EMPOWERMENT AS A SOURCE OF MOTIVATION THROUGH TEACHER-PRINCIPAL INTERACTIONS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

by

PAMELA W. BISHOP

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA
DECEMBER 1994

Abstract

This study examines field-based teacher-principal interactions that teachers perceive as empowering. The study also explores those factors which influence the decisions of principals to selectively empower some teachers, and how empowerment may impact on teachers' motivation. Ethnographic methods and techniques including interview, observation, key informants and triangulation were employed in a multiple-case study of four inner-urban Melbourne primary schools.

The study of 53 teachers and their principals involved fieldwork being conducted over a total period of one month. Results from a form of constant comparative data analysis underscore the need for trust to exist between the employer, principals and teachers. Being trusted by, and/or having trust in, a principal contributes to teachers' feelings of empowerment. Failure–by an employing authority or principal–to evidence trust in the judgements and skills of teachers to effectively carry out their responsibilities is disempowering for these employees. At a collective and individual level, trust in teachers by an employer or principal needs to be augmented with recognition, respect, support and reliability.

A number of influences contribute to principals' decisions to empower some colleagues, prominent among which is a belief that a teacher is capable

of successfully responding to, or pursuing an initiative, and that the potential

benefits from such an undertaking cohere with the school's philosophy.

Teachers in this study suggest that the empowering of colleagues usually

results in heightened motivation and a preparedness to commit further

efforts in schools.

Acknowledgement

To Bill,

an inspiring leader who has both a

generous heart and a courageous mind,

with thanks.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Changes brought about in the international marketplace will continue
to impact on Australian organisations (Bryce, 1989; Yencken, 1989). These
shifts have provided private and public bodies, including education systems,
with new opportunities and challenges. How corporations and governments
within Australia respond to these altered global circumstances may dictate
the longer-term well-being of this nation.

These new opportunities and challenges have seen the organisational
principle that encouraged management to focus on control of the enterprise
being replaced, in many workplaces, by a redefined concept of leadership
that is premised on quickly responding to change especially through a
maximal utilisation of employees' capacities (Fullan, 1993; Naisbitt &
Aburdene, 1990; Peters, 1987; Yencken). The notion of drawing on the
fullest capacities of employees is based on a belief that exemplary efforts
from personnel are more likely to result in outstanding organisational
performance than less than fulsome employee contributions (Peters;
Sergiovanni, 1990).

This dissertation aims to examine empowerment as a source of motivation for teachers. In this chapter the background to, problem behind and purpose of, the study are elaborated.

Background

Sarason (1991) believes that a fundamental feature for any reform efforts to contend with is the issue of power relationships. "It is a feature that, if not taken seriously, invites failure" (p.27). International and local trends toward school-based decision-making may provide fresh opportunities to deliver an improved educational service (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991). However, such initiatives need to be accompanied by the capacity of local stakeholders (parents, teachers, principals and students) to feel part of, if not to influence key central policy directions (Ellis, 1984; Hargreaves, 1994; Lieberman & Miller, 1991; Maeroff, 1988; Romanish, 1991; Sarason, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1992). Schools–particularly principals and teachers–require involvement that extends beyond local implementation concerns (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Maeroff, 1988; Romanish, 1991). Failure to involve stakeholders in significant statewide policy development often results in inappropriate demands being placed upon school principals and teachers, and a lack of ownership and responsibility for the educational enterprise (Kanpol, 1990; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Sarason, 1991).

Empowerment may be one means by which teachers are better able to operate within teaching (Anderson, 1991; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Maeroff, 1988; Sergiovanni, 1990). Used in this sense empowerment is concerned with teachers' capacities to make more meaningful choices and exercise greater control over their personal and collective destinies (Hargreaves, 1994). The action of removing obstacles that restrict teachers from fully functioning and encouraging greater autonomy is based on an assumption that teachers "have the expertise needed to decide how best to do their jobs" (DuFour & Eaker, 1992, p. 49).

Problem Statement

Although Australia's industrial landscape is changing, many of the nation's workplaces continue to perpetuate an 'us and them' mentality (Jones, 1989). The fields of education, and in particular, government schools, have not fully escaped this mantle. Enduring ideological, philosophical, economic, and organisational considerations may serve in part to explain why many teachers believe they do not have, as some writers note (Ayers, 1992; Bolin, 1989; Kanpol, 1990), the autonomy or imprimatur to fully exercise their professional judgements. These considerations may also hold the answers to why some principals do actively seek to empower other, or some, teachers. Yet comparatively little local research and literature exists which examines these concerns.

The matter of teacher empowerment is important because teaching is, amongst others, a moral activity (Bolin, 1989). Bolin believes that if moral agents are to be accountable for their efforts, they must be allowed the autonomy "to act according to their best judgement" (p. 82). Additional understandings in relation to teacher empowerment and motivation may be one part of what is required if the gulf that could divide teachers from principals is to be narrowed.

Purpose

The purpose of this research is to:

1. Describe teacher–principal interactions that teachers perceive are empowering.

2. Explore those factors which influence the decision of a principal to selectively empower some teachers; and

3. Examine teachers' perceptions regarding how empowerment may impact on their motivation.

Significance of Study

This study provides a 'snapshot' of the situation at four primary schools in relation to matters of teacher empowerment and motivation. Numerous reasons exist to justify the worth of investigating this issue. The five which are most prominent to the researcher, are outlined below.

The temporal context

This investigation was conducted nearly two years after the election of a new government which ushered in major changes to Victorian public education. Such a temporal context provided a rich source of information about teacher empowerment and motivation.

Theory and the place of teachers

During the past decade in North America, considerable discussion has been generated in relation to the need for teacher empowerment (Ayers, 1992; Bolin, 1989; DuFour & Eaker, 1992; Maeroff, 1988; Romanish, 1991). Whilst less debate has waged in Australia, it is evident that key educationists (Fullan, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994; Lieberman & Miller, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1990) believe that the need for greater autonomy is not limited to specific geographic borders. Exploring issues of teacher empowerment is important because 'the picture is incomplete'. Despite favouring teacher empowerment, some writers are cautious about what might be expected from teachers, should they be given greater autonomy (Hargreaves, 1994; Sarason, 1991). Such equivocation derives, in part, from few documented empirical examples of teacher empowerment (Short, 1992). This study will provide another small, and local, contribution to the field.

Leaders as models

This study may highlight some examples of principals and teachers working together in such ways that the powers and levels of motivation of all parties are being enhanced. Instances of such school stakeholders partially negotiating empowerment concerns should provide valuable lessons for others to share.

Recognising contributions

If, as Sergiovanni (1990) and Maehr, Midgley and Urdan (1992) posit, intrinsically motivated teacher contributions to schools can be enhanced by enabling strategies such as empowerment, some research needs to reflect the efforts and opinions of teachers who "believe they have the skills and knowledge to act on a situation and improve it" (Short, Greer & Melvin, 1994, p. 38).

Reflective practitioners

The research provided an opportunity for practitioners to reflect upon aspects of their work that may have contributed to quality of lives–principals, teachers and ultimately students. Such chances to engage as reflective practitioners are rarely realised in government schools (Maehr et al., 1992).

Research Questions

One major and two minor research questions were pursued through this study and are listed respectively below:

1. What features of teacher–principal interactions appear to

   empower participants, particularly teachers?

2. Why do some principals seek to empower some teachers?

3. How may empowerment of teachers contribute to their motivation?

Assumptions

The premises upon which this study was formulated are outlined in the following principles.

- Concepts of empowerment vary between and within schools.

- No teacher is devoid of power–therefore empowerment can be viewed in relative terms.

- Empowerment is both a process and state, therefore it can also be considered in absolute terms.

- All employees have both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations– these vary according to temporal, individual and environmental circumstances.

- Empowerment is particularly valuable to teachers who are highly intrinsically motivated.

- Some conflict will be evident in every school; the existence of conflict is not necessarily a concern.

- The manifestations of conflict and how conflict is handled may influence teacher empowerment and motivation.

Limitations

The presence of a researcher in the schools in this study may have affected the interactions between principals and teachers.

Additionally, other behaviour of the respondents may have altered whilst the study was being conducted.

Fieldwork at the pilot school site was conducted in the last week of a school term, whilst the other three schools were studied during the first three weeks of a subsequent term. Thus it is reasonable to assume that the staff and principal of the school that was visited in the last week of term may have been less invigorated than colleagues from the other sites who participated in the research early in a new term. Fatigue therefore, may have influenced some of the responses provided by participants from the first site study. By contrast, it can be argued that the responses from participants who contributed in the early weeks of a school term may have been influenced by the rejuvenation provided by holidays.

The study sample was small in size and generally not representative of Australian government primary schools, teachers or principals (Chapman, 1984; DEET, 1989). In this study all schools were geographically clustered within five kilometres of each other and the Central Business District of Melbourne; a significant majority of each school's student population was from middle-class households; only four of the 53 teachers—or fewer than

eight per cent—were male and all of the four principals were female. Thus the ability to generalise findings from this study may be limited to schools which have the same, or similar, demographic features.

The study did not examine the possible influence of years of teaching experience on teacher motivation (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). This represents a further limitation as the inclusion of such career-stage factors in the study may have enabled more specific understandings about teacher motivation to be developed.

Definition of Terms

Case study

"A detailed examination of one setting, or a single subject, as single depository of documents, or one particular event" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992. p 62).

Control

"The extent to which people see their situation as being contingent upon their own decisions as opposed to it being determined by others" (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell & Alexander, 1990, p. 323).

Empower

"To invest legally or formally with power or authority; to authorise or license; to impart or bestow power to an end or for a purpose" (Bolin, 1989, p. 81).

Ethnography

"Describing and analysing practices and beliefs of cultures or communities" (Tesch, 1990, p.50).

Extrinsic motivation

"Is based upon the value a person receives from the *external* context of the work. Better working conditions, more money, a new title, prizes and awards, and compliments from supervisors ..." (Sergiovanni, 1990, p. 126).

Intrinsic motivation

"Is based upon the value received from *the work itself* feelings of competence and achievement, excitement and challenge, meaning and significance, enjoyment

and moral contentment that one receives from successfully engaging in the work ..." (Sergiovanni, p. 126).

Motivation	"The *why* of behaviour" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 3).
Performance efficacy	"The sense that what one does matters" (Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990, p. 243).
Qualitative research	A study that is "inductive, generative, constructive, and subjective" (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 49).
Quantitative research	A study that is "deductive, verificative, enumerative, and objective" (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p. 49).

Scope of the Study

The case study approach employed in this research is a multiple-case design (four sites) using qualitative inquiry. Methods and techniques common to ethnographic studies have been used in the case study. In fieldwork this required the researcher to maintain a cultural perspective, use key informants and obtain triangulation (Fetterman, 1988). In addition, the use of participant and non-participant observation, structured and informal interviews and document appraisal provided the researcher with opportunities to probe and analyse in-depth. Moreover, the study was contextual and holistic in perspective. To the extent that the study did not seek to identify individual participants as 'good' or 'bad' (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Fetterman, 1984), it can be argued that the study was non-judgemental. However, judgements were formed in relation to the issues of empowerment and motivation and the information provided by the

participants. Theory was an outcome from, and thus grounded in, the study
(Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

<u>Summary</u>

This chapter has identified local and international concerns which, if
responded to, require reforms to be made to Australian schooling. For any
such reforms to succeed, clarification and resolution of pertinent aspects of
teacher empowerment may be required. An outline of the nature and scope
of this research has also been provided.

In the next chapter the literature on moral dilemmas and organisational
solutions associated with teacher empowerment and motivation, is reviewed.
Subsequent chapters elaborate the research methodology (Chapter III),
results (Chapter IV), and summary and discussion (Chapter V).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review examines teacher empowerment and motivation in two sections: (a) resolving moral dilemmas, and (b) providing intellectual and organisational solutions. Resolving moral dilemmas is divided into four subsections: refining what is expected of schools; developing inclusive learning coalitions; reconceptualising motivation; and matching work *with* people. Providing intellectual and organisational solutions will be addressed in five sub-sections: adopting critical and reflective approaches; extracting key meanings from theories; supplanting single theories; symbolism; and empowering teaching for empowering learning.

Resolving Moral Dilemmas

This section is premised on the view that the matters examined below are, fundamentally, moral issues that require a resolution by the community and, in particular, the education fraternity. It is argued that these are moral issues because the principles which underpin these matters, influence or govern, how community members live, learn and work . Such a view loosely coalesces with a view that recognises "the process of valuation ... is the key to moral choice in administration, as in everyday life" (Willower, 1994, p.

86). As noted in Chapter I, it is further argued that a resolution of such

matters is necessary as a precursor to widespread teacher empowerment.

From clear inadequacies to opaque solutions: What do we want from our schools?

Bolman and Deal (1991) consider that schools in the the United States

are battling apathy and ignorance; classrooms too often are characterised by

uninspiring teaching and learning. In their view, the situation requires many

teachers to alter their ways of thinking and operating. Failure to do so,

jeopardises opportunities for, and the well-being of, the next generation.

Bolman and Deal agree that the problem does not begin and end with

teachers. However, the key position of teachers in the school system

encourages Bolman and Deal to believe that their co-operation is necessary if

successful changes are to be achieved in education.

Although philosophically quite distinct from Apple (1986, 1987),

Bolman and Deal share a common view that teachers must look at what they

value and stand for, both in terms of a particular group of students or school,

and the larger issue of the purpose of education. Knowing the potential

worth and contribution that teachers can make is necessary if the profession

is to harness, rather than inhibit, teacher talent. This view is concomitant

with the position of Sergiovanni (1990), who argues that teaching must be

understood to be more than a job—by everyone. Work in schools, whether as

a principal or teacher, contains a moral element. Leadership, as Sergiovanni

(1992) describes it, refers to behaviours adopted by both principals and teachers. The moral element–as demonstrated by many teachers and principals–results in leadership that is informed by values and ethics. Sergiovanni terms this "value-added leadership". An active proponent of empowerment for teachers, Sergiovanni believes that teacher empowerment can contribute to principals' efficacy and job enhancement.

Citing empowerment as one of nine dimensions that can lead to extraordinary teacher, principal and ultimately school performance, Sergiovanni essentially argues that the moral component in value-added leadership provides the potential for "higher-order psychological and spiritual needs that lead to extraordinary commitment, performance, and satisfaction" (1990, p. 41). Empowering teachers is one of several key means by which the increased potential is reached.

Ayers (1992) posits that the majority of teachers enter the profession with a sense of optimism, and belief in their abilities to make purposeful contributions to the education system. Ayers further argues that, as their careers progress, many teachers are met with debilitating colleagues and structures. The educational structures to which Ayers refers, "neither acknowledge nor nurture nor challenge them" (p. 15). The thinking typified by the central office bureaucracy, he avers, is evident in local schools. Career placements and related opportunities are based upon notions of linear

compliance, he suggests, which encourages teachers to focus too greatly upon pleasing the principal rather than critical decision-making or creativity.

Attention is also drawn by Ayers, to the apparent inconsistency between what the community says it wants from schools for young people (critical and creative minds, compassionate and caring individuals) and the strictures of schooling which gear conformity to uncritical obedience. Whilst agreeing that schools too often foster unquestioned compliance amongst key stakeholders, Apple (1992), is not convinced that the community has a clear perspective of what it wants from schools. Instead, Apple believes that the values that are presently being embraced by many Western school systems, and give direction to issues such as teacher autonomy, are those that pertain to conservative business and economic sectors. Australia is one of the countries that Apple (1986) refers to as being increasingly influenced by elements within society that are unsympathetic to intellectual or egalitarian traditions.

Teachers' diminution of job control and deskilling become inextricably linked during such circumstances, according to Apple. Furthermore, he argues that mandated edicts are leaving schools with narrow choices thus critical decision-making skills are being exercised less, contributing over recent years to professional atrophy. Such legislature is often backed up by reports such as *A Nation at Risk* which, whilst on one hand advocate teacher

empowerment, are in Apple's (1987) view "simplistic assessments of and responses to problems in education" (p. 69). Apple believes they also reinforce the power of those who oppose teacher empowerment because of the other initiatives that are supported in reports like *A Nation at Risk*, such as statewide competency testing.

In Victoria parallels may be able to be drawn with the top-down *Schools of the Future* masterplan and the introduction of statewide testing for eight and eleven year old students in core subjects. Hargreaves (1994) expresses similar concerns to those of Apple in relation to the rhetoric of local autonomy and the maintenance of central control, and believes the initiative will not be adequate if continued. Giroux (1988) also echoes Apple's criticism, believing the practice of retaining such control to be based on anti-intellectual traditions.

The very act of resorting to outside or top-down solutions, Apple contends, reinforces the presumed inadequacy of teachers (and local school communities) to resolve their dilemmas. Likewise, Hill (1994), in an article by Carolyn Jones, rejects the need to resort to non-school sectors to address school organisational matters. Somewhat of a counter view to this however, can be found in the recent history of Victorian schools, where notions of stakeholder inclusiveness were stretched to the limits of tolerance and good-sense. As Beeson (1993) indicates, invitations by the then newly-formed

Labor government to entreat participation from teacher associations sometimes resulted in industrial action if negotiations were regarded by the unions as insufficient. Additionally, the nature of the local decision-making arrangements often imposed on principals requirements to meet and consult that exceeded sensibility and efficient time management, as Beeson's (1993) case study highlights.

Similar shortcomings noted by Brennan (1993a) in the now-defunct School Improvement Plan are, however, in her view, insufficient to justify the current reduction of genuinely participative structures. Moreover, as Watkins (1993) contends, local decision-making initiatives for Victorian schools that existed for the greater part of the 1980s, were preferable to current arrangements where responsibility is localised yet control is centralised. Of the present notion of self-managed schools being played out in Victoria, Watkins notes "the dominant factors are the steering media of money and power embodying purposive-rational views which act to decouple the everyday actions of people from the normative contexts of the life-world" (p. 147).

In casting doubt on current site-based management reform, Anderson and Dixon (1993) also believe that marginalisation and disempowerment of stakeholders are consequences of top-down, exclusive decision-making. Noting this to be a trend in several Western countries, Anderson and Dixon

posit that "the appearance of equity and democratic process is due to the largely rhetorical nature of discourse which continues to define equity as 'equal opportunity' for unequals, and democracy as any form of participation" (p. 59). Under these circumstances Anderson and Dixon suggest that power accrues to those who are already empowered–and not to less influential groups such as teachers and parents.

Bolin (1989) notes the pressures that many administrators feel in response to quests for greater teacher autonomy. Like so much of Western culture, the response of many principals has been to assume the result will be dichotomous; teachers will access greater power at the expense and loss of principals' power. This view is amplified by Lieberman (1993), who discounts the purposes and intentions of those who advocate teacher empowerment. Lieberman's view is not widely supported amongst academic colleagues, and stands in stark contrast to the views of Anderson (1991), Maeroff (1988) and Romanish (1991) who contend that teacher empowerment need not be achieved at the expense of other key stakeholders, such as students, parents and principals. Nonetheless, it appears that many school principals are sympathetic to efforts designed to rebut arguments for teacher empowerment (Rosow & Zager, 1989). This, according to Apple (1987), largely explains why the issue has been stonewalled in much of North America.

Developing inclusive learning coalitions

Fullan (1992) sees beyond vision-oriented platforms that are promulgated by leaders, either centrally or school-based. He is unsure that they are, in the longer term, effective, because of the tendencies for such initiatives to have overlooked significant other personnel and issues in the planning and implementation phases. In highlighting the need for principals to work interactively in schools with teachers, Fullan argues that bureaucratic factors should be used to facilitate–rather than inhibit–activities and teachers. Accompanying his comments about the positive potential of bureaucracy, Fullan cites seven points that enhance the possibility of galvanising teachers and school communities and offer the prospect of enduring success. Fundamental amongst these suggestions is the need to both comprehend the culture of a school and value teachers. Respected teachers, in Fullan's view, deserve collaboration, not mandates or co-optation.

Mulford (1983) like Fullan, identifies the need for leaders to obtain co-operative effort as an essential first step toward effective educational management. In calling for leaders to accurately comprehend both the tasks involved and the dependence upon teachers in school reform efforts, Mulford acknowledges the importance of educational coalitions between principals and teachers. As part of a move toward effective working partnerships, Mulford suggests that principals ensure that on-going learning and

professional growth opportunities exist for all teachers. Such an approach represents a regard for, and recognition of, teachers and their work lives. It is also a position that finds endorsement with Senge (1990) who believes that government or private enterprises should be learning organisations for all employees. Leaders, according to Senge, should be helping colleagues to see the larger picture, how parts of the enterprise interact and impact, why particular policies exist and how actions may contribute to long-term success. Senge's belief that leaders need to foster systemic understandings and collaboration stand in stark contrast to ideologies and practices of exclusion.

Bolin (1989) acknowledges that the enculturation of some trenchant opponents to teacher empowerment has resulted in them believing that "their strength is dependent on someone else's weakness" (p. 89). Such resistance to sharing power or promoting teacher autonomy is why Rosow and Zager (1989) believe many educators "long to see a new breed of principals" (p. 71). There is, according to Bolin, less prospect of convincing the diehards who are skilled in the art of preservation of the status quo on a range of matters; the talented, self-assured leaders in education may not have fully grasped the issue of empowerment as yet, but Bolin believes it is they who–sooner or later–will voluntarily accommodate the movement. Thus, it is from this quality element within the teaching profession that Bolin, like

Rosow and Zager (1989), considers empowerment will burgeon—in essence because quality achievers are attracted to quality prospects. Therefore those who advocate engagement ahead of demarcation and restriction, accept the need for mutually-enriching working partnerships to prevail, if schools are to be centres of learning for everyone.

Reconceptualising motivation

Csikszentmihalyi (1975) draws attention to the inadequacy of current management practices which, he believes, focus too heavily on a view that employees respond only to external rewards or punishment. On a broader scale, society encourages–in young children–an acceptance of rewards and incentives that follow from achievements. Csikszentmihalyi notes that usually the rewards are symbolised through money and status, and continue to be provided throughout the individuals' developing, and often, adult years. Yet Csikszentmihalyi considers that the practice of appreciating an activity because of its intrinsic appeal, is more likely to benefit the individual and societies. Activities which are pursued because of the potential to achieve maximum intrinsic satisfaction are those more inclined to achieve peak performance from the participant.

Csikszentmihalyi's interest in intrinsic motivation has evolved, in part, because of what he believes are the limited potentialities of extrinsic rewards, to control employees. Indeed, he believes the issue of control is a concern

when considering the links between motivation and environmental and political considerations. In short, Csikszentmihalyi argues that the world is unable to sustain the resource usage required to maintain the world-wide external rewards phenomena.

Somewhat in contrast to Csikszentmihalyi's perspective, Lortie (1975) suggested that there was a scarcity of extrinsic rewards in teaching. Despite Lortie averring that intrinsic, or psychic, rewards were more prevalent in the teaching profession, his study highlighted the standpoint that "teachers perceive their psychic rewards as scarce, erratic, and unpredictable" (p. 211).

Kanter's (1977) work also expanded understandings of employee behaviours. Kanter characterised most employees as being in a "moving" state or "stuck". Those who were stuck tended to operate in ways that enabled the organisation to give them poor rewards or attention. By contrast, those in moving mode tended to model behaviours that confirmed the organisation's previous acknowledgements and rewards. Wheatley (1981) believes that Kanter's portrayal of the moving and the stuck has application to the teaching profession: If the predilection of employees is to gravitate to one or other concept, organisations need to better understand the opportunity structures that they provide, and how they may extend or inhibit employee contributions. Drawing on Kanter's descriptors, Wheatley suggests that the entire school system could be viewed as "stuck" because of

"a chronic state of severely limited opportunity that has negative consequences for all teachers ..." (p. 259).

As an outcome of a study of rock climbers, chess and basketball players, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) believes that many participants engage in such pursuits because they access experiences not ordinarily achievable on a day-to-day basis. The findings from this study indicated that the intrinsic rewards obtained from the activity outweighed the extrinsic rewards and the former provided the attraction for the activity. Describing the participants' involvements as reflecting a state of "flow", Csikszentmihalyi located them as being beyond boredom but before worry. Flow is described by Csikszentmihalyi as being "the holistic sensation that people feel when they act with total involvement" (p. 36). This inner state is so appealing to some individuals that they are prepared to sacrifice other comforts for it.

Csikszentmihalyi believes that sometimes the activity is confusingly associated with extrinsic rewards (such as the activities of composers or surgeons); the extrinsic factors may give the activity direction or legitimacy but the prime attraction for the participant is the involvement. For a state of flow to be achieved, the task must firstly be one that the participant is able to perform. A further feature of the flow state relates to the noncontradictory requirements of the tasks and the subsequent clear feedback received by the participant as a result of his or her actions.

Some of Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) findings have implications for the workplace. Philosophical and analytical issues are directly involved in Csikszentmihalyi's view of human motivation. Csikszentmihalyi's position embraces global concerns about the continued capacity of the environment to provide material resources that are not essential to satisfying quality of life demands. The penchant of Western societies in particular, to perpetuate practices that are largely premised upon extrinsic rewards, may in the longer-term, be self-destructive–the planet is unlikely to endure such an onslaught. In the interim, the quality of individuals' existence is limited because of a cultural framework which recognises symbols and possessions ahead of less visible properties, such as inner-strength, inner peace and intrinsic motivation.

Thus if environmental problems are to be seriously noted, the symbolic and material means by which at least some individuals and groups are rewarded will need to be tempered. Any such measuring of rewards, in a democracy, is more likely to succeed through cultural shifts rather than by structural imposition. However, determining what constitutes excessive or unnecessary extrinsic motivators, and who could, or should, forego such benefits is a controversial and key question. In relative terms, Kanter (1977) and Lortie (1975) argue that teachers have not been the receivers of workforce largesse. Nonetheless, acknowledging the successes of teachers'

efforts more and a further valuing of education by employers and the community could contribute to the development of an aesthetic view of motivation. In such a circumstance, satisfaction and quality of lives may be sustained more by internal rewards and buoyed by–rather than be pivotal to–extrinsic rewards.

Matching work *with* people

If flow can be experienced when individuals perceive opportunities for involvement as matching their abilities, organisations may be able to refine their allocation of work responsibilities. This may however, be more difficult than it at first appears. Bolin (1989) notes instances where teachers are highly committed yet unskilled or evidencing burnout. Such scenarios create immense practical dilemmas for the teaching profession, and, in particular, principals. These instances may be situations where the perception of the individual is at variance with those around him/her or the goals of the organisation. Although Csikszentmihalyi concedes that an individual's perception of their skills and challenges in an activity may impact on whether one achieves a state of flow, he fails to address the issue of individuals who may have unrealistic perceptions about their capacities.

Smyth (1992) believes the extent to which teachers are inadequate in their work or responsible for schooling deficiencies is minor compared to "the social, political, economic, and educational structures within which

teachers work" (p. 276). For Smyth a more pressing concern about teacher

motivation pertains to "individuals' growing sense of powerlessness,

alienation, loss of meaning, and general feelings of exclusion from a

discourse about the resolution of these issues" (p. 277).

In a similar vein, the views of Bolin (1989) and Csikszentmihalyi

(1975) intersect on the need for those who do the jobs to have autonomy

invested in them so that they can make qualitative decisions that may

influence the end result. Enabling teachers to mould learning experiences

and content to circumstances and particular learners is, according to Smyth,

preferred ahead of what is currently "a powerful form of control over

teachers' work" (1993, p. 283).

Taking control out of the hands of practitioners also revokes notions of

choice that Csikszentmihalyi identifies as crucial to the successes of

champions. Thus in an era of postmodernism when the choices that many

individuals can make in their non-work lives is burgeoning, it may be that

more fruitful uses of teacher contributions can be obtained by expanding,

rather than limiting, the range of opportunities for involvement in the

education enterprise. Enabling teachers to contribute to policy

determinations at a regional, state or national level may, for example,

represent an attempt at matching work *with* teachers, rather than allowing

work, or the priorities of others to direct teachers.

Promoting Intellectual and Organisational Solutions

Elbaz (1988) believes that teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their practice so as to influence school reform. Noting instances when education systems have sought teacher input—received it—and then responded by "granting it neither support nor reward" (p. 179), she nonetheless endorses the need for all practitioners to view problems in education as a collective concern. In a similar vein, Bolman and Deal (1994) argue that organisations cannot afford to rely only on those who occupy peak positions, for leadership. In differentiating between management and leadership, Bolman and Deal offer an enlivened explanation of the qualities required in leaders. In so doing they underscore the need for public and private enterprises to canvas widely for intellectual as well as organisational solutions. This concept informs the discussion of empowerment and motivation that is pursued in the following five sub-sections.

Critical, reflective approaches for growth and development

The unambiguous nature of many leisure activities may remind effective teachers and principals of the need to minimise workplace inconsistencies because of the impact on colleagues. Clearly however, it is not possible to remove all ambiguities from complex organisations. Indeed one positive outcome from having some inconsistencies in the workplace is that they frequently provide opportunities for participants to engage in

critical thinking, reflection and personal appraisal. Moreover, the need for teachers to engage in critical reflection and is essential if power is to be redistributed in schools with a view to empowering teachers and ultimately empowering students (Elbaz, 1988; Harris, 1990; Shor, 1990). Shor shares a similar view to Csikszentmihalyi, in that he believes schools have a key role to play in the creation of a society "which is at peace with itself and other nations and the environment, which does not wage undeclared war on poorer children by abandoning their needs, which does not power-monger other countries, and which respects ecology" (p. 342).

Like Csikszentmihalyi, Shor believes the values employees uphold are evident in the way they work. Therefore, according to Shor, teachers should evidence both critical thinking and critical teaching so that any forms of societal domination can be challenged. Failure to do so, posits Shor, is tantamount to allowing the forces of domination carte blanche in schools and elsewhere. In challenging predominant ideas or institutions, Shor argues that teachers can encourage mutual, critical dialogue with colleagues and students. Thus, in relation to students, Shor states "education must be something students make and do with teachers, not something made in advance and done to them" (p. 352).

In addressing the issue of paradoxes within workplaces, Bolman and Deal (1991) posit that the potential for ambiguity to occur is greater in public

28

sector organisations because of the capacity for a range of opinions to be held about the nature and function of the organisation. Proactive leadership might provide some counter to unnecessary ambiguities by taking the opportunity, as Murphy and Hallinger (1992) suggest, "to reflect on, clarify and apply their values concerning education and leadership as part of their training" (p. 85).

In the absence of training situations, principals and teachers might take the opportunity to reflect on such matters by being prepared, as Mulford (1986) posits, " to learn how to lose time in order to gain time" (p. 25). Mulford's view is that it is necessary to lose time to reflect on, and identify what is important among the competing demands. However, like Fullan (1992), Mulford emphasises the need for school personnel to firstly comprehend the culture of the local organisation prior to any significant change-initiation. Accompanying this, Mulford also believes, must be collective skill development in group and organisational processes so that colleagues can strengthen their understandings and interactions with each other as a means by which collaborative endeavours can then effectively be pursued.

Extracting key meanings from established theories

Just as many elements within the education community have moved away from deductive research (Eisner, 1990a; Fetterman, 1984, 1988, 1989;

Strauss & Corbin, 1990), several authors have sought fresh understandings about motivation. These include McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens and Yee (1986), Miskel (1982), and Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990).

Yet whilst the work of some theorists (Apple, 1986; Giroux, 1988; Kanter, 1977) may embrace concerns beyond traditional explanations to account for teacher or employee motivation, meanings from some established theories may still require a place in any consideration of the issue, as evident in the following discussion.

Developed prior to Csikszentmihalyi's model, Maslow's understanding of motivation is founded on a needs theory, which proposes that individuals have lower–and higher–order needs to satisfy. The satisfaction of the ascending order of these needs provides insight into "what things energize or initiate behaviour" (Miskel, 1982, p. 67). Maslow's content theory is not greatly concerned with explaining how the process of needs satisfaction occurs. The influence of humanistic psychology–a field in which Maslow has been a major player–may explain why he emphasised higher order needs in his theory.

Based on Maslow's theory, as lower order needs are generally satisfied, individuals seek to satisfy more complex demands. As needs progressively become satisfied, they diminish in importance and focus so that the next order of need can be satisfied. Individuals follow an upwardly

mobile direction to satisfy needs unless they incur some form of deprivation, in which case lower order needs may again require satisfaction. The theory is well-known among organisational theorists, however Thomson (1979) argues that care needs to be taken when ajudging particular employees against the theoretical model, as an individual's desire or action may "serve several needs at once or different needs under different circumstances" (p. 8). Miskel's (1982) view supports this interpretation, believing the theory to be more concerned with the catalyst to actions rather than precise relationships of variables.

Herzberg's (1968) two-factor theory is also a content model of motivation, and therefore is essentially concerned with influences that are pivotal to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Like Maslow, Herzberg is less concerned with offering explanations as to how processes occur. Herzberg's theory separates satisfaction and dissatisfaction into two distinct categories for consideration, rather than placing them on a single continuum. This separation was an outcome of the view that what created satisfaction at work was not the opposite to sources of dissatisfaction in a job. Work influences that produce job satisfaction and contribute to employees' motivation are found in the content of the work. Such satisfiers (and motivators) include mastery, recognition, (job)challenge or interest and advancement. These work features contribute to employees' needs for growth and achievement.

By contrast, the features that contribute to job dissatisfaction are what Maslow describes as hygiene factors. Dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors, relate to concerns with salary, work environment, job security, employment status and relationships with colleagues and supervisors. Maslow acknowledges the need for attention to be given to remedying hygiene inadequacies. However, in his view the more pressing requirement for employers relates to those areas that potentially provide satisfaction for employees.

Views of humankind: punitive, positive or pragmatic?

McGregor's (1960) analysis of work motivation takes account of environmental as well as individual characteristics. A key human resource theorist during the 1950s and early 60s, McGregor's perception–like that of Csikszentmihalyi's (1975)–was that employers focussed too heavily on extrinsic factors to motivate or control employees. The use of rewards and punishments were relied upon excessively instead of consideration of intrinsic factors. McGregor believed that the over-use of one domain was because management found extrinsic factors easier to control than intrinsic concerns. Resorting to extrinsic considerations also related to a narrow and limited understanding of employees by employers, the tenet of which was that humans were essentially only activated or controlled by access to material wealth and that employees were fundamentally lazy and indolent.

Followers of this perspective were adherents to what McGregor entitled Theory X. Proponents of Theory X therefore reflected an adversarial notion of employer–employee relations, and a belief that members of an organisation could not voluntarily give of their best. In this type of atmosphere employers needed to focus on control and coercion. One risk associated with this, in McGregor's view (1960), was the potential for a self-fulfilling prophecy; employees may respond to such treatment by becoming lazy and indolent. The alternative that McGregor proposed to this view of humankind was embraced by Theory Y.

Theory Y postulated that employees' interests were not necessarily dialectically opposed to the interests of employers and that employees requirements exceeded quantitative parameters. By attending to qualitative aspects of work, employers had the opportunity to contribute to the achievement (by employees) of higher-order needs such as autonomy, responsibility, self-respect and achievement. Unlike Herzberg's rationale which identified a combination of extrinsic factors and intrinsic figuring in work motivators, McGregor separated the extrinsic from the intrinsic. Nonetheless, both perspectives coalesced on the view that the satisfaction of employees' lower order needs required management to give attention to different concerns than those necessary for the satisfaction of higher-order needs.

Deci's (1975) work emphasised the need to recognise intrinsically motivated behaviours, as a means by which individuals could develop feelings of competency and self-determination. This work was subsequently extended by Ryan and included an appraisal of intrapersonal events (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The more recent account has provided an explanation of the effects of events on an individual's self-determination and competence. Despite their highlighting of the intrinsic domain, Deci and Ryan's position also recognises that extrinsic motivators may contribute to an individual's self-determination. In earlier literature Deci (1971) criticised behaviourist psychologists who advocated monetary rewards or punishments as a means of employee control. This approach to personnel, Deci considered, attended to only lower-order needs of an individual. An on-going theme of attempting to tailor work to fit the employee (rather than the reverse) has resulted in Deci highlighting the influence of intrinsic considerations.

Supplanting single theories with multiple perspectives

With some surprise, Miskel (1982) notes that Maslow and Herzberg's content theories, which attained prominence in the work literature of the 1960s–and thereafter were absent–continue to find prominence in educational administration texts. The enduring presence of Maslow and Herzberg's theories is not discomforting to Bolman and Deal (1989) who, whilst acknowledging shortcomings in both theories, posit that they are

broadly consistent with the work of McGregor. Rather than expecting any one theory to be able to adequately address the requirements of employees or employers, Bolman and Deal point to the insights into job enrichment that such authors have provided.

Of greater concern to Bolman and Deal is the ongoing tendency on the part of many managers "to believe that their workers will be most productive in a Theory X environment" (p. 86). Like Slater and Bennis (1964), Bolman and Deal believe the contributions made by a luminary such as McGregor, have provided democratic, participative alternatives from which to choose in framing organisations. That they could provide compulsive antidotes to organisational dysfunction would represent a contradiction, as the values inherent in the theories are grounded in choice (Slater and Bennis, 1964). This view was not lost on McGregor (1966) who asserted "managers must also be somehow persuaded that the search for the 'one best way' of managing human resources is not only futile but irrelevant..." (p. 274). The only aspect of organisations that Slater and Bennis regarded as non-negotiable was the very basis of organisations: They had to be democratic.

Miskel's disappointment with widely known theories relates not only to cited application limitations but also to the implications that he believes are created for educational administration. More recently developed process theories may hold promise in terms of assisting the field of educational

administration. Process theories stand in contrast to content theories

because they concentrate on how motivation works, rather than what

motivates. Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory is one process theory

that provides hope for Miskel who believes there is still much to be

understood about motivation, particularly if schools are to be more

responsive to valued employees. Bandura's theory identifies three key

learning influences that apply in workplaces (and elsewhere); modelling,

symbolism and self-control (Bailey, Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1991).

As such it represents a recognition of environmental and individual

determinism in the workplace. Much of the thinking behind adherents of

teacher empowerment is consistent with the principles encapsulated in social

learning theory: Students often adopt the behaviours of their teachers.

Teachers often do likewise in terms of their principals or other more senior

colleagues. Thus, as Ayers (1992) believes, if teachers model

disempowerment, a lack of concern, flippancy or dullness, it ought not to be

a surprise to find students' individuality and creativity stymied. Similarly,

limited modelling on the part of administrators can result in highly motivated,

individualistic teachers opting for less ambitious practices.

Believable symbolism: giving support to get support

Accompanying the recognition of symbolism is the acknowledgement

by Bolman and Deal (1989) that, in schools especially, ambiguity

accompanies symbolic efforts, regardless of the efficacy of leadership. This view is echoed by others (Angus, 1992; Apelt & Lingard, 1993; Brennan, 1993b; Watkins, 1991) who acknowledge paradoxes within current Australian educational reform movements. The potential for personnel at the school level to be confused, by symbolic gestures, is particularly evident when tensions occur between initiatives that appear to be at odds, or in conflict with each other (Apelt & Lingard; Bolman & Deal, 1994). For example, the centrepiece of the Victorian government's education policy *Schools Of The Future*, promises to produce better, locally managed schools (Thomas & Caldwell, 1994). Yet almost simultaneously with the advent of *Schools Of The Future* the government launched a program of cuts to educational expenditure (Angus, 1993; Brennan, 1993b; Muller, 1993). Estimates of the extent of the reductions vary but one report suggested $430 million between 1993-1995 was the projected target (Muller, 1993). Such massive funding reductions seriously challenge the potential of any initiative to develop improved public education.

Whilst funding cuts to Victorian schools may embody clear messages about public education, subtle symbols about what, and who is valued, are evident elsewhere in the education system. One example of this was found in an appraisal of documentation conducted as part of this study by the researcher. In an analysis of 69 News Releases, (see Appendix A for a listing

of News Releases) issued in the 13 months to July 1994 by the Victorian

Education Minister, the Honourable Don Hayward, not one directly

praiseworthy statement was extended to generalist classroom teachers. In

addition, of the four key school stakeholder groups–students, teachers,

principals and parents–teachers received least attention of all in the

documentation. Whereas parents had the annual Education Week directed

toward them (see Appendix B), principals' associations negotiated

agreements with the government (see Appendix C), unique programs were

provided for students (see Appendix D), professional development programs

were organised for school councillors and principals (see Appendix E), no

such offerings were made available for all teachers. Instead, limited

professional development opportunities were announced for teachers of

languages other than English.

Such findings resonate with the comments of teachers in this multiple-

case study. The failure to recognise the efforts of this sector of the teaching

service, when contrasted with a preparedness to recognise the value of

empowering principals (Thomas & Caldwell, 1994) suggests that some

educationists are to be regarded as central, and others marginal, in this period

of reform.

The dismembering of teachers' career structures, slashing of

professional development programs and removal of teacher representatives

from principal selection panels are actions which send messages to all education employees. Pledges to allow principals alone to select and remove staff (Thomas & Caldwell), self-determined salary increases (Painter, 1994) and affirmations which recognise only the contributions by principals in the early stages of *Schools of the Future* initiatives (see Appendix F) evidence a desire to reinstate authority and power to a single nominee at the school level. The inadequacy of such a move is that it evidences a view of leadership as being limited to formal position and underestimates "the complex, co-operative relationships among a number of people that are required to get things done–or change the way they are done" (Bolman & Deal, 1994, p. 81).

In this sense, current educational claims about choice and autonomy are limited, exclusive and potentially divisive (Brennan, 1993a). Moreover, symbolism contained within some of the Victorian reform efforts stands in contrast to those who acknowledge the primacy of teachers in improving schools (Bolman & Deal, 1994; Rosenholtz, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1990, 1992), and those who see symbolism as a collective means of advancing organisations (Bolman & Deal, 1991, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1990; Peters, 1987).

Empowering teaching for empowering learning

By contrast with efforts that may limit, marginalise or silence teacher contributions in education (Angus, 1992; 1993), other elements of the education community adopt a different stance towards harnessing employee input. DuFour & Eaker (1992) believe that successful efforts to empower teachers will enhance intrinsic motivation. This view is supported by those who believe the opportunity to exercise more autonomy and control over knowledge and skill will result in greater satisfaction and thus more intrinsically motivated teachers (Ellis, 1984; Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1990). Whilst job satisfaction and motivation of teachers and principals is a worthy achievement in itself, it is not of overriding importance. The major assumption behind teacher (and principal) motivation and empowerment concerns is the belief that students will be more advantaged by accessing teachers who are motivated and empowered (Ayers, 1992; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1990).

Empowerment and motivation concerns, if addressed, are not the portent of miracle cures for ailing reform efforts. Yet, as Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) note, without further exploration of these issues it is unlikely general reforms will be realised. "This is not a matter of teachers having more enjoyable jobs" (Fullan, 1993, p. 46). It is, as Sarason (1991) argues, about altering inadequate and inappropriate power relationships as a precursor to changing the education system to one which provides all

stakeholders with "exposure to the best in human knowledge and accomplishment" (p. 37).

Empowerment in a changing Victorian context

It is important that these directions from the literature are placed in the context of recent changes in public education in Victoria. *Schools of the Future* has been introduced in Victoria as the main vehicle through which local school management will be developed. Indeed, Caldwell and Spinks (1988) suggest that their view of school-based management, as personified through *Schools of the Future*, "may well be the best, if not only, means by which much of the rhetoric of decentralisation and school effectiveness can be brought to fruition" (p. 56). Caldwell and Spinks's concept of local school-based management provides opportunities for increased organisational efficiency and autonomy. The functional approach of Caldwell and Spinks encourages schools to focus on financial considerations, market conditions and consumer choices, with a view to maximising the attractiveness of the school to potential clients. Yet in so doing, Marginson (1994) suggests that "parents are being turned into 'consumers' of the individual school rather than citizen-members of a common system of schools, in which everyone has an interest in everyone else's welfare" (p. 8).

As well as *Schools of the Future* contributing to the reconstruction of the relationship between the school and its community, Marginson believes

41

the Program will alter relationships between schools, and with schools and government. The combined effect of such changes means that "control over educational policy is more firmly recentred under government control . . . State schools have been placed directly in competition with each other. Instead of all schools being encouraged to do well, the success of one school is now the failure of another" (p. 8). *Schools of the Future* also relocates leadership role-playing with principals whilst the emphasis for teachers is an attending to educational activities (Angus, 1993). This has been endorsed by the current government which intends to return authority and control to the province of principal and school council (see Appendix G) and introduce statewide testing in core learning areas (see Appendix H).

Heightened political intervention in government schools was criticised by Ashenden (as cited in Richards, 1994) when he commented "ministers and governments now intervene to an unprecedented degree in the conduct of schooling" (p. 7). He further noted "many teachers are heartily sick of change because too much of it has been half-baked, faddish, a thinly disguised political agenda or simply another name for work" (p. 7).

By contrast, Thomas and Caldwell (1994) believe school communities, and in particular, school principals, have responded favourably to school-based management in Victoria. Furthermore, according to Thomas and Caldwell, research conducted in England and Wales shows principals are

satisfied with particular aspects of school-based management. Such acclaim is not shared by one of Australia's neighbouring countries according to one source: Nearly four years after a similar initiative was introduced in New Zealand, *Tomorrow's Schools* "still bitterly divides the New Zealand educational community" (Bruce, 1993). Moreover, Hartley's (1994) appraisal of the English, Welsh and Scottish efforts at devolving school management identifies follow-up research that highlights other aspects of the initiative, such as an increase in teachers' and principals' stress levels, largely unchanged educational standards and highly-centralised curricula.

Furthermore, in addition to a growing local body of academics expressing reservations (Angus, 1993; Apelt & Lingard, 1993; Brennan, 1993a, 1993b; Marginson, 1994; Smyth, 1992; Watkins, 1993) about largely ignored, but more complex aspects of any devolution initiative, evidence ("School bells warning," 1993) is emerging to suggest that ambitious claims about community acceptance in Victoria may have been made too early. Thus it is important to listen to those who are alluding to deeper concerns about changes that may ultimately restrict the capacities of teachers and principals–as key school stakeholders–to work effectively in schools, as well as comprehend the meanings and purposes of those who seek to sponsor change.

In summary, the review of the literature has shown that a further empowering of teachers may produce improved learning opportunities for students. However, the extent to which empowerment of the profession will occur appears to be dependent upon the resolution–from within and outside of the education field–of what, fundamentally, are moral issues. These issues relate to notions of schooling, the use of inclusive or exclusive leadership in the educational enterprise and the roles of teachers and principals. In addition, a recasting of intrinsic and extrinsic reward systems to take account of larger environmental concerns as well as to captivate and motivate teachers is required.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

In preparing to undertake this research, numerous issues had to be considered, including epistemological, political and other paradigmatic matters. What follows is a detailing of the positions which contributed to the decision to undertake a qualitative case study methodology. Following this analysis and justification of the research design, the procedures in relation to data collection and data analysis are outlined.

Research Design

Research paradigms: from dichotomy to rapprochement

Much of the educational research conducted in the last forty years has been dominated by a quantitative methodology (Eisner & Peshkin, 1990a). An emphasis on this paradigm has also characterised the research of fields of nursing (Duffy, 1987), gerontology (Campbell & Rand, 1988; Kenyon, 1988) and "other social and behavioural sciences" (Eisner & Peshkin p. 1). Based on positivism, quantitative research has provided substantial contributions to the world-wide search for facts, causes and understandings about human behaviour (Duffy). In the past two decades however, an increasing interest has been developing–within the educational community–toward qualitative research (Borg & Gall, 1989).

One outcome for the consideration of an alternate paradigm has been debate within the education fraternity. Arguments have varied in content and voracity, however several themes appear evident. Prominent amongst these themes are arguments about superiority of (one) method, the nature of rigour and research credibility and compatibility of both paradigms. Despite qualitative and quantitative research being premised on different assumptions (Borg & Gall), the standing and prominence of the latter paradigm has often resulted in theorists being sceptical of many qualitative studies (Campbell & Stanley, 1966; Gay, 1992; Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Guba and Lincoln (1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) have responded to the question of which method is superior by establishing a case for, or the boundaries of, the qualitative domain, arguing that a decision about which paradigm to pursue should be taken in light of the nature of the research. For Guba and Lincoln, the differential assumptions upon which each domain is based, are so great that it requires a researcher to choose between one method and the other. This view is not shared by Fetterman (1988), Jick (1983), Miles and Huberman (1984), Patton (1990), and Reichardt and Cook (1979), all of whom argue that opportunities exist to combine methodologies as well as to have each stand on its own. Indeed, despite his training being only in the quantitative paradigm, Patton—who is a keen qualitative

practitioner– believes discussions of one *versus* the other serve to reduce the options available to many researchers.

From Patton's (1990) perspective, it is preferable to increase researchers' choices rather than "prescribing the evaluators should or must *always* operate within one or other paradigm" (p. 38). Lincoln and Guba's (1985) absolute view that the naturalistic perspective is the only valid way to conduct studies into human beings has more recently, been tempered. Guba and Lincoln (1989) suggest that evaluators operating in "fourth generation mode, will use primarily, *although not exclusively*, qualitative methods" (p. 259). With a softening of their stance has come one rider–no causally inferential statistics can be used (if quantitative methods are included) as, they argue, causal linkages are at odds with phenomenologically oriented and constructivist research.

Like Miles and Huberman (1984), Patton is content to avoid engaging in intense debate about the methodological paradigms. Instead, Patton believes researchers should appreciate arguments from within the debate so as to inform decisions when planning and conducting a study. Furthermore, in Patton's (1990) view, knowing the characteristics of the paradigms debate and the controversies evident within and across both fields, leaves researchers better placed to comprehend that "all kinds of variations,

combinations, and adaptations are available for creative and practical situational responsiveness" (p. 39).

Nearly three decades ago, Campbell and Stanley (1966) indicated that experiments were "the only way of establishing a cumulative tradition in which improvements can be introduced without the danger of a faddish discard of old wisdom in favour of inferior novelties" (p. 2). In the intervening period between then and now, many adherents to the quantitative paradigm have endorsed that view. Most, however, including Campbell (1979), have modified or refined their positions concerning the primacy of positivism. Campbell remains convinced of the strengths of the quantitative paradigm but establishes his acceptance of the place of qualitative research, noting "science depends upon qualitative, common-sense knowing even though at best it goes beyond it" (p. 50). Moreover, in noting that for centuries research was successfully conducted without quantification and based on common-sense knowing, Campbell suggests that in evaluative research where both paradigms are employed and contrary results emerge, the quantitative findings should be doubted, at least until discrepancies can be understood.

The paradigms debate has, as Eisner and Peshkin (1990b) observe, a vibrant history, and a continuing role. The dominant paradigm has, in one sense, been subjected to greater scrutiny than the qualitative paradigm

because so much more about it has been known. In an era that Guba and

Lincoln (1989) describe as "fourth generation evaluation", Eisner and

Peshkin (1990a) posit that, by contrast with the quantitative paradigm, there

is "no general agreement about the conduct of any of the types of qualitative

inquiry" (p. 1). A lack of canons and conventions in the qualitative domain

has been replaced by more idiosyncratic approaches, sometimes leaving

supporters of dual strands uneasy (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993; Miles &

Huberman, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Responding to the politics and nature of research

Within and beyond the paradigms debate, some commentators have

argued that (Borg & Gall, 1989; Patton, 1978, 1990; Reichardt & Cook,

1979) the selection of a research method should be influenced by the nature

of the investigation. Patton (1978) expressed concern with the penchant of

many researchers to expeditiously resort to a method with which they were

familiar, rather than taking account of the nature of the research project or

the views of research stakeholders–whether they be participants, information

users or funding personnel. According to Patton (1978) methodological

considerations extend beyond issues of technique and notions of validity,

reliability and rigorous design. Patton argues "design and data collection

decisions are a far cry from being neutral, objective, or rational; such

decisions are political, subjective, and satisficing" (p. 202). Furthermore,

having conceded that no study is without flaws, Patton maintains that "error-free instruments do not and cannot exist in the measurement of complex human, social, behavioural, and psychological phenomena" (p. 180).

Routine ways of thinking about and engaging in research–irrespective of paradigmatic choices–should also be resisted, Patton (1990) posits, because of the risk of researchers losing "the cutting edge of their own creativity" (p. 138). Eisner (1988) also acknowledges the need of researchers to consider the politics inherent in decisions about–and the implications of–methodological judgements. Eisner believes that the politics of method invoke consideration of issues of status, power and control. Like Patton, Eisner accepts that whichever path is followed, neither will be epistemologically value-free. Rather than fruitlessly aiming for neutrality, Eisner is keen for researchers to comprehend the partiality of all research endeavours, and the impact research has on shaping, and notions of, truth. Research, Eisner argues, also limits as well as illuminates what the reader is able to experience. Although encouraging a wide range of debates within the research field (1990b), Eisner (1988) is intolerant of those who seek "to impose a single version of truth" (p. 19).

Educational researchers, Eisner suggests , need to be competent in understanding the influence of their own and others values, beliefs and experiences in shaping the selection and conduct of research. This he

believes, should help researchers to remember that no approaches or findings are unassailable. In Eisner's opinion, these views are gaining increasing recognition within the educational research community. Researchers are becoming more mindful of a host of issues surrounding educational inquiry prior to, during and following investigations.

Wax (1971) has written extensively on the role of researchers, and in particular fieldworkers. Having spent much of her adult life engaged in anthropological fieldwork, she echoes Eisner (1988) and Patton's (1978, 1990) view that rigidity and narrowness of approach on the part of the researcher may restrict what can be achieved in the study. Wax comments "a researcher who is determined or ordered to do nothing but administer and analyse sample surveys can work only with respondents who live in the same world of meaning as he does" (p. 6). Following research conventions to the letter often results in lost opportunities according to Wax, and she asserts, is less important than other fieldwork concerns. In suggesting this, Wax indicates that her intention is not to denigrate theories, methods or techniques, but instead to encourage researches to be open and responsive to circumstances in order to capture more of what is happening.

Tailoring research to empower participants

Wax acknowledges the eminence and authority of the respondent over the researcher–regardless of skill and sensitivity–in understanding a culture.

This coalesces with Eisner's (1988) view of educational researchers increasingly recognising the primacy of practitioner commentary, and returning to school sites to work more harmoniously with teachers than in the past. Eisner believes the purpose of this is "to work with teachers as colleagues in a common quest and through such collaboration to rediscover the qualities the complexities, and the richness of life in classrooms. We are beginning to talk with teachers, not only to teachers" (p. 19).

Kincheloe (1991) echoes the calls of those such as Eisner, Patton and Wax who believe greater insights an understandings can be gained through the active engagement of key stakeholders. Human instruments, Kincheloe believes, are particularly suitable for capturing educational experiences and effects. The idiosyncratic or unusual event or individual in schools is, potentially better able to be researched by the human (as research instrument), ahead of more traditional research instruments because of the capacity to respond to settings, opportunities and nuances. Kincheloe notes "no longer can emancipatory–oriented researchers allow science to blind the knower intentionally, thus restricting what science can 'see' in the world of education" (p. 30). Lincoln and Guba (1985) endorse the need for a human instrument when research is to be conducted in a natural setting.

A natural setting, Lincoln and Guba argue, is essential for naturalistic inquiry because "phenomena of study, whatever they may be–physical,

chemical, biological, social, psychological–take their meaning as much from their contexts as they do from themselves" (p. 189). Consideration of context and temporality must be made if researchers –and stakeholders–are to understand phenomena, (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1980, 1990; Yin, 1984). Context provides oppportunities for the researcher to understand unique and ordinary influences on the lives or issues of participants.

The need to appreciate context is also linked to a holistic view of research, which "assumes that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" (Patton, 1980, p. 40). By adopting a holistic approach in an investigation–as occured in this study–a reseacher is able to gather whatever data is necesary to a create a fuller picture than may have been possible, for example, through a research design that was narrowly focussed.

Situationally responsive research

An important challenge concerning this study was to determine which measures would be appropriate after consideration to the purpose of the research, the personnel and circumstances at the schools and issues of research obtrusiveness. Eisner (1988) is critical of many past research forays into schools because of inadequate consideration being given to the hosts by the (guest) researchers, citing many of them as "commando raids" (p. 19). In this study efforts were made to ameliorate such insensitivity and disregard through thorough pre- and post-fieldwork briefings with each of the school's

principals and teachers. This involved initial briefings with principals and subsequent briefings of teachers in staff meetings at three of the four schools. At the pilot school the principal briefed the teachers.

In retrospect, at the pilot school, it may have been preferable for the researcher to have been present in order to provide additional information to teachers about the nature of the study. Feedback and questions asked of the researcher during data collection visits to the site suggested that at least some doubts and misconceptions may have been dispelled by direct communication during the pre-fieldwork stage. Following analysis of the data the researcher conducted feedback sessions at each of the schools with principals and teachers.

Selecting research methods that both adequately met the needs of the research topic and yet did not unfairly impose on the day-to-day operations of the schools resulted in what Kellehear (1993) identifies as a combination of unobtrusive and obtrusive measures. On the basis of Kellehear's delineations, the interviews and conversations with principals and teachers constituted obtrusive methods, whilst the observations and appraisal of written document were unobtrusive measures. There are advantages and disadvantages to non-reactive, or unobtrusive measures, as well as to obtrusive methods. Indeed some of the methods defined by Kellehear as unobtrusive were qualified by Borg and Gall (1989) as also being capable of

producing reactive responses. Thus, for example, a major advantage of an unobtrusive measure is a capacity "to assess *actual* behaviour as opposed to *self-reported* behaviour"(Kellehear, 1993, p. 5). Clearly, observation qualifies as unobtrusive on that basis. However, as Borg and Gall note "when an observer is present, the teacher may 'put on an act' and display behaviour that is far from typical" (p. 502).

Differences in definitions between authors are of lesser concern than the issues that they raise, as the cogent point about all measures relates to their potential for producing reliable information and the degree to which they can be reasonably employed without impinging on the goodwill of the hosts. As noted in Chapter I, document appraisal provided some illuminating evidence. Some of the content analysis from the documentation was shared with teachers and principals during fieldwork and appeared to capture their interest. Collecting this documentation required little or no call on the time of school personnel and served as a reliable source of verifiable data.

Interviewing of principals and teachers was considered appropriate and necessary for this case study. This was obtrusive of participants' time and potentially reactive in terms of responses. The potential for respondents to provide inaccurate or unreliable information to the researcher was noted by the researcher. As Borg and Gall indicate, assurances about confidentiality and exchanging a rapport with respondents will not remove the potential for

this to occur. Nonetheless, efforts by the researcher to verify observations with interview responses and a third party (human or document) provided a degree of protection against this possibility.

Furthermore, in making decisions about the conduct of the research, it was considered important to obtain the opinions of those who could ultimately be directly affected by any such changes, should their authority or power be extended or diminished. Additionally, (theory) decisions or actions taken by others without adequate reference to teachers (as implementers) have the potential to limit or disempower, and have been so criticised (Apple, 1986; Bolin, 1987; Giroux, 1988; Hargreaves, 1994; Kincheloe, 1991).

Also of interest to the researcher was endeavouring to capture positive insights into principal-teacher interactions that may contribute to an area where there is a dearth of research pertaining to cognitive perspectives (Leithwood & Hallinger, 1993).

The place of research

The need for research to be both rigorous and credible is a point at which the views of Guba and Lincoln (1981; 1985; 1989) coalesce with other prominent practitioners (Cook & Reichardt, 1979; Fetterman, 1988; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Le Compte & Preissle, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Yin, 1984). Patton (1990) also adheres to the notion of research–regardless of epistemological choices–being both rigorous and credible.

As well as being of an impressive quality and effectively communicated, McGaw, Boud, Poole, Warry and McKenzie (1992) believe that research should be proactive, responsive to educational practice, and broader social and economic concerns plus link theory and practice. An explanation of how this study endeavoured to reflect these general features of research which McGaw et al. identified as increasing "the prospect of it having an impact on educational thinking and practice" (p. 66) follows.

Proactive research: hearing the voices of teachers and principals

Whilst employee empowerment and, in particular, teacher empowerment has received considerable attention in Canada and the United States during the past decade (Bolin, 1989; Maeroff, 1988) comparatively little research on this subject has been pursued in Australia. It as been cited as a necessary ingredient both in the quest for extraordinary performances from highly motivated teachers (Sergiovanni, 1990) and the postmodern age, an era of unprecedented change (Hargreaves, 1994). As such the research topic is in advance of local educational change.

Many researchers have employed methods that did not adequately take account of teachers' practical knowledge or voices (Gitlin et al., 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Smyth, 1992). This study both recognised and relied upon the worth of the teachers' and principals' explanations of their experiences and efforts. The three questions which guided the research acted

57

as a catalyst for reflection and discussion amongst some participants, with staff at each site expressing an interest in the study's findings. Given that the research sought to identify themes and patterns across and within participating schools, it may also have made an unpretentious contribution toward developing in some teachers "a feeling of being comfortable with one another and a confidence in their ability to work together to affect the quality of life in their school" (Mulford, 1987, p. 236). The interviews, verification and final feedback sessions appeared to also provide some participants with the opportunity to consider issues and factors which may influence interactions (between colleagues) or decisions.

Acknowledging limits and challenges in educational practice

Although respondents were required to use personal or professional time in order to participate in this study, genuine efforts were made by the researcher to accommodate their time and location requirements. The methodology and protocols selected were designed to seriously take account of the opinions, experiences and preferences of participants. That is, the qualitative case study–informed by an ethnographic perspective–enabled participants to give substantial input at the data collection stage. In addition to participation in the study being voluntary, each of the 53 participating teachers negotiated with the researcher the length of time for which they

were interviewed. Similarly the researcher negotiated a schedule with participating principals that made realistic demands on their time.

Collaborative research for shared growth

During fieldwork it was made clear to the researcher by several participants at each of the sites, that the very nature of the study involved an inextricable link between the characters of individuals and their engagements with others. Despite this view, most participants were able to accept the researcher's explanation that the research was geared more toward illuminating understandings behind particular attitudes and practices, rather than being oriented toward specific personalities or individuals. In this way the study may have provided professional development that promoted collective learning and furthering of collaboration amongst teachers. Senge (1990) believes "there has never been a greater need for mastering team learning in organisations than there is today" (p. 236). The interviews and subsequent feedback sessions enabled issues pertinent to the research to be aired and largely discussed without the need to locate the matters to specific personnel.

Teachers and public education: toward dignity and sophistication

Underpinning this study was a belief that empowerment was, in many ways, linked to employee motivation. Further undergirding this research was an endorsement of the broad elements contained in calls (Horne, 1976, 1989;

Jones, 1985, 1990; Yencken, 1986, 1989) for Australians and this nation to

maximise our international potential through better workplace practices.

Failure by organisations and individuals to explore change options may result

in lost opportunities that might otherwise have been beneficial both culturally

and economically. This study was also premised upon a view that,

potentially, gains could be made for personnel and public education if

teachers and principals were to become more empowered at the school level.

Thus if public education is to provide a more complex contribution to

society, key stakeholders within the enterprise must be treated with dignity

and sophistication.

Procedures

<u>Subjects</u>

The North/West Regional Office of the Directorate of Schools were

contacted for the purpose of gaining a list of schools that fulfilled the criteria

below. Principals and teachers were selected by purposive sampling. That

is, the researcher gained access to four primary schools that had the

following demographic features:

- Principals were female

- Schools were based in the inner-urban sector of the North/West Metropolitan Region of the Victorian Directorate of Schools;

- Students were drawn from largely middle-class backgrounds; and

- Schools had a minimum number of seven teachers on staff.

As only five schools in the region satisfied the above criteria, the first four on the list were initially selected. As one of those schools had no personnel available to answer the school's telephone, the researcher selected the fifth school on the list. Subsequent negotiations with the four schools resulted in four principals and 53 teachers participating in the study.

Yin (1984) notes that case research is often condemned because of apparent limitations in generalisability. This, according to Yin, is a misguided criticism as it is not a research strategy that is usually intended for statistical generalisability. Instead, a case study is generalisable to theory, Yin posits. Strauss and Corbin's (1990) position intersects with this view when they state "we are not attempting to generalise as such but to specify" (p. 191). Thus, in relation to sampling issues and theory development, the concern is with representativeness of concepts (for example, events, incidents, phenomena), not numbers of individuals or sites. Moreover, nonprobability sampling strategies are, according to Merriam (1991)

employed when "one wants to discover, understand, gain insight; therefore one needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most" (p. 48). This view is supported by Fidel (1992) who asserts that case study research, conducted largely in the qualitative domain, can "generate findings of relevance beyond the individual cases" (p. 37).

In this study it was anticipated that unique insights may be able to be obtained because the schools were led by female principals. Currently only 20 per cent of Victorian (government) primary principals are female (Victoria Office of the Minister for Education, 1993). The paucity of research on female principals is noted by Shakeshaft (1989) who also contends that there are subtle and dramatic differences in leadership practices between the genders. On these grounds, purposeful sampling that deliberately sought women principals, qualified as a politically important or sensitive strategy (Patton, 1980). Goetz and LeCompte (1984) also identify criteria which justify the use of purposive sampling. This research accounted for two criteria, namely unique-case and comparable-case selection. Whilst an insufficiency within the statistics and the literature supported the opportunity to study a unique group of principals, the use of similar individuals, geographic and organisational sites, and common cultural features provided the study with the capacity for cross-comparisons. Goetz and LeCompte believe comparable-case selection constitutes "the

ethnographers version of replication" (p. 83). Yin also believes opportunities for cross-comparisons created by the use of a multiple-case design are valuable in terms of replication.

Once approval to proceed with this study was forthcoming from the University of Tasmania, the University's Ethics Committee and the North/West Region of the Victorian Directorate of Schools, the following plan was pursued.

- Schools were approached by the researcher.
- Briefings were conducted with interested principals and teachers with a view to gaining informed consent.
- Understandings were negotiated with co-operating schools concerning protocols, timeframes, personnel interactions and reporting-back sessions.
- The researcher spent between 25 and 33 hours at each of the four schools, totalling to approximately 125 hours.

Ethical and Empowering Principles

In addition to University protocols, the researcher was guided by the following principles in the course of the study. Some of the outcomes from these guiding considerations are also noted.

The researcher endeavoured to protect the standing of herself, the study and the University by maintaining an impartial position amongst fieldwork participants. At the outset, in negotiations with respective principals and teachers, the researcher emphasised that the study was issue-oriented and not intended to personalise 'good' or 'bad', 'correct' or 'incorrect' participants.

Information that was provided on a confidential basis was respected as such, so as to protect and not identify sources. Moreover, teachers and principals were told that the names of schools, and participants would not be cited in the final report. As far as possible, identifying material was deleted from documentation so as to add to confidentiality provisions. This agreement has been adhered to when quoting participants. The report lists a numeral beside their contributions, rather than a name. Each teacher participant was randomly assigned a number from one to 53. This was done using a table of random numbers (Gay, 1992) to reduce the opportunity for identification of sources. The provision of numbers also provides readers with the opportunity to contrast different contributions from the same individuals. From across all the four sites, at least one contribution—and usually more—from each participant is reported. 'Gossip' was not included in the data that was collected. Additionally, the researcher avoided conveying

an impression of being co-opted by any particular individuals or groups within staffs.

Principals and teachers were informed at the outset that they could individually or collectively agree to not be part of the case study. If, after it had been agreed that the school would be part of the study, an individual teacher wished to withdraw from the study, the researcher indicated a willingness to oblige and not use his/her contributions in the analysis of data. From across the four schools only one teacher declined to participate in the study. Several other teachers who were away when the interviews were conducted, also did not contribute. Documents were not be examined without consent from the owner/holder. Participants had the right to amend or restrict aspects of an exchange in which they were involved for example, staff meetings, interviews. No participant subsequently enacted that right.

The offer to report on the findings pertinent to the site was extended by the researcher to likely host schools at the pre-fieldwork stage and was accepted by all schools. In all, 19 briefing sessions were conducted. Four were conducted with principals and three with teaching staffs prior to fieldwork officially beginning. Four meetings were held at the group verification stage with teachers. These four verification sessions were held at the two schools which had the largest staffs. These provided participants with opportunities to challenge the tentative data analyses and

interpretations. Four individuals from one school challenged one interpretation by the researcher. Two of these participants believed one finding had been understated. The other two participants believed that the same finding had been overstated. A further eight feedback sessions were held close to, or at, the completion of report-writing. The latter comprised four meetings with principals and four with teachers and principals. These provided participants with an opportunity to measure the findings from their sites against the overall patterns that emerged across the schools. The use of differential reporting-back is often justified by consideration of participants' circumstances (Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

Data collection

The investigation involved the researcher shadowing each principal for between one and three days, as the went about their jobs. Activities included attending curriculum and staff meetings, ordinary break-time gatherings in the staffroom, journeys to photocopying rooms and general offices. The balance of the time at each of the sites was spent interviewing teachers. This study focused particularly on the observed behaviour of each principal and her interactions with staff, the nature of these engagements, and the perceptions of each principal and teacher in relation to the research questions.

As noted in Chapter I, several ethnographic strategies were employed in order to gather information to address the research questions. These strategies included structured observation of the frequency of particular activities, unstructured observation of incidents, structured and unstructured interviewing of principals and individual teachers, as well as document review.

Structured observation data included maintaining a chronological record of each principal's work day activities (such as phone call inquiries/responses, issuing/reviewing of faxes and interactions with teachers). This enabled the researcher to develop a nominal profile of each principal's work day and, for example, to scrutinise the amount of time spent on particular tasks. Unstructured observation data included making notes of key or critical and/or historical events, revealed by principals or teachers on either a solicited or unsolicited basis. Key events included gatherings where each principal and staff was present, such as staff and curriculum meetings and celebratory functions. These events, according to Fetterman (1989) "convey a wealth of information" (p. 93). Several hour-long interviews were conducted by the researcher with each principal, whilst teacher interviews were comparatively brief and typically lasted for about 20 minutes, although one lasted for 90 minutes. The researcher audio-recorded interviews with

principals and made hand-written notes during interviews with teachers.

Field notes were also compiled from observations and document appraisals.

Structured interviews sought to identify patterns and themes amongst the teachers' responses within and across schools. Because of concerns about the researcher creating boundaries and meanings for respondents through structured interviews (Guba & Lincoln, 1981), no definitions were provided to explain 'empowerment' and 'motivation'. Answers to standardised questions from teachers enabled comparisons to be made with some of the principals' responses. By accessing information through unstructured interviews the researcher provided each respondent with the opportunity to introduce what he/she thought was relevant (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). This was considered to be appropriate as, methodologically, it recognised pluralistic or multiple world views. It is in these settings that Guba and Lincoln believe respondents' belief systems emerge, enabling the researcher to find explanations for circumstances not understandable by mere observation. Guba and Lincoln posit that "... the purposes of naturalistic inquiry are best served by nonstandardised interviews" (p. 157). Furthermore, the unstructured interview was deemed necessary as both the principals and teachers had special insights relevant to the research questions and the researcher was attempting to ascribe meaning to events. These two

features justified using nonstandardised interviewing as one of the data collection strategies (Guba & Lincoln, 1981).

By recording details concerning the correspondence from the Directorate of Schools to principals, the researcher was able to identify themes and patterns conveyed in these articles. The researcher added to these documents the sixty-nine News Releases issued by the Victorian Minister for Education between June 1993 and July 1994, obtained from the Directorate of Schools. These were obtained for analysis purposes and provided further evidence of inherent priorities, politics, philosophies and values (Fetterman, 1989). General acceptance of Fetterman's view that "people put their money in areas they care about" (p. 97) led to this document appraisal.

A grounding in pertinent literature provided secondary data and added to the theoretical sensitivity and supplementary validation of the study (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Reference to relevant literature prior to, during and following the fieldwork resulted in what Guba and Lincoln (1981) state is "multiple operations research ... or triangulation of methods ... the best means of ensuring that one will be able to make sense of data collected through interviews" (p. 155). The use of numerous data collection strategies is likely to result in the provision of more complex information than a unimodal approach (LeCompte & Goetz, 1984). Yin (1984) also believes

that multiple sources of evidence produce triangulation through the convergence of many lines of inquiry. It was also expected that these measures would enable the development of conceptual analyses that were grounded in "real-world data" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 68). In this study the intention was to adopt a qualitative approach and to conduct the study with "... subjects in a natural, unobtrusive, and non-threatening manner" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 47).

A case study was selected as the preferred research strategy for each site as it satisfied several conditions that Yin noted as being influential when choosing an approach. Case studies are usually well-suited to answering "why" and "how" research questions where no control over behavioural events is required, and where links need " ... to be traced over time, rather than mere frequencies or incidence" (Yin, p. 18). Although "what" questions can be answered by survey or archival analysis, Yin contends that they are also suitably pursued through case study when " ... the purpose is to develop hypotheses or propositions for further study" (p. 17). Peachment and Williamson (1993) further contend that case study is "a collaborative exploration with the facilitator acting on the premise that 'action learning' produces a better manager" (p. 5). This use of several data-gathering strategies was designed to obtain a richer understanding of the (teacher-principal) empowerment phenomenon.

Data Analysis

The researcher employed a strategy of analysing fieldsite data early in the research process, enabling initial understandings to be refined as the study proceeded. Third-party verification of the researcher's observations and respondents' comments were made at each fieldsite. Repeated readings of transcripts, fieldnotes and documents occurred off-sites. Margin and summary notes were made on and/or about these materials. The position of the Directorate of Schools was identified through a content analysis performed on Directorate and Ministerial documentation. The sorting of these documents revealed some significant within–and across–text patterns which were then able to be compared and contrasted against other evidence. This was done through the ongoing development of categories. These were similar in nature to the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Each of these categories represented significant (teacher, principal, Directorate, researcher) perspectives.

Some contrasting patterns from respondents' contributions were identified revealing additional insights about differing cultures and priorities. Comparable items from one data source were again regularly checked against the others for triangulation purposes (Fetterman, 1989). The depth and variety of the data was augmented by secondary data (literature) which combined to provide a richer insight into aspects of teacher–principal empowerment and motivation.

No attempt was made to quantify, in-depth, the perspectives raised by participants in this study. Nor was there a desire to generalise the findings from this study to that of another (statistical generalisation). Instead, as Yin (1984) suggests, the findings from a multiple case study should be generalised to theory (analytic generalisation). That is, the experiences at these schools related to issues of role definition, the separate enculturation of teachers and principals, rites of passage, democracy and matters of individual and collective empowerment and motivation.

Summary

This chapter has highlighted several key research concerns. Firstly, researchers require a broad understanding of the many research designs available. Of necessity this involves an appreciation of the paradigms debate and the potential benefits that can be derived from either, or a combination of the two fields.

Secondly, researchers need to take account of the requirements of likely participants and the wider community when making decisions about topics and designs. Furthermore, extensive consideration of the ethical principles which may inform the conduct of the research is necessary from the outset. In so doing, researchers need to be concerned with extending dignity and respect to participants as well as providing the field of research with a study that is deserving of serious consideration.

These tenets were influential in the planning and development of this study. The method represents a genuine attempt to fulfil a complex of views concerning how research can be conducted in order to assist, and engage, stakeholders who are involved in public enterprise. More specifically, this research shows how a qualitative case study can be employed to portray a fabric of understandings in relation to empowerment and motivation of school personnel. In this sense it may have succeeded in providing meaningful research that contains practical and policy implications (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). The results of the study will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Four factors were prominent in the data that emerged from this study. Recognition, support, respect and reliability were influential in the teachers' and the principals' behaviours and thoughts regarding empowerment. Interwoven into these factors was a fundamental issue of trust; trust of employees by the employer and vice versa; trust between teachers and principals.

The factors above emerged from the pilot case and were replicated in the data from the remaining three schools. The pilot case provided the researcher with opportunities to not only observe and interview teachers and their principal, but also to refine strategies for use in subsequent fieldwork. For that reason the pilot case is not reported in the detail or with the consistency that is evident across the other three cases.

In what follows, each of the four factors identified in response to the major research question (what features of teacher-principal interactions appear to empower participants, particularly teachers) is elaborated. These findings also provide responses that relate to the minor research question (how may empowerment of teachers contribute to their motivation?). Then

each of the three case studies is described and the principals' responses on

teacher empowerment are detailed.

Four Prominent Factors

<u>Recognition</u>

Teachers believed that interactions which occasionally included praise

for a noteworthy achievement or permission for something, impacted on

perceptions of empowerment and intrinsic motivation. Permission, used in

this sense, meant allowing or removing obstacles so that something could be

achieved. Some teachers believed that they received regular or occasional

recognition from their principal. Others emphasised the absence of praise in

their interactions.

> Teacher 31: The principal regularly praises what I do. The amount of
> acknowledgement I get is quite sufficient and (principal) often
> backs me in meetings.

> Teacher 29: In all my years here I can't ever recall having been given a
> compliment by the principal for something I have done.

> Teacher 48: Some positive feedback would be appreciated sometimes re.
> successes, you don't get it here, what you get is non-recognition.

> Teacher 36: I get compliments from (principal) regarding the work I do with
> my grade.

This failure to sometimes recognise other partners in the enterprise was

acknowledged by the principal as a shortcoming on her part. Often she

believed this was due to factors of time and other pressing concerns which

distracted her from fuller engagements with teachers. Unfortunately, the

75

situation was reciprocated in the sense of staff not providing the principal with positive feedback. This mutually unsatisfactory situation was, in part, compounded by the Directorate's modelling role. Both parties referred to some unrealistic expectations being placed on small schools by Directorate initiatives. None of the sixty-nine News Releases from the Minister of Education, The Honourable Don Hayward, focussed specifically on achievements being made by generalist teachers to Victorian education. Five specific references were made to fine work having been provided by principals in Schools of the Future activities (see example in Appendix F). Moreover, whilst principal associations are represented in key agreements and on central decision-making bodies, no similar association representing teachers is included. Some teachers believed lack of teacher involvement resulted in inappropriate top-down decisions and poor communication in the State education system.

> Teacher 48: Communication is poor, we are not usually told what is happening in the Directorate and nobody hears us.

> Teacher 36: Some of these supposed new things are not new at all and, being a small school, we're expected to do everything. You have to question the worth of some of these things.

> Teacher 31: We don't know where things are going, there's no direction, it's unclear, we're not informed.

> Teacher 33: In many Directorate decisions, teachers aren't even consulted anymore.

Support

Teachers mostly believed they would gain, and thus the students would benefit, from more support from the principal and Directorate. Despite tight fiscal circumstances, some teachers considered 'moral support' (Hargreaves, 1994) and more flexible structural support could be found.

> Teacher 33: Some support is given to the ... program here, which is encouraging. There's a budget and the principal wants the program. Small schools have really been hit hard by staff cuts–so much to do now with less time and less money.

> Teacher 36: If it really matters, she supports you.

> Teacher 29: There is no support from the top at this school, none.

> Teacher 42: The principal needs to share a joke and break the tension during staff celebrations or luncheons. Instead, she is so serious.

Respect

General opinion suggested that respect for other stakeholders, particularly teachers, encouraged feelings of control and ownership. Disrespect was evident when one party ignored, or did not carefully listen to, the comments of others.

> Teacher 42: A principal needs to be consistent in their manner with all staff. It isn't nice to be talked above.

> Teacher 36: (Principal) can represent the staff well at Council or curriculum meetings, she's articulate.

> Teacher 06: The principal doesn't treat many staff with respect. She's okay in her dealings with me–she listens.

> Teacher 29: I like to be listened to and understood.

<u>Reliability</u>

Teachers found feelings of empowerment were enhanced by a positive administrative presence. The presence expected was not an overbearing one, rather, being available if required. Participants indicated that the nature of teaching was such that often teachers required access to a principal for verification of an initiative or decision they wished to proceed with. Because of teachers' non-class time being severely limited at present, flexible access was deemed important. Reliability concerns also extended toward other issues which were linked to the Directorate. Altered tenure arrangements, unclear career paths and more specific authority being placed in the hands of principals created doubts in teachers' minds as to what to expect.

Teacher 36: You get a feeling that things are not getting done.

Teacher 06: The career opportunities for teachers are virtually non-existent. That has impacted massively on me.

Teacher 29: In this environment a positive, consistent approach is needed. Teachers are not getting that.

Teacher 33: The central office used to be there to help teachers; not anymore.

The Three Case Studies

Turning to the data gathered from each school in the study, responses are organised around the three research questions:

• What features of teacher–principal interactions appear to empower participants, particularly teachers?

• Why do some principals seek to empower some teachers?

• How may empowerment of teachers contribute to their motivation?

By way of complementing these three research questions, data emerged around the themes of changes in job pressures and the employer's impression of teachers.

School B

"All of the teaching staff here are capable and hard-working teachers, *all* of them" announced the principal in response to an inquiry from the researcher. She was proud to work at "just about the best school in Victoria" and had "very strong beliefs about how people should be treated and regarded". Across the profession, teachers were not being given the recognition they deserved, and, as the principal's comment below attests, there are other concerns as well.

> I'm not gullible, *Schools of the Future* doesn't give us the autonomy that it is supposed to give, in terms of self-management. It's more on about self-governance–we'll wipe our hands of you" (schools), "you deal with the tough things, you fund your own schools. Basically, you run and staff them, but we're going to tell you what to do still essentially, and we'll make sure you do that because we're going to take central control over the curriculum. So whilst there is this seeming rhetoric about schools having a wonderful opportunity to make decisions for themselves in terms of the needs of community, it's bunkum. I think what will save us is that we do come from a decade where that was actually how things operated. It had its down sides too, but there was a genuine openness to encouraging schools to have a say in their direction while still maintaining a State system, a system where there were expectations and policies but they covered, and took into account, the range of differences and between schools. I don't see that now, we need to jealously guard the curriculum initiatives that have been made, to respect what teachers bring to the classroom and respect their differences, and to ensure that good stuff is still there, that they don't become frightened off, or become more inward or change their curriculum style because there

are going to be external assessment measures. That's the job of educational leadership at the moment.

At this school most staff expressed a sense of achievement with their classroom efforts: They worked hard, got along together very well and their principal was extremely hard-working. Overall, in their interactions with her, teachers came away reasonably satisfied that the dealings had enabled them to progress. In response to the first research question, when asked to identify what features of their interactions most contributed to teachers feeling a sense of empowerment, comments such as the following were given which, among other considerations, evidence the different ways teachers achieved feelings of recognition.

Teacher 41: She sees me as an individual, listens to what I say, gives me a lot of scope with my children. She trusts me to do my job.

Teacher 19: It is her very positive attitude at times, in certain ways. For example, if there is a crisis with a teacher, she understands. She praises what I do.

Teacher 51: Usually she recognises and praises what I'm trying to do but more is needed. She listens and responds well. Sometimes she can have an abrupt manner, which can be discouraging, and it means I go elsewhere to satisfy my requirements.

Teacher 30: I'm allowed to explore and do what I want to do so long as the outcomes are positive. On the big things she is so supportive—on the little things, not enough sometimes. You need to be told more that you're doing a great job.

Teacher 17: She listens and is very supportive—particularly during crises, she takes the pressure off. She knows we are a hard-working staff. Sometimes she is too slow in recognising trouble, for example, a teacher going under because of pressure. Overall she is very tolerant of differences.

> Teacher 01: Usually she is very positive with me–gives me room to move. Sometimes I have an uneasiness about her understanding of women who have children in relation to issues of time, energy and out-of-hours commitments.

Across the staff teachers believed in response to the same question they were well supported, relative to the issues of temporality and context. Money seemed to be in shorter supply than ever before! Nonetheless, so far as physical resources went, most teachers believed their requests were largely met. Teacher replacements were a dubious proposition, due to the new financial arrangements. Often they couldn't be provided to support an initiative. Moral and intellectual support was generally considered to be excellent as several of the following responses suggest.

> Teacher 05: Mostly there's great support here. Sometimes there's not enough from the principal but she seems to reflect on things and then she provides more.

> Teacher 17: The support here is quite good–I get what I require.

> Teacher 14: With (principal) there is a lot of give and take. You have to have thought something through with (principal) and be able to justify where it fits. If you can, she is usually really good. You have to be ready because she has an up-front style that can be confronting and she thinks on her feet; often reflects then modifies her initial comments, if they weren't what you were wanting. Usually what she decides makes sense.

> Teacher 11: (Principal) gives you ample latitude and back-up as far as she can. She shares a joke with you.

> Teacher 07: There is plenty of support from the principal, as required. My efforts are acknowledged but I'd prefer more.

The manner in which the principal at this school operated drew great respect from teachers. It was a respect that most believed was reciprocated

on a collective and individual basis, despite occasional harshness in interactions which were generally unpopularly received. Most teachers appreciated the esteem afforded them, as outlined below:

> Teacher 18: The principal trusts people to do the job here. She knows how much we do and relies on us. It if looks like a bad day though, you avoid her because her mood may not be the best.

> Teacher 24: I feel the principal respects me and it is reciprocated.

> Teacher 14: She (principal) admits her own errors publicly and understands how hard this staff works.

> Teacher 02: She (principal) trusts me to know and do my job, gives me excellent support and back-up and I respect her greatly.

> Teacher 05: I have great respect for the principal and I feel it is reciprocated.

Being reliable or predictable also figured in the features of principal-teacher interactions that contributed to an enhanced sense of autonomy and empowerment. Diminished predicability however seemed to be disconcerting to some teachers who were unable to accurately estimate the principal's responses to some issues or circumstances. Most teachers believed they could gauge the expected behaviour or attitude of their principal, as the following extracts indicate:

> Teacher 26: In situations where there is parent complaint, I can predict very accurately how the principal will react. She'll be responsive and courteous with the parent, but–if I've done nothing wrong–she'll back me completely. She trusts me and vice versa.

> Teacher 50: The position (principal) would adopt on a parent coming to complain is very clear. Some of my parents have and she is very supportive.

> Teacher 22: In terms of support for the school, or teachers with parents, if there are problems, she is excellent. She hasn't sold out and you

> can count on her–provided everything has been done properly, she will definitely stick by you.

Teacher 19: Often there are unexpected responses to events which are difficult to understand. In the face of a parent complaint however, she is very good.

Teacher 12: I find on some matters that I am less clear about how the principal will react. Things are unpredictable and it makes me nervous because I am unsure about how things are handled.

All of the teachers at this school believed that they worked well at their jobs, and that, individual differences in affinity aside, this was a fundamental test of support for the principal. Teachers at this school were asked whether they believed job pressures had altered, compared to four years ago.

All but two of the teachers interviewed indicated that pressures had increased during that period. Most suggested the change was substantial and broadly-based. One of the teachers had not been teaching for a period of four years. However she considered there was significant pressure associated with the job that she had not comprehended during teacher training or as a high school student. Pressure sources were both external and internal to the school, and impacted teachers on a collective and individual basis.

Teacher 41: The changes from the Directorate have not assisted my efforts. The increased pressure may have come with a greater understanding of my role. There's pressure because of time and the volume of tasks you have to get through. The effort required is enormous. The D.S. are making decisions where they have no idea. I'm really angry and frustrated that they are making cuts that impact on disadvantaged kids. The job is stressful–too many responsibilities for the money that teachers get. I put pressure on myself, but I see it as my duty.

Teacher 49: Since the change of government there has been an increase in pressure and stress. Before the change there was a sense of value and the job was getting quite good; teachers were feeling quite proud about what they were doing and were being acknowledged. Now there's no acknowledgement for what you are doing by the Directorate. You feel responsible for your class.

Teacher 50: You know people worry a lot but I don't. You are constantly evaluating yourself, your kids, your programs–that's enough without added things. The pressure and stress have increased. The 80s were the good times, Bob Hawke, lots of freedom, less expectation, less pressure. All we have now is money shortages and greater expectations. Its all the other stuff that makes it hard. We are doing too much. We should be working on morale. Teachers get criticised. We have to become more effective with our time-use. We're going to too many meetings. I want to put my effort into my area. I'm here till 6 o'clock each night but I don't want to use time attending six meetings. We need less paperwork. We must be encouraged to work together and bounce off each other.

Teacher 18: The pressure and stress have increased and not just in the classroom, there's all the meetings, the increased class sizes. There is a real responsibility coming back on schools and school councils and you get a feeling about liability so you take that on board. Teachers have a poor perception in the wider community; media reporting on literacy filters through to teachers. They said they would weed people out when the redundancy plan was announced. What happened was the good ones took them and the weak ones are still there. There are pressures brought about by those who don't pull their own weight. They are setting one teacher against the other.

Teacher 12: There has been an increase in the pressure, sometimes the central office is unrealistic. The academic expectations are put on children from such an early age. The PR of the school–is it for the children (which is why we are here) or the agenda (political or economic). You care because the bottom line is money. You've got to provide the same for less. You have to wangle things to survive. The pace of work. You can make changes and cuts, but what sort of teacher do you become?

When asked what participants believed was their employer's impression of teachers, there was a uniformity to the answers.

Teacher 26: More and more we are becoming technicians rather than professionals in our own right. They are taking away our profession. They are economic rationalists.

Teacher 12: Devalued, they don't give teachers a thought. I wouldn't mind so much if there was a purpose or masterplan. Yet there doesn't seem to be one. Heywood has no idea. Its not money that makes me run. I want a productive, positive working environment with us catering for differences; kids and teachers. There's no career, no choice, no promotion, no mobility. I *had* chances and I *had* choices.

Teacher 24: The Directorate of Schools has an extremely low impression of teachers. There is no understanding of the coalface. They don't really care. It's purely a numbers and monetary game.

Teacher 05: An expensive, necessary nuisance. They don't cater for us, understand us or appreciate the gamut of skills, that teachers have. There's a non-recognition of teachers' jobs and what they involve and our achievements.

Teacher 01: We've never done enough and we have to do more. Mind you, we got some of that under Labor too.

When asked how greater control or autonomy might assist teachers' motivation, responses varied.

Teacher 24: If you give them latitude and a greater sense of control they reciprocate in other areas. They need to allow for a greater focus on the classroom, have less pressure on teachers and show some support for teachers. Help us do the job, not hinder people.

Teacher 11: This is a highly motivated staff already. But more time would help. Less paperwork, more specialists and a say in the curriculum would suit me.

Teacher 01: You know what you've been able to do with children; how beneficial it is for kids. Now there is an element of guilt. Can you do what you want to do? You're trying to battle with that and support each other and make decisions that conserve

energies. In an ideal world there would be more staff to share jobs. Better defined career structures. An AST could work on curriculum rather than administrative paperwork. There would be time to implement change management, priorities and not get frustrated at the little things.

Teacher 17: I wanted to be a teacher for as long as I could remember. The way things have become has set women back from going to the top, either as principals or VPs. I didn't come into teaching to fire staff. When they made principals do that, I pulled back. Teachers are not given respect by the Directorate. Teachers deserve it and it would help our image. We have to have the resources, so kids are not stretched, because, for example, of class sizes. There are profiles on everything–some records are necessary but evaluation shouldn't be too detailed. We could reflect more if we were given more time. Our performances would be more consistent.

School C

By her own admission, the principal at this school was "hard-boiled"– not easily convinced that education initiatives which accompanied successive governments could deliver what they purported to offer. In her twenty-odd years of service with the State education system she had seen a breadth of centrally-evolved education innovations–some outstanding and many which promised more than they delivered.

Altered priorities from a new government and *Schools of the Future* involvement were greeted with a mixed response, although the overall impression was generally unfavourable. The development of a school charter for example, she believed, "was a good thing". But other initiatives were

driving a really big wedge in between staff and the principal. In a way, the principal used to be the leader of the staff–but one of the staff–and their interests were seen to be the teacher interests. Now the staff, whilst they would like to see me in that role, know that there are salary and structure changes, contracts and superannuation concerns that make my interests different to theirs, and it does effect the relationship we have between us.

Despite significant reservations about many of the directions and values embodied in current state education undertakings, the principal will implement these policies, endeavouring, along the way, "to take the good things and turn them into better, because we are already doing good things, a new curriculum document, for example, is not going to cause us to radically restructure our teaching".

Pragmatism, this principal believed, would enable her to achieve more in the longer term, than highly-principled resistance. Nonetheless, the new directions in Victorian public education have caused her to question and review a range of ethical, philosophical and educational matters. Newly-invested powers in principals would enable them to, for example, receive the payment for a teacher's salary and either partially or totally encash it.

She was not sure what messages teachers would take from that, but she was confident that it would be negative. For this principal, the focus remained on ensuring that the school she led continued to deliver an excellent level of education. In the course of continuing to pursue excellence this principal continually tried "to get staff to see, even in a situation like this that

they are valued even if they're seeing that the higher administration doesn't

value them or that the messages coming down don't value them".

The teachers at this site voiced similar preferences concerning which

features of teacher-principal interactions appeared to enhance their feelings

of empowerment. The following comments pertain to the major research

question, and begin with remarks about the importance of recognition.

Teacher 45: Here there is considerable recognition, both written and informal for what you do. Mind you, if you don't have your displays up, you get told about it.

Teacher 38: My relationship with the principal is not what I'd like it to be. I don't feel valued.

Teacher 44: (Principal) takes an interest in my programs, compliments me and knows what I am doing. At my other school the principal never even looked at my work–there was a lack of recognition there, negative interactions and no acknowledgement.

Teacher 52: There is a feeling that information is getting through, that you can actually say something. The door is available to be opened and there is recognition and ownership–a part to play and giving teachers things that they can achieve.

Teacher 39: People who get to the top now have a broader, informed view. People with divergent views have to allow for different ways to head in the one direction. That happens here (principal) values teachers' contributions and achievements.

Support from the principal was generally provided at this school to the

extent that people believed their work was facilitated, rather than inhibited.

Teacher 03: There is an inclusiveness here, the curriculum, resourcing and professional development support is good.

Teacher 45: The public and private support here is excellent.

Teacher 21: (Principal) encourages and supports me. She informs us about what goes across her desk. Sometimes there is humour. She's flexible.

Teacher 28: If you're organised and you want something, she listens and either, you will be left to do it or there'll be action and something will be done. Usually I get the support I want from principals.

Teacher 53 Here there is a consistency of support from the top. The principal doesn't waiver in her support for me.

Respect for this principal was widespread and overall teachers believed it was reciprocated as the comments below suggest.

Teacher 09: In my first few weeks here she let me know that she had faith in my abilities and I found that very affirming. The messages are clear, not shrouded in other things and she is into sharing and delegating–I like that.

Teacher 32: She listens and you can expect a fairly positive response. After my last school, she is like a breath of fresh air.

Teacher 13: She allows you to be involved. I trust her 100 per cent–she doesn't abuse what she knows about you and not many principals face their weaknesses, I think (principal) does.

Teacher 39: Good leaders trust their teachers and that happens here–she believes the work will be done, people are valued.

Teacher 45: A consistently friendly, warm greeting is what I get from (principal) and she empathises. I could follow her through a fire.

Teachers at this school valued a reliability or predictability about the principal. It meant for many of them not wasting time or energy worrying:

The principal could usually be relied upon to ensure that teachers' requirements were being met or their interests handled as well as could be expected, given the extent of external influences.

Teacher 44: I feel I can approach the principal with confidence knowing that the reaction will be positive.

Teacher 09: There is a consistent greeting whenever or wherever we meet. There's also a calming presence about her. I feel confident in predicting how she will react to important things. If there's a

89

problem she wants to get to the bottom of it, and she keeps you informed at every stage, lets you have a say.

Teacher 38: The communication is effective but the principal can be sharp.

Teacher 03: When I go to her the issue might be redirected but usually I get what I expect. You can rely on her to back you up, if it matters.

Teacher 32: I can fairly accurately guess how the interaction will go and how she will be respond with parents.

Compared to four years ago, the job pressure had increased noted all participants, and some teachers found the changes to be less palatable than others.

Teacher 38: The pressure is much greater now. I feel inundated with paperwork. The standardised testing may force me to change my methods.

Teacher 28: Things have changed greatly–the general community has a negative view of teachers and public servants, there is less money and they want more for less. The pressure is greater and so is the stress amongst staff.

Teacher 21: Without doubt the pressure has increased, the job is changing greatly in some ways. You can't just focus on your kids anymore.

Teacher 13: The job has changed massively. The paperwork alone now is a big factor. Then there is the pressure because of the Directorate's cuts.

Teacher 32: Yes, there is a massive change of pace. But it is vital to have both good public and private education systems.

Different perspectives were held by participants regarding their impression of their employer's perception of teachers. However, none of the participants identified any positive images as being part of the employer's view of the government teaching profession.

90

Teacher 01: Not much, to be used and do what we're told to by the central office.

Teacher 38: I don't think the government cares very much about working class schools. They have increased our workload considerably and created divisiveness with the competition ethos and big class sizes.

Teacher 53: The status and esteem of teachers is such that we are disempowered. There is no career structure. There is increased compliance due to a decline in individual authority. There is a perception that we are being punished like naughty children. The changes from the Directorate have caused conflict. It reminds me of Taylorism.

Teacher 21: Our skills are not appreciated. There is no career structure to strive for, no incentives. I don't think they care very much.

Teacher 52: Terrible. Where's it leading to? I've come through the 70s. There's no democracy on a local level. I feel angry and disheartened as we are all tarred the same. There's no individuality. You get to the point where you say, does it matter?

When asked–in relation to the third research question–how greater control or autonomy might assist teachers' motivation, the following extracts were among the responses given.

Teacher 09: I've cut back here because of the way I've been treated. The better my relationship with the principal, the more I apply myself.

Teacher 03: In my other school I didn't see my initiative valued. Here I do and I give more.

Teacher 13: This is a highly motivated staff and I think senior, competent staff need to be careful of taking too much on in terms of the seeding of juniors.

Teacher 21: What they get out of teachers. I'll probably leave soon the Directorate doesn't appreciate teachers' skills; the feedback, incentives and recognition are virtually non-existent.

<u>School D</u>

The principal of this primary school remarked,

> some of the things I would have scoffed at as a teacher in a classroom I've
> come to recognise, are an important part of the role of a principal. Dealing
> with school council and all the sub-committees–all time-consuming–takes
> you away from that focus of just children. I think some of the reasons,
> certainly in the present climate, that I can't operate in the manner that I
> want to are because of the DSE and the sorts of policies that they are asking
> us to implement. They are asking us to move away from the focus of
> schools, curriculum and students to being able to effectively manage a
> budget. It is largely to do with economic rationalism. In fact, I can see no
> reason whatsoever why we should go into a project such as *Schools of the*
> *Future.*

Despite profound reasons to doubt the appropriateness of the
Victoria-wide scheme, the school which this principal leads, will be in one of
the intakes shortly. In the opinion of this principal, she has "a great group of
teachers who put in an enormous effort for this community".

In response to the major research question which asked teachers to
identify features of interactions between themselves and principals that
enhanced feelings of empowerment, teachers at this school spoke of factors
that were evident at the other sites. A selection from some of the comments
that considered recognition of the effort and challenges facing teachers to be
influential is shown below.

> Teacher 16: (Principal) shares knowledge with you. You can tell she was an
> excellent practitioner. It is always clear that the kids come first.
> She is highly motivated and into empowering people, lets you run
> with an idea. She has a sensitive approach to giving people
> messages. She's the best principal I've ever worked with.

Teacher 34: Often when I come away from (principal) I feel really good because she responds well when you use your own initiative. If she does turn it down, it's for a good reason, and it is explained. I get lots of praise here and feel very comfortable and safe.

Teacher 15: Yesterday I raised an initiative, she listened. She physically turned her attention to me, and realised that it was a suggestion that she should do something about. She was empowering because she then chose to include me in the outcome in a directed way. We worked on it together, shared the workload. She gave strong, clear directions. She has a straightforward style and either totally accepts an idea or likes to negotiate so the teacher can get a chance to represent their views. She is a committed principal, prepared to do the hard bits. I trust her judgement and I approve of her values and principles. With her I can take risks with ideas. She is loyal and praises, which I like. In essence, it is a solid professional relationship.

Teacher 47: (Principal) gives us lots of leeway and is interested in us trying new things and new opportunities. She is not restrictive in terms of programs. She trusts us and our expertise to run programs. On a couple of occasions she has approached me to specifically compliment me on my work. She listens to what I say but sometimes her attention doesn't seem to be there or she can be abrupt or harsh in interpersonal relationships.

Teacher 08: (Principal) makes time for you and usually is attentive and tries to follow through; she doesn't say no very often and understands where I come from and what my needs are. She gives people latitude yet tries to be fair and to do what is best for children and teachers.

Supportive interactions and follow-through also contributed to a sense of empowerment–just as the absence of support seemed to disempower.

Teacher 47: In conversations on a one-to-one basis you can count on her on the big issues. She is aware of, and concerned for, an individual's needs. There's latitude in the job. She's sympathetic about work demands. She's probably more worried than other principals; she's very emotionally keyed into the job. Sometimes that creates insensitive, abrupt interpersonal dealings which can add to feelings of disempowerment.

Teacher 37: Generally, she is empowering and supportive. If there is a parent complaint she is very supportive, unlike previous principals here.

She gets the details from the teacher and then handles it–staff know she's with them. She trusts the teacher to do the job. Communication on an interpersonal basis with some teachers can be less than effective or sometimes she makes snap decisions.

Teacher 27: (Principal) is extremely supportive of teachers and follows through constantly. Always very professional and prepared to take things on and not leave the teacher to have to carry it. Sometimes responses are abrupt or out-of-the-blue but overall she's very obliging and concerned about what you think.

Teacher 40: I find her very supportive and enjoy working with her. Her greatest strengths for me are her sense of humour and her availability. On a one-to-one basis her interpersonal skills are very good.

Teacher 25: You get freedom in terms of being able to choose resources for your program, you're entrusted to do the job and get feedback about how the program is going. However, she sometimes does not handle interpersonal concerns sensitively–gets the guns out too early.

Respect for the principal was generally very high because of her decisive leadership, despite shortcomings with some teachers in interpersonal dealings. Teachers seemed to be strengthened by the presence of a leader who clearly articulated school directions but also respected staff, particularly on a collective basis, as the following comments indicate.

Teacher 35: (Principal) speaks appreciatively; anticipates and rewards success–she follows up informally. You know she realises where things are at and how hard we work.

Teacher 20: She trusts you to have a go, questions you about educational theory, informs you. The trust in your ability is refreshing. She'll push you to go for jobs.

Teacher 10: She listens, thinks and reflects. Her consultations are fair and I trust her one hundred per cent because I trust her to know what not to ask.

Teacher 23: (Principal) encourages staff to have a good sense of selves.

94

Teacher 43: My advice is sought and she is positive about the benefits my children derive from my efforts.

At this school there was a very clear impression by staff that the principal's behaviour on key concerns could be accurately predicted. On pivotal matters, teachers believed they knew where the principal stood. Particularly appreciated at this site was the principal's preparedness to consistently stand by teachers in the face of parental criticism–something experienced by almost every teacher over the course of a couple of teaching years.

Teacher 33: This principal has resisted being a go-between with parents and teacher problems. Instead she is a bit of a buffer because she expects you to know your job and has confidence in your ability. With parents I can confidently predict her behaviour. I've never worked with a principal I would rate more highly.

Teacher 08: Access to her is not always easy because of her commitments and teachers' commitments. She stands by staff.

Teacher 47: You can rely on her reactions–she's predictable on really important issues.

Teacher 15: She is predictably consistent in her approaches, for example, you never get called in cold re. a parent problem. She admits her mistakes, values government education, *likes* the children. At first I was unsure of her sense of humour–it was difficult to interpret as to whether there was a hidden message. It isn't so much a problem now because I've got used to it.

Teacher 40: Generally she is pretty consistent in what she does, although occasionally she could consult a little more with staff.

Compared to four years ago, the job pressure had increased, said each of the participants, as the vignette below demonstrates.

Teacher 43: The pressure, uncertainty and stress have increased. There is a lack of control over our destiny.

Teacher 20: The pressure has increased. The overall climate is unpredictable, there is no career path and it is disillusioning.

Teacher 37: The Directorate and the parent population have increased the stress and pressure of the job. There is not enough time for teachers. They see us as economic units to manipulate. They are not very good at dealing with smaller units. They keep it remote and they're not accountable for their actions.

Teacher 10: There is increased pressure plus stress and a lack of caring by the Directorate for children within the State system.

Teacher 46: Pressure and stress are up and I'm not convinced that the government has the best interests of the kids at heart.

When asked what participants believed was their employer's impression of teachers there were clear patterns across the answers provided.

Teacher 27: They don't value them for their expertise, don't treat them as professionals or give teachers open information. I think there is a hidden agenda which makes your job insecure and impacts on how you do your job.

Teacher 15: There is a concern about accountability. They want more control, to prescribe what teachers and schools will do. Teachers are being devalued in the same way as the early 70s—divisive, separated in ways that are anti-skill sharing and forced to compete in a D of S-led way.

Teacher 04: They treat us like imbeciles and incorrectly view us as a politically aware and radical group, as 'opposition'. They have a low opinion of us and we are being punished—pulled into line—and disempowered.

Teacher 35: As bodies to be burnt out. They can't have any idea, because they wouldn't be so cruel. If they knew how hard we work they would never do what they are doing. In the last five years a lot of the joy went out of teaching.

Teacher 10: I think they think teachers are a lot of bludgers.

When asked (in relation to the third research question) how greater control or autonomy might assist teachers' motivation, answers representative of the following were provided.

Teacher 27: Teachers could focus more on the students for example, by doing less paperwork. There is too much paperwork which needs to be done by non-teachers.

Teacher 37: More human resources put into schools and smaller class sizes would allow us to spend more time with the children.

Teacher 40: Generally it would improve teacher morale. There's more pressure and stress now because of the cuts, no consultation with teachers and everything is dollar-related.

Teacher 43: Morale is low because the internal is impacted by the external. You could challenge, move forward. Now teachers have to sit back and take it, being told and dictated to without consultation.

Principals' Responses on Teacher Empowerment

Each principal was asked to explain, in relation to the second research question, why they sought to empower some teachers (more than others). In asking this question it was assumed that differential treatment of staff members took place at each of these sites. All principals confirmed that assumption. Subsequent synthesising of concepts in each of the responses suggested that some factors influential in principals' decisions were common to four participants.

Prominent across all responses was a perception formed about each teacher's ability and judgement. This often figured in interactions with teachers who sought approval for an initiative. This view resulted in

principals giving quicker responses to proposals from teachers who were

regarded as knowledgeable or highly skilled. The following excerpts amplify

> Principal C: Well if I talk about the ones who I am quicker to respond to I do that because they're generally people whom I have more to do with on staff, so I talk with them more, I know the way they think, I know the sort of reading they are doing, and the professional development they're doing. So I'm in tune with their ideas before they bring me a particular model of something they want to do. Thus I have more faith because of more understanding of where they are coming from and how they're getting to the places they're getting to. Others–whom I don't have as much to do with–I have a lot of faith in their common-sense and their general responses to things through more general forums such as staff meetings, curriculum or team leader meetings.

> Principal B: If it is an experienced teacher I wouldn't stick my nose in it because they've got their way of doing things and they're most appropriate and very good. If it is a less experienced teacher I might sit down and talk things through with them just to get things clear for myself, rather than to say no. I don't think I say no very often. If I do, I sometimes reflect and maybe come back and re-negotiate an arrangement.

By contrast, teachers who were not perceived so favourably in terms of

abilities may have had responses delayed or less enthusiasm shown by their

principal, as these extracts show.

> Principal C: The ones that I am slower to respond to are the ones whom I feel most anxious about their classroom performances so they're the ones whom, in my role as principal, I'm cleaning up messes from –not necessarily often, but when I'm put in awkward positions by those people it means I back-back a little. In each one of those incidents arose an expectation that I had of them–even though I don't make judgements based on one side of the story– but with those people I tend to be slower to respond and far more questioning. For instance, yesterday when (teacher) and I were discussing that (curriculum) provision that she brought to me for the Curriculum Days, which is one of our major priorities for our school charter, we didn't discuss that in any great detail because a lot of that stuff she'd passed through, or by me before, and she and I feel confident in our conversation with each other

and treat ourselves as curriculum equals but I know that there are other teachers on staff who might bring me something out-of-the-blue, and in whom I don't have as much trust, admiration and respect and all those sorts of things and a discussion with them would be far more detailed and would not leave them–perhaps–feeling as positive as my discussion yesterday with (teacher) would have left her.

Principal D: With careful guidance, the reins on, to some extent–not necessarily from me–some teachers have actually been able to take on quite large tasks and operate effectively.

However, for one principal, the possibility of the initiator not being capable of successfully implementing an idea that he or she had put forward, would not result in discouragement from the principal, as she remarked.

Principal B: I would never knock back a staff member because I thought they couldn't do it (the proposal). In fact, quite the opposite, I would put in enough support so that they would believe that they could do it, and they would do it in the end.

Economic considerations were a factor in the decisions of principals to endorse or reject some proposals from teachers. For three principals however, this was infrequently the case. For the other principal it was more often an issue resources were usually constrained, as noted below.

Principal A: Most of the time I like to give teachers latitude regarding ideas or initiatives. Regrettably, frequently the initiatives can't go ahead because of financial considerations. If initiatives are expensive often they're just not on.

Ideological and philosophical considerations influenced four principals' decisions to encourage or inhibit teacher-initiatives. If proposals were interpreted by these principals as being of dubious educational merit, endorsements were unlikely, at least in the first instance. Principals believed

they usually then indicated to teachers that further supporting evidence would be required, or made suggestions as to how the proposal could be amended to enable the idea to be endorsed.

Organisational considerations also contributed to principals' decisions to encourage or inhibit initiatives from teachers. All four principals believed the potential for team or collective benefits to be derived from proposals often influenced whether or not they were proceeded with. This was especially so if the idea required significant expenditure or personnel.

Moreover, all principals in this study believed the job of the classroom teacher had changed considerably over the past decade. Thus, all agreed that teachers usually could not focus only on their class activities or programs. In keeping with this, tasks that were over and above classroom work tended to be shared amongst staff. This was either done on the basis of who volunteered, a teacher being identified by the principal as being capable of completing the work or consideration of salary levels. The latter factor often meant that those teachers who received monies for higher duties were expected to take on more administrative than colleagues who were on lower salaries. Thus these types of opportunities–which provided a range of career experiences–enabled the principals to encourage the development of skills in teachers who showed either a preparedness, or the potential, to engage in

activities that benefited the whole, or a section of the school. The following

extracts capture two principals' responses.

Principal D: A couple of factors come to mind. Firstly, when certain teachers come to me, it is not about self-aggrandisement. It is about improving the learning environment for the kids at (primary school) and I think that is fundamental. They also are people who have life experiences that enable them to look at a situation from many angles rather than with tunnel vision.

Principal A: Providing career-growth opportunities is important and, unfortunately there are fewer professional development openings for that now. Often you have got too many teachers for too few professional development activities, if they are outside the school. In those situations you have to look at what is best for and fits with the school, as well as considering the needs of teachers.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Principle Findings

Teachers across all schools expressed similar preferences–regarding the features of interactions with principals–that they believed maintained or increased senses of empowerment. Teachers wanted interactions between themselves and principals to be characterised by recognition, respect, support and reliability. Undergirding these features was a matter of trust. Recognition of teachers, both as individuals and as team members, contributed to feelings of performance efficacy and belongingness.

Clearly the desire to be recognised is not new in the teaching profession. However, the need for principals to sensitively recognise teachers may be more acute at this time in view of two widely-held views by participants in this study. Firstly, of the 53 teachers interviewed, 51 indicated a belief that the pressure of the job had increased considerably in the past four years.

The second perception was a unanimously-held view that their employer regarded teachers very poorly. The employer was identified either as the government or the Directorate of School Education, or a combination

of both. Without exception, teachers considered that the public teaching profession had, in recent years, been treated badly.

The significance of these teacher-held views for principals in terms of empowerment is that there is an impression, within the teaching profession, that the external (employer) support is limited or non-existent. This interpretation seems to have variously evolved, in part, through teachers believing that the employer wants almost everything at the school level to change, implying that immediate past efforts were inadequate. Another factor evident in responses referred to the employer's actions regarding cuts to public education funding. Teachers in this study interpreted the change-imperative as being imposed without consultation with them or their associations' involvement. This discounting of employees has resulted in teachers feeling additional pressures on the job.

Across all four sites in this study the principal evidenced an understanding of the difficulties faced by teachers in this regard. Each of the principals expressed concern for colleagues because of the manner in which many decisions had been made and subsequently notified to schools. Furthermore, the principals were motivated by a commitment to service, and believed that a majority of teachers were similarly inclined. Evidence of the primacy of this service orientation was frequently apparent in their comments

to the researcher. Statements often led back to references about "the best interests of the students" or "ultimately we're here for the students".

The importance of the service ethic in the working lives of these principals was also evident in many interactions with colleagues. The principals recognised and respected the crucial role that teachers occupied in the delivery of learning opportunities to students. The four principals believed that competent teachers should–as far as possible–be given the professional autonomy to make decisions about how best to operate within their classrooms.

All principals were knowledgeable about administration, curriculum, equity and other key matters. Each was effective in articulating these understandings on various occasions with colleagues, either for the purpose of sharing knowledge, explaining the advantages or shortcomings of an issue, or inquiring about classroom progress. Day-to-day interactions of principals with teachers also evidenced an emphasis on conversations about student achievement–whether of a non-academic or academic nature.

All of the principals in this study were conscious of the need to interact effectively with teachers–especially because of the current climate– but each admitted to lapses, of varying degrees, or on-going interactions with specific teachers that were less than what they desired. Across the schools teachers spoke of appreciating recognition regularly. A majority of the 53

teachers indicated that they would benefit from such feedback it were given more frequently than was the case (at the time of the study).

Respect for teachers by principals was identified (by participants) as a feature of interactions which often influenced feelings of empowerment. Almost three-quarters of all teachers believed evidence of the principal respecting teachers could be found in the way they interacted with staff collectively and individually. Difficulties that teachers encountered could be raised with principals, and seemed to be better understood when principals maintained respect for colleagues.

A level of respect was clearly present when teachers were given autonomy in the classroom. However, five teachers from one school where they felt well respected, qualified their views in terms of the principal's expectations regarding workloads. Each teacher claimed to put in between 45 and 50 hours work typically each week. This, they suggested, was often insufficient relative to the requirements being placed on them. Often it meant taking substantial amounts of work home to complete. Whilst working at home was commonplace for teachers, they believed, the amount that they had to do impinged on their home lives. The regularity with which they found themselves with such work after school-hours diminished feelings of control as they believed that challenging such work expectations may

jeopardise their work interests elsewhere, especially given that–as they acknowledged–the principal consistently worked even longer hours.

Teachers generally were satisfied with the material resources provided to assist their endeavours, but clearly were dissatisfied with the lack of professional development, and teacher-replacements required for other initiatives. The demise of career opportunities–at least in the interim– disheartened numerous participants. Professional growth opportunities, such as those grained through in-services or career advancements may have represented one of the few extrinsic rewards previously available within the teaching force.

Teachers across all schools referred to those times when abrupt interpersonal interactions with principals took place, as debilitating. Being able to receive a consistent and sensitive demeanour from principals was greatly appreciated. Trust between teachers and their principals acted as a catalyst to teachers and principals alike, particularly during times of difficulty. Principals, for example were relied upon to lead colleagues through crisis situations as best as could be expected. Teachers were also expected by principals to develop highly effective programs and classes. Failure by one or other to live up to their respective requirement sometimes damaged trust between parties. Trust was often tested by an external factor– either a parent complaint or an impost from the Directorate. Both usually

created tension for either a smaller or larger number of personnel.
Strengthened feelings of trust enabled many participants to overlook or
pardon practices that were viewed with caution or disapproval.

In brief, the results of this study would suggest the following answers
to the research questions posed in Chapter I (p. 6). Feelings of
empowerment were enhanced when teachers felt that they could trust, and
were trusted by, their principal to act in the best interests of students and
colleagues. Recognition, support, respect and reliability on the part of the
principal toward teachers added to feelings of empowerment.

Principals provided empowering opportunities, or enabling decisions,
for particular teachers when they believed two criteria were able to be
satisfied. Firstly, a perception that the teacher was capable of successfully
responding to, or pursuing an initiative. Secondly, a view that any benefits to
be gained from an undertaking would cohere with the school's philosophy.
Influential in shaping the principals' underlying interpretations of whether an
initiative should be encouraged were perceptions of care, interdependence
and teaching as a service for the collective and individual benefit of the
community. These, in turn, were related to their personally-held belief and
value systems.

Being able to experience some sense of control over their individual or
collective work lives was especially important to teachers during times of

uncertainty and change. Such mastery encouraged teachers to believe that their efforts were effective and valued at the local level, if not by the central employer. Perceptions that their efforts made a difference resulted in heightened motivation and a preparedness to commit greater efforts in schools.

Comparison with Other Findings

Little research exists which specifically identifies the features of teacher-principal interactions that empower participants, particularly teachers. However, evidence from disparate studies contributes to an emerging portrait of teacher empowerment. Such a picture suggests that the potential benefits to be gained from teacher empowerment may justify the effort required to introduce it. McNeil's (1988) study suggested that differential expectations of public education created tensions amongst personnel at the local school level. Conflicts have evolved from a need to simultaneously implement contradictory requirements. McNeil's study cited as contradictory, the maintenance of centralised bureaucratic control of schools with the pursuit of educational aims that were designed to enhance individual learning needs at the school level. The cases in this study appear not to have escaped the problem identified by McNeil. What schools are being required to do by centrally-driven direction, is not capturing the confidence of many of those at the school level.

The exclusion of teachers (or their organisations) from policy making activities within or outside of schools represents both a paradigm shift in Victoria and a further point at which the contributions of participants from this study coalesced with McNeil's work.

Regardless of intent, such actions symbolise a removal of the teaching profession's right to a voice in educational debate and change. The teachers in this study, like their counterparts in the research by Kirby, King and Paradise (1992), felt strengthened by knowledgeable, supportive principals. Concomitant with the findings of Kirby et al., teachers were inspired to greater effort when they were recognised as individuals and, acknowledged for their unique and collective efforts and skill. Similarly, respect for individuals was noted by teachers when principals' employed enabling rather than inhibiting or restricting strategies in interactions.

Nearly a years work in schools convinced Lieberman (1988) that many of the new directions in which schools were heading were creating unique tensions and issues that required resolution. Particularly notable in Lieberman's findings was a view that teachers' capacities to successfully embrace new work demands were heavily dependent upon effective colleagueship with their principals and other teachers. Furthermore, Lieberman acknowledged the enabling or restricting influences of principals

in their dealings with teachers, and the importance of providing increased opportunities for teacher decision-making.

Particularly cogent within the messages conveyed by Lieberman was the penchant by some bureaucracies to isolate responsibility to the province of the principal. Clearly there are parallels between Lieberman's observation and the Victorian situation. As was evident from the contributions of participants in this study, Lieberman identified such a trend to be antithetical to notions of empowerment. Lieberman also noted that a failure to adequately recognise teachers' competencies and the complexities of teaching roles fostered mistrust, and widened the gap between teachers and those in non-teaching positions.

In calling for new forms of openness and trust to be developed, Lieberman's work, like the contributions of the teachers and principals at these schools, is at odds with the practices of those who seek improved educational outcomes through insistence and exclusivity.

Those who seek teacher compliance through simplistic transactional expectations would not find support for their endeavours in the research into teacher commitment and workplace conditions conducted by Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990). The quantitative study of twelve hundred teachers from 78 primary schools identified reduced teacher commitment with egregious work environments. Of particular significance to personnel with ten or more years

teaching experience was the capacity to exercise task autonomy and discretion. According to Rosenholtz and Simpson, it was this cohort of the teaching profession that expressed the most concern about whether instructional efforts were effective. Through the resolution of such teaching challenges, experienced teachers obtained their greatest intrinsic rewards. Disaffection, in the study by Rosenholtz and Simpson, was severe for this sector of the teaching profession when they felt their efforts to help students learn effectively, were being thwarted. Increased teacher autonomy was thus a key means by which experienced teachers could apply their judgements. The Tennessee study also noted that empowering of experienced teachers through the provision of greater discretionary power was more likely to occur when principals were confident of teachers' motivation and capacities.

Both findings were evident in this study. In the four case schools principals' and teachers' responses affirmed the importance of trust as a precursor to feeling comfortable with the other party's practices. Indeed, in instances where a teacher and principal sometimes were unconvinced by a specific position or opinion of the other party, it was frequently their underlying trust of that party that contributed to a co-operative response being given.

Shakeshaft (1989) suggests that a strong service orientation and emphasis on caring for others is evident in highly effective male and female

principals. Nonetheless Shakeshaft suggests that such significant attention to these factors is more likely to be provided by female principals because of their socialisation and reasons for entering the teaching profession.

In turn, Shakeshaft argues, this can result in the ways female principals operate within schools and the type of climate that exists. In this study, teachers and principals were keen to ensure that their students received excellent learning opportunities and quality of care.

Stimson and Appelbaum's (1988) study of Alaskan primary principals and teachers noted that, in relation to staff empowerment, a lack of trust of teachers by principals contributed to a loss of esteem amongst teachers. Furthermore, in such conditions resentment developed toward the principal from teachers. Inclusive practices such as involving teachers in decision-making and responding to teachers' concerns were also identified as key actions of empowering leaders. This Australian study also underscores the need for principals to foster inclusive practices and clearly evidence trust in their school-based colleagues.

Interpretation of Results/Findings

This study highlighted the critical role of administrators, and in particular, principals in contributing the empowerment of teachers. Participants in this study remain to be convinced that the State government

has a genuine, caring regard for public education and in particular, the teaching profession that serves the enterprise.

The research provided some insights into principals and teachers who were endeavouring to make the best of what, for many, were unwelcome and dubious imposts on schools. As far as possible, during this era of funding cut-backs and new-wave bureaucratic influence, participants appear to have endeavoured to protect students from the direct effects of these changes. This is to be applauded. However, it was abundantly clear, from all participants in this study, that the employer is displaying an ignorance of, or disrespect for teachers. Ultimately students may pay the price for such indulgence on the part of adults, as attempts to control teachers by harsh or bludgeoning actions, produce alienation and, as Lieberman (1988) noted, reduce, rather than enhance productivity.

If, as Slater (1994) posits, commitment can only be derived from the lived experience, then teachers' perceptions of their treatment must also be a cause for concern. It is difficult to comprehend qualities of employee empowerment—autonomy, creativity and initiative—flourishing against a perceived background of employer-induced marginalism and disregard. In an atmosphere of teacher-employer mistrust, even the exemplary efforts of principals—which were frequently evident in this study—will be blunted.

Denying teacher representation at a central policy-making level, drastically reducing professional development programs, demolishing teachers' career paths and de-constructing teacher-principal relationships sends powerful messages to an enlightened sector of the Australian workforce. The symbolism was not lost on participants in this study.

If, as Sickler's (1988) case study suggests, trust between administrators and teachers is fundamental to the process of teacher empowerment, the employer's recent efforts may have created a more difficult context for the self-assured, talented principals who want to galvanise teachers' strengths as a means of improving the quality of opportunities for students.

A majority of those who participated in this study have been government school employees for more than a decade. Invariably during that time they have been exposed to statewide social justice policies, collaborative policy and program developments, equity agreements and the like. Added together, these have contributed to cultural shifts within, and across, the teaching profession.

Thus, abrupt discounting of such enculturation may be effective to the extent of enabling such initiatives to be financially downgraded, but it will not—in the short-term—alter the culture of schools. Moreover, as Bolman and Deal (1994) note, leaders operate in a cultural context, and principals in this

study were not prepared to relinquish many of their leadership convictions in order to adopt a worldview that embraces a reduced concept of teachers' worth and enterprise.

Implications of the Study

Based on this study, a majority of teachers expressed a desire for greater autonomy within the profession, so as to be able to exercise discretion over matters directly pertinent to their work. In order for teachers to seriously accept efforts designed to engender a sense of empowerment, some underlying concerns need to be more satisfactorily attended to, than is the case at present. Teachers want some avowed respect from their employer. Shared decision-making is not perceived as a revolutionary or undermining venture. Instead it is interpreted as a measure of faith in the capacities of an array of members of the profession to contribute to the educational enterprise. That individuals who work outside of schools wish to contribute to the direction of public education should be welcomed–provided the interest can be developed into a partnership arrangement with inside stakeholders. Alienation is quickly evident amongst teachers if someone beyond their immediate organisation attempts to insensitively impose new ways of thinking or operating.

Actions in recent years by central agencies seem to have, from this brief foray into four Victorian primary schools, contributed to a

disempowering of the teaching profession. This may not trouble uninspiring teachers, as their modus operandi often dovetails well with didactic management. But the trends that teachers and principals across the case sites have noted are a cause for unease amongst those who believe that co-operation, democracy and intellectual freedom are the hallmarks of Australian society. Regrettably *Schools Of The Future* has not been critically evaluated by the teaching profession. Instead it is tainted by an opaque association with a government that, plainly, is unsympathetic to teachers. This is unfortunate as much of the positive potential of such an initiative may be missed, along the way, by those who ultimately may contribute to it becoming another solution of the past. It is difficult for many teachers to become enthusiastic proponents for any initiative with which they are denied input to, in the planning and development stages. This is especially so when initiatives may be seen by teachers as making it harder for them to tap the potentialities of their students.

To be dictated to regarding implementation then limits teachers' use of discretion, and thus compounds the poor prospects of any such proposal genuinely succeeding. Efforts to ensure teacher compliance in a context of great change may cause angst for school-based personnel who are inclined to critical thinking. It is this element within the profession who simultaneously represent both the greatest threat to autocratic decision-making (dressed up

116

as local governance) and the best sector of the teaching service through their capacities to deliver an invigorated education system for young people. It is as Greene (1988) notes:

> If we are seriously interested in education for freedom as well as for the opening of cognitive perspectives, it is also important to find a way of developing a *praxis* of educational consequence that opens the spaces necessary for the remaking of a democratic community. For this to happen, there must of course be a new commitment to intelligence, a new fidelity in communication, a new regard for imagination. It would mean fresh and sometimes startling winds blowing through the classrooms of the nation. It would mean the granting of audibility to numerous voices seldom heard before and, at once, an involvement with all sorts of young people being provoked to make their own the multilinguality needed for structuring of contemporary experience and thematizing lived worlds. The languages required include many of the traditional modes of sense-making: the academic disciplines, the fields of study. But none of them must ever be thought of as complete or all-encompassing, developed as they have been to respond to particular kinds of questions posed at particular moments in time. Turned, as lenses or perspectives, on the shared world of actualities, they cannot but continue resonating and reforming in the light of new undercurrents, new questions, new uncertainties (pp. 126-127).

The contributions of participants in this study serve as a reminder that the best of what education can offer will not be broadly available whilst contributions of many talented, motivated and empowered individuals are shunned.

Recommendations for Future Research

The methodology employed in this study enabled an in-depth examination of participants' perceptions of empowerment and, to a lesser extent, motivation to be made. The multiple-case design enabled across-

school comparisons to be made, and provided support for the themes evident in the pilot study.

Although the study was arranged with a view to minimising demands on participants' time, the generosity and dedication of all who were involved was vital to the smooth-running of the fieldwork. Heightened efforts to inform participants before, during and following the study were appreciated by personnel at all of the schools. These two features of participating personnel typify to the extent of goodwill amongst the profession.

Many of the arguments marshalled against narrowly-conceived forms of school-based management by critical theorists (Angus, Apple, Brennan, Giroux, Smyth) were noted in participants' conversations amongst themselves and with the researcher. However none of the criticisms were located within a stated socio-political framework. This suggests that teachers and principals may not be interested in any debate about teacher empowerment being pursued along ideological lines of, for example, critical theorists versus functionalists. Instead participants were inclined to consider the issue from a standpoint of teacher empowerment providing benefits to all–employers, employees and most particularly students and their learning opportunities.

An examination of the literature provided a breadth of conceptual, rather than empirical, information about aspects of teacher empowerment

and motivation. One element that is, as yet, not sufficiently prevalent in the teacher empowerment literature–yet emerged in the contributions of many participants, was the issue of how a predominantly female profession preferred to view teaching: as more than merely a job, an opportunity to contribute to the well-being of a community and make a difference to the lives of children. This finding suggests that further research is needed which examines the possible impact of moral and philosophical concerns of employees on reward systems in the teaching profession.

By employing the same, or similar, design with a different sample population may uncover valuable information about empowerment and motivation. Country-based principals and teachers, for example, may hold significantly different views to their city-based colleagues.

The empowerment of teachers is contingent upon two parties; those with the symbols of power to share and those prepared to accept additional responsibilities and privileges. Not all teachers would welcome greater autonomy, for, as one study indicated, it may be more taxing or require longer hours of work (Lieberman, 1988). A study that provides insights into the opinions of teachers who are opposed to, or disheartened by, the prospect of greater autonomy may increase understandings surrounding the issue of teacher empowerment.

Research which ascertains the views of principals who ideologically resist moves toward teacher empowerment may also illuminate understandings.. A qualitative, longitudinal study of principals and teachers, (such as those in this research), who continue to pursue personally-held moral and philosophical beliefs ahead of or together with, given imperatives that do not engage the confidence of school-based practitioners may further illuminate the field. Such a study may provide a sobering reminder for undergraduate teachers of the difficulties and challenges that may be encountered in attempting to live up to the expectations of self and others in the course of caring for children and democracy.

REFERENCES

Anderson, G. (1991). Cognitive politics of principals and teachers. In J. Blase (Ed.), The politics of life in schools: Power, conflict, and co-operation (pp. 120-138). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Anderson, G., & Dixon, A. (1993). Paradigm shifts and site-based management in the United States: Toward a paradigm of social empowerment. In J. Smyth (Ed.), A socially critical view of the self-managing school (pp. 49-61). London: Falmer Press.

Angus, L. (1992). 'Quality' schooling, conservative education policy and educational change in Australia. Journal of Education Policy, 7, 379-397.

Angus, L. (1993). Democratic participation or efficient site management: The social and political location of the self-managing school. In J. Smyth (Ed.), A socially critical view of the self-managing school (pp. 11-33). London: Falmer Press.

Apelt, L., & Lingard, B. (1993). Public schooling reform in Australia: In whose interests? Journal of Educational Administration, 31(3), 59-71.

Apple, M. (1986). Teachers and texts. A political economy of class and gender relations in education. New York: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Apple, M. (1987). The de-skilling of teaching. In F. Bolin & J. McConnell Falk (Eds.), Teacher Renewal: Professional issues, personal choices (pp. 59-75). New York: Teachers College Press.

Apple, M. (1992). The text and cultural politics. Educational Researcher, 21(7), 4-11,19.

Ayers, W. (1992). Work that is real: Why teachers should be empowered. In G. Alfred Hess, Jr. (Ed.), Empowering teachers and parents: School restructuring through the eyes of anthropologists (pp. 13-27). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garey.

Bailey, J., Schermerhorn, J., Hunt, J., & Osborn, R. (1991). Managing organisational behaviour (2nd ed.). Brisbane, Queensland: John Wiley & Sons.

Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Beeson, G., (1993). The role of school principals in Victoria: Changes in a turbulent climate. In A. Peachment & J. Williamson (Eds.), Case studies in public policy (pp. 77-92). Perth, Western Australia: Curtin University.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. (1992). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Bolin, F. (1987). The teacher as curriculum decision maker. In F. Bolin & J. Falk (Eds.), Teacher renewal (pp. 92-108). New York: Teachers College Press.

Bolin, F. (1989). Empowering leadership. Teachers College Record, 91(1), 80-96.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (1989). Modern approaches to understanding and managing organisations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (1991). Reframing organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L., & Deal, T. (1994). Looking for leadership: Another search party's report. Educational Administration Quarterly, 30(1). 77-96.

Borg, W., & Gall, M. (1989). Educational research (5th ed.). New York: Longman.

Brennan, M. (1993a). Reinventing square wheels: Planning for schools to ignore realities. In J. Smyth (Ed.), A socially critical view of the self-managing school (pp. 83-98). London: Falmer Press.

Brennan, M. (1993b). Victorian schools of the future. ACE News, June, 3, 6.

Bruce, D. (1993, May 25). Self-management: The money question. The Age, p. 13.

Bryce, M. (1989). A confucian renaissance. Papers and Proceedings of the Creative Australia National Workshop (pp. 18-20). Carlton, Victoria, Australia: Commission for the Future.

Caldwell, B., & Spinks, J. (1988). The self-managing school. London: Falmer Press.

Campbell, D. (1979). "Degrees of freedom" and the case study. In T. Cook & C. Reichardt (Eds.), Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research (pp. 49-67). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Campbell, D., & Stanley, J. (1966). Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Campbell, R., & Rand, A. (1988). Settings and sequences: The heuristics of aging research. In J. Birren & V. Bengston (Eds.), Emergent theories of aging (pp. 58-79). New York: Springer.

Chapman, J. (1984). A descriptive profile of Australian school principals (A Report for the Commonwealth Schools Commission). Canberra, ACT: Commonwealth Government Publishing Service.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). Beyond boredom and anxiety. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Deci, E. (1971). The effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18, 105-115.

Deci, E., (1975). Intrinsic motivation. New York: Plenum Press.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York: Plenum Press.

Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET). (1989). Schooling in Australia: Statistical profile Number 2. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Duffy, M. (1987). Methodological triangulation: A vehicle for merging quantitative and qualitative research methods. IMAGE: Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 19(3), 130-133.

DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1992). Creating the new American school. Bloomington, IN: National Educational Service.

Eisner, E. (1988). The primacy of experience and the politics of method. Educational Researcher, 17(5), 15-20.

Eisner, E., & Peshkin, A. (1990a). Introduction. In E. Eisner & A. Peshkin (Eds.), Qualitative inquiry in education: The continuing debate (p. 1). New York: Teachers College Press.

Eisner, E., & Peshkin, A. (1990b). Closing comments on a continuing debate. In E. Eisner & A. Pehkin (Eds.), Qualitative inquiry in education: The continuing debate (pp. 365-38). New York: Teachers College Press.

Elbaz, F. (1988). Critical reflection on teaching: Insights from Freire. Journal of Education for Teaching, 14, 171-181.

Ellis, T. (1984). Motivating teachers for excellence. (ERIC Digest, Number Six). Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Education Management. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 259 449)

Fetterman, D. (1984). Ethnography in educational research: The dynamics of diffusion. In D. Fetterman (Ed.), Ethnography in educational evaluation (pp. 21-35). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Fetterman, D. (1988). Ethnographic educational evaluation. In D. Fetterman (Ed.), Qualitative approaches to evaluation in education: The silent scientific revolution (pp. 45-67). New York: Praeger.

Fetterman, D. (1989). Ethnography: Step by step. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Fidel, R. (1992). The case study method: A case study. In J. Glazier & R. Powell (Eds.), Qualitative research in information management (pp. 37-50). Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

Fullan, M. (1992). Visions that blind. Educational Leadership, 49(5), 19-20.

Fullan, M. (1993). Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform. Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1991). What's worth fighting for?: Working together for your school. Hawthorn, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Administration.

Gay, L. (1992). Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application. New York: Macmillan.

Giroux, H. (1988). Teachers as intellectuals: Toward a critical pedagogy of learning. Granby, MA: Bergin & Garvey.

Gitlin, A., Bringhurst, K., Burns, M., Cooley, V., Myers, B., Price, K., Russell, R., & Tiess, P. (1992). Teachers' voices for school change: An introduction to educative research. New York: Teachers College Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. Hawthorne, NY: Aldine De Gruyter.

Goetz, J., & LeCompte, M. (1984). Ethnography and qualitative design n educational research. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Greene, M. (1988). The dialectic of freedom. New York: Teachers College Press.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1981). Effective evaluation. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1989). Fourth generation evaluation. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hargreaves, A. (1991). Contrived collegiality: The micropolitics of teacher collaboration. In J. Blase (Ed.), The politics of life in schools: Power, conflict, and co-operation (pp. 46-72). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hargreaves, A. (1994). Changing teachers, changing times. London: Cassell.

Hargreaves, D., & Hopkins, D. (1991). The empowered school: The management and practice of development planning. London: Cassell.

Harris, K. (1990). Empowering teachers: Towards a justification for intervention. Journal of Philosophy of Education, 24, 171-183.

Hartley, D. (1994). Devolved school management: The new 'deal' in Scottish education. Journal of Education Policy, 9, 129-140.

Hayward, D. (1993, August 9). Minister's Program to Promote Women in Education. News Release,.ia. The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1993, November 17). Hayward grants more power to school councils. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1993, November 14). Minister, principals agree on schools of the future. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1994, April 21). 1995 start for primary students' learning assessment project. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1994, February 11). Hayward presents school charters. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1994, May 24). $2 million physical and sport education boost. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1994, May 29). Education Week '94 focuses on parents' role. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Hayward, D. (1994, May 6). Hayward announces new training program for school councils. News Release, The Office of the Minister for Education, Melbourne, Victoria.

Herzberg, F. (1968). One more time: How do you motivate employees? Harvard Business Review, 46(1), 53-62.

Horne, D. (1976). Death of the lucky country. Sydney: Penguin Australia.

Horne, D. (1989). Ideas for a nation. Sydney: Pan Books.

Jick, T. (1983). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. In J. Van Maanen (Ed.), Qualitative methodology (pp. 135-147). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Jones, B. (1985). Australia as a Post-Industrial Society, Commission for the Future, Carlton, Victoria.

Jones, B. (1989). The impact of technological change on Australia. Management Papers. Clayton, Victoria: Monash University.

Jones, B. (1990). Sleepers wake! Melbourne, Oxford University Press.

Jones, C. (1994, October 19). Cautious response to privatised schools plan. The Australian, pp. 4, 13.

Kanpol, B. (1990). Empowerment: The institutional and cultural aspects for teachers and principals. NASSP Bulletin, 74, 104-107.

Kanter, R. (1977). Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books.

Kellehear, A. (1993). The unobtrusive researcher. St. Leonards, New South Wales: Allen & Unwin.

Kenyon, G. (1988). Basic assumptions in theories of human aging. In J. Birren & V. Bengston (Eds.), Emergent theories of aging (pp. 3-18). New York: Springer.

Kincheloe, J. (1991). Teachers as researchers: Qualitative inquiry as a path to empowerment. London: Falmer Press.

Kirby, P., King, M., & Paradise, L. (1992). Extraordinary leaders in education: Understanding transformational leadership. Journal of Educational Research, 85, 303-311.

LeCompte, M., & Goetz, J. (1984). Ethnographic data collection in evaluation research. In D. Fetterman (Ed.), Ethnography in educational evaluation (pp. 37-59). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

LeCompte, M., & Preissle, J. (1993). Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research (2nd ed.). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Leithwood, K. (1992). The principal's role in teacher development. In M. Fullan & A. Hargreaves (Eds.), Teacher development and educational change (pp. 86-103). London: The Falmer Press.

Leithwood, K., & Hallinger, P. (1993). Cognitive perspectives on educational administration: An introduction. Educational Administration Quarterly, 29, 296-301.

Lieberman, A. (1988). Teachers and principals: Turf, tension, and new tasks. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, 648-653.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (1991). Revisiting the social realities of teaching. In A. Lieberman & L. Miller (Eds.), Staff development in the 90s: New demands, new realities, new perspectives (pp. 92-109). New York: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, M. (1993). Public education: An autopsy. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lortie, D. (1975). Schoolteacher: A sociological study. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Maehr, M., Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. (1992). School leader as motivator. Educational Administration Quarterly, 28, 410-429.

Maeroff, G. (1988). The empowerment of teachers. New York: Teachers College Press.

Marginson, S. (1994, August). Schooling what future? Conference at Deakin. The Professional Reading Guide, 15, 8.

McGaw, B., Boud, D., Poole, M., Warry, R., & McKenzie, P. (1992). Educational research in Australia (Report of the Review Panel, Strategic Review of Research in Education). Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

McGregor, D. (1960). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGaw-Hill.

McGregor, D. (1966). Leadership and motivation (Essays edited by W. Bennis & E. Schein). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

McLaughlin, M., Pfeifer, R., Swanson-Owens, D., & Yee, S. (1986). Why teachers won't teach. Phi Delta Kappan, 67, 420-426.

McNeil, L. (1988). Contradictions of control, Part 1: Administrators and teachers. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, 333-339.

Merriam, S. (1991). Case study research in education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M., & Huberman, A. (1984). Drawing valid meaning from qualitative data: Toward a shared craft. Educational Researcher, 13, 217-247.

Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell, E., & Alexander, L. (1990). In-depth interviewing: Researching people. Melbourne, Australia: Longman Cheshire.

Miskel, C. (1982). Motivation in educational organisations. Educational Administration Quarterly, 18, 65-88.

Mulford, W. (1983). The first step for school leaders: Attain cooperative effort. Educational Administration Review, 1(1), 53-56.

Mulford, W. (1986). Indicators of school effectiveness: A practical approach. Hawthorn, Victoria: Australian Council for Educational Administration.

Mulford, W. (1987). Professional development through participation in organisation development (pp. 235-248). In P. Hughes (Eds.), Better teachers for better schools. Carlton, Victoria: The Australian College of Education.

Muller, D. (1993, April 12). Current finances will shape future schools. The Age, p. 13.

Murphy, J., & Hallinger, P. (1992). The principalship in an era of transformation. Journal of Educational Administration, 30(3), 77-88.

Naisbitt, J., & Aburdene, P. (1990). Megatrends 2000: Ten new directions for the 1990s. London: Sidgwick & Jackson.

Painter, J. (1994, November 14). Principals to award themselves a pay rise. The Age, p. 3.

Patton, M. (1978). Utilization-focused evaluation. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Patton, M. (1980). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Patton, M. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peachment, A., & Williamson, J. (1993). Policy education and the case study method. In A. Peachment & J. Williamson (Eds.), Case studies in public policy (pp. 1-13). Perth, Western Australia: Curtin University.

Peters, T. (1987). Thriving on chaos. London: Pan Books.

Reichardt, C., & Cook, T. (1979). Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods. In T. Cook & C. Reichardt (Eds.), Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research (pp. 1-32). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Richards, C. (1994, October 18). Education hit by lack of vision: report. The Age, p. 7.

Romanish, B. (1991). Empowering teachers: Restructuring schools for the 21st Century. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Rosenholtz, S. (1989). Teachers' workplace. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Rosenholtz, S., & Simpson, C. (1990). Workplace conditions and the rise and fall of teachers' commitment. Sociology of Education, 63, 241-257.

Rosow, J., & Zager, C. (1989). Allies in educational reform: How teachers, unions, and administrators can join forces for better schools. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Sarason, S. (1991). The predictable failure of educational reform: Can we change course before it's too late? San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

School bells warning. (1993, September 22). The Age, p. 17.

Senge, P. (1990). The fifth discipline. Milsoms Point, Sydney: Random House.

Sergiovanni, T. (1990). Value-added leadership: How to get extraordinary performance in schools. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Sergiovanni, T. (1992). Why we should seek substitutes for leadership. <u>Educational Leadership, 49</u>(5), 41-45.

Shakeshaft, C. (1989). <u>Women in educational administration</u>. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Shor, I. (1990). Liberation education: An interview with Ira Shor. <u>Language Arts, 67</u>, 342-352.

Short, P. (1992). What do we really mean by teacher empowerment? <u>Journal of School Leadership</u>, 2, 376-378.

Short, P., Greer, J., & Melvin, W. (1994). Creating empowered schools: Lessons in change. <u>Journal of Educational Administration, 32</u>(4), 38-52.

Sickler, J. (1988). Teachers in charge: Empowering the professionals. <u>Phi Delta Kappan, 69</u>, 354-376.

Slater, P., & Bennis, W. (1964). Democracy is inevitable. <u>Harvard Business Review</u>, March-April, 51-59.

Slater, R. (1994). Symbolic educational leadership and democracy in American <u>Education Administration Quarterly, 30</u>, 97-101.

Smyth, J. (1992). Teachers' work and the politics of reflection. <u>American Educational Research Journal, 29</u>, 267-300.

Stimson, T., & Appelbaum, R. (1988). Empowering teachers: Do principals have the power? <u>Phi Delta Kappan, 70</u>, 313-316.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). <u>Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques</u>. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Tesch, R. (1990). <u>Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools</u>. London: Falmer Press.

Thomas, F., & Caldwell, B. (1994, September). <u>Leading Victoria's Schools of the Future: Some findings from the early stages of reform</u>. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Australian Council for Educational Administration, Melbourne, Victoria.

130

Thomson, S. (1979). <u>Motivation of teachers</u>. Burlingame, CA, and Eugene, OR: Association of California School Administrators, and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 178 998).

Watkins, P. (1991). Developing educational administration in Victoria: Tensions in the role and selection of principals. <u>Journal of Educational Administration, 29</u>(1), 22-38.

Watkins, P. (1993). Pushing crisis and stress down the line: The self-managing school. In J. Smyth (Ed.), <u>A socially critical view of the self-managing school</u> (pp. 137-152). London: Falmer Press.

Wax, R. (1971). <u>Doing fieldwork warnings advice</u>. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Wheatley, M. (1981). The impact of organisational structures on issues of sex equity. In P. Schmuck, W. Charters, Jr. & R. Carlson (Eds.), <u>Educational policy and management</u> (pp. 255-271). New York: Academic Press.

Yencken, D. (1986). <u>Information Technology and Australian Cities: A Promethean Dilemma</u>. Carlton, Victoria: Commission for the Future.

Yencken, D. (1989). Towards a creative productive future for Australia. <u>Papers and Proceedings of the Creative Australia National Workshop</u>, Carlton, Victoria: Commission for the Future.

Yin, R. (1984). <u>Case study research</u>. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

APPENDIX A: **NEWS RELEASES FROM THE OFFICE OF THE MINISTER FOR EDUCATION JUNE, 1993 TO JULY, 1994**

02 June	1993	Local education task forces established
15 June	1993	Base schools for district principals
20 June	1993	Noble Park Secondary Colleges to merge
20 June	1993	Glen Waverley Primary Schools propose to merge
23 June	1993	Industry kit helps VCE Chemistry students
23 June	1993	Launch of 64th Annual Appeal of State Schools' Relief Committee
27 June	1993	Schools of the Future Pilot Program launched
29 June	1993	Benalla Secondary Colleges to merge
05 August	1993	Regional launch of Schools of the Future Pilot Program
06 August	1993	Launch of training package for teacher aides working with disabled students
09 August	1993	Minister's program to promote women in education
10 August	1993	Eighty schools to pilot new drug education project
11 August	1993	Schools invited to become exemplary sports schools
16 August	1993	Schools to pilot first steps project
19 August	1993	Reforms for education of students with disabilities and impairments
27 August	1993	Ministers launch recommendations of review of physical and sport education in schools

08 September 1993		Minister launches 1993/94 Quality Schools Construction Program
07 October	1993	Hayward announces new funding for merging schools
12 October	1993	Ministers team up for Physical Education Week
25 October	1993	Hayward's satellite vision for 21st Century
29 October	1993	Launch of Aboriginal education plan for Victoria
08 November 1993		Government boost to Geelong Science and Technology
14 November 1993		Minister, principals agree on Schools of the Future
17 November 1993		Minister, principals agree on new staffing process
17 November 1993		Hayward grants more power to school council
17 November 1993		Hayward launches languages plan for Victoria
22 November 1993		New bus initiative to boost access and improve safety
22 November 1993		Quality provision funding for Melton South PS
22 November 1993		Quality provision funding for north-west schools
29 November 1993		Hayward announces transfer of Lynall Hall Community School
01 December 1993		Quality provision funding for Forest Hill schools cluster
01 December 1993		Victoria Jays foundation to go for gold
03 December 1993		Presentation of 15th Annual School Garden Awards
24 January	1994	Koori Community Education Centre to be established in the northern suburbs
25 January	1994	Hayward announces Australia Day initiative
27 January	1994	1,196 schools to become Schools of the Future

11 February	1994	Hayward presents school charters
17 February	1994	Hayward presents school charters
24 February	1994	Hayward announces $2 million language boost
03 March	1994	Hayward launches unique vocational education program
15 March	1994	Hayward announces $100,000 grant for Skye PS
16 March	1994	Minister announces funding for refurbishment to school staff rooms
16 March	1994	Hayward announces grant to Irymple PS
16 March	1994	Hayward presents school charters
17 March	1994	Disadvantaged students given 'an extra edge'
18 March	1994	Hayward opens Glen Waverley South PS
28 March	1994	Hayward launches Apollo Parkways PS's community information package
01 April	1994	Key Victorian role in rebuilding Cambodia education
08 April	1994	Hayward announces upgrade for rural school facilities
10 April	1994	Hayward backs school language studies
21 April	1994	1995 start for primary students' learning assessment project
23 April	1994	$88.5 million for new schools and improved facilities
06 May	1994	Hayward announces new training program for school councils
06 May	1994	Hayward announces new training program for school councils
06 May	1994	Ministers guarantee MacRobertson's future

10 May	1994	Hayward opens South Gippsland Education Centre
11 May	1994	Cheltenham PS receives $150,000 for improvement
12 May	1994	Hayward expands assistance for ethnic schools
13 May	1994	Hayward presents school charters
13 May	1994	Geelong Science and Technology Centre moves ahead
17 May	1994	Hayward announces another $30 million for schools
24 May	1994	$2 million physical and sport education boost
29 May	1994	Education Week '94 focuses on parents' role
01 June	1994	Minister officially opens Romsey PS
02 June	1994	Enhancing opportunities for girls
03 June	1994	Victoria and France strengthen education links
16 June	1994	Hayward enhances Italian opportunities for Victoria
28 June	1994	Elder launches 'Successmaker' at Maryborough PS

NEWS RELEASE

29 May 1994

EDUCATION WEEK '94 FOCUSES ON PARENTS' ROLE

The Minister for Education, Mr Don Hayward, today launched Education Week saying it will provide parents with the chance to have a first-hand look at the achievements of teachers and students.

Victorian schools will celebrate Education Week until June 5.

Mr Hayward said Education Week is about parents joining in the education of their children.

At the launch he also announced Strong Foundations, a three-year strategy to enhance the quality of learning and teaching in Victorian schools.

"Strong Foundations focuses on students developing the essential skills of literacy and numeracy. It will enable all Victorian students to achieve their potential in English and Mathematics," Mr Hayward said.

The strategy will set clear standards for the teaching of literacy and numeracy in Victorian schools and provide information to parents, teachers, principals and school councils on student progress.

"Students will be well-equipped to take their places in an increasingly challenging and demanding world. Literacy and numeracy skills are fundamental to success," he said.

Mr Hayward said parents will be informed about their children's progress and feel confident about helping them with their studies at home.

Earlier this year Mr Hayward introduced Opening Doors, a program encouraging parents of primary students to become more involved with their homework and schooling.

"Strong Foundations continues the trend set by Opening Doors to assist parents."

Education Week will see a number of events highlighting the strength of Victorian education. There will also be a program of free seminars for parents designed to demonstrate how parents can play an active and confident part in their child's education. Parents can obtain further information by calling EducationLine on 628 2222 or 008 809 834.

Mr Hayward will also use Education Week to announce the winners of this year's Curriculum Excellence Awards and present Long Service Awards to people who have served Education for 35 years or more, as employees.

ENQUIRIES: Ian Smith, 651 5799

NEWS RELEASE

From the Office of the Minister for Education

---

14 November 1993

MINISTER, PRINCIPALS AGREE ON SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE

Announcing three further intakes for Victoria's Schools of the Future Program today, the Minister for Education, Mr Hayward, said all Government schools would have the opportunity to become Schools of the Future by 1995.

Mr Hayward said the acceleration of the program was the result of an agreement with the Victorian Principals Federation and is designed to meet the Federation's proposal that all schools should have the opportunity to enter the Program as soon as possible.

"Schools will be invited to register their preference to become Schools of the Future in January 1994, July 1994 or January 1995," he said.

Mr Hayward said incoming schools would have the benefit of the experience of the 325 current pilot schools.

Around 500 schools will be inducted into the Program via each intake, which will include a balance of primary, secondary, special and special developmental schools.

"As schools become part of the Program, they will receive the same support as current pilot schools, including extensive professional development and training on all aspects of the Program."

Victorian Principals Federation President, Mr Geoff Head, said he was pleased that all schools would receive all information and documentation relating to the Schools of the Future Program from the beginning of 1994 and would be invited to participate in information-sharing seminars.

"I also welcome the decision to provide all incoming schools with the same level of resources provided to schools in the initial pilot as they take this important step towards self-management," Mr Head said.

Schools throughout Victoria responded very positively in July this year, with 740 schools applying to be part of the pilot program. 325 schools were selected as pilot schools and 278 as associate schools which participated in some aspects of the training program. Associate schools will be fully involved in the pilot from 1994.

Mr Hayward said a number of schools applied to be part of the current pilot program as school clusters.

"Co-operative arrangements between schools will be a key feature of clusters," he said.

Mr Hayward said the Government was committed to the success of the Schools of the Future Program which has the full support of the Victorian Principals Federation.

"The Schools of the Future Program aims to give every student a quality education.

"This will be achieved by empowering local school communities to make their own decisions on curriculum and school development within guidelines established by the Directorate of School Education."

Under the Schools of the Future program:

- School councils will determine their own budget priorities.

- Schools will enter into three-year resource agreements with the Government.

- Schools will be able to develop their own distinctive programs to take account of the particular aspirations and needs of their communities, the interests of their students and the talents of their teachers.

- Schools will develop their own charters, setting out their educational aims. Codes of conduct will be developed as part of these school charters.

- Schools will be accountable to their communities and the Directorate reporting regularly on student outcomes, and parent, teacher and student opinion of the satisfactory operation of the school.

MEDIA ENQUIRIES: Ian Smith 651 5799

NEWS RELEASE

Tuesday 24 May, 1994

$2 MILLION PHYSICAL AND SPORT EDUCATION BOOST

Victorian students will have increased access to better sports equipment, training and venues following the announcement of a physical and sport education package worth more than $2 million.

The Minister for Education, Mr Don Hayward, told Parliament during question time today that the Government was committed to improving the health and fitness of Victoria's students.

"More than $1 million in grants will be made to more than 300 sports districts, both primary and secondary, to support broad student participation in district and regional sporting competitions.

"The grants will be used to hire venues, for umpire hiring and training, and for the establishment of sports equipment pools and sports awards.

"The grants program will also assist schools to implement district strategy plans for the delivery of quality interschool sporting programs," he said.

Mr Hayward said that funds would be provided to promote programs being conducted in Victoria's 20 Exemplary and 20 Achievement Physical and Sport Education Schools.

"Last year, the Government recognised 40 schools which were conducting excellent programs in physical and sport education.

"As these schools will be instrumental in promoting excellent practice and providing support to other schools, the Government has provided funding to enable them to document their practice and to purchase equipment to assist with workshops, and to conduct expositions, coaching clinics and other promotional activities," he said.

The Government will also provide funds to assist the development of a program to help teachers monitor students' skill and fitness levels.

2/...

-2-

"The Government has entered into a service agreement with RMIT's Department of Human Development for the development of methods which teachers can use to monitor student progress in physical and sport education activities," Mr Hayward said.

Mr Hayward said that the Government recently signed a service agreement with the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (ACHPER) to provide free professional development for teachers throughout Victoria.

"Under the agreement, which is a first for Australia, more than 8000 teachers including special education teachers and integration aides and parents supporting students with disabilities, will receive free professional development," he said.

"Refresher courses will also be conducted for trained physical education teachers and accredited sports coaching will be provided to secondary school communities.

"ACHPER and other sporting organisations will also be involved in the development of teaching materials and assist schools with sports expositions and clinics for students and the production of manuals for sports coordinators to help run quality sporting events and competitions.

"The Government is committed to providing the necessary resources for children to acquire basic skills to become fitter and healthier while laying the foundations for students to access sporting programs at the highest levels," Mr Hayward said.

Media enquiries: Fiona Cameron, 628 4414

NEWS RELEASE

From the Office of the Minister for Education

6 May 1994

HAYWARD ANNOUNCES NEW TRAINING PROGRAM FOR SCHOOL COUNCILS

The Minister for Education, Mr Don Hayward, today announced a new professional development program to focus on the important role of school councils and school council presidents in Schools of the Future.

Mr Hayward said the program aimed to help school councils in their move towards self management.

"School councils have a very important role in making sure our schools deliver high quality education in a changing world," Mr Hayward said.

"This major professional development program will provide the opportunity for all school council presidents to take part in leadership and training programs especially designed for them. There will also be further programs and support for school councillors at the local level."

The program will begin with a series of regional seminars for school council presidents. These have been developed by Schools of the Future consultants, Professor Brian Caldwell of the University of Melbourne and Mr Max Sawatzki of Sawatzki Consulting Group International.

"Grants will be provided to conduct local follow-up workshops and practical planning programs for school councillors. High quality support materials, including a training video will be also be made available," Mr Hayward said.

The new school council support programs will help Schools of the Future develop and implement their school charters which are a public declaration of the way each school plans to deliver a high quality general education to its students.

"This new training program complements and extends the workshops already under way for school councillors and acknowledges the very important role of all school councillors across the State," Mr Hayward said.

MEDIA ENQUIRIES: Ian Smith   651 5799

NEWS RELEASE

11 February 1994

HAYWARD PRESENTS SCHOOL CHARTERS

Victoria's Schools of the Future Program advanced further today with the presentation of school charters by the Minister for Education, Mr Don Hayward.

Twelve pilot Schools of the Future in and around Warrnambool were among the first to receive their School Charters which, according to Mr Hayward, were a public declaration of each school's plans to deliver a high quality education to its community.

Charters were presented to: Brauer Secondary College, Cobden Technical School, Colac Special Developmental School, Hamilton North Primary School, Noorat Primary School, Panmure/Laang Primary School, Portland Secondary College, Terang High School, Terang Primary School, Terang Special Developmental School, Warrnambool Primary School and Warrnambool College.

Mr Hayward said each charter — developed by the school and approved by the Minister — was a record of understanding between the school and the Director of School Education, outlining the school's educational goals as a School of the Future.

"The School Charter, which is a key feature of Victoria's Schools of the Future Program, describes the school's specific educational philosophy, its core purpose, and indicates future directions for the school.

"The charter states clearly what the school will strive to achieve in the areas of curriculum, learning environment, management practices and resource allocation.

"School charters are unique, serving the needs of the school and the Directorate and providing vital information on future trends to help with planning, policy development and performance accountability."

Member for Warrnambool, Mr John McGrath, congratulated local schools on their work in developing their school charters.

"The school councils have seized the opportunity to determine their own priorities, in response to local community needs.

"We can all now look forward to stronger schools and a high quality education for local students," he said.

Mr Hayward said school charters would be reviewed at the end of three years to provide schools with the opportunity to reassess their performance and reframe the delivery of services in response to the changing needs of their students, while taking advantage of new technology.

"Preliminary findings from the first round of pilot Schools of the Future suggest the process of developing charters challenged schools to re-examine their identity and operations, to be more proactive in shaping their future and responding to the needs of local communities and to establish criteria for evaluating their effectiveness."

"New intakes to the Schools of the Future Program will develop their charters along guidelines which draw on the invaluable expertise of principals of initial pilot schools," he said.

MEDIA ENQUIRIES: James Tonkin 018 109 377

NEWS RELEASE

From the Office of the Minister for Education

---

17 November 1993

HAYWARD GRANTS MORE POWER TO SCHOOL COUNCILS

The Minister for Education, Mr Hayward, said Victorian schools will have unprecedented control over funding and staffing under legislation currently before State Parliament.

The Education (Amendment) Bill will give school councils greater access to the Directorate of School Education's budget of more than $2 billion – or 22% of the State expenditure – and is in harmony with the Government's widely-acclaimed Schools of the Future program.

"I can assure communities that I am committed to the continued transfer of authority to school councils as set out in my election policy last year," Mr Hayward said.

"As well as access to the $2 billion plus, Government reforms will give school councils a much greater level of involvement in the selection of staff."

Mr Hayward said he expected a good working relationship with school councils and was disappointed that some people had not understood or properly acknowledged the new, increased role of councils.

"The Bill paves the way for the next step in the Government's agenda to develop education to meet the needs of our students in the 21st Century.

"In being given greater autonomy, schools can plan specific curriculum offerings for their students.

"But, while giving greater control to school councils, Victoria has learned to its huge cost the problem of handing out signed blank cheques," Mr Hayward said.

"And with increased power, comes increased responsibility.

"If there is something seriously wrong in a government school which threatens children and their quality of education, Victorians will expect their Minister to act."

Under the legislation, the Minister will have guideline making powers to ensure councils act within their powers and do not act against the public interest, such as by discriminating against students.

"The passage of the Bill in the Legislative Assembly next week and the subsequent issuing of guidelines will clarify the Minister's powers and any powers to delegate contained within the Bill.

"The Bill ensures that the Minister can remain accountable for government education. It is certainly my intention that I remain accountable to the Parliament and the people of Victoria, for what happens in Victorian government schools."

Mr Hayward also said that in respect of liability provisions within the Bill, whilst school council members will be indemnified, there will no longer be an open-ended assumption of the liabilities of school councils by the Government and any such liability will only be assumed in writing.

"School councils, as a body corporate, will not be given automatic protection from all liabilities, but individual school council members will be indemnified, as long as they act in good faith," he said.

"I reiterate that I am not in the business of handing out signed blank cheques. Requests for assistance will be assessed on a case by case basis and according to guidelines to be developed in close consultation with school communities.

"I also allay any fears that voluntary workers will not be covered. In accordance with a long-standing Cabinet decision, voluntary workers will be given indemnity and that will not change."

The Minister is writing to all school councils concerning the Bill (see attached) and will provide further information following its passage through Parliament.

MEDIA ENQUIRIES: Ian Smith on 03 651 5799

NEWS RELEASE

From the Office of the Minister for Education

April 21 1994

1995 START FOR PRIMARY STUDENTS' LEARNING ASSESSMENT PROJECT

Victorian primary school students will participate in a State-wide assessment program twice during their seven years of primary schooling from 1995, the Minister for Education, Mr Hayward, announced today.

Mr Hayward released details of the Learning Assessment Project (LAP) to be undertaken by the Board of Studies during 1994 for implementation in 1995.

"This latest educational milestone is the most significant curriculum reform for young students in the Government's first term. It will be of enormous benefit for students and also to parents and teachers," Mr Hayward said.

"The major objective of the Victorian Government in education is to improve the quality of learning for students.

"For the first time, information will be available to parents and teachers on how students are progressing against State-wide standards at key stages of their schooling. LAP will complement schools-based programs in the identification of students with learning difficulties.

"This is a major reform for parents, who have a right to information of the highest quality on how their children are progressing. As Schools of the Future obtain new freedoms they are responsible to parents to report on the progress of their children."

During the primary years of schooling, parents will now have access to school based assessment and new information arising from the State-wide Learning Assessment Program.

Teachers will also benefit from LAP. For the first time, teachers will have comprehensive information about how their students are performing against State-wide standards.

Teachers will have a new source of information to assist in identifying the needs of their students and developing classroom strategies to address those needs.

Schools will have a new source of data to help shape their planning and educational policies to address their strengths and weaknesses.

.../2

"The community will benefit by being able to assess the quality of Victorian education. LAP will generate information that will assist in the targeting of resources into areas of need and in the further development of curriculum by the Board of Studies," Mr Hayward said.

Basic skills, such as literacy and numeracy, higher order skills and student knowledge will be assessed. The assessment program will be designed to test what will be in the Curriculum and Standards Framework, presently being developed by the Board of Studies.

Students will be tested on what they are taught in the classroom.

"I have provided a number of significant guarantees to the Victorian community. The confidentiality of individual student's results is assured," Mr Hayward said.

"In addition LAP will not be used to make comparisons between individual students, schools and teachers and it will not be used in the appraisal of principals or teachers.

"Today is a major step forward in the development of education and an exciting day for students, parents and teachers. By working together we can develop better outcomes for our students."

Following a development and consultation phase, the Board of Studies intends to make final recommendations to the Minister on LAP in November this year.

MEDIA ENQUIRIES: Ian Smith on 03 651 5799