a bit of time doing some of this work, meeting other people that I would never meet normally, seeing their point of view, talking particularly to the Primary staff, working with them, is quite eye-opening - realising what they expect their kids to do is far beyond what perhaps I would have expected a group of that age to do. The way that they successfully organise their kids to do practical work is different to what I expected. Their expectations of what their kids can do, are higher than I had thought. What I consider would take a long time, they generally consider to get done in a much

shorter period of time, with success. Not having been in a primary school for so long, you forget what is possible to achieve and they were providing the expertise as far as organisation and knowledge about their kids was concerned, but what they lacked was perhaps the specific scientific expertise, and we were feeding that in but they were showing us how it should be taught.

Qu: Are there any aspects of being a head of faculty which make innovation more or less difficult?

R: It depends on your staff really if that's where the innovation is supposed to be. It's no use coming up with a brilliant idea if nobody else wants to do it. On the other hand, if you do come up with a brilliant idea, it might be a lot easier to persuade people to do it because you are head of faculty. But, on the other hand, if they don't think it's a good idea, they won't do it anyway, so you're probably wasting your time. Maybe because you're head of faculty you might have more experience of working with different pupils, being able to see what their problems might be, being able to think of ways of overcoming problems - I don't know. I don't think you're necessarily the most experienced member of staff, being head of Department and other people might have very different and valid ideas which you'd never thought of. So, I don't think it necessarily gives you any real advantages. Somebody in your department who has a good idea, may come to you for you to try and get everybody to take it up, and probably that would be more likely to be taken up since people realise it's somebody else's good idea and that you are pushing it as something that is worthwhile for everybody to do. The authority of head of faculty is ambiguous - it can work both ways. It can work for you or against you.