AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A STATEWIDE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMME USING MILES' TYPOLOGY OF CHANGE STRATEGIES

by

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ABSTRACT

A relatively high rate of investment in educational innovation has occurred in North America in the past two decades. Despite this, many instances of failure of innovations continue. Some attribute the ineffectiveness of implementation strategies as one of the prime reasons for these failures.

This historical case study describes and analyses the strategies employed in the implementation of a programme in Social Studies education throughout primary schools in the State of Tasmania, Australia during the period 1967-1972. The literature on the implementation of change was reviewed and conclusions were drawn as to the effectiveness of the Tasmanian implementation strategies, when compared with the findings in the literature.

Miles typology of change strategies was used to structure the study. This typology was considered an effective procedure as it acknowledges two basic dimensions in the change process, the sources of initiative (internal or external to the system) and the sequence of events (design, awareness, evaluation and trial stages).

This study draws extensively on the experiences and the abundant data available to the author as a participant in the change process. The analysis revealed that:

> The design of the 'new' Tasmanian syllabus was substantially in accord with the literature. It was undertaken by a multi-committee system characterised by high teacher involvement. A high level of motivation was provided by the involvement of events and agencies, internal and external to the system over a relatively short period of

time.

Contrary to the literature the syllabus design did not employ current research and made no formal attempt to assess the educational climate of the schools.

Awareness of the innovation was created by many types of formal and informal communications. Contrary to the consensus of the literature, older more experienced personnel emerged as key influentials at this stage.

The evaluation or judgment forming stage consisted of a system wide implementation programme. The concept of a change team of status peers as revealed in the literature was validated by the Tasmanian experience. This highly skilled team had considerable positive impact on the system.

The trial-assessment stage consisted of non-obligatory school trials. Significantly all schools in the system chose to participate. As suggested by the literature, multi-media materials, matching television series and consultation services influence the decisions of the clients positively at this stage.

This study has revealed three refinements to change strategies that positively promote implementation that have not been revealed previously in the literature, viz.

1. A team of change agents should reflect the spectrum of age, teaching style, experience and qualifications

in the target system.

2. Change-orientated materials should be produced within the ambit of the target system and deployed as a personal and integral part of the change-team activities.

3. The use of teleconference facilities is a useful aid to communication and planning.

The study emphasises the complexity, capriciousness and subtlety of the implementation process.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to describe and analyse the strategies employed in the implementation of a programme in Social Studies education throughout primary schools in the State of Tasmania. The processes are still going on, however this study will focus on the period spanning the first philosophical input in November 1967 until the "official" adoption of the programme in March 1973.

The author will use Miles' typology[1] of change strategies as a theoretical structure for the study. At each of the stages identified in the typology the Tasmanian strategies will be described and the relevant literature assembled and reviewed. The analysis will be undertaken by comparing and contrasting the areas of major consensus in the literature with the Tasmanian experience.

Whilst the change process is dichotomised for the purpose of clarification, an attempt will be made to show educational change as the complex and often subtle phenomenon that it is. As Stake[2] has suggested, theories, test scores, statistical processes and many other tools of the educational researcher are "simple representations of the complex". "They help us," he adds, "but they also can mislead."

This study will be based on the experiences and data available to the author as a participant in the change process.

1. The Problem

During the period 1956-1961 the Research Branch of the U.S. Office of Education disbursed approximately $33 million to over 400

research and development projects in education to herald a "new deal" for educational innovation. In the period 1961 to 1965 expenditure on educational research tripled to over $98 million (United States Digest of Educational Statistics 1965). The impact was dramatic. Innovations represented all aspects of the educational spectrum: learning characteristics, subject matter content, organisation methods, materials, technology, evaluation, leadership, research, teaching personnel, etc. This relatively high rate of innovation that is just now diminishing has provided an excellent opportunity to understand the nature, processes and problems of innovation in education with some clarity. However, many would claim that the opportunity has not been maximised. As Street[3] points out

> A great deal of work in the area of innovation in education still remains to be done. The studies which have been done to date have been unable to add much in the way of theoretical elaboration. Great numbers of innovations have been tried but most have been only piecemeal and many have been unstudied. Moreover of those that have received study, project after project has been shown to produce minimal or transitory academic benefits or positive outcomes that could not be sustained when the experiment was diffused to additional schools.

Horvat[4] reached similar conclusions and suggested three general reasons for the failure of the change structure in the U.S.

> (1) The educational community in general and most professors of educational administration in particular have overemphasized the importance and utility of educational research and theory in bringing about change and improvement in education.

(2) We are overemphasizing "things," "products," and "gimmicks," as well as research, in our efforts to bring about change.

(3) The R & D Centers which looked so promising have emphasized almost exclusively the research aspects of their tasks and have generally been unable to make progress in the area of implementation.

Leithwood[5] endorses the inadequacies of implementation processes

> A disproportionate amount of educational research and development resources has been and is presently being allocated exclusively to product development rather than to the implementation process. This may be one of the most significant contributing factors to the lack of impact that R and D activities have had on educational practice. Attention needs to be focused on the poorly elaborated implementation process.

Hearn[6] indicates that one of the major problems has been and is, the timing of the changes. He claims that a surfeit of changes and change agents have tended to saturate the school systems to the point where they frequently reject innovation out of hand. Similarly accounts by Coombs,[7] Goodlad[8], Connolly[9] and Ennor[10] endorse a general dissatisfaction with what has been achieved during this decade of educational opportunity. The 1968 edition of the Clearinghouse Report[11], indicates that only 19 out of the reported 68 projects operating at that time in the U.S.A. could offer tangible evidence of success.

Bennis [12] summed up the problem succinctly.

> What we know least about is implementation - a process which includes the creation of understanding and commitment toward a particular change and devices whereby it can become integral to the client systems' operations.

In an attempt to understand this problem it will be useful to examine a successful implementation effort. Much of the research focuses on a single dimension of the change process, esoteric theory testing, small scale situations, innovations that failed (e.g. Louis Smith, Sharon Larsen) or leap to the broader concept of planning at the administrative level. An alternative approach is to examine current theory by comparing it against an apparently successful attempt at implementing an innovation. A comprehensive analysis of the diverse ways in which design and practice were bridged should lead to a better understanding of the theory, reveal some dimensions of implementation strategies that may have previously escaped attention, and create better understanding of the actual case under investigation where circumstance and intuition were significant factors.

Accordingly this study will proceed from the assumption that the Tasmanian Social Science programme at this time has been successfully implemented and is an on-going and viable part of the primary school curriculum in that Australian State. Systematic studies by Palmer[13] (see Appendices A, B, C, D) and Dufty[14] support this assumption.

2. The Structure of the Study

Miles' Typology of Change Strategies

Contributions to the analysis of change processes have come from many sources. As a consequence of a review of over 500 studies Everett Rogers[15] has identified six traditions of research studies in this area (1) anthropology (2) early sociology (3) rural sociology (4) education (5) industrial and (6) medical sociology. He calls the educational tradition "one of the largest", but asserts that it is "of lesser significance in...its contribution to the diffusion of ideas" (page 39). Certainly its magnitude is in evidence. Compilations of the literature by Maguire[16] (900 entries) Stuart and Dudley[17] (650 entries) and Rogers[18] (1100 entries) attest to this.

Certainly many are anecdotal and experience-based descriptions and assertions about factors associated with the successful implementation of innovations (Byerly and Rankin[19], Barnes[20]). It could be claimed that they are supported by dubious evidence. However, these form an important part of the literature for they describe the change process for what it is: holistic and complex.

Despite Rogers' assertions of insignificance, a study of 12 of the more frequently cited shows remarkable consensus about the stages leading to a successful change process. (See Appendix E). In the models examined <u>all</u> indicate a preparatory stage where the clients should be made aware and become interested in the innovation; <u>all</u> indicate a trial or experimental stage and <u>all</u> indicate the need for evaluation upon which to base judgments concerning adoption. This consensus bears strong resemblance to Kurt Lewin's[21] pioneering analysis of the

process of change. He suggested three broad phases in planned change. He wrote

> A change toward a higher level of group performance is frequently short-lived; after a 'shot in the arm', group life soon returns to the previous level. This indicates that it does not suffice to define the objective of planned change in group performance as the reaching of a different level. Permanency of the new level, or permanency for a desired period, should be included in the objective. A successful change includes therefore three aspects: unfreezing (if necessary) the present level, moving to a new level and freezing group life at the new level.

Miles' model is especially significant. It is in the Rogers' rural sociology tradition and reflects the three broad phases that recur in the change models reviewed. However his model includes an initial stage of (1) design as a necessary preliminary and integral part of the change strategies which cannot be dissociated from the remaining stages of (2) awareness and interest, (3) local evaluation and (4) local trial. This inclusion of the design stage allows for special attention to be given to the degree of need for the change, the status that it has in the perception of the potential client and the organisational climate which contributes to the readiness of the client system to consider the change. All these factors can be built into the design of the innovation to make its implementation manageable in the system.

The typology of change strategies that Miles has developed (See chart 1) goes further. It is an extension of his model. In addition to his stages he identifies four types of agencies viz. internal (existing), internal (new) external (existing) and external

(new) that may be responsible for initiating the change. Thus the four types of agencies plus the four stages prior to adoption generate a matrix of 16 cells.

Chart 1

A TYPOLOGY OF CHANGE STRATEGIES

STAGES

INITIATING AGENCY		DESIGN	INTEREST	EVALUATION & OPINION FORMING	TRIALS
Within the System	existing	1	2	3	4
	new	5	6	7	8
External to the System	existing	9	10	11	12
	new	13	14	15	16

change strategy possibilities.

The typology is not sequential. It merely recognises in each cell a possible relationship between an initiating agency and the type of impact that initiative will have on the implementation of change.

Will it contribute to design, awareness, evaluation or trial? Similarly what stages are the sole province of one agency or indeed none at all?

The comprehensiveness and flexibility of this typology make it eminently suited as a structure for the Tasmanian study. The Tasmanian experience was in many ways a pilot project for national developments in social education, as Dufty[22] has stated, Tasmania "has sought to implement some of the basic features of the draft Plan (for the Development of Social Science Curricula in Australia). Consequently many agencies and agents internal and external to the system sought and were frequently successful in influencing these developments. Accordingly the structure will help clarify and order a diverse and demanding task.

As Smith and Keith have[23] observed "Investigators and theorists have not focused hard and long enough, nor carefully enough on the small and mundane as well as the large and important issues and problems necessary for idealistic practitioners to carry out their dreams." The hope is that this study will fill some of those gaps.

3. Methodology of the Study

In the midst of the unprecedented variety and scale of innovation of the 60's Maslow[24] urged educational innovators to be good observers and reporters. The methodology of this study is in that spirit.

This investigation was a formative or in-process study and the principal method of data collection was participant observation. This was supplemented by informal interviews, intensive analysis of records and verbatim accounts of formal and informal meetings, seminars and workshops. Additionally some description will be given of the style, activities, and impact of key influentials in the change process.

Observations were made of classrooms, the operations of related agencies and the use of school facilities. Some are verifiable as indicated in Palmer's study, some are not, but to exclude them for that reason would be to destroy arbitrarily the fabric of the study.

The development of the Social Sciences programme is reasonably well documented. Access to all documents has been given. Some major sources of data will be:

1. The Role of the School in Society Report Tasmanian Education Department 1967.
2. Minutes of Meeting primary Social Science Planning Committee, including incidental reports, papers and correspondence.
3. Supervisor of Social Science personal files.
4. Evaluation Documents: Testing Officer, State Education Department.
5. Relevant Articles: Tasmanian Journal of Education.
6. In-Service proposals and programmes.

7. Papers from National Workshops in Social Science Education.
8. The syllabus statements from the Curriculum Research Branch of the State Education Department.

This constitutes a massive amount of data and some judicious selection has been necessary to make the study manageable. This selection will be made on the criteria of relevance or pertinence to the change process, i.e. does it relate directly to the change strategy or agency identified in Miles' typology?

The author's position does not match Maslow's[25] concept of the non-interfering, impartial observer. The author has been actively involved in the change process throughout its entire duration.

This introduces an element of potential bias that cannot be totally avoided. A participant observer in the anthropological sense attempts to become sufficiently immersed in the system or phenomenon under investigation in order to understand and appreciate its intricacies and subtleties yet maintain some 'distance' to avoid distorting that system. This is done to attempt to record and analyse objectively. These two conditions can never be totally satisfied.

The writer's position differs from this widespread and acceptable procedure. However, his presence in the system was not a distortion of it since he was in every respect a full participant and not at that time a recorder and analyst of events. The analysis of a change of this style and magnitude would be positively enhanced by a thorough knowledge of the procedures, polcies and personalities within the system.

By conscious effort and rigorous reliance on recorded data, it is intended and hoped that the problems of objectivity can be minimised and that the benefits of more complete knowledge as to what transpired will compensate for that difficulty.

4. Some Definitions and Explanations

1. "The Tasmanian System"

The educational system that will be the subject of this case study is the Tasmanian Education Department. (76 Bathurst St., Hobart, Tasmania, Australia.) The island of Tasmania is approximately 26,000 square miles in area and has a population of approximately 395,000. In the centrally administered state system there are 82 schools with secondary classes (Grade 7 to 10), 326 schools with primary and infant classes (Grades K to 6) and 6 Matriculation Colleges (Grades 11 and 12).

2. "Planned Change"

Change in education can be identified as falling into three broad categories. These are:

a) spontaneous developmental changes within the system,

b) fortuitous unplanned changes outside the system; and

c) planned changes that originate in a decision to make a deliberate effort to improve the system.

It is this latter type of change that I am primarily concerned with in this thesis, although elements of all three categories can be identified.

3. "The Curriculum" here will be used to denote the total planned learning experience provided by the school, as distinct from the plan itself.

4. "The Programme" here will be used to denote courses of study. In this case it is the Social Sciences course designed for implementation into the school system.

5. "Innovation" here is an idea or practice which is perceived as new or different from what is currently being used.

6. "Implementation" or "diffusion" refers to the processes and strategies whereby the innovation is spread through the system. Implementation is preferred here as this is more common to the literature on education. The term diffusion is used more frequently in sociological studies of rural industry, medicine and business.

7. Throughout this study the names of individuals will be kept to a minimum.

8. As many documents referred to in this study will be accessible only with great difficulty, a larger than usual selection of the more important data will be included as appendices.

FOOTNOTES

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[3]Street, D. Educational Change in the Mass Society: Introduction in David Street ed. "Innovation in Mass Education," John Wiley, 1969, pp. 1-15.

[4]Horvat, John J. "Educational Improvement and the Role of Educational Administration". Paper delivered to the Collegiate Association for the Development of Educational Administration in New York state, 1967.

[5]Leithwood, K.A. and H.H. Russell. "Focus on Implementation." Interchange, Vol. 4, No. 1, 1973, p.10.

[6]Hearn, N.E. The Where, When and How if Trying Innovations. Phi Delta Kappan, February, 1972, p. 360.

[7]Coombs, P.H. The World Educational Crisis, Oxford University Press, New York, 1968.

[8]Goodlad, J. I. Review of Educational Research 30, 1960, p. 158.

[9]Connelly, M. F.. "The Functions of Curriculum Development." in Interchange Vol. 3, Nos. 2-3, 1972, p. 161

[10]Ennor, A. H. Same Problems of Educational Research in Australia, 11th Theodore Funk Memorial Seminar in Australian Education, Department of Education and Science, Melbourne, 1967.

[11]Lockard, J. D. (ed.) Sixth Annual Report of the International Clearninghouse on Science and Mathematics. Curriculum Development, University of Maryland, 1968.

[12]Bennis, W. G. Theory and Method in Applying Behavioural Science to Planned Organisational Change in "The Planning of Change" Bennis, W., K.D. Benne and R. Chin, Holt Rinehart, 1969, p. 77.

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[15]Rogers, E. M. Diffusion of Innovation, Free Press, New York, 1962, pp. 39-41.

[16]Maguire, L. M. Observations and analysis of the literature on change. Philadelphia. Research for Better Schools, 1970.

[17]Stuart, M. and C. Dudley: Bibliography on Organisation and Innovation. Eugene, Oregon. Centre for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968.

[18]Rogers, E. M. Bibliography on the Diffusion of Innovations. East Lansing, Michigan: Department of Communications, Michigan State University, July, 1966.

[19]Barnes, L. B. Organisational Change and Field Experiment Methods in Victor H. Vroom ed. Methods of Organisational Research, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1967, pp. 57-112.

[20]Byerly, C. and Rankin, S. The Detroit Non-Graded Program in Richard Miller ed. The Non-Graded School, Harper and Row, 1967, pp. 29-46.

[21]Lewin, K. "The Psychology of Learning" in In-Service Education a N.S.S.E. Yearbook 1957, p. 69.

[22]Dufty, D. op. cit., p. 224.

[23]Smith, L.M. and P.M. Keith: Anatomy of Educational Innovation: John Wiley, N. Y. 1971 (Preface vi).

[24]Maslow, A.H. Observing and Reporting Educational Experiments, Humanist, 1965, p. 13.

[25]Maslow, op. cit., p. 13.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN STAGE

The design of educational innovations is influenced by many elements some of which are within the system and some are external to the system. In his conceptual model of the curriculum Campbell[1] lists four broad categories of source of change, viz. Society and environment, students, resource practices and innovations, and the subjects. However as the focal point of this study is concerned primarily with the implementation of change rather than its sources, they will not be examined. At this "design" stage as identified by Miles the question to explore is, how can design aid implementation?

Review of the Literature

What factors and processes can be built into the design of the change in order to facilitate rather than hinder its implementations?

The design stage of an innovation usually results in (1) a statement of need, (2) a rationale for action, (3) a statement of objectives, (4) a definition of broad areas of interest or content and (5) suggestions as to the scale and style of implementation. Research and investigation should precede the first and second tasks, involvement of theorists and practitioners is required to clarify and articulate the third and fourth and some indication of the extent of system

and external support, will determine the fifth. This literature reviewed ... focuses on these elements.

The Internal Elements: Cells 1 and 5 in Miles Typology

The recent literature on change emphasises "involvement" as the panacea for the problems that beset change efforts of those people who will ultimately be affected by the change in all stages of the change process. As Watson[2] asserts "Resistance will be less if administrators, teachers, Board members and community leaders feel that the project is their own---not one devised by outsiders." Clearly there are practical limitations to this degree of involvement, but the concept represents a decided shift from the dominance of the central committee or of any individual in the design of innovation.

The use of a number of development teams representing a cross-section of interest-groups but practitioner-dominated is suggested by Macdonald and Rudduck[3] and Hoyle[4] as a partial solution to the "top down" or "bottom up" debate.

Notwithstanding this current trend some researchers support the traditional view. Argyris postulates that changes, if they are to be permanent, must begin 'at the top'.[5]

> He points out; that the values which dominate large organizations are primarily impersonal and task-oriented; humanistic and democratic values are lacking. Thus, non-authentic relationships which are phony, static, non-supportive, and coercive and the resulting interpersonal incompetence, conflict, lack of trust, conformity and rigidity can develop.

Much of the mischief in this matter, may be caused by the "power of the purse". Clearly a change effort requires financial resources beyond those usually available to schools and herein is a source of potential conflict. What 'controls' are explicit or implicit in funds distributed from 'head office'?

The internal economic dimensions of changing education have received a lot of attention by researchers. Holland,[6] Abraham[7], Lyons[8] and Lichfield and Margolis[9] claim that the design of a new programme should take into account the ability of the system to meet the costs involved and should compare those costs with the benefits accruing. However the relationship between funding and "influence" remains to be examined. Additionally there is no study of the relative costs of innovation by commercial organisations compared with that of governmental agencies. Certainly this also would be a difficult, but enlightening task.

Another important and influential body of literature, more recent in origin, recognises that the design of educational innovation also must consider the organisational climate in which the innovation must operate.

Halpin[10] vaguely defines the concept of the climate of a school as its "personality". While this is less than satisfactory, with Crofts he has developed factors and instruments (OCDQ) to examine the climate of organisations. This has been a useful device. Its application in many research studies has had considerable impact on educational thinking.

Some of the literature (Katz and Kahn[12]) suggested that the organisational climate is "given" and can be easily accommodated in the design stage. Halpin[13] has admitted

> "The blunt truth is that we do not yet know very much about how to change a climate. More research is needed before any one of us can risk a headlong plunge into action programs in this area."

Clearly the scale, nature and manageability of the innovation will reflect the system. Improving the organisational climate of a school system is a massive innovatory task that should be the subject of separate change efforts.

Miles[11] considers 'organisational health' to be of fundamental importance. This is closely allied to the concept of 'climate'. He points out

> It is time for us to recognize that successful efforts at planned change must take as a primary target the improvement of organizational health---the school system's ability not only to function effectively, but to develop and grow into a more fully-functioning system.....It seems likely that the state of health of an educational organization can tell us more than anything else about the probable success of any particular change effort. Economy of effort would suggest that we should look at the state of an organization's health as such, and try to improve it---in preference to struggling with a series of more or less inspired short-run change efforts as ends in themselves.

Paralleled to the concept of organisational climate as a factor in the design phase is the concept of creating special change relationships. Havelock's[14] key work in this area suggests this is the very first task in designing and implementing curriculum. He states:

> "This is where any innovation or change effort should begin. A strong creative relationship can carry a change program through the most difficult obstacles."

Hearn[15] affirms this view. He states:

> "Changing people is not an academic exercise that can be accomplished by memoranda. It is a process that tampers with people's cherished value systems...and will be met with blind resistance."

Perhaps a wider concept than 'relationships' is required. I refer to the status of the people involved with the change design. Some individuals by token of their standing in the system can contribute significantly to the acceptability of an innovation without any direct relationship existing.

This is currently an unpopular conclusion however as many scholars contend that collegiality and involvement of clients at all stages of the development and implementation of the change effort is essential for its success.

External Elements: Cells 9 and 13 in Miles Typology

A very large body of the literature is concerned with the role of research as a key element in determining needs and promoting the acceptability of an educational innovation. (Jung and Lippitt[16], Herman[17], Jongeward[18], Jung[19], Gregg[20], Brickell[21]). Many consider that this research is logically a function of special external agencies. For example, regional educational laboratories are seen by many to be capable of performing a pivotal role. (Russell[22], Mead[23], Holzner[24],

and Feinberg.[25]) Adelson[26] goes further and postulates the establishment of a network of centers focusing on what he considers to be the two crucial issues, the first of which exists between education and other vital concerns of the individual and society, and the second between those contemporary policies, plans and commitments which are related to education and their effects on future conditions in schools.

Optimally the external agencies should be funded but not controlled by Federal Governments according to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development[27] and the Committee for Economic Development.[28]

The generic role of research is not really in question. It is reasonable to assume that an innovation based on sound research will have added prospects of success. What is posed as a central problem is the difficulty of relating and communicating research to those people involved with designing educational innovations. Certainly some important research findings have filtered through. For example, the relationship between learning sequence and maturation, the inter-dependence of the emotional, social and intellectual development in learning, and advantages of enquiry procedures in promoting transfer are just some prime examples. Although much has been achieved in research, most studies in this area reflect ineffectiveness rather than success. (Travers[29], Kramer[30], Gephart[31], Pinney[32], Carter[33], and Williams[34].)

Horvat[35] summarises the position neatly

> The R and D Centers which looked so promising have emphasized almost exclusively the research aspects of their tasks and have generally been unable to make progress in the area of implementation.

Shumsky and Murkerji [36] suggest 'action research' as to the problem. They state:

> "Teachers are hesitant to transplant research findings from a laboratory to their own classroom.' To bridge the chasm between research and classroom practice, researchers have been emphasizing what is commonly called action research. In action research, the educational practitioner, or teacher, is the researcher. The laboratory is the field situation, or classroom, in its complex and natural setting. Because the research is tailor-made for a specific, realistic setting and because the research involves the regular personnel in their usual, ongoing relationships, there is no question of applicability.
>
> Action research is based on the assumption that the involvement of teachers in a scientific study of an on-the-job problem is a promising approach. Our experience as consultants in action research shows that this involvement is also a source of great difficulties. It may, therefore, be useful to further examine the concept of teacher-involvement.
>
> Unlike the research worker who has a temporary and detached relation to the laboratory, the teacher-researcher is intimately involved with his laboratory-classroom. More than that, he is intensely aware of himself as a central, active agent in his field situation.
>
> To the teacher, action research means that his ways of teaching, his relations with his pupils, and the subject matter he is to teach are in a process of change."

This technique certainly has possibilites; however all the constraints, apprehensions and communication problems apply as with any implementation process. Important supportive processes are still required, both within and external to the system.

Clark[37] has observed that in fields where research has had a substantial impact on practice the following circumstances were present:

(1) A system for storage and retrieval of new knowledge existed.

(2) Adequate training facilities were available to insure a flow of competent investigators.

(3) The means existed for preparing research findings for field testing.

(4) An extensive program existed for dissemination to practitioners.

Perhaps the most influential work in the area of both research and development in social education is that of the late Hilda Taba.[38] Significantly her research-based innovation revealed a "modus operandi" for the design of educational programmes that has had wide application throughout the western world. She recognised [39] that often

> "it (a programme) is ineffective not because its content is inadequate but because it is put together in a way that makes learning difficult, or because learning experiences are organized in a way that makes learning either less efficient or less productive than it might be."

She further stated[40] "many dilemmas in curriculum development which have remained unsolved on the theoretical level probably could be worked out in a concrete setting."

Taba's[41] design for programme development viz. (1) diagnosing needs, (2) formulating objectives, (3) selecting content (4) organising content, (5) selecting and (6) organising learning experiences,

(7) evaluating and (8) checking for balance and sequence, has had tremendous influence on what she calls "the creative end of curriculum making" --- the design phase.

Taba's structure, more than the concepts revealed in her research, were to influence the work of those engaged in curriculum development activities.

The literature is remarkably deficient in the examination of the role played by individuals and commercial interests, operating outside the school system. Clearly controversial popular publications by people such as Ilich, Holt, Silberman, Reisman and Kohl exert some influence in educational thinking at a professional as well as public level. However, the literature pays scant attention to the nature and dimension of this factor in influencing the design of educational changes. The work of Zeigler[42] and Miller[43] are notable exceptions.

Edwin Fenton[44] has expressed concern about the major influence the publishing houses exert on the design of innovation and suggested a fundamental conflict between the professional and economic motives involved. However there apparently is little data to support any firm hypotheses of this kind.

In defence of the position of the publishing houses, Follet[45] claimed that they reflect rather than initiate change and have provided a service to educational innovation. Certainly there is a commercial expertise in materials development that should be maximised but it is certainly not appropriate at the design stage.

The Tasmanian Experience

What factors and processes in the design of the Tasmanian Social Sciences Programme facilitated or inhibited its implementation?

It is often difficult to determine just where an innovation starts. Usually it emerges from a combination of factors that collectively have a sudden impact on a system or an individual within a system. The nature of these initiating factors and the way in which they are communicated are critical to the change effort.

In the Tasmanian system there had been a "grass roots" rumblings about the state of Social Education for some time. In a paper given by Brewer at a meeting of Primary school principals in 1967 the claim was made that:

> ...there is dissatisfaction with the part of the school curriculum that is assigned the task of educating our students for and about society. I think it is accurate to observe that teachers have already responded to differing needs and interests in their students by modifying, or in many cases rejecting, the official syllabus. This is more or less an intuitive reaction by the teacher to the demands of the classroom situation, rather than a result of a formal analysis of the new background experiences and social situations in which our students are placed. Intuitive or not, it is accurate.[46]

A letter (see Appendix F) from the chairman of the organisation directly responsible for the total curriculum in primary schools to the Superintendent of Curriculum Research requested assistance to

> ...organise four workshops and discussion groups that would produce something useful for curriculum research and would also give a shot in the arm to this dismal section of the Primary School programme.[47]

Superintendents' visits to schools also disclosed the inadequacies of learning in this areas. In a report on a small suburban school a superintendent observed that

> children are using pre-war books that contribute little to their understanding of society...in fact they are destructive by creating harmful stereotypes and misconceptions.[48]

At this stage of developments History and Geography were still being taught as separate subjects in the primary school (Grades 4 to 6). No cohesive programme in social education existed at all in Grades 1 and 2. Social Studies had only tenuous acceptance in the Secondary Schools. It was often described as "a Hist-geog mish mash" by historians, was considered low in status by many if not most students, was shunned by the academic community and was the only major subject area not to be represented by subject association in the system as recently as March 1967.

Consequently a dilemma faced the Curriculum Research Branch. The existing programme in History and Geography was unsatisfactory and there was widespread disenchantment with the only apparent viable alternative...Social Studies. It was in this initail climate of apathy and reluctance that the first change efforts were to be made.

External Elements: (Cells 9 and 13 in Miles Typology)

The problems were partially resolved by a series of events occurring in rapid succession outside the system. Perhaps the most

significant report ever submitted on British Education was released in 1967. The so called Plowden Report[49] described and analysed a quiet revolution in infant schools in that country. The report emphasised the centrality of children's interests, activity methods and social skills and understandings. The Tasmanian system had maintained a strong British tradition in elementary schools. Consequently this report was to have its manifestations in two documents produced by special committees for the Tasmanian system, in the Plowden tradition. These were "The Five to Eight report on learning in the infant Grades," and the "Primary School Art and Craft" syllabus. Both were released early in 1968.

Concurrent with these developments, "The Role of the School in Society"[50] investigation began. It was the first of its kind in Australia. A public enquiry into the role of the school was initiated by the state education department in 1967. The resulting document published in 1968 had some important implications for Social Education. The following recommendations appeared in that document:

> Courses should provide stimulation, challenge and interest.
>
> Courses should meet everyday needs, and also lead to understanding and self-cultivation.
>
> Schools should provide opportunities for responsibility and experience in social situations.
>
> Courses should be relevant to the needs and experiences of students.
>
> Development of skills in communication is of paramount importance.
>
> Some of the following topics might be considered

(a) Attitudes to such matters as safety, health, etc.

(b) Elementary commercial knowledge and consumer education.

(c) The social importance of the mass media.

(d) Discussion of contemporary social issues, particularly those which are relevant to the age and experience of the students.

The third event to influence the system was the 1967 UNESCO Conference on Social Education in Australia. Although aimed at the secondary level, this very significant conference of key teachers, administrators and leading academics in the Social Science disciplines and education introduced some key elements into considerations about this aspect of the curriculum, viz.

> Some very influential members of the academic community were willing to be involved in the reform of education for and about society.

As Dufty[51] observed:

> The seminar seemed to lean towards an interdisciplinary structured core course in social science emphasising an understanding of modern industrial society

As Dufty[52] observed:

> 'It created a community of interest (that) has been sustained by the publication of conference reports and other books and articles, by informal national meetings, by interstate visits and by the establishment of a small national information center...' at the Australian Council for Educational Research.

> The Federal Government had tangibly indicated a special interest in this area of curriculum reform.

Tangential but also significant in creating this propensity for change was the emerging recognition of the work of Jerome Bruner[53] in the area of concept learning and the structure of the disciplines and of the late Hilda Taba[54] in the area of curriculum design and process. The fact that the latter body of theory had a practical manifestation in a Social Studies programme, gave this work added significance to the Tasmanian change considerations.

Internal Elements: Cells 1 and 5 in Miles Typology

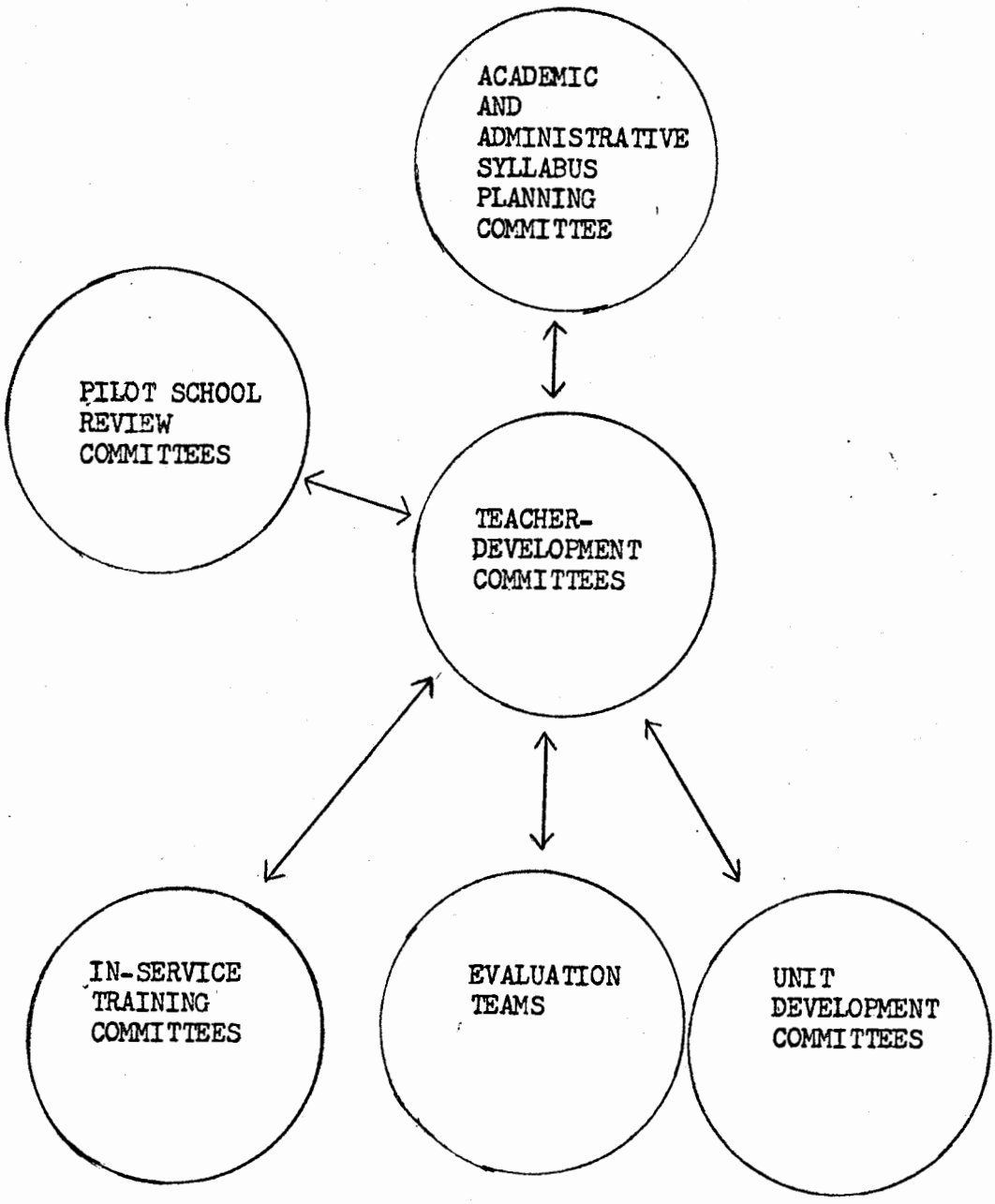
In response to these multiple and almost simultaneous stimulii a number of actions were initiated by the administration. (A key initiator was Mr. Philip Hughes, the deputy Director-General who had been responsible for establishing the Curriculum Research Branch in the system.)

In 1968 an appointment of a classroom teacher as curriculum officer was made to facilitate the work of examining and revising social education. The appointment was in fact a selection by a superintendent apparently on the basis of past performance and personal status with his peers. The choice seems to have been vindicated. This teacher (Mr. Brewer) was described in a section of a report on 4th December, 1970 by the Superintendent of Curriculum research in the following terms:

CHART 2

COMMITTEE STRUCTURE : SOCIAL SCIENCES

PLANNING



> I think the degree to which he is acceptable to teachers is best illustrated by the fact that when he is in his office he is rarely alone. He deals with a constant stream of teachers who are engaged in planning implementation or simply seeking advice.
>
> He has also maintained an excellent liaison with the A.B.C. and the Teaching Aids Centre, and he is respected by the people working in the same field in the other States.

However in this appointment of a "change agent" the seeds of some conflict were sown. Brewer's experience included a 12 month teaching assignment in a California High School. Consequently he acquired a pro-American perception of the school which was to create some ideological conflicts with the strong pro-British factions at a later date.

Shortly after the appointment of the change agent in December 1967 the Curriculum Research Branch established two types of committees (in February 1968) to undertake the task of review and possibly reform (see Chart 2). The original planning committee comprised:

> 2 Administrators, 2 university, 2 teachers college
>
> 2 curriculum representatives and 4 practising teachers.

Its brief was never clearly articulated, rather it emerged from the inputs described above. In the initial letter to prospective committee members on 14th February 1968 the Superintendent of Curriculum Research's first paragraph states:

> Upon the initiative of the primary schools council an attempt is to be made to organise a committee with the purpose of reviewing and possibly revising the History/Geography subject area in the primary schools curriculum.

In syllabus documents published much later three functions are stated as follows:

1. Define Philosophy and Policy within the subject.
2. Provide Academic Direction and Guidance.
3. Devise a basic syllabus.

The General Planning Committee was chaired by a Superintendent of Schools, who was characterised as having a special "paternalistic" relationship with his principals and teachers. The invitation to perform this role, extended by the Superintendent of Curriculum Research, obviously was influenced by this quality.

Some investigations were undertaken prior to the first meeting to provide a basis for the discussion as to the best direction for change. A questionnaire attempted to assess the degree of satisfaction with existing programmes and showed clearly that a change to a Social Studies approach was positively indicated. (see Appendices G and H). Two position papers were prepared "An outline of a Case for Social Studies"[55] "History and Geography"[56] and were the basis of lengthy discussion. However the climate and composition of the committee was such that any attempt to maintain the status quo would not have been accepted. Consequently the minutes of the meeting following the presentation of the position papers recorded this unanimous resolution.[57]

> That the Committee agrees to the integration of geography and history as the major components of a social studies course in the primary school curriculum and would encourage the teaching and planning to be in units of study.

Another important minute of that meeting read:[58]

> The Committee discussed at some length the possible scope and extent of the teaching of experimental units. Although administrative details are yet to be agreed to, the Committee in general, acknowledge the significance of the role of teacher experimentation in the design of the new course.

The Committee designated the curriculum officer (Mr. Brewer) to review the current literature and developments in this area.

The next two meetings (July, August 1968) produced this statement of assumptions which indicate the types of influence exerted on the design of the syllabus.

October 1968

As a consequence of committee and sub-committee discussion the following list of assumptions underwrites the curriculum revision being undertaken.

1. The present syllabus (last revised in 1951) which is assigned the task of educating pupils for and about society could not purport to cater adequately for the changed and changing needs of students in the 1970's and beyond.

2. The increased and more diverse social pressures and influences on each pupil in this modern society such as urbanisation, mass media technological development, greater affluence, raises the need for the student to understand his changing society and his role in it.

3. The syllabus whilst relying heavily on the traditional subjects of History and Geography, would incorporate appropriate knowledge and skills from the other Social Science disciplines to advance the student's understanding of his society.

4. Educational research and philosophy have shown three major areas of substantial agreement which are pertinent to the revision being undertaken:

   (a) That it is dangerous to rigidly stereotype the learning characteristics of age-grade groups.

   (b) That learning is best motivated by orientating the subject matter to the child's own interests and needs.

   (c) That "finding out has proved to be better for children than being told. Children's capacity to create in words pictorially and through many other forms of expression is astonishing.

   (Recommendation 1233. Plowden Report, 1967)

5. The course of study would be stated but in terms of units of work with teachers being free to emphasise or select units that will maximise their own teaching situation.

6. The final syllabus and course of study should be presented in as comprehensive form as possible, with suggested teaching experiences and resource materials for teachers guidance.

7. The course of study after school trials should be properly implemented with the conduct of in-service training and pre-service training and the production of teacher and student aids.

Additionally a model of development based on the expanding interest concept was adopted as a result of the review by Brewer, and some major themes were identified. (i.e. Family, School, Community, State, and Nation). The basic procedures in preparing the draft

syllabus were:

Step I : Devise Basic Study Themes - Child interest oriented at the primary level (Sub-Committee of Planning Committee)

Step II : How can the Social Sciences Subjects help the Child Study the Designated Themes? - This involves preparation of work sheets representing the contributions of the various disciplines in the form of generalisations. (Sub-Committee of Planning Committee)

Step III: Validation - Using the 'Taba' criteria check the generalisations as to their 'workability' in the classroom. (Teachers Development Committee)

Step IV : Sequencing - Arranges the validated generalisations into what is considered to be a logical learning progression. (Teachers Development Committee)

Step V : Suggested Learning Experiences - On the basis of their accumulated experiences and small scale personal experimentation, list classroom approaches for teacher selection. (Teachers Development Committee)

The sub-committee indicated in Step I and II above was basically an 'academic' committee of curriculum research, college and university representatives. The teachers development team indicated in Steps III, IV, and V consisted of selected teachers released from their classroom duties to work in the curriculum centre for periods up to one week. The selection of the teacher teams was a result of informal dialogues between the planning

committee chairman, the change-agent and influentials in the system. Basically they had peer status and innovatory tendencies. Curriculum specialists acted as consultants to the committees as the Annual Report of January 1971 claimed

> The work of preparing the programme has proceeded as a joint effort between academics, administrators, curriculum workers and classroom teachers, each applying his particular expertise at the appropriate time. This involvement of many people in different parts of the educational system is seen as a major factor toward ensuring the validity of the work done. The greatest strength has been the involvement of status teachers. At every stage of development these teachers have brought the dimensions of practicability and enthusiasm. The programme has become 'the property' of these teachers. The teacher to teacher dialogue thus becomes the key element in subsequent in-service operations.

A tentative schedule for development and implementation was developed as outlined below. The correlation with Miles' typology is evident.

As indicated the programme was designed to be gradually phased into the system in this way. The experience of the previous stage could be used as a basis for the next stage. Each stage was to be trialed twice with modifications based on informal feedback, classroom visits and the evaluation activities conducted by the testing officer for the system.

CHART 3

TASMANIAN SOCIAL SCIENCES PROGRAMME

SCHEDULE OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

1968 - 1973

	Syllabus (units) Designed (Miles' Design Stage)	Control Trial (Miles' Awareness-Judgment)	Extended Trial (Miles' Judgment-Trial Stages)	Evaluation and In-Service Programmes for Principals (Miles' Awareness-Judgment Stage)	Provision Support Materials and Aids (Miles' Judgment and Trial Stage)	Complete Implementation In-Service Programmes for all. (Adoption)
Stage I Grades I and 2	1968	1969	1970	1969	1970	1971
Stage II Grades 3 and 4	1969	1970	1971	1970	1971	1972
Stage III Grades 5 and 6	1970	1971	1972	1971	1972	1973

The evaluation instruments were prepared by a team of teachers, especially released from the classroom for this purpose. As with the development teams, this was both a learning experience for the participants and a valuable avenue for informal communication.

Within all these working groups strong supportive relationships and commitment to the change philosophy emerged. The following codicil to the December meeting of the general committee was typical.

> At the last meeting members agreed that it is pleasant to wind up the morning's activities with a luncheon. The smorgasbord at the Black Prince Hotel has been warmly recommended and it is proposed that we should adjourn to the Black Prince at 1 o'clock following the meeting on Friday, 1st December. (1968)
>
> The meal will cost $1.75.

During the first year of the change effort important relationships outside the committee structure developed that were to sustain and promote the change programme.

The Director of Primary education and the Director-General of Education publicly indicated their support for the program. The brochures were prepared, one for all teachers in the system, one for all parents of children to be involved with the experimental programme (see Appendixes R and S). The style and nature of this communication were important elements in this hierarchical system. Additionally special funds were set aside to finance the work of the committee.

The need for incentives and teacher support created two other relationships which have progressively grown in significance. The Teaching Aids centre is a materials production and dissemination facility. The director of the centre, Mr. Foster, himself an outstanding ex-Social Studies teacher, committed himself and the resources of his centre to support the programme with the production of multi-media materials as vehicles for change. He contributed the philosophy that imaginative and flexible classroom materials production should optimally become an integral part of the programme building process rather than something tacked on to the end.

Related to the Resource centre relationship was the participation of the Australian Broadcasting Commission. The inclusion of representatives of this organisation on a planning committee was unique in Australian Curriculum Development History. Subsequently in the years to come every phase of the change strategy incorporated some matching educational television and radio programmes as well as paint and visual materials.

1968 was "the crest of a wave". It was characterised by an amassing of the forces for change outlining directions for development, much informal communication and the preparation of a control trial syllabus for Grades I and 2. The optimism and enthusiasm of the group was 'fed' by the decision to reform the secondary syllabus using the same philosophy and procedures adopted by the Primary Group and The Federal Government sponsoring prestigous meetings to promote change efforts in all states.

Analysis

In the light of the literature reviewed, what are the strengths and weaknesses in the design of the Tasmanian programme, that will ultimately influence its implementation into that system?

1. As Hearn has indicated one of the major factors has been and is, the timing of change. Certainly the quick succession of strong stimuli into the subject area earlier labelled "dismal" was a key factor in creating an initial momentum for change. This enthusiasm and energy sustained the committee through some powerful ideological confrontations.

2. The research base for the change effort was "thin". Certainly without the powerful initial inputs indicated in (1) above it would have been inadequate. The relationship between conceptual learning and maturation was not thoroughly examined. The physical resources of the educational system were not assessed, nor was the training of teachers to determine their capacity to work with the content and techniques advocated. The questionnaire (Appendices G and H) was the sole source of local data and was little more than a statement of opinion. Affirming the apprehensions of Horvat, other than the major works

cited (Bruner, Taba), external research findings related to this area were not readily available and consequently not investigated.

3. The organisational climate in individual schools was not considered in the design phase. General indications of the need for change emerged through the system. Certainly in a relatively small (by Australian standards) system in an insular setting, these general indications are usually accurate. However no systematic attempt was made to assess this factor. Certainly schools were under no obligation to participate in the control or extended trials, thus the gradual phasing in of the programme allowed those schools with an aversion to change to be accomodated.

4. Whilst the strong and mutually supportive relationships recommended by Havelock and others existed between the many people involved in the design stage (i.e. planning committee, curriculum and research centre and the Teachers Development Teams), no deliberate attempt was made to "reach" and gain early feedback from a key group in the system, the principals. Essentially, the procedures followed an "Agyris type" modified "top down" model. Whilst practising teachers were involved on an unprecedented scale in this

system, their involvement never reached the scale advocated by Watson and others. However it should be noted that the size and nature of the system was such that a strong informal communication flow existed.

5. A factor related to (4) above was the appointment of the change-agent, his supportive and linkage role was critical to the acceptance or at worst tolerance of the initial design for change.

6. Reflecting the hierarchical organisation and dependent relationships within the system, the role of senior administrators was central to the operation. Without their approval and moral and financial support the change effort would never have reached the research review stage.

7. Commercial external agencies took no initiative either directly or indirectly to influence the design phase of the programme. Again, the scale and insularity of the system had always stifled vigorous attempts at marketing. This circumstance was to provide the need for locally designed materials at a later stage.

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CHAPTER III

Awareness Stage

In Chapter II the design stage indicated the types of system characteristics, activities, and processes that had to be understood and accomodated for the innovation to be compatible with the system. This chapter will examine the first introduction of the innovation into the system. Miles[1], in his typology, categorises this as the 'awareness' stage where the members of the target system come to be aware of the existence of the designed innovation, become interested in it and hopefully attain some positive attitudes toward it. Havelock[2] suggests that "as yet this is only passive interest...he is yet to make a firm judgment." Agyris[3] explains the stage as the time when the clients make observations without exposure and risk taking. Consequently our basic concerns here are with communication and experimentation. Enough communication to create interest without apprehension. Enough experimentation to validate the innovation.

Review of the Literature

What elements are at work when the innovation is first communicated to the clients in an attempt to achieve credibility and support?

There is an important problem here which has been recognised previously. This is "the difficulty of categorising and identifying a sequence in change processes". As March and Simon[4] have put it, implementation must recognise that "the whole pattern of programmed activity in an organisation is a complicated mosaic of relationships".

Others attest to the complexity of educational systems. Churchman[5] states:

> One of the difficult problems in creating alternative plans of action is the possibility of a change in the larger system. A redesign of the larger system may make all of the alternatives of the subsystem completely irrelevant.

Oettinger and Marks[6] state:

> It is difficult to comprehend the boundaries of the so-called "school system." One of the most striking features of the educational network is the complexity of multifarious linkages between various elements of society and the school system.

As G. R. Smith[7] points out little research has been done specifically on the awareness stage of the decision process. He questions the whole concept of sequence in decision-making and suggests that research should give greater emphasis to examining the plurality of roles and process.

This condition is not restricted to the American scene. M. P. Smith[8], in a report on the United Kingdom Schools Council Primary Science Project stated:

> Very little is known about the early stages of innovation adoption in the English school system, and there is clearly a need for more formal, more detailed studies.

Internal Elements: Cells 2 and 6 in Miles' Typology

The literature appears ambivalent on the subject of separation or combination of design and implementation. In 1911 Taylor[9] advocated separation of implementation from design as he felt they were different functions, best performed by separate groups of people---namely labor and management. Anderson[10] supported this view. "It is imprudent to include implementing educational plans within the domain of educational planning." He went on to state that school administrators are not implementors. Yet LeBreton and Henning[11] considered it a disadvantage to separate the two functions. It would seem that if there is to be a high degree of teacher participation at the design stage, it is positively wasteful of expertise to omit them from the implementation of the innovation into the system.

Other researchers have shown that peer communication within the system is most helpful.. Studies by Schramm[12] and Johansen[13] provide hard data to support this hypothesis. However in the study by M. P. Smith[14] an important warning was sounded. He reached the following conclusions:

> ...teacher involvement is not the same thing as pupil involvement, which is determined more by how teachers are used than by the number of teachers concerned. If the number of teachers is small, the development of the Project may be vulnerable to the effects of teacher migration. However the "activists" have an important role to play in the local communications system, both inside the schools and outside.

Hearn[15] offers some disturbing information to activists. He stated:

> ...if you are a real innovator you may be in for some problems if you practice your art in the average community. Several studies have shown that innovators as a class have "undesirable personal characteristics." In other words, they tend to violate the norms of the community, hence are regarded as "odd" or eccentric by their peers. Most real innovators (about 2 1/2% end up being transferred or fired. The fate of early adopters (13%) is not much better.

This literature seems to pivot around the concepts of trust and risk taking. In a study by Novotney[16] it was shown that

> "potential implementors are more likely to adopt a new idea if the change agent is someone they trust."

It is also indicated that teachers trust teachers more than principals or adminstrators and are hence more likely to adopt another teacher's idea. Rogers[17] calls this "personal influence" and endorses its importance, but suggests that "personal influence from Peers is most important at the evaluation (trial) stage in the adoption process and less important at other stages. He asserted[18] that "for most individuals, awareness is caused by impersonal communication such as the mass media. (Statements such as this indicate the limitations of transfer of much research on implementation to the educational setting, for this is certainly not the way teachers first learn of an impending change.) Clients tend to trust those people who had actual experience of an innovation, were non-threatening in their communication styles and had no direct vested interest in the outcome of the innovation. Some studies link trust and influence with prestige, i.e. individuals tend to believe and do those things suggested by authoritative, prestigious sources. Their impact seems to rest on their capacity to provide either personal or system assistance. (Hovland, C. J. and Janis and H Kelley[19] and Mace[20] and Pellegrin.[21]

Hilfiker[22] in the sociological tradition linked this propensity to trust the opinions and pronouncements of others to factors relating to the innovativeness of the whole system. His work was based on the closely related concept of 'constructive creativity' developed by Carl Rogers.[23]

Rogers outlined two general conditions for maximizing the emergence of constructive creativity: (1) psychological safety and (2) psychological freedom.

The concept of psychological safety is related to trust. According to Rogers, the attitude of psychological safety will manifest itself when a

> "teacher, parent, etc., senses the potentialities of the individual advocating the innovation and thus is able to have an unconditional faith in him. The effect on the individual as he apprehends this attitude, is to sense a climate of safety."

Rogers claims the concept of psychological freedom is related to openness. He defines psychological freedom as permissiveness which "gives the individual complete freedom to think, to feel, to be whatever is most inward within himself. It fosters the openness, according to Rogers, fosters the development of security and personal power.

Rogers[24] summarized this theory by stating several hypotheses regarding the fostering of constructive creativity.

The concept expressed in part by Rogers and used by Hilfiker[25] is that the interpersonal relationships have an important impact upon the creativity and innovativeness.

Rogers[26] outlined another concept which included leadership as an important factor in the development of a creative group. He indicated that

> "we know how to establish, in any group, the conditions of leadership which will be followed by

> personality development in the members of the group.....If the leader is accepting...understanding of others in a sensitive empathic way; if he permits and encourages free discussion; if he places responsibility with the group; then there is evidence of personality growth in the members of the group, and the group functions more effectively, with greater creativity and better spirit."

Leadership style and its relationship to change efforts is the subject of a large body of research literature. However the issues are often confused as frequently no distinction is made by between leadership and administration. One does not automatically imply the other. As Brickell[27] points out leadership is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing or changing an organization's goal. An administrator is one who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective. However both roles can and often are performed by one individual. Studies by Johnson, Carnie and Lawrence[28] and Lipham, J. M.[29] show superintendents to positively promote the innovativeness of system and thus become leaders when they are more outgoing, more assertive, more venturesome, more imaginative, more inclined to experiment, and more relaxed. The Johnson et al study also showed conclusively that there is no relationship between age of superintendent or mean years in a position and number of innovations, but there is a relationship between size of school district and degree of innovativeness of a superintendent.

However a study by Klingenberg[30] established the following characteristics of administrators that positively assisted and promoted change efforts.

(1) They tend to rely upon a greater number of information sources for new curriculum practices.
(2) They have more years of school administration.
(3) They have more years of total professional educational experience.
(4) They have a greater involvement of their teaching staffs in curriculum change, and
(5) They have a greater recognition of the worth and dignity of their teaching staffs.

Some of the literature exemplified by Schmidt[31] and Booth[32] propose that leadership should be completely divested from administration and the institutional authority structure and vested in associations of teachers. Howe[33] speculates that

> "The role of professional associations, particularly in the areas of leadership, support of change, dissemination, and evaluation will be expanded. This more vigorous role will require resources not conventionally available to professional organizations and it will also require substantial re-examination of traditional roles and, in significant degree, a redressing of existing imbalances. The increasing maturity, security, and status of education as a profession will support such changes."

However as Beeby[34] suggests this stage of educational development where teachers have total autonomy in the classroom has not yet been reached (at least in Australia).

He postulates 4 stages of development:

1. The Dame School Stage, where teachers have a poor general education and no professional preparation (and require close supervision).

2. The Stage of Formalism, where teachers have poor general education but some professional preparation (and require some supervision).

3. The Stage of Transition, where teachers have both a good general education and some professional training (and require little supervision).

4. The Stage of Meaning, where teachers have a very good education and have a very good professional training (and have total autonomy in the classroom).

Despite problems in definition, it is reasonable to assume that the fourth stage has not yet been reached. Perhaps we are entering it and the surge of teacher participation in many aspects of educational administration as well as in the classroom is an indication of the beginning of this development.

Taba[35] sounds a timely note of common sense, she claims that

> "insisting on a 100% participation (in curriculum planning and implementation) from the start is a strategical error which creates many problems (even if it were possible). One of these is the inclusion of many "reluctant dragons" who... dampen the atmosphere and impede progress."

The degree of involvement is a professional decision, based on the needs and knowledge available to the system, rather than the location of power and political status.

A significant part of the literature (Raths and Leeper[36], Watson[37], Carlson[38], etc.) pursues the concept of resistance to change, its causes and what can be done to overcome this resistance. Whilst this concept obviously has some significance at this stage, it will be the subject of detailed examination in the evaluation-judgment making stage in Chapter IV where the innovation is more widely and intensely exposed. At this awareness stage our concern can focus on what Rogers[39] calls the early adopters, i.e. those always willing to try out changes immediately. Rubin[40] suggests that every system has this type of person. He states:

> "We have greatly overestimated a teachers' psychological resistance to change. A significant proportion of teachers respond readily to an improvement programme and are even hungry for it."

Rogers[41] describes these early adopters as follows:

> "Innovators are venturesome individuals; they desire the hazardous, the rash, the 'avant-garde', and the risky. Since no other model of the innovation exists in the social system, they must also have the ability to understand and use complex technical information."

He identifies the following characteristics:

They generally are young.

They have relatively high social status in terms of education, prestige and income.

Impersonal and cosmopolite sources of information are important to them.

They are cosmopolite. They travel widely and participate in affairs beyond the limits of the system.

They exert opinion leadership.

They are likely to be viewed as deviants by their peers.

A cynical observer might relate the motives of early adopters to financial and other rewards, however Ross[42] discounts this explanation:

"Unfortunately, there seems to be no possible profit motive in being an educational innovator. The primary motive for early adopters must come through their desire for more effective learning by their children."

External Elements: Cells 10 and 14 in Miles Typology

As Miles[43] has suggested "Credibility becomes crucial" and "is an essential component of the change process." Some studies suggest that credibility will be enhanced by involving an objective or non-committed status group, external to the system, to serve as a clearinghouse for information and evaluation. Meierhenry[44] and Chase[45] have suggested that Regional Learning Research Laboratories can perform this role. The existence initially of 20 such regional laboratories exemplifies this approach. However some indicate little confidence in their ability to perform a leadership role of this particular type.

Koerner[46], in a scathing criticism of the laboratories, wrote

> "No one can expect these (regional) labs as now constituted to lead the way toward significant change or, to use one of their own favorite nouns, 'innovation' in American education. An assortment of professional educators and administrators---who share a common background as well as a certain interest in the status quo and who make no use of the scientific-intellectual-artistic community, not to say the community at large---cannot come up with anything but routine answers to educational problems.

Perhaps this more direct clearinghouse role might be a more useful function than that being currently attempted, although it would seem that organizations do already exist for this purpose.

More confidence is expressed in the functions performed by the ERIC clearinghouses, the School Research Information Products Information Exchange. (Mersel,[47] Donahue, and Morris, Pellegrin[48] and Goldhammer.[49]) Pellegrin has pointed out that the establishment of innovations requires that specialists work together in an organized and systematic fashion. Clark and Cuba[51] have recommended the employment of high level personnel to work with teachers. However whilst these agencies and individuals certainly contributed to the awareness of educational innovation it is highly unlikely that information received from these sources alone could lead to a significant change process in the schools.

Certainly there is as Nilfiker[52] recognised, some defensiveness from those that received innovations "cold" from an external source. He suggests that sophisticated importations of ideas and materials are frequently perceived as threatening by the classroom teacher, i.e. they "built out" the teacher rather than "built him in" in the change process.

A thorough study of the effect of external consultants by Loadman and Mahan[53] was summarised in this way:

> "The data analyzed indicate a relationship between the behavior of the external science curriculum consultants, as measured by time utilization, and the success of the curriculum implementation. These findings may be attributed to many factors, and it would be presumptuous at this time to attribute the success or nonsuccess of the implementation directly to the behavior of the consultants. There are many variables which could influence the outcome; for example, (1) consultant ability, personality and energy; (2) attitude, cooperativeness and expertise of the classroom teachers; (3) level of pupil ability; (4) the activities in which consultants engaged; and (5) an interaction among these four categories. The outcomes were probably influenced to some degree by all the variables.

Substantially this review has been concerned with dimensions of communication and one cannot overlook the role played by professional and popular books, journals, newsletters, and other publications. Some have tended to denigrate their worth. Schmuck[54] asserts that:

> The most traditional and least successful mechanism (for communication) is the professional research journal.

Clearly not enough attention is given to the style, production techniques and frequency of these communications. Schmuck[55] claims that "articles usually are not written in understandable ways." However there is a significant communication flow coming from these publications (represented in Cell 10 of Miles'[56] Typology). Through this print media the system can be exposed to opinion and evidence that may promote or inhibit the communications that the system may generate.

An important role in this awareness stage is attributed to T.V. and radio and by Carpenter;[57] Cypher;[58] and Johnson[59], however it seems that this is of major significance at this stage when the innovation is of a public nature, i.e. changes that will mean a new role for schools or changes that will call upon community cooperation previously not required or requested.

Goldhammer[60] has observed the proposed change will be influenced by:

(1) The public's image of the advocate of change.
(2) The public's image of the organization and the ends it serves.
(3) The public's view of the proposed changes.
(4) The congruence of the proposed change with generally accepted values and recognized social needs.
(5) Situational factors which facilitate or impede the acceptance of change.

Consequently, many elements are at work within and external to the system that colour the first impressions. As Brickell[61] has summed it up

...the dissemination of these new forms of practice within school systems is a massive job... subtle, expensive, complex, and long.

The Tasmanian Experience

In what ways did the Tasmanian system become aware of the proposed changes and what were the results of this process?

As Rogers[62] and others have indicated there is considerable difficulty in categorising processes in implementation. Certainly a level of "awareness" of the activities of the planning committee existed within the Tasmanian system from the very first meeting. This was not totally a matter of chance.

Internal Elements: Cells 2 and 6 in Miles Typology

The committee members were deliberately drawn from people representative of the educational spectrum. It included two members from the north of the island of Tasmania. The communication function of all members was implied if not expressed from the outset. However, not all committee members fulfilled this function at the 'design stage'. Certainly the two superintendents on the committee chose with some enthusiasm to alert the schools they visited as to the philosophy and activities of the committee. Also the four principals on the committee, through their periodic regional meetings with other principals, alerted their colleagues to the likely organisational outcomes of the planned innovation. (Significantly book purchases for this area of the curriculum were negligible in the latter half of 1968.) The teachers on the committee, lacking some structure for communication, fulfilled this function at a school or local level only. Perhaps for the same reason or because academic status and identity

were involved, the teachers college and university members of the committee were indifferent or negative communicants at this first stage. This was indicated in the following encounter -

This observer visited a Northern Teachers College in mid 1968. During an over-coffee conversation with some faculty members the subject of the design of the new programme arose. The tone of the dialogue was a mixture of cynicism, flippancy and hostility. Their information source was a faculty member who was also a member of the general planning committee. Similarly a conversation with a group of students from a Southern teachers college in late 1968 revealed that a committee member had made reference to the work of the planning committee in derogatory terms. The responses were surprising as both committee members had not indicated their negative feelings to their fellow planners.

However it was at the 'design' stage and perhaps further into the diffusion process the tertiary education group did not reflect the enthusiasm of the committee colleagues. This group was influenced positively toward the programme late in the design stage by other university personnel, external to the system.

A visit by Professor Partridge from Australian National University in December 1968 was most influential in this regard. Professor Partridge (Professor of Social Philosophy at the Australian National University) had been a co-chairman of the 1967 U.N.E.S.C.O. conference on social education and was acknowledged as an outstanding scholar and teacher in the national scene. Apart from speaking engagements he was able to meet socially with some of the committee members. Professor Partridge received an unscheduled invitation by the university representative on the planning committee to speak to students at the University of Tasmania.

Additionally at the design stage a continual informal communication flow occurred, at "the grass roots", "in pub talk", "over cocktails", "on the grape vine" and such. Discourses in these settings frequently seem to emphasise negative or threatening aspects of the proposed innovation. In a small and insular system the importance of this communication cannot be discounted. As will be indicated later, this type of communication was accommodated to some degree and subsequently worked positively for the change process.

Formal attempts at alerting the system to the impending innovation occurred during 1969 in the following ways:

(1) A control trial syllabus was published for Kindergarten, Grade 1, and Grade 2.

(2) Short duration experimental trials began in a limited number of selected schools.

(3) A series of 10 orientation seminars for principals and other interested teachers were conducted.

(4) A large number of speaking engagements with Parent and Friends organisations and other lay organisations were accepted by committee members.

The control trials were undertaken during the second term in 11 schools (June to August). The following paper was prepared by the Planning Committee as guidelines for their trials:

Control Trials

The development of Units I-VI is now approaching the most vital stage - that of preliminary trials. Teacher participation is now essential for the success of the new social studies curriculum, and the enthusiasm and interest of volunteer teachers will allow it to be tested and validated. As for wider dissemination

1. The teacher-participants should be capable and keen to undertake the school trials. Their contributions to this important part in the development of curriculum will be acknowledged in the final curriculum document.

2. It should be quite clear that although there are suggested learning experiences in the curriculum guide at present, these are far from being exhaustive or prescriptive. Teachers must feel free to develop any part of the units within the broad frameword given.

3. Initial contact with the teacher should be through the superintendent.

4. The experimental schools should be within reasonable access, to minimize costs and delays.

5. A variety of schools should be included so that a cross-section of pupils, environments and teachers may be "sampled" - e.g.

    (a) Larger urban school.
    (b) Smaller urban school.
    (c) School of lower socio-economic intake.
    (d) School of higher socio-economic intake.
    (e) Larger rural school.
    (f) Smaller rural school.

6. Classes will be pre and post tested by the testing officer.

7. Suggested End-Points from School Trials: -

(a) An evaluation of the suggested learning experiences.
(b) Details of learning experiences and procedures developed independently by teachers.
(c) Teacher assessments of the appropriateness of units to pupils' ages.
(d) A list of requirements in materials - equipment, books, films, T.V. programmes.
(e) Details of any teacher evaluations of students' performances and attitudes to the course.
(f) Details of evaluation conducted by the school testing service. [63]

The superintendents rather than seeking volunteers, invited certain status teachers to trial the various units. Clearly they were selected because of their skill and readiness to innovate. The trial school teachers were then introduced to the background of the programme, its philosophy, and the tentative syllabus document in a series of one day meetings. Mr. Scott, the Director of Primary Education, attended the largest of these meetings. His presence was highly significant.

Visits to the trial schools during the trial period were remarkably infrequent. Apparently members had confidence in the judgment of the individuals concerned and the formal evaluation instruments devised. Toward the end of the trial sequence all classrooms were videotaped for a short period. Mr. Foster, the Supervisor of the Teaching Aid Centre, explained these episodes in this way to a conference of supervisors later in the year.

> In a spontaneous and unrehearsed setting we could attempt to capture the organisation, style and outcomes of the Social Science trial programme.[64]

The results of the trial were very favourable. Doubtless a strong Hawthorne effect was in evidence. This possibility was alluded to in the evaluation report of December 1969 part of which appears below. However this report does indicate significant difference between control and trial performance. The conclusion of the report reads as follows:

> Conclusions
>
> The tests have been directed mainly to the understanding of concepts and skills, therefore they have been of a problem-solving, unseen situation, type. Abilities of this sort do not grow quickly and at the outset it was not certain that the growth would be measurable. However, it has been found that significant differences between trial and control groups have emerged and that these are a reasonable indication that the new courses as taught are developing certain concepts better than do the traditional courses and methods. In one unit (The School) Grade 1 no differences were found, and it was discovered on investigation that teachers were not following the syllabus statement here. Otherwise the result of the testing has been favourable to the new approaches and the new content.
>
> Interpretation and Follow-up
>
> There is always a danger that testing programmes on new courses will be biassed because both teachers and pupils respond to anything new. It is hoped to readminister the tests after a period to see whether the growth found is maintained when the courses are no longer novel.

This trial sequence certainly alerted the system to the planned innovation. For the first time tangible classroom manifestations of the planning had emerged. Reports on the trials

were requested by the Primary School Council (the primary school governing body). Many groups within and external to the system sought information and some important ideological issues were exposed in the process.

These issues warrant much closer scrutiny as they provide some indication of the types of interactions that occur between approving and dissenting groups.

The most fundamental issue was concerned with the perennial problem of the extent to which direct control ought to be exerted over the behaviour of the learner. The trial sequence reports indicated a degree of "structure" that was apparently unacceptable to strongly pro-British faction in the system. This development is exemplified by

the case of Miss Fahey

Miss Fahey was a committee member. She is a distinguished teacher and lecturer and is dedicated to her career. Through experience, reading and close association with educationists from the United Kingdom she advocated firmly a progressive open-education orientated philosophy currently in prominence in the United Kingdom.

Before the trial sequence Miss Fahey's mild philosophical opposition was recorded in committee minutes in this way.

28/2/1969

Miss Fahey expressed concern about the potential disturbance inherent in "The Family" Unit, for

children who do not have a "normal" family situation. Committee discussed this at some length. Consensus was reached that individual teachers frequently Handle difficult situations and that children often accepted their own norms without much embarrassment in the classroom.

1/5/1969

Miss Fahey suggested that the "Activity Programme" be spelt out more specifically. Should it apply to stage 2 and 3 as well. Perhaps a general introduction could stress the importance of activities and then specific suggestions could appear in the detailed statement.

3/7/1969

Miss Fahey suggested that the "Cover Statement" of the document should include a paragraph stressing INTEGRATION of activities in the Infant Schools.

After the trial sequence her opinions became polarised as indicated in this minute of

24/9/1969

Miss Fahey expressed concern about some aspects of the Trial sequence. Her chief concerns were:

(a) In the Infant Timetable there is no place for Social Science as such.

(b) The structuring of a Social Science course may be contrary to moves towards integration.

(c) Terminology and philosophy in the Arts and Crafts "suggested activities" differs from current thinking by Art and Craft specialists.

Miss Fahey suggested that a joint committee (perhaps drawn from Art and Craft, Speech and Drama, Social Science and Maths and Science) should look at the total programme.

> Committee decided to appoint a sub-committee --- Misses Fahey and Hopkins and Mrs. Sweeney to investigate areas of conflict in the 'Suggested Activities.' [66]

The General Committee reacted to this confrontation by giving more emphasis to the flexible nature of the programme, the right of teachers to modify the programme and the need to consider social education within the whole context of the curriculum. These considerations were embodied in subsequent syllabus and other documents and emphasised in in-service meetings but this did not apparently appease Miss Fahey. She resigned from the committee. Also as a direct result of Miss Fahey's activities the decision was made to delete references to the Kindergarten in the syllabus statement. It was acknowledged that a structure in social education was unnecessary at this level. Consequently Stage I became a Grade 1 and 2 syllabus only. Majority reaction was more positive.

In response to requests for information from schools a series of 10 half-day, orientation seminars were conducted in December. The programme[67] for the conferences expressed their purpose in this way:

> The Purpose of the Seminars is to establish a useful dialogue with teachers working with the Social Sciences programme for the first time. It is intended that the dialogue should:
>
> ..... reinforce the basic philosophy of the programme;
>
> ..... identify and discuss obstacles to effective teaching and learning;
>
> ..... help resolve problems by examining the resources available and examplary techniques being used;

> ..... indicate the diversity of style and interpretation which can be employed in the Social Sciences programme.

These important meetings were conducted by a Superintendent (Mr. Swifte), the curriculum officer (Mr. Brewer), and a Principal, (Mr. Holden). All were well known in the system. At the meetings the evaluation reports and the videotapes of the trial classrooms were discussed at length. Additionally opportunities were made to meet with the groups socially as well as in the more formal situation. This was an important aspect of the work. In this informal setting it was possible to hold a dialogue with those whose reactions were not evident in the formal setting. It created a spirit of camaraderie and provided insights into the potential problems that might occur. The response from this group was most enthusiastic and requests from principals for their school to participate in trials for future stages were frequently received. Some evidence was also given that some 'private' trialing had already been conducted as a result of informal communications between schools. The question as to whether these types of trials should be suppressed, ignored or encouraged was to be vigorously debated in the general planning committee. As no hard data existed as to their frequency nothing was done.

During this year four journal articles and an editorial relating to this change effort were published in the Tasmanian Journal of Education. These were written by Curriculum Officers

(Brewer and Reid) and one was written by a committee member studying overseas (Traill). Also three newsletters were distributed to elementary schools during that period.

No data is available as to the effectiveness of this type of communication within the system. It is reasonable to assume they were largely ignored. However a small but steady demand for extra journal copies was experienced, principally from researchers and curriculum workers in other states.

External Elements: Cells 10 and 14 in Miles Typology

External influences also contributed to creating an awareness of the innovation. Not all were positive influences. Some negative reactions occurred when the name of the programme was finalised. Shortly after experimental trial sequence, the name of Social Science, rather than Social Studies was decided upon. As with so many of the committee's actions, this decision was a response to cumulative influences none of which could be labelled 'generic'. The Role of the School in Society Report used the term 'Social Science'; all documentation of Federal Government activities used the term, consequently it filtered into the committee dialogue and its adoption was ultimately rationalised in this way in the syllabus document.

> The term "Social Sciences" has been habitually used when referring to the university disciplines that teach about man in society.

> This course of study is involved in the same educational task and derives its substance from the same basic resources. The use of the term "social sciences" would therefore seem both logical and appropriate.
>
> Additionally the term intends to convey a new rigour, purpose and precision in this area of the curriculum. A continuous programme will establish key learning ideas, develop objective enquiry skills and clarify values in the hope that the quality of the students' lives may be improved by greater social knowledge.[68]

This term Social Science certainly had connotations of a 'fresh start' for this area of the curriculum and some escape from the stigma that was attached to the name 'Social Studies'.

The new name was to cause some conflicts also, as exemplified by

the case of Mr. Sureties.

Mr. Sureties was the newly appointed principal of a newly constructed teacher training institution. He was originally from the United Kingdom but had come to Tasmania during mid-career and had worked in the system for some time with outstanding success. He left the system, obtained a higher degree and returned to this new post. He was a proponent of the existentialist position and influenced the teacher-training programme accordingly. The politics of college and education department relationships also raised questions of direction, responsibility, and institutional loyalty. Mr. Sureties was invited to join the committee. He declined.

In a letter to the Curriculum Officer (Mr. Brewer) his reasons were articulated:

> "I believe the (empirical) implications of social 'science' cannot be shrugged off as 'mere semantics'. (It is semantic integrity which makes all rational discourse possible. The name or description one chooses is a statement of intention and, as often as not, <u>does</u> play a part in fashioning the event.)
>
> I thought that our talk turned most interestingly on three issues:
>
> (i) The place of analysis in education;
>
> (ii) the realities of conceptual development and the stages of development appropriate to certain types of activity;
>
> (iii) a group of problems mainly concerned with language, most relevantly the sort of problem explored, for example, by Barnes and Britton.
>
> All these have been primary grounds of concern (and contention!) amongst English teachers for some years past. I approach the new courses, naturally enough with this background. I believe that some dialogue might be fruitful here.
>
> I will not extend this letter further, except to hope that you will convey the contents to the Committee and to say that I hope our communication will continue.[69]

The communication did not continue. Despite informal attempts at reconciliation Mr. Sureties has continued to be non-committal about the programme in principle, consequently one important teacher-training institution is a reluctant agency in informing student teachers about the programme. Whilst Mr.

Sureties' criticism did not affect the choice of the name, it was admitted in committee that undue emphasis had been given to rational, cognitive and objective elements to the detriment of the intuitive and affective.

Negative reaction also came from unexpected sources, as exemplified by :

the case of the Aboriginals Welfare Board

A unit in grade two labelled "The Aborigines." came to the attention of the Aboriginals Welfare Board. Mr. Spaulding, the secretary of that organisation was to make two written submissions to the committee and two special visits to the island supporting the hypothesis that a study of aboriginal peoples in the primary school could lead to serious misconceptions. As a consequence of these actions and his very persuasive arguments the unit was withdrawn completely.

Other attempts to influence the committee came from such diverse groups as:

Harpers Happy Homes (materials on house building).
The Tasmanian Public Library (resource references).
The Tasmanian Museum and Art Gallery (rationalisation of visit times).
The Marine Board of Hobart (prohibiting unnotified wharf visits).
Battery Point Progress Association (historic walk brochures).
The Cat Lovers Society ('care of cats' material).
The Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (animal care materials).
The Glenarchy Municipal Council (junior council development).

The 'word' had obviously spread.

Concurrent with these activities, the Federal Government had taken additional steps in promoting a broad scale revision of this area of the curriculum. Two meetings of state representatives were called in 1969 to prepare guidelines for future activities. In November 1969 a survey of the innovative climate, resources and needs of the states, were investigated, with regard to Social Education. The Curriculum Officer (Mr. Brewer) working with the state committee was released to the Federal Government upon the request of the Department of Education and Science to undertake this task. As a result, Brewer in collaboration with Professor Connell of Sydney University prepared a "Draft Plan for the Development of Social Science Curriculum in Australia"[70] for the Department of Education and Science.

In December 1969 the Australian Council for Education Research had taken steps to establish a National Information Centre for Social Science Education (NICSEE). Bennett explained its purpose as follows:

> The purposes of the Information Centre will be, first, to provide those groups and individuals in Australia who are engaged in curriculum development in this with up-to-date information about materials and about research and development carried out in Australia and overseas, and secondly, to establish a means of communication between all those working in the field.
>
> One assumption behind the establishment of the centre is that all those concerned with teaching in this area, irrespective of the particular subject area or school system in which they are working, have certain common interests. The term "social science education" is intended to cover, first, the existing school subjects ---

> history, geography, social studies, economics, commerce, and citizenship education; secondly, attempts to explore methods of introducing the teaching of the more recently established social sciences --- sociology, anthropology, psychology, etc.; and thirdly, the development of courses in social science or general studies or social education which may be based on an integration or combination of the various social disciplines.[71]

Whilst these developments had **apparently** no direct tangible effect on this change effort, they were in fact an affirmation that what was being attempted in the state was in harmony with current thinking in other Australian states and overseas.

Analysis

1. Due to the size, compactness and insularity of the system, communication was not a problem. A high level of information communication had been occurring to create "awareness", from the beginnings of the change effort. The problem then becomes one of control, i.e. to ensure accurate information is received into the informal communication system.
2. The value of peer communication as suggested by Schramm and others was certainly supported by the Tasmanian experience. Indeed it was evident that the representatives of tertiary institutions were reluctant to commit themselves to a change philosophy at the suggestions of curriculum research workers, teachers, and administrators. Their commitment, where and when it did occur, came after communication with <u>their</u> peers, in most cases, in informal settings.
3. The debate about innovative leadership (young, energetic and creative (Lipham) versus older, reflective and experienced, (Klingberger) was resolved for the Tasmanian situation. Leadership was to be found in people from all sections of the educational spectrum, with a diversity of experience background and personality. Leadership is a relative thing.
4. Related to three (3) above is Rogers' concept of "personal influence". Certainly this was an important factor at the

awareness stage in the Tasmanian situation. However it should be noted that such influence is of no significance if a cohesive and viable structure is not provided to allow that influence to be communicated.

5. The control trial sequence in the Tasmanian situation was a little premature and the system was not adequately prepared for it. Whilst empirically the trials were a vindication, some influentials within and external to the system were alienated. On the basis of the experimental 'trial' experience, this event would have created more positive attitudes towards the change if:

   a. The number of trial schools were reduced. However the testing officer influenced the number of schools to validate the representativeness of the evaluation findings.

   b. The commencement and results of the experimental trials had been more widely publicised to eliminate hearsay and misinformation.

   c. The experimental trials had been conducted in other than the winter team. The activity work and field work were important parts of the programme that were frequently frustrated by weather.

6. The committee's momentum for reform was such that some early conflicts and confrontation created only minor deviations from the original purpose. Although some attempts were made to accommodate tangential viewpoints.

7. Conflicts and confrontations indicated in six (6) above were of an ideological or philosophical type. Significantly no issue arose concerning what was happening directly in the trial school classrooms.

8. As Meierhenry claimed supportive external agencies and agents can provide a powerful source of credibility in a system. Clearly the actual and anticipated role of the Federal Government and the complementary activities in other states were thoroughly, if not over-communicated to the Tasmanian system.

9. As Rubin, Rogers and others predicted a group of early adopters, almost premature adopters existed in the Tasmanian system. Their motives in adopting this role are worthy of further study. Their impact was significant.

10. The use of face to face communications supplemented by video-tapes showing spontaneous classrooms, were as Schmuck suggested, far more effective communicators than the journals, articles and newsletters published at this time.

11. Contrary to Goldhammer's recommendations little interest was shown and little initiative was made to communicate with the public, including parents and friends, at this stage.

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CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION AND JUDGMENT STAGE

Miles[1] explains the "evaluation" stage of the typology as being where

> "the potential customers perform a kind of mental trial, of the innovation and form opinions about its efficacy in accomplishing system goals, its feasibility and its cost".

The term evaluation is applied to such a diversity of situations that it could in this context be misleading, consequently the term "judgment" is preferred. This term is certainly in the spirit of Miles' typology. Miles further states[2]

> "the making of evaluative judgments seems easier when potential adopters can visit and observe (not hear reports of) the operation of innovation."

As with the previous "awareness" stage, our basic concern is with communication. But this is communication of a different kind. It is not a matter of merely revealing the innovation in a way that will promote interest. It is a matter of convincing the potential users that this is an educational product worth using. The experimental or pilot trials have vindicated the design of the innovation in a special setting; the task is now to involve the whole system.

In this particular study the teachers of the relevant grades will be invited to participate in the extended trials of

the innovation, i.e. the modified experimental version. As Miles[3] further states at this stage

> "complex processes occur, the potential user makes a subjective evaluation of the potential rewards and costs."

This judgment process now has an action dimension and as Woods[4] has stated and we all know

> ...the load on teachers at all times is heavy and it is difficult enough for them to conduct existing programmes well, much less carry out new ones. With a busy person every little bit helps - workshops, materials, guides, consultants - and any one of these make the difference between adoption and rejection.

Consequently it is likely that tension will occur and resistance will be met when the total client system is confronted with this choice making situation. In this stage we will examine the nature of the tension and resistance and the strategies that can be employed to overcome them.

It is useful at this point to differentiate between in-service and implementation. In-service is a categoric term to explain a recurring range of activities aimed essentially at system maintenance. Change is certainly involved in in-service work, but not of the scale or impetus usually associated with implementation. The term 'implementation' is used here to describe a more specific, concerted effort by the system to make a fundamental change to some major aspect of its operation. The major thrust of the implementation processes occurs at this point of "evaluation and judgment."

Review of the Literature

What individual and collective factors are at work when teachers are asked to trial an innovation?

The recurring problem of categorisation in this study makes it necessary to re-state the importance of organisation climate as a critical factor in this stage. In effect the climate is cumulative concept. It is influenced directly by what has proceeded before. As Agyris points out, it is not possible to directly control the climate or as he calls it environment, but it is possible to influence it, understand it or maximise its strengths for the change effort and minimise its weaknesses. Branch[6] claims implementation cannot exist in an atmosphere of defeatism; similarly Bennis and Birnbaum[7] suggest an atmosphere of enthusiasm and optimism about the future is necessary for change to occur.

Certainly it is unrealistic to pre-suppose that the implementation effort is to be made in a vacuum. However the suggestion that pre-requisite conditions must exist before success is equally unrealistic in a school system. Differring organisational climates are a fact of life that has to be lived with. The skill is to know and understand what the nature of the climate is, to maximise its strength and minimise its weaknesses. Consequently preceding a direct implementation effort it is necessary for the planning committee, change-agent, administrator, or organizer to be acquainted with

factors such as:

key local personalities
local style and tradition
recent professional events lauded or condemned
the prevailing socio-economic conditions
the prevailing political scene, and
the recent physical environmental conditions

Factors such as these can then be accommodated in an implementation programme.

Internal Elements Cells 3 and 7 in Miles' Typology

There is conflicting evidence and opinion in the literature as to whether a centrally initiated and organised change programme (workshops, seminars and meetings) is necessary or desirable to implement an innovation. Dees[8], Kreitlow[9], and Guest[10] suggest the school as being capable of acting autonomously in this regard. Leithwood and Russell[11] and Smith[12] whilst endorsing this philosophy are more guarded and propose assistance from external consultants and some training for those that will take a leadership role. This debate echoes the small but significant difference between the terms "in-service" and "implementation" discussed above. In-service education, (i.e. smaller scale system maintenance), could easily be envisaged as being conducted with the individual school taking the initiative.

However, implementation involves Lewin's "unfreezing" process and it is reasonable to assume that the school needs some major external stimulus and human resources beyond those normally available, to accomplish this.

As much of the literature recognises, the problem is one of bridging; bridging role perceptions and expectations and bridging personal and professional priorities.

As Jung[13] and Crow[14] suggest, the change that is proposed must be compatible with the general teaching style and personality of the individual. Similarly adoption of the change must be compatible with the leadership style and operation of the school so that confrontation and friction is not an added burden to the change task. As Smith[15] and Eye[16] have shown this is a real problem. Differences in perceptions of an innovation between a principal and a teacher are the rule rather than the exception.

It seems there is an additional dimension that is not reflected in the literature. This is the matter of consistency in the relationships between the teacher and the students. If the change being mooted will mean grossly different types of teaching behavior, it is reasonable to expect that the teacher will damage his relationship with the students, even if the change enhances learning.

Much of the literature related to this stage considers the concepts of needs and motives as being central to the decision making process about an innovation. As March and Simon[17] have suggested

> ...at any point in the organisation we would expect sensitivity to innovations to be a function of relevance of the innovation to the needs...of the individual or the goals of that unit.

Atkinson[18] developed a model to show that aroused motivation (to strive for a goal) is a joint multiplicative function at (a) the strength of the (M), (b) the expectancy of the goal (E) and (c) the perceived incentive value of the goal (I). The model is summarised in the equation:

$$\text{AROUSED MOTIVATION} = M \times E \times I.$$

As Silberman [19] and Parsons[20] have indicated the individuals need for approval, self-esteem, attachment and achievement is perhaps the most positive element working in favour of the change-agent. As Parsons[21] puts it

> The most important single inference from the paradigm of interaction needs to be drawn. Human society, we may say, is only possible at all because, within the limits of plasticity and sensitivity, sufficient basic human gratifications come to be bound up with conformity, with role expectations and with eliciting the favorable attitudes of others.

Similarly the literature pays scant attention to the relationship between professional and personal priorities. As we have indicated, change means an intellectual, emotional and physical investment that must intrude into the personal life of the individuals.

As Woods[22] has stated "Lots of assistance is needed". Wallin[23] suggests other inducements are necessary and describes the success of a merit system in promoting innovation in two colleges. Time is also an essential factor. We can conceive of a situation such as one week of orientation and one week of personal preparation being built into the procedures and the costing of the change effort as a norm rather than an exception.

The purely professional priorities are equally difficult to resolve as Rubin[24] states

> The development of innovations does not always parallel the fundamental problems of schools. Necessary school improvements frequently are overlooked in the innovative mainstream.

Teachers certainly have their own priorities for change in their classroom and wish to attend to these before anything new comes along.

All these components comprise what Brickell,[25] Johns,[26] Carlson,[27] and Watson[28] and Willower[29] and others call "resistance to change."

The task then becomes one of overcoming this resistance. Raths'[30] realistic solution is to live with it rather than attempt to overcome it. He says

> ...if fact I think the major trick in most organisations is to maintain a viable organisation without a goal in the usual classical sense,...

> ...you can design an organisation and operate in an organisation in which there are some very conscious activities directed toward generating many alternatives.

He pursues this theme by suggesting

> A supervisor or an organisor or an administrator has, I think, an unfortunate bias against anarchy.

The literature reflects the whole spectrum of opinion as to the most effective change strategies that can be employed from the use of raw power and indoctrination to small group sensitivity training. Raths[32] suggests the "power" model will result in "superficial rather than fundamental and temporary rather than permanent change." Massarik,[33] Agyris,[34] Roberts,[35] and the Pilot Communities Program in Newton Massachusettes[36] advocate forms of sensitivity training to promote change. Significantly this literature is mostly derived from studies in Business Management.

Predictably the majority of literature endorses a middle of the road collegial approach to this implementation phase. Heathers,[37] & Hornbostel,[38] reaffirm the need for peer involvement. Miller,[39] Carpenter,[40]. Bennis,[41] & Goodson and Hammes[42] see advantages in creating a change-team or task force comprising people of differing abilities and styles to undertake face-to-face implementation programmes. Wilson[43] draws attention to the influence of the physical environment as a change factor. Richland[44] and Wheeler[45] indicate advantages in a travelling team of change agents moving directly into

the school situation. There is an abundance of literature expounding the advantages of using a variety of media (Kemp[46], Gerbner[47], Creschkoff[48] Edling[49] and Williams[50]) in communications with the client system. The virtues of video-tape as a vehicle to demonstrate exemplary classroom situations is a recurring theme.

Jung[51], Havelock[52], Buchanan[53] and Gallagher[54] all see the need for linkage to ensure that individuals retain a perception of the total change philosophy and to create a basis for a continuing dialogue. Clearly the stimulus of an intensive change programme will tend to wane if it is not nurtured and followed up by communication with a change-agent.

Rogers[55] categorises those people who are likely to judge in favour of the implementation as 'early majority' adopters. He also identifies a more skeptical group of late majority adopters. He suggests the early majority adopters as possessing the following characteristics.

1. They are young.
2. They have relatively high social status in terms of amount of education, prestige rankings and income.
3. They value impersonal and cosmopolite sources of information.
4. They are themselves cosmopolitan.
5. They exert opinion leadership.
6. They are likely to be viewed as deviants by their peers and by themselves.

He also acknowledges with his "laggards" category that complete adoption seldom occurs and theorises that this is a healthy

situation. He identifies an undesirable condition of over-adoption which is akin to blind, uncritical acceptance.

External Elements: Cells 11 and 15 in Miles' Typology

It seems by the absence of a significant number of studies that there is not much evidence of, or need to involve, agencies outside the school system in this direct face-to-face implementation stage. It can be assumed that as these agencies will not be responsible for making the innovation work in the classroom, that the giving of further information to them about the innovation is unnecessary. (Note: in keeping with the typology it will be assumed that a commercially designed innovation implemented into a system will temporarily become an extension of that system.)

However many studies have identified links between home background and school performance. A report by Wiseman[56] in an appendix to the Plowden Report demonstrated that

> the major forces associated with educational attainment are to be found within the home circumstances of the children. These "home" variables have pro rata nearly twice the weight of neighbourhood and school variables put together.

Consequently it is reasonable to assume that greater involvement of parents at all stages of the implementation process can enhance the prospects of the innovation being successful.

A rare study by Pomfret[57] has revealed that where the community is involved in school change efforts it results in people perceiving the institutions in a favourable light and thus treats them with greater respect. In the same study Pomfret cites the work of Rubinstein[58].

> It is important to recognise that community control is essentially an administrative and political strategy for school change. Few of its proponents expect that community control will break new ground in technical educational theory. But all of them expect that it will display a sensitivity to the special needs of its children and a willingness to experiment with the alternative solutions that have already been developed, together with an awareness of the results which mark projects hopeful or futile.

The Tasmanian Experience

What planning and presentation strategies were used to overcome resistance to change and influence teachers to participate in the extended trials of the programme?

This was a period of intensive implementation unprecedented in scale and scope in the system and possibly beyond it. Although external influences were involved, the action occurred exclusively within the system. This corresponds with cells 3 and 7 in Miles' Typology. Cells 11 and 15 are of little significance to this stage of this change process.

Internal Elements: Cells 3 and 7 in Miles' Typology

In terms of duration this evaluation-judgment phase was relatively brief. In the period January 29th to March 5th, 1970, twenty-one (21) one-day seminars were conducted. During that time it was possible to meet in face-to-face situations in small groups with every teacher from grades 1 to 4, in the state system. The task was to offer the grades 1 and 2 programme for extended trial to those teachers willing to participate and move into the "awareness" stage for teachers of grades 3 and 4 who had not yet been formally informed about the programme.

Despite the fact that the teachers would be obliged to attend the seminars as schools were to be closed at that time, special attention was paid to the need to involve the clients as

much as would be practical in planning the implementation programme. The following is a rough working document prepared by the curriculum officers (Brewer and Reid) to guide the sub-committee delegated, the task of planning the programme. It indicated the concerns about the 'captive audience.'

In-Service '70: First Thoughts

THE TASKS

The teachers should want to come.
The teachers should feel it is their deal.
The teachers should see some mileage in participating in terms of:

(a) Their own status.
(b) Their effectiveness in teaching the Social Sciences programme.
(c) Their ability to have some impact on the system in the short and long run.
(d) Having a chance to socialise.

PROCEDURES: BEFORE

1. Identify number of key concepts and skills submerged in the programme that we wish to work with.
2. Prime regional groups to bring something - use teleconference.
3. Suggest experimental regional class activities.
4. Alert many teachers to report on their activities.
   - talks
   - displays
   - video tape
   - film.
5. Prepare evaluation feedback
   - the project
   - the in-service mechanism used.
6. Approach Teaching Aids for help.

Some Ideas Associated with the Seminar

1. Sell the philosphy.
2. Maximise direct experience.
   (a) might get seminar groups to actually undertake a survey of some type themselves
   (b) Might involve community organisations or at least get materials
       town planning
       radio station
       banking
       Chamber of Commerce
   (c) Demonstrate and hand out materials.
3. Maximise Australian and Overseas experiences.
4. Practical materials development mid-session.

This paper is also interesting in that it reflects both the role of the curriculum officers in shaping the thinking of the committee and the projected role of the teachers in the seminar.

As so often happens the planning for the session commenced in November and the impending end-of-year activities and the activities preceding the long Christmas vacation made planning meetings extremely difficult to convene. A solution to a practical problem of communicating with people in remote areas was suggested by Mr. Foster from the audio-visual centre. As a result the teleconference facility was born. This is an open-line extended period telephone communication system. This communication technique is now an important and established vehicle for communication in the system. The idea had its origins in accounts of telelecture systems established by the Educational Research Council of America for schools in Cleveland, Ohio and at Stephens College in Columbia

Missouri. An incidental personal remark by Mr. Foster with a friend in the Telephone Branch of the P. M. G. affirmed that this operation was technically and economically feasible in our system. Consequently it was possible to conduct a conference of three groups of twelve (12) people, each separated by 150 miles, in early December to plan the implementation session. This initial effort was more a technological triumph than a successful communication. The participants were not at ease with the equipment and the dialogue was spasmodic and artificial. However it promoted added interest in the planning efforts and contributed to the style and image of the change process. At subsequent meetings teachers became very skilled at using this media.

This extract from the teleconference brief is indicative of the magnitude of the logistical task involved. Additionally it reveals almost a pre-occupation with 'involvement' as a change strategy.

Before the Teleconference

By discussion with colleagues and your own thinking, develop some plans as to how you consider a series of regional in-service seminars might best be conducted relative to the emerging Social Sciences programmes. You will need to consider:

(a) The physical requirements.
(b) Seminar centre managers.
(c) A typical daily time schedule that might be followed.
(d) Local 'top-drawer' classroom teachers who could contribute to the actual seminar programmes.

(e) Imported people from other parts of the state who could be profitably 'plugged-in' to your series of regional seminars.
(f) The type of audio-visual back-up required for the seminar series.

During the Teleconference

1:30-2:00 p.m. session

*The basic purpose of this segment is to clarify the tasks and eliminate some of the major organisational obstacles, i.e. to clear the ground for your 2:00-3:00 p.m. meeting.

Break for Regional Group Discussions - 2:00-3:30 p.m.

During this time the regional Chairman will discover the best ideas of the individual participants, reconcile issues and arrive at the following information.

(a) A Regional Co-ordinator for the In-Service Programme.
(b) A schedule of centres and centre managers.
(c) Seminar dates and times.
(d) A rough seminar programme.
(e) The audio-visual materials needed with each group programme.

Second Part of the Teleconference - 3:30-4:00 p.m. Session

This will basically be a report by the regional chairman as to the results of their discussion (i.e. the issues that arose and the seminar plans arrived at.)

After the Teleconference

The regional co-ordinator may wish to make arrangements for future meetings of the group and make preliminary contact with others in the region that will be involved in the programmes.

There will be a meeting in Launceston in December to reconcile final arrangements.[59]

PLATE 1

CHANGE-TEAM: IMPLEMENTATION

SOCIAL SCIENCES PROGRAMME

MARCH 1970

Back L to R Pierce, Best, Hawkes, Klaossen, Reid, Walpole

Front L to R Holden, Smith, Dixon, Sweeney, Brewer

As a result of those deliberations it was decided that the implementation seminars should be built around a team of experienced people who had worked with the experimental programme, with local people at each centre contributing their own experiences and ideas in reaction and discussion sessions. It was agreed that sessions should be practical, visual and enjoyable.

A core seminar team of twelve was chosen. (See Figure I: Photograph) The number is significant. Of the twelve, two were curriculum officers (Brewer and Reid), two were principals (Holden and Pierce), two were senior masters (Hawkes and Best) and the remainder were classroom teachers (Sweeney, Walpole, Klaossen, Dixon, Fish and Smith). All were selected by the chairman of the Planning Committee after consultation with the individuals concerned. The group was characterised by their experience (average years service 16.76 years), their familiarity and practical experience with the experimental trial sequence, and their demonstrated innovativeness in the system. The individuals in the team are worthy of further consideration.

the case of Mrs. Sweeney

(Second from left front in photograph)

Mrs. Sweeney was a widow, 57 years of age, when she first became involved with the Social Sciences. She was categorised by the department in most unlikely fashion as "infant mistress" (i.e., Teacher in charge of an infant school (5-8years) of approximately 200 students). She had a system-wide reputation for her excellent

skills in training teacher students and the camaraderie that she promoted between teachers on her staff. She was an outstanding teacher in the charismatic tradition and a key innovator in the "new maths" programme. Her school was constantly invaded by visitors. She subsequently became closely identified with the Social Sciences programme and published commercially in that field on her retirement in 1972.

The case of Mr. Reid

Mr. Reid is a senior curriculum officer with the state education department. He had very wide experience in primary schools extending over thirty years. He was a visiting Professor of Education in the Philippines for two years and subsequently became involved in the Social Sciences programme one year after its commencement in 1969. He was eminently suited to the role of key consultant and committee worker. His special contribution has been in the area of materials development and he has published commercially in this field.

The case of Mr. Walpole

(Far left, back of photograph)

Mr. Walpole was aged 26 at the beginning of his involvement in the programme. He had six years teaching experience (including three years in Canada, was a bright personality and outstanding sportsman.

His classroom operation was bright and active although organisationally conservative. He was acknowledged as an "upward mobile" in the system. He subsequently became closely identified with the Social Sciences programme and was seconded to the Curriculum Research Centre for one year to develop materials and follow up the implementation seminars as a consultant.

The case of Miss Fish

(Not in photograph)

Miss Fish was aged 24 at the beginning of her involvement with the Social Sciences programme. Of her four years' experience, two years were spent in the United Kingdom. She had a reputation as an outstanding teacher who used innovative methods. She was an attractive, bright personality and a state representative in women's hockey. She subsequently was seconded to the Australian Broadcasting Commission for a year to make a highly successful Social Science television series for Grade 2 students called "Living Together."[60]

and the case of Mr. Holden

Mr. Holden was aged 49 when he first became involved with the Social Sciences programme. He was at that time the principal of a medium sized country school with both primary and secondary grades. He had acquired a reputation as a shrewd manager, a colourful personality, an outstanding teacher and a strong disciplinarian. He was adept at creating close social and professional relationships

within his staff. He occupied a very high status with his peers and was highly influential within that group. He occupied a very high status with his peers and was highly influential within that group. He subsequently became principal of a very large new open area school in the city.

Clearly the group as exemplified by this cross section described above had strong personal characteristics in common.(1 Although there was a representativeness in age, sex and experience (ranging from aged 24 to 57) the group was characterised by the scope and depth of its experience (see Chart 3) seven (7) had worked overseas and the average number of years teaching was 16.75 years. All were familiar with the programme, had participated in committee work or in the experimental trial sequence. All were outgoing and highly personable in their relationships with others. Significantly ten of the twelve team members were promoted within two years of their initial involvement in the innovation.

The seminar team was brought together for a preparation day in December 1969. All members were released from their school duties for approximately two months in the next year to undertake the implementation programme.

The first of the seminars was conducted at a country location. The District Superintendent opened the seminar. The basic pattern was for the curriculum officers to make initial presentations emphasising the philosophy and conceptual framework of the programme. The seminar would then fragment into unit groups. With

appropriate team members they would view video-tapes, examine materials and discuss the experimental trial sequences and the implications of being a participant in the extended trials. Additionally the principals would hold special sessions with their colleagues examining the administrative repercussions of the programme. The local 'input' into the implementation programme differed with the location, from purely managerial tasks as in this first session to major audio-visual presentations by practising teachers who had participated in the trials, in other areas.

This initial session was followed by the team meeting socially and conducting a frank evaluation of what had transpired. Some feedback data on the effectiveness of the seminar was available from a questionnaire circulated to participants. Feelings were not spared and changes were made essentially with the purpose of eliminating pressure and tension from the schedule. The team agreed it was attempting too much. However despite this soul-searching and best intentions the pattern of subsequent seminars was only modified slightly. At the request of the committee, a technician was added to the team to relieve them of the burden of handling technological equipment.

A significant improvement in the atmosphere of subsequent seminars came more from greater confidence and comfort on the part of the team rather than organisational changes. As the seminar schedule progressed the team became a closely knit, task force, highly skilled in presentation techniques and in managing discussion sessions.

At the conclusion of the seminar there was no formal "sign-up" for intended participants in the extend trial. A letter (see Appendix I) of formal invitation to participate was sent to each school in the state. The third paragraph is highly significant.

> It is hoped that all schools will participate in the extended trials during 1970 (official implementation is planned for the succeeding year).[62]

Although there is no hard data to assess the degree of participation the demand for syllabus statements caused the documents to be re-printed in larger than expected numbers and unprecedented requests for assistance and consultation were received. As indicated above it became necessary to second two of the seminar team members (Walpole and Klaossen) to act as consultants for the year. This role of "linkage" and follow-up was also performed by the curriculum officers. This type of activity will be discussed at length in the next 'trial-adoption stage'.

An important dimension of the implementation seminar was the distribution of a multi-media Community Studies Kit for Grade 2 teachers (see Appendix J). This will also be examined further in the 'trial-adoption stage'. This attractive material distributed free to the teachers had a dramatic initial impact on the participants. It was a tangible extension of the implementation seminar, that could ease the teacher into the extended trial. Perhaps more

important it was a gesture of understanding (of the pressures of the classroom) and an incentive (for the skeptics and slow adopters). It will be shown in Chapter V that whilst these materials had an initial unfreezing function teachers quickly "grew out" of them. In this first year of system-wide trials (1970) the television series reached almost saturation point. The series was dropped in 1973. The kit materials have been fragmented, lost or ignored. However both had achieved their purpose.

Another enduring aspect of the implementation seminars was the creation of another level of involvement and strong commitment in the local people who had participated in the seminars. The following extract from a letter to the curriculum officer (Brewer) exemplifies the attitudes developed in this group and some of the problems encountered:

> Thank you very much for giving me the chance to join the 'team' in their work; I found the work most interesting, and I think I may have been able to help one of two teachers. Some of them are experiencing problems that I met, and our discussions were mutually beneficial. One school in particular - Winnaleah - has tremendous problems due almost entirely to staffing; to put a Principal who knows nothing about our pupils or courses with a very inexperienced staff was a very short-sighted appointment by the 'Powers-that-Be.'
>
> I would welcome the chance to make visits anytime you think I would be useful, and I hope that you can find something of value in the epistle I have included.[63]

Appended to this letter was a long list of reactions and recommendations to be forwarded to the planning committee.

Not all the feedback was as positive. At one seminar the following incident occurred in an end of day plenary session. An older and respected principal made an eloquent and emotional statement to the assembled group (paraphrased):

> .....I've listened and pondered all day to what has been said. I must protest that too much is expected of teachers. They are people not machines; they have their own children as well as pupils. You are making unreasonable demands on their personal life and time. I have wonderful teachers who already have just given up. This polysyllabic monster is beyond us emotionally, physically and environmentally. I will discourage my teachers from being involved with it.....I am sorry.

The impact of this statement was stunned silence. Reference was made to the tangible assistance offered and this helped to salvage a difficult situation. However it served to emphasise the types of resistance that had to be overcome.

A confrontation occurred in another end of day session in a seminar.

An excellent teacher, with a highly individualistic style and high status in her peer group made this statement (paraphrased):

> .....This is what people call the teacher-proof curriculum. I think the materials will take over, our initiative will be

> gone and most people will just switch on the box. The teacher will be replaced not helped.

This seemed to receive scant support in the group. The support seemed even less when this comment was made by an anonymous but very vocal teacher within the group:

> .....If the teacher can be replaced by a box of materials and a T.V. programme they deserve to be.....

Both incidents are memorable because of their rarity and impact. The need for flexibility in the materials was emphasised as a result of this encounter.

The results of the 'evaluation-judgment' stage in the change process is perhaps overstated in this letter from the chairman of the planning committee to the teaching aids centre staff:

> To my colleagues at the Teaching Aids Centre:
>
> I know much as been said in terms of appreciation of your work. Let me put it firmly on record.
>
> The materials you have variously worked on and the other services provided relating to the Social Sciences programme have been lauded and welcomed enthusiastically by the teachers in the field.
>
> I think maximum impact was reached on our in-service jaunts at Queenstown where after the session the teachers carried out their materials under their arms. It was like Christmas all over again.
>
> Seriously, let me assure you, your tremendous co-operation and energy is recognised and appreciated from the planning committee down to the children sitting behind the desks. Thank you very much.

This letter indicated yet another dimension of 'involvement' which was central to the evaluation-judgment forming stage of the change process.

Analysis

1. The claims by Chester, Hornbostel, Johansen & Raths etc. as to the advantages of peer involvement was completely vindicated in this stage of the change process. However it should be emphasised that teachers differ fundamentally.
2. The selection of the change team should recognise this diversity and represent the spectrum of age, experience and style.

Related to 1 (one) above is the change team concept advocated by Miller, Bennis, Goodsen and Wheeler. This was employed most successfully in the Tasmanian situation, almost too successfully. The team became so adept in presentation and group techniques that the situations on some occasions approached engineering rather than management. Confrontations that might have jolted a less cohesive group into reconsideration and alternative seeking, were merely absorbed into the group enthusiasm.

3. Some diffence was obvious between the popular concept of 'early adopters' as described by Rogers, Lipham and Havelock and the change-team which emerged in the Tasmanian situation. Generally they were more experienced, practical and formal than that

reflected in the literature. Certainly their careers did not suffer as suggested by Hearn; rather they were positively enhanced. Perhaps much of this difference may be explained by the differing cultural contexts.

4. The use of sensitivity training and other techniques aimed at improving inter-personal relationships as suggested by Agyris, Wallen, Bennis and others were not employed either within the team or in seminar situations. The system was just not aware of the techniques, however it seemed that many of the principles involved were at work at the intuitive level.

5. The status, experience and style of the team members and other occasional seminar participants appeared to evoke some trust and reassurance. These elements of psychological safety (Rogers' term) are directly related to choice making as suggested by Mann, Wallach, Lippitt and Simon.

6. The use of the media as a communication device vindicated the claims of Kemp, Gerbner, Williams, Edling and others. However it was significant that the team members after the initial trial seminar considered the physical operation of this equipment to be a burden and demanded the services of a technician for the remainder of the sessions. Their demand was fortuitous as the equipment, through repeated use posed major maintenance problems, particularly the sensitive video-tape equipment.

7. The need for linkage and a continuing relationship in the person of consultants or change agents (Jung, Gallagher, Havelock, Buchanan, Rogers, etc.) was obviously necessary to sustain the impact of the implementation sessions.

8. The distribution of materials, free to the participants as a part of the implementation sessions had a strong positive influence on attitudes towards the innovation, perhaps more as a result of the recognition of the difficulties of the teacher's task than from the value of the materials themselves. Community or external involvement as suggested by Pomfret and Keeves did not occur. The activities of this stage did not seem to suffer as a result of this omission.

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[63]Letter from B. Carny, Beaconsfield Area School, to W. B. Brewer on 23 March, 1971.

[64]Note: Principals in Tasmanian Schools are required to teach for some proportion of their time, depending on the size of the school. The term administrator here refers to those people operating totally outside the classroom.

CHAPTER V

LOCAL TRIAL-ASSESSMENT STAGE

The trial of the innovation is the final sequence in Miles' typology before adoption. At the evaluation-judgment stage that the client-system was urged to try out the innovation. As Rogers[1], Miles[2] and Havelock[3] point out, most persons will not fully adopt an innovation unless they try it out in their own situation first. As Miles[4] states, before adoption there is a stage where:

> The target system engages in a (usually) small-scale trial of the innovation in order to assess its consequences. If these are favorable the innovation tends to be adopted and is complete.

Havelock[5] identifies some of the factors at work at this stage of the change process. He suggests:

> Further demonstration will be necessary as the individual begins his behavioural trial. In addition, he will need training in order to fulfill his new role as to carry out these new activities. At this stage the possibility of experiencing failure becomes very real; now the potential adopter needs maximum support and encouragement from the change agent.

This trial is not simply a matter of teaching a unit and applying a measurement instrument. Many diverse and complex forces

are at work. The latter type of perfunctory assessment was conducted at the experimental trial stage[6] in the Tasmanian situation by an agent external to the trial school. This was in the nature of a formative evaluation. The experimental trials were small, tightly controlled and structured so as to create viable vehicles for measurement. The results were used to modify the unit before wider dissemination in the system. (See Appendix L).

The client-system trial being undertaken at this stage is of a different nature. Certainly the teacher will engage in evaluation but as Neagley[7] points out this will differ from objective assessment. Scriven also draws attention to this fundamental problem. He states:

> We do not see evaluation broadly enough. Both description and judgment are essential---in fact, they are two basic acts of evaluation. Any individual evaluation may attempt to refrain from judging or from collecting the judgment of others. Any individual evaluation may seek only to bring to light the worth of the program. But their evaluations are necessarily incomplete.[8]

Glass' comments are also pertinent. He states

> Judgments, attitudes and satisfactions are subjective. However they can account for the success or failure of a program and they can be objectively measured; hence they deserve the educators' attention.[9]

The latter part of this claim appears highly contentious. There are significantly few examples of evaluation of curriculum innovation of this comprehensive type. Certainly the teacher's evaluation will be influenced by many other elements derived from his personality, life experience and school environment, such as:

his physical and emotional health

his training

his dependency on the system

the experiences of his colleagues in relation to the innovation

the learning environment

the types of assistance he is given.....

when he applies a value judgment to that assessment of his pupils. In some cases an innovation will be adopted despite the fact that the teacher knows that it is making no significant contribution to the children's learning in his situation. This is not skipping the trial stage, rather it is the result of applying a wide range of personal, professional and system variables to this decision making process.

Review of the Literature

What elements are at work when teachers undertake the initial trial of the innovation?

Most of the literature related to this stage of the change process focuses on the assessment of the change in children's learning resulting from the innovation. Lortie[10], Hastings[11], Scriven[12], and Tyler[13] see this as the major task and associates the effectiveness of this activity as being directly related to the way in which the objectives were stated on the unit. The case for behavioural objectives is persuasively put by many authors. Tyler's[14] work has had the most influence in this field. Significantly the same person seems to have shifted ground in this matter. In a very recent interview, Tyler[15] stated:

> If a teacher is to use a statement of objectives to guide his planning and teaching, he needs to know what they mean, and if tests are to be constructed to assess the extent to which students are achieving the objectives, these aims must have a clear meaning. But clarity is not the same as specificity. One can be clear about a more general objective such as applying biological principles to concrete phenomena, yet it is not a specific objective....
>
> An educational objective does not need to be specific in order to be clear, attainable, and capable of assessment.

Under the sub-heading "Controversy on Objectives" a recent paper by Walburg sums up the growing disenchantment with behavioural objectives that seems to be reflected in the literature.

> During the past few years a controversy has centred on the specificity of the statement of objectives. Gagne and Mager hold that objectives must be precise, detailed descriptions of student behaviour exhibited on attainment of the objective. Others have argued that behavioural objectives constrict education to the trivial kinds of behaviour that can be described precisely. Eisner warned that adherence to precise behavioral objectives may prevent the teacher from spontaneously deriving new objectives from on-going learning activities, especially in the arts where creative expressions are most clearly valued. Moreover, even the behaviourists would have to admit that it is often time-consuming and frustrating, if not impossible, to get curriculum workers and teachers to state percise behavioural objectives. Nor have evaluations employing behavioural objectives proved to be conspicuously successful.
>
> Bloom takes a reasonable position on this controversy: 'It is virtually impossible to engage in an educational enterprise of any duration without some specification to guide one'. Further, "Insofar as possible the purpose of education and the specifications for educational changes should be made explicit if they are to be opened to enquiry, if teaching and learning are to be modified as improvement or changes are needed, and if each new group of students is to be subjected to a particular set of educative processes". Hopefully, further work in evaluation will reveal the efficacy of explicit objectives in instruction and evaluation.
>
> Another point made by Bloom also seems constructive: less specific objectives may be more appropriate for educational media designed for teacher use. Indeed, it may be that a teacher's rigid adherence to pre-determined, specific objectives may

> impede student learning in much of education.... Moreover, both the teacher and the students bring important, though vague objectives, ideas, and interests to class, some permanent, others transient.[16]

Modern curriculum[17] are more purposeful in their form of statement, and they aim at a wider range of purposes than previously. If the search for economy in the effort of attaining clearly defined objectives in the quickest and most direct fashion has proved fruitless, curriculum designers have increased awareness in the course of their search, of the desirability of a wide range of objectives and a wide range of materials to allow different teachers to approach different objectives in different ways. As Walburg says:

> The course developer might do well to avoid trying to optimise, and instead include many diverse concepts and learning materials in the course. These elements with a guide to their possible organisation and use may enable supervisors, teachers and students to optimise and sub-optimise according to their own needs and objectives.

It is the highly individualistic nature of the schools and classrooms that makes analysis of the trial-adoption stage particularly elusive. As Erickson[18] has put it

> Studies of peer relationships have shown that what goes on inside the classroom is only one component of an educational program.[19] We have learned that teachers are not interchangeable cogs in a machine, for different teachers seem

> to be effective with different students.[20] Different teacher competencies may be critical in schools catering to different social classes. The productivity of faculties may well depend upon the interpersonal compatibility of the members, and groups of teachers do exhibit different sub-cultures.[21] Different kinds of teachers may respond to different administrative styles.[22] The informal organization of the teachers in a specific school is a factor to be reckoned with.[23] Different types of program are possible and appropriate in different communities.[24]

Internal Elements: Cells 4 and 8 in Miles' Typology

Many of the elements that have influenced prior stages of the change process are clearly at work here also. For example, Watson states:

> At each stage of the innovation from its inception to its defense as the status quo, wise strategy requires perceptive analysis of the nature of resistance.[25]

Halpin[26] and Leithwood and Russell[27] make similar claims that the organisational climate will still be an important factor that will influence the experience of the teacher trialling the innovation and consequently his ultimate adoption or rejection of it.

Similarly Eichholz[28] presenting a theory of rejection related the prime causes to what had transpired in the previous stages. He listed the following causes of rejection:

FORM OF REJECTION	CAUSES OF REJECTION
Ignorance	Lack of dissemination
Suspended Judgment	Data not logically compelling
Situational	Data not materially compelling
Personal	Data not psychologically compelling
Experimental	Present or past trials

Clearly a cumulative effect is at work. In this regard some researchers (Lippitt,[28] Rogers,[29] Durrell[30]) acknowledge the timing of this trial stage to be an important factor. Leithwood and Russell alert us that

> Each client has a unique, optimal rate of information throughput: too low a rate leads to boredome and too high a rate leads to a condition of trauma with many somatic manifestations, which he labels "future shock". The information throughput concept is useful to the change agent largely because of what it suggests about excessive rates of change. Implementation will obviously not occur if future shock occurs first. More important, however, the client has mechanisms to protect himself from future shock, which militate against implementation on a long-term basis. These mechanisms amount to "dropping out"

> of considering change and a veneration of the status quo if not regression to earlier states.[31]

However, it is reasonable to assume that if the trial sequence follows closely upon the previous evaluation-assessment phase the motivation will tend to be sustained, the innovation better understood and the prospects for the success of the trial experience enhanced.

Many researchers, Brickell[32], Perrow[33], Mahan[34] affirm the need for help for teachers in practical ways. As Havelock[35] and Brickell[36] claim specially prepared learning materials are particularly useful. If teachers have to develop their own materials or engage in lengthy search activities it will retard the rate of adoption.

A large amount of the literature reflects the belief that personal contacts, to inform, demonstrate, train, service and nurture (Clark and Hopkins'[37] role categories) are important means of assistance to the teacher undertaking trials. I would add "reassure" (Miles[38], Havelock[39], Turner[40], Agyris[41], Mahan[42], Lippitt[43]). It is suggested that supervisors (Toepfer[44]), selected teachers (Havelock[45] and Myers[46]), specialists (Mahan[47]), the principal (Erickson[48]), can all perform this role. Turner[49] and Agyris[50] stress that interpersonal competence is a major criterion for effectiveness in this role.

More usually the principal is accorded the role of facilitator, rather than change-agent (Chester, et al [51], Sinclair[52],

Horvat[53] and Carlson[54], Novotney[55]). A study by Chester, Schmuck and Lippitt[56] reached the following conclusions on this matter:

> Our data substantiate the assumption that the principal plays an important role in stimulating creative classroom teaching. There is a high and significant correlation between the amount of staff inventiveness, as measured by the mean number of new practices developed by each teacher and the staff's perception of the principal's support for innovative teaching. There is an even higher correlation between the teacher's perception of his principal's support and his perception of his colleagues' support of innovation. The first finding substantiates the notion that the principal can have a direct influence upon his staff. The second finding substantiates the notion of an indirect role--the principal may encourage an atmosphere where the entire staff publicly supports innovation. Thus the principal's attitudes influence staff norms, and both his orientation and peer standards combine to influence actual staff innovativeness.

It seems scant attention is paid in the literature to the significance of personality and the domestic background of teachers as variables in the change process. As Bindra[57] points out.....

> The factors of habit strength, sensory cues, arousal level and the state of blood chemistry determine the frequence of occurrence and other characteristics of any given activity.

Eichholz[58] offers these conclusions to change agents and administrators to help recognise and overcome problems arising from these variables.

> The teacher who feels anxious or alienated about change witnesses the acceptance of change by others and builds a defense to rationalize his guilty feelings. Proofs, examples, or appeals to logic

> will not overcome this resistance. Efforts to force change will lead to greater rebellion. A sound approach is to make haste slowly. Adopting a sympathetic attitude, the administrator should encourage the teacher to continue past practices regardless of what his colleagues are doing. However, he should indicate that some small change might prove halpful and offer his assistance. As faculty acceptance of change persists, pressure mounts against the rejector and eventually leads to a trial stage and some experimentation.

McCann[59] and Turner et al[60] link teacher morale with adoption rates. Blumberg and Weber[61] link morale with the perceived Supervisor Behavioral style. This latter study states:

> Morale, as it is conceived of here, assumes, first of all, that one's basic needs for economic and physical security are, or will be, relatively well met. It is not rational to think that a high state of morale with exist in a work situation, no matter what the job or interpersonal ingredients are, if a person is hard-pressed financially or has big concern about his health and safety.... A high morale situation exists where a relatively competent person has reasonable freedom of action, has a sense of being involved in problem-solving with others who are part of his work, is dealt with as a person, and is relatively free from external evaluation.

The findings of many studies link physical and economic factors to the propensity of the teacher to trial and adopt. Donald H. Ross[62] states:

> If but one question can be asked, on the basis of the response to which a prediction of adaptability (adoption of innovations) is to be made, the question is: How much is spent per pupil?

Mattei[63] asserts that the flexibility of the physical classroom is an important factor in influencing the trial-adoption stage.

Agyris[64] and Miles[65] associate system loyalty and dependence with increase in the likelihood of adoption. These many diverse and complex forces are at work and must account for the very slow adoption rates of educational innovation.

Pusey[66] makes much of this dependency factor:

> The fact is that status gives a kind of diffuse psychic power over other people which is always potentially threatening to them.
>
> The way in which we see ourselves, our personal identity or self-concept if you prefer, is intimately related to our sense of security and emotional health. But this personal identity is to some extent socially defined by other people's perceptions of us which we internalize. Status gives the power to manipulate and thus to modify the social definition of the other man's identity. Hierarchical status makes the teacher vulnerable and therefore dependent on the system. Your pupils have always been dependent on you in this way and you have always been a potential threat to them.

It is reasonable to assume also that the supply and demand situation, with regard to teachers, will influence this dependency factor.

As Eichholz and Rogers[67] point out "Not all individuals agopt at the same rate". Mort[68] found in 1946 that "the average school lags 25 years behind the best practice. Bushnell[69] in a

study in 1957 suggested the tempo had been increased 20%. It is reasonable to assume that this lag had been decreased further still.

External Elements: Cells 12 and 16 in Miles' Typology

Certainly this stage of the change process is basically an internal matter. Predictably the literature does not acknowledge a significant role for external agencies at this stage. However, it should be recognised that what goes on in the classroom is just one dimension of the children's learning.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the informal information flow between pupils, parents and pupils and between parents and other parents can promote or inhibit what happens in the trial classroom, particularly where the innovation is in a new or controversial area of the curriculum. Vidich[70] and Robertson[71] suggest constant communication with parents and the community is necessary.

The Tasmanian Experience

What elements were at work when teachers undertook their initial trial of the innovation? In what ways did the planners attempt to influence the teachers to adopt the innovation at this stage of the change process?

At first glance, it would seem that this stage was an autonomous and personal decision making process on the part of the teacher, working within his or her own classroom. The teacher attended a highly organised and persuasive implementation seminar and received some attractive materials. A personal letter from the superintendent extending an invitation to participate was sent to them at the school.[72] Consequently, as might be predicted, a circular letter to all primary school principals revealed that every school in the state attempted to trial the programme to some degree during 1970.

Internal Elements: Cells 4 and 8 in Miles' Typology

The planning committee realised the inadequacies of relying entirely on a one-day seminar to promote a change of the style and scale envisaged. Consequently a number of strategies were employed to augment this initial stimulus experience within the system.

The timing of the extended trial-adoption stage was not left to chance. It was intended to close the gap between the implementa-

tion seminars and the trial sequence as much as possible. The television series "Living Together" (Grade 2) and "This Island" (Grade 3) were scheduled to go to air immediately after Easter 1970, i.e. immediately after the implementation seminars. As the Community Studies Materials (See Appendix J) were designed to relate directly to the television series, procrastination by the teacher would have detracted from the utility of both these resources. Viewing statistics from the Australian Broadcasting Commission for the "This Island"[73] series indicated that usage reached almost saturation point in the system during the first year of viewing.

The "Community Studies Kit" did more than supplement the work of the teacher. Strategies were "built-in" to the materials. The following is an extract of a paper presented by Brewer to a National Conference of Directors of State Education Department, Audio-Visual Centres.

> The use of a multi-media kit seemed the most viable solution to the problem of providing resource material for teachers of Grade II, faced with the task of undertaking a survey of the local community. The decision seemed all the more logical when identified with a full integrated infant school programme. The Social Science ideas and skills had to become a dimension of other subject areas as little or no specific time is accorded social education at this level. Interviews with teachers re-affirmed the basic needs to make the curriculum objectives a reality. The materials had to allow for organisational flexibility recognise the limited communication facility of the children, promote learning

> skills and in the process provide satisfaction and enjoyment in the classroom. Accordingly the preliminary planning of the Teaching Kit for Grade II Community Studies was pursued.[74]

Significantly the materials built on existing practice, to ease the teacher into the new strategies,

> Of the current practices the most promising vehicle seemed to be the traditional picture-talk routine. However the types of pictures and the Teacher-Pupil interaction resulting from the 'talk' had to be revised in a fundamental fashion.
>
> Photographs of special but natural community situations were required to perform specific tasks of re-inforcement of syllabus ideas and the development of observation skills. A similar revamping of the often used work cards and word list techniques similarly seemed to offer the best prospects for ready teacher acceptance and at the same time provide an opportunity to introduce the ideas and skills of the syllabus. The adoption of these practices followed lines similar to that of the photographs. Cards had to perform specific purposes, create a problem-solving situation and require the student to make some type of judgment on the basis of the learning that was being pursued.
>
> In the total view the key motivational or stimulus role was to be played by the social science television programmes. A series of 12 ABC-T.V. programmes designed around curriculum ideas has been planned earlier to occupy this pivotal position. Other than the real first-hand experience this media offered the best opportunity to spark learning in this subject area and simultaneously provide teachers with assistance in the implementation of the new ideas and techniques of the syllabus. The interpretation of the television programmes to maximise their

> effectiveness and place them in the context of the total learning perspective required a comprehensive teachers' guide to be included in the kit.
>
> The real innovations in the kit were directed at the 'ends' of the ability spectrum. The development of Community Survey cards introduced an important skill of the social scientist in general and the geographer in particular. The elements of field survey techniques are embodied in cards designed to guide the students in observation and analysis of their local environment.[75]

The materials were thoroughly planned and prototypes were field tested before major production was undertaken.

In addition to these resources 2 consultants (Mr. Walpole and Mrs. Klaossen) were released from the schools for the remainder of the year to act as change-agents. Both were control trial teachers and had participated in the seminar team. They conducted "low profile", informal type visits to schools. As it was not possible to visit the more than 300 schools in the system a list of 'suspect innovators' were prepared on the basis of feedback from the implementation sessions. Their most important role seemed to be that of a sympathetic, reassuring listener. They operated quite independently of the committee but reported to them at the monthly meetings. The following is an extract of a report by Mr. Walpole:

> Teachers are generally happy with the programme, although sometimes it is difficult to tell whether it is the programme that is being followed or just the television series. Major complaints seem to be in the following areas:

> The T.V. programmes occur at difficult times.
>
> The radio programmes do not match the programme.
>
> The units are too inflexible. They suggest a sequence that doesn't coincide with either the seasons, holidays or special events.
>
> The lack of materials for all children at all levels.
>
> The new freedom of choice and approach has resulted in the less imaginative teachers struggling to find purposeful activities.
>
> The sophisticated language (Social Science terminology) has prompted teachers to begin thinking around topics at a high level of abstraction and many cannot find a starting point suitable to the children's background level and interest.
>
> Many admit to "muddling along" with little direction.[76]

This type of communication was an important source of feedback for the committee. Only one other attempt was made to get some formal account of teacher-reaction during this trial stage. This was a questionnaire sampling teacher opinion about the style and nature of the pointed syllabus document. (see Appendix M). Generally this endorsed the pattern represented by the preliminary document that had been distributed.

Superintendentsand some committee members made visits to classrooms. Reports of exemplary classrooms (see Appendix N and O) indicate some highly innovative approaches. As would be

expected most informal reports reaching the planning committee were favourable. What firm evidence gleaned from consultants and school visitation indicated four types of activity occurring on an unprecedented scale. viz. Small Group work, use of a variety of educational media, a highly significant incidence of field trips and art and craft type activities. It is reasonable to assume that these developments could be attributed to the innovation. A recurring negative comment recorded the dearth of effective evaluation instruments. Apparently teachers were having difficulty assessing non-informal activities.

Most negative responses again came from those outside the classroom. Miss Hopkins at the time a Teachers College representative on the committee presented a paper to the committee criticising the imbalance of local and overseas content in the programme. The first paragraph sets the tone of the paper.

1. An overview of Stages I and II reveals a lack of balance due to too great an emphasis being placed on the individual, the community, the state and the commonwealth in Australia. The initaial developments of Stages I and II are not fully realised in Stage III when a greater opportunity should be provided to study nations other than our own.

   Reasons for criticising the lack of balance are as follows:-

   (a) Australia is only of minor importance on the international scene. Its situation does not warrant having 66% of the total time allocated to Stage III being spent on a study of the nation when at least,

> if not more, is spent on the people, community and the state of Stages I and II. The latter units in Stage III should broaden further one's knowledge of the world.
>
> (b) Such an emphasis continues to develop an Insular attitude to Australia's role on the international scene and as a result the children are not beginning to see Australia in relation to the rest of the world.[77]

The committee considered that this was not in fact not case and no action was taken.

A letter to the Primary School Council from a group of principals demanded some rationalisation of the time allocations. The new Social Sciences programme was absorbing the time of other subjects. The committee was asked to comment on this claim. This extract from a paper prepared by Reid (curriculum officer) and presented to the Primary School Council reflects the philosophy of the committee.

> It is unrealistic to consider subject area time requirements in a vacuum. The total curriculum must be considered as an entity with the broader purposes of the school taken as criteria for allocation of the learning time. In the primary school, time allocation becomes all the more difficult as subject boundaries in the traditional sense have very little meaning.
>
> The following elements are fundamental to the developing social science curriculum and have important implications for reshuffling the time emphasis.
>
> The very nature of the subject area produces two categories of time consumption, specific and non-specific.

Specific Time

(i) for work suggested in the syllabus to achieve the objectives outlined.

(ii) for support materials and media designed specifically for the syllabus.

Non-Specific Time

(i) for work that involves skills and attitudes that are common to other subject areas such as:

Art and Craft,
Oral Language,
Music,
Health,
Mathematics.

The proportion of specific and non-specific time will vary according to the school, the classroom organisation and the learning characteristics of the students.[78]

At the informal communication level it seemed that the momentum of the implementation sessions had sustained interest for the trial sequence. The most common criticisms were of unusually heavy demands on teacher time. This feeling was reflected in the preamble to Miss Sypkes' paper prepared for a staff meeting (Appendix P). She stated:

> Initially it's a tremendous amount of work to get the children to the point where they have the skills and confidence to sustain their own learning. However, once this point is reached, other problems seem to disappear, the daily pressures seem less and the children are happier with what they are doing.

However, the trial-adoption period revealed no open hostilities or concerted attempts to effect a categoric rejection of the

innovation. Quite the reverse. Many teachers in higher grades of the primary school were showing impatience with the committee's two (2) trial process and wanted the development and implementation work to be hastened.

External Elements: Cells 12 and 16 in Miles' Typology

The activities of the National Social Science Committee had now reached significant proportions. It had a full-time executive officer and began sponsoring inter-state workshops. However it is clear that the remoteness of these activities and the focus on secondary school activities detracted from its impact at this practical stage of the change process in Tasmanian Schools. However the reverse was happening in other states. An article by Vaughan, (Director of Studies for the State of N.W.S.),describing new experiments in infant education in Cronulla states:

> "The programme was developed at Cronulla South for a grade 2 class from the ideas and materials of the "Community Studies Teaching Kit" which contains large black and white pictures of communities, a record with songs about communities, games, survey cards, activity cards, and a teacher's guide.
>
> When the programme was developed in Tasmania with the cooperation of the ABC Education Department, television lessons presenting various communities were basic to the enterprise. At South Cronulla carefully planned field trips took the place of the T.V. lessons.[80]

Within the state active interest was being shown from independent schools, parents and friends organisations and commercial organisations. This did not influence the trial-adoption stage significantly except perhaps for the participation of the Examiner newspaper (circulation 100,000). The editor approached the committee offering to sponsor a special supplement. After lengthy deliberations 15 such supplements were produced, each for the cost of the newspaper itself. They were of excellent quality and were widely used throughout the system. It is reasonable to assume they contributed positively to the trial situation. A letter to "The Head Teacher" printed in the first issue indicates the nature of this rather unique relationship (see Appendix Q).

Analysis

1. Incomplete information existed as to the degree to which adoption of the innovation was achieved within the system.

2. On the information available, formal evaluation processes as suggested by Scriven, Taylor, Meagley and others were grossly inadequate.

3. On the information available most teachers were comfortable and personally compatible with the innovation. These personal factors were considered highly significant by Robertson, Carlson and Agyris.

4. The timing of the trial stage so as to optimise the stimulus of the implementation sessions and narrow the gap between judgment and action seemed to contribute positively to this aspect of the change process.

5. As Brickell, Perrow, Mahan and others suggested, teachers attitudes towards an innovation are more positive when some tangible assistance is offered. In this case study the materials had tremendous impact. Clearly many teachers who may not have been so inclined participated in the trials because of these materials. This unfreezing effect more than compensated for the initial uniformity of approach in many classrooms.

6. The high utilisation of the resource materials provided could be attributed to the fact that they were built on the basis of existing practices in the classroom, they were field tested at the prototype stage and were implemented into an on-going learning context.

7. The linkage role of the change agents was as suggested by Havelock, Miles, Turner and others important in nurturing the change process. However the role of the Tasmanian change-agents seemed more passive than that advocated, particularly by Havelock. Perhaps this was in intuitive reaction by the change-agents after the more intensive activities of the previous stage.

8. Little information was sought or received on the role of the principal in this stage of the change process. This does not necessarily imply that the important facilitating role (as suggested by Horvat, Bensen, Novotney, Colson and others) was not fulfilled. Rather it reflects a lack of awareness of the importance of this role on the part of the planning committee.

9. The absence of any organised dissent, the total absence of negative correspondence and the experiences of visitors to classrooms suggested that some degree of adoption rather than rejection resulted from this trial sequence.

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CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

As Benne and Birnbaum[1] have recognised

> It is fairly easy to identify changes in institutional pattern after they have occurred. It is more difficult to analyze changes while they are going on and still more difficult to predict changes.

However difficult as it may be, it is within the intricacies of the change process that the interplay of the many elements that comprise "the system" should be examined. It is little contribution to the progress of education if we do not know why that progress or lack of it has occurred. It is in this spirit that the analysis of this particular change process was undertaken.

Despite the inadequacies of the rural sociology diffusion model as a dimension of Miles' Typology[2], it did provide a useful structure for this study. Without this, the task would have been unmanageable and the result incomprehensible.

This study has revealed that there is a strong circumstantial element in the design and implementation of an innovation. Clearly the Tasmanian system was ready for a change in that part of the curriculum devoted specifically to social education.

Dissatisfaction with the status quo consequently was a strong motivating force for change. A succession of powerful additional external and internal events were to coincide with this condition to create the data, the personnel, and a climate for change. The problem then became one of managing people and resources to ensure that this motivation was sustained and translated into achievable change objectives.

The "achievability" of the innovation is a critical factor. To know the system, its organisational relationships, its style of operations and the prevailing norms of performance, is to know how far and in what direction the change can progress. This study indicated quite clearly the need to progress slowly on a broad front with a heavy emphasis initially on philosophical and attitudinal changes towards a different learning style, rather than specific classroom techniques.

Most of the change strategies were directed toward this end. The heavy involvement of teachers was more significant in terms of creating trust and confidence than it was in contributing professional expertise. The selection of a change team to reflect the spectrum of age and experience for the client system was designed to enhance the comfort and security of the clients in the knowledge that their problems were taken into account.

The value of the resource materials was as much in the act of giving as it was in the materials themselves. Many teachers

felt that these materials were a tangible representation of the support and understanding of the administration.

Similarly the role of the change agents in visiting schools, was more to reassure than guide or instruct. As Getzel, Lipham and Campbell emphasised "When the needs of the individual and the expectations of the role set are in common, there is a feeling of satisfaction and belongingness..." The multiplicity of agents and agencies within and external to the system contributing to the change effort, attested to this having occurred. This purpose is exemplified in this extract from the foreward of the trial Social Science syllabus statement written by the Director of Primary Education.

> Change is never a comfortable thing but it is a necessary condition of education if the needs of society are to be met. I am confident, from past experience that our teachers can meet the new demands put upon them, appreciate the need for these changes and more important see themselves as participants rather than recipients in the process of curriculum development.
>
> Through a spirit of cooperation and enterprise the promise of this new social science programme can be fulfilled.[2]

However the realities of planning are such that there is a real limit to involvement. Consequently another key dimension emerges in the change process. This is the role of influentials in the system.

As suggested by many researchers the mobile change team concept is a viable approach for a large scale change process. However the choice of the team is of critical importance. The Tasmanian experience has shown the value of involving people who are representative of the target clientele in terms of hierarchical position, experience and style. A team of enthusiastic, young, highly qualified teachers is not as some have proposed, to be the best group to undertake this activist role. Indeed over-exuberance can be a positive handicap to a change team, as many alienate members of the target population. The term 'influential' is course is not restricted to high status practitioners. Despite all that is said about involvement and bottom-up type development, a change process needs the positive support of the top administrators in the hierarchy. Funding involves accountability and accountability involves dependency. This is the reality of the vast majority of educational organisations and this is a fact of life that innovators must live with, yet much of the progressive literature ignored. In the Tasmanian situation quite a considerable investment in money and manpower was invested by the administration; they declared their support in public statements and acknowledged the work of those people who made major contributions.

Within the group of influentials, the dynamics of the change situation inevitably reveal some individuals whose personal and professional competencies and aspirations seem to match the innovation, more than others. This emergent, rather than predetermined role, was highly significant in the Tasmanian situation.

Individuals such as Reid, Foster, Brewer, Swifte, Holden and Sweeney comprised the prime energy source. Only one of that group (Brewer) was ascribed that pivotal role at the beginning of the change process.

Whilst the study revealed a substantial consensus in principle between the literature and the case study, the widely acknowledged concept of resistance to change is worthy of further consideration. We have polarised positions on the matter. Lippitt[4] holds that "in teachers there is a resistance or an inhibition toward adopting another teacher's inventions". Rubin[5] claims "teachers are even hungry for it (change)".

In the Tasmanian situation active resistance was not encountered except in some individuals and this can be attributed to inter-personal mismanagement. A more realistic term for this condition in the teacher is reticence rather than resistance. The difference is not mere semantics. Teachers in the main tended to withhold their endorsement and adoption of innovations rather than oppose them. The reasons for this can be attibuted directly to the escalating professional demands being placed upon the classroom teacher.

Three glaring omissions in the change process have been revealed by the analysis process. They are:

1. The role of research as a contributing factor was never really acknowledged. Some key and

well known research findings were used, however these were without exception derived in a different cultural context and were a decade old.

2. The role of pre-service education was given only nominal recognition. A more considered approach may have recognised that this was perhaps the place to have started the whole process.

This impediment to the change process has only partially been remedied. It is a paradoxical situation where many teachers leaving training situations in Tasmania are immediately provided with in-service experiences to equip them for the teaching task.

3. The role of the principal as a facillitator of change, clearly ascribed in the literature was, however, not really acknowledged in the Tasmanian situation. Perhaps it was an intuitive conclusion by the planners that this particular group had greater system dependency than most others and their cooperation could be relied upon. Alternatively, it could be claimed that

> this group relied on informal information from their peers on the planning committee. Certainly it was not a matter of lack of information, rather it was a lack of involvement in the change activities. Consequently their contribution was not maximised.

In totality this study is intended to provide, to those interested in curriculum change, an insight into the complexity and sensitivity of the task. A chance remark, a poorly worded letter, an over-reaction to a question at a critical time can jeopardise the change effort and create a climate of rejection. The judicious and careful selection of the right people at the right time to assume leadership roles is central to the whole process.

Recommendations

The nature of the teaching-learning process precludes any certain formulas for success in changing it. However change it must if schooling is to match the needs of society and the individuals within it.

This study has encountered an extremely large number of solutions or partial solutions to this perennial problem of making innovations work in the school for the benefits of the students.

The solutions that recognise this personal, complex and capricious process for what it is, have the greatest credibility. Invariably these solutions focus on three dimensions of change; the timing and pacing of the change, the nature of the incentives and positive assistance that must be provided, and the flow of direct comprehensible communication that is needed to help teachers understand what is happening, and create a feeling of involvement, as peripheral as it may be, in the change process.

I should like to recommend to those involved with the management of curriculum innovation, three significant, easily achievable and successful modifications to change strategies that have been identified in the literatature. The techniques used in the Tasmanian situation to maintain communication, provide for assistance in support of change and provide peer identification between change agents and teachers appear to have been crucial to its success and to have largely escaped the attention of writers in this field.

1. There is well documented, strong and abundant evidence to support the use of change teams as catalysts, communicators and consultants. The effectiveness of teams of this nature is enhanced if they reflect the structure of the target system in teams of age, experience, teaching style and qualifications. In this way the process of role identification and the gaining of insights into the differing apprehensions and needs within the spectrum of the teaching service is achieved. The choice of the team is critical and pivotal in the change process.

2. (a) There is also strong evidence and much common sense to support the claim that teachers need materials and other aids to effect a change. However, the nature of the materials and the manner of their deployment need careful consideration. The materials have more credibility if there is an element of local participation in their production. This may vary from totally teacher-made materials produced in local workshops or it may mean marginal involvement in field testing. Whatever it may be, it will shift the teachers role from recipient to participant and consequently influence his attitudes toward the change process.

(b) The impact of materials and aids is considerably enhanced if they are introduced, demonstrated and disbursed as an integral part of the implementation processes. The act of

personally distributing materials is a tangible acknowledgment of the many demands being made on the classroom teacher, that is not quite accomplished if they are received in the mail or handed over by the principal.

3. There is no perfect substitute for a face to face communication. However apparently educators have overlooked or taken for granted a technological device that has great possibilities and the least technical problems among modern communication media, where distance is an important factor. The telephone can provide this facility. Teleconference facilities are a comparatively inexpensive, readily available, totally reliable and most effective vehicle for communication. This can allow change-agents and others to reach and conduct a dialogue with teachers involved in the change on a frequent basis.

Much of the contradiction and controversy about educational change centres on, who shall do what? It is appropriate that Hilda Taba has the last word on this matter.

> Much grief has come from indiscriminate participation of everyone in everything..... Clearly, there is a distinct function that all these groups can serve in the total job of curriculum development (and implementation), and the decisions on participation must rest on who can best do what, and not on a sentimental concept of democratic participation..... An effective strategy of curriculum change must proceed on a double agenda, working simultaneously to change ideas about curricula and to change human dynamics.[6]

FOOTNOTES

[1]Benne, K. D. and M. Birnbaum: "Directing Change"; The School Review, Autumn, 1960, p. 253.

[2]Miles, M. B., Innovation in Education: Teachers College, Columbia Univeristy, New York, 1964, p22.

[3]Scott, R. F., Forword: Tasmanian Primary Social Science Programme, Education Department, December 1971, p. 1.

[4]Lippitt, Ronald: "Roles and Processes in Curriculum Development and Change", in Strategy for Curriculum Change, Washington, D. C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965, p. 34.

[5]Rubin, L. J., A Study on the Continuing Education of Teachers, u.d.u.p, University of California, at Santa Barbara.

[6]Taba, H., Curriculum Development, Theory and Practice, Harcourt Brace and World, inc., New York, 1962. p. 452.

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APPENDIX A

Palmer, D.G. "The Attitudes and Interests of Pupils and their Teachers" (with particular reference to the new Social Sciences Courses) Curriculum Research Branch, Education Dept. of Tasmania, March 1973.

QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES AND/OR SOCIAL SCIENCES IN GRADE 7

Please answer honestly - this questionnaire is for research purposes only, and replies will not be put to any other use. Record all answers on the answer sheet, by circling the letters of your choices. Make comments if you wish to.

1(a) . Write your school.

1. How big is your class:
   A. less than 25
   B. 26-30
   C. 31-35
   D. 36-40
   E. over 40

2. What sort of class is it?
   A. boys only
   B. mixed
   C. girls only

3. Is your class
   A. streamed? (i.e. a limited range of abilities)
   B. partly streamed?
   C. not streamed? (i.e. contains all abilities except remedial pupils).

4. Are you
   A. the S.M.?
   B. an assistant on the 4 year scale?
   C. an assistant on the 3 year scale?
   D. an assistant on the 2 year scale?
   E. other?

5. Where were you trained?
   A. University
   B. Teachers College or equivalent
   C. Nowhere.

6. How many years (including this one) have you been teaching?
   A. 1 or 2
   B. 3 to 5
   C. 6 to 10
   D. more than 10

7. Are you teaching in Grade 7
   A. the Social Studies course?
   B. a mixture?
   C. the new Social Sciences course?

The next section of the questionnaire is seeking your OPINION about various aspects of the course you are teaching in E class. Answer each of these questions from the following key:

A. very favourable, very good
B. favourable, above average
C. neutral, average
D. unfavourable, below average
E. very unfavourable, poor

8. the CONTENT of the first year course as a whole

9. the way the syllabus is officially STATED (in the Schools Board Manual, or the Course Statement etc.)

10. the school TIMETABLE, as it affects your class for this subject

11. the TIME available for teaching this subject (see comment column, too)

12. availability of EQUIPMENT, such as projectors, recorders,

13. availability of MATERIALS, such as films, slides, maps, reference books

14. ease of use of the LIBRARY by the pupils

15. the TESTING and examining methods used in this subject (school constructed)

16. the FURNITURE in your room - its suitability, flexability etc. for the subject

17. the pupil INTEREST in the subject

18. the ACCEPTANCE of the course by you

19. the ACCEPTANCE of the course by the pupils

20. the ACCEPTANCE of the course by the administration of the school

21. the ACCEPTANCE of the course by the parents

22. the ACCEPTANCE of the course by other teachers in the school

23. ACTIVITY methods (apart from traditional "projects")

24. ENQUIRY methods, "research" work by pupils, etc.

This section does NOT seek your opinions. Its purpose is to find out how often you actually DO certain things in your teaching. Answer from the following key:

A. twice a week or more
B. once a week, on the average
C. a few times a term
D. very seldom
E. never

25. take a full, FORMAL lesson (chalk, talk, give notes)

26. use GROUP work

27. allow pupils to work as INDIVIDUALS (on projects, activities etc.)

28. REARRANGE your class furniture (for teaching purposes)

29. allow freedom of MOVEMENT within the room (without them asking you)

30. allow movement OUT OF THE ROOM (without them asking you)

31. use audio-visual EQUIPMENT (overhead projector, other projectors, recorders etc.)

32. go on an EXCURSION (out of the school grounds)

33. use TEAM TEACHING methods

34. EXCHANGE with another teacher (for a lesson - e.g. with another Social Studies/Social Sciences teacher)

35. use ACTIVITY methods (not just traditional projects)

36. use ENQUIRY methods (research into books, documents by the pupils)

37. use INTERVIEW methods (send the pupils to get information by interview)

	QUESTION & ALTERNATIVES	NA	ALL TEACHERS (N = 89) A	B	C	D	E	CONTROL ONLY (N = 35) A	B	C	D	E	TRIAL ONLY (N = 54) A	B	C	D	E	Sig?	Significant Differences between Control and Trial Teachers
1	Size of Class A. < 25 B. 26–30 C. 31–35 D. 36–40 E. > 40	0	9	21	35	18	4	4	9	14	5	1	55	12	21	13	3	NS	
2	Sex of Class A. boys B. mixed C. girls	0	5	71	11	–	–	0	33	1	–	–	5	39	10	–	–	NS	
3	Type of Class A. streamed B. partly streamed C. not streamed	1	29	15	42	–	–	14	5	16	–	–	17	10	26	–	–	NS	
4	Scale A. S.M. B. 4 year C. 3 year D. 2 year E. other	1	15	34	18	17	2	5	14	8	6	1	10	22	10	11	1	NS	
5	Training A. University B. T. College C. Nowhere	0	71	16	0	–	–	30	5	0	–	–	43	11	0	–	–	NS	
6	Experience in years A. 1 or 2 B. 3–5 C. 6–10 D. > 10	0	32	12	15	28	–	13	5	3	14	–	21	7	12	14	–	NS	
7	Course Taught A. Soc. St. B. mixture C. Soc. Sciences	0	25	8	54	–	–	27	8	0	–	–	0	0	54	–	–		
8	Content of course	1	20	44*	16	4	2	6	17*	10	1	0	14	28*	7	3	2	NS	
9	Statement of course	2	13	31	31*	8	2	3	13	15	3	0	11	18	17	5	2	NS	
10	Timetable as it affects subject	0	7	27	36*	12	5	2	10	17*	5	1	5	17	20*	8	4	NS	
11	Time available for subject	4	10	25	30*	16	2	1	12	13	7	0	9	14	17	10	2	NS	
12	Equipment availability	0	23	29*	17	11	7	9	14	7	3	2	15	15	11	8	5	NS	
13	Materials availability	0	10	23	23*	20	11	9	12*	9	4	1	2	12	14*	16	10	S	Trial Teachers much less happy with availability of materials
14	Library ease of use	0	7	29	28*	18	5	3	8	14*	9	1	5	21	15	9	4	NS	
15	Testing by the school	8	9	23	30*	12	5	5	15*	13	1	0	4	8	19*	11	5	S	Trial Teachers much less happy with School testing methods.
16	Furniture suitability	0	8	18	24	20*	17	4	7	10	8	8	5	13	15	12	9	NS	
17	Interest of pupils	0	19	39*	25	4	0	6	13	13	3	0	13	26*	13	2	0	NS	
18	Acceptance by the teacher answering	1	18	44*	18	3	3	3	17*	13	1	0	15	28*	6	2	3	S	Trial Teachers happier with their course than Controls with theirs
19	" " " pupils	1	13	44*	24	3	2	2	16*	13	3	0	11	29*	11	1	2	S	Trial Teachers think their pupils accept their course better
20	" " " administ.	7	17	39*	23	1	0	3	17*	10	0	0	14	23*	14	1	0	NS	
21	" " " parents	16	7	26	34*	4	0	0	11	18*	0	0	7	15	18*	4	0	NS	
22	" " other teachers	5	2	20	44*	5	3	1	13	16*	2	0	1	16	29*	3	3	NS	
23	Activity methods	1	10	39*	24	12	1	0	12	11*	11	0	10	28*	13	2	1	S	Trial Teachers much happier with activity methods
24	Enquiry methods	1	11	36*	26	10	1	1	11	13*	9	0	10	26*	15	2	1	S	Trial Teachers much happier with enquiry methods.
25	Formal lesson	1	26	25*	18	15	2	20*	11	3	1	0	7	15	15*	14	2	S	Trial Teachers use far fewer formal lessons
26	Group work	1	24	29*	18	13	2	2	8	12*	10	3	22*	22*	6	3	0	S	Trial Teachers use much more groupwork
27	Individual work	1	36*	28	19	2	1	8	12*	13	2	0	28*	17	7	0	1	S	Trial Teachers use more individual work
28	Rearrange furniture	3	11	7	29*	26	11	1	2	12	11*	9	10	5	18*	15	3	S	Trial Teachers rearrange furniture more often
29	Allow free movement in room	2	42*	19	7	12	5	10	9	5	8	3	32*	11	3	4	2	S	Trial Teachers more often allow freedom of movement in the room
30	" " " out of "	0	9	10	9	13*	46	1	2	5	5	22	8	8	5	9	24*	NS	
31	Use audio-visual equipment	1	11	38*	22	12	3	3	20*	4	6	1	8	19*	18	7	2	NS	
32	Go on excursion	1	0	0	37	35*	14	0	0	11	16	8	0	0	26	21	6	NS	
33	Use team teaching	2	1	0	4	17	63*	0	0	1	8	25	1	0	3	9	40	NS	
34	Exchange teachers	2	0	2	8	21	54*	0	1	4	11	18	0	1	5	11	36	NS	
35	Use activity methods	1	12	16	44*	10	4	2	3	17*	10	3	10	13*	27	1	2	S	Trial Teachers use activity methods more often
36	Use enquiry methods	0	19	36*	27	4	1	2	9	20*	3	1	17	27*	8	1	1	S	Trial Teachers use enquiry methods far more often
37	Use interview methods	1	0	5	25	32*	24	0	1	6	15	12	0	4	20	17	13	NS	
			+ ←		0		→ –	+ ←		0		→ –	+ ←		0		→ –		

Opinions of these:
A. very favourable, very good
B. favourable, above average
C. neutral, average
D. unfavourable, below avgrage
E. very unfavourable, poor.

Frequency of doing these:
A. twice a week or more
B. once a week
C. a few times a term
D. very seldom
E. never

APPENDIX C

Significant Differences - All Teachers

KEY QUESTION	REFERENCE QUESTION	Description of Difference
1. Class Size	13. Opinions on availability of materials.	Teachers of smaller classes are happier with the availability of materials.
	30. Frequency of allowing movement out of room.	Free movement out of the room is allowed more often in classes under 36 pupils.
2. Sex of Class - There were too few single sex classes to allow any comparisons to be made.		
3. Streaming/not streaming	12. Opinion on availability of equipment.	Teachers of streamed classes are slightly happier with availability of equipment.
	25. Frequency of taking formal lessons.	Teachers of streamed classes take formal lessons more often.
4. Scale (SM, 4 year, etc.)	5. Place trained.	Most 2 yr. trained teachers come from Teachers Colleges.
	6. Years of teaching.	The 3 yr. trained people have been teaching for a shorter time.
	9. Opinion on the way the course is stated.	The 3 yr. trained teachers are less happy than the S.M.'s about the way the courses are stated.
	28. Frequency of rearranging furniture.	The 4 yr. trained teachers (save for S.M.'s) rearrange furniture less often than other teachers.
5. Place trained	6. Years of teaching.	A greater proportion of University trained teachers have been teaching for a short time.
	16. Opinion on suitability of furniture.	Uni. trained teachers are less happy than other teachers about the suitability of furniture.
	28. Frequency of rearranging furniture.	The Uni. trained teachers rearrange furniture less often than others.
6. Years of Teaching	15. Opinion re school testing methods.	Those with 3-10 years' experience are less happy with school testing methods than those with either very little or much more experience.
	28. Frequency of rearranging furniture.	Those with much experience (more than 10 years) rearrange furniture more often than those with only 1 or 2 years.
	36. Frequency of using enquiry methods.	Those with 6 or more years' experience use enquiry methods more often than those with 1 or 2 years.
7. Course Taught Given in more detail in Appendix I.		

APPENDIX D

RESULTS

Following are some comments on the results under four headings: teacher results, pupil results, comparison between teacher and pupil results, and some general comments.

Comments on Teacher Results

General

The following comments are restricted to three types:

(a) those on the overall results (which have been given in full in Appendix A);

(b) those on the comparison between teachers in control and trial schools (which again have been given in full in Appendix A);

(c) those on other comparisons (Significant differences found have been given qualitatively in Appendix B).

It is important to realise that in (b) and (c) the absence of statistically significant differences may be as interesting as their existence. Some comments are included along these lines.

Comments on Overall Results (see Appendix B)

(a) Information question (1 to 7)

As a sampling method was used to select the classes (and thus the teachers), these figures should be fairly representative of the State picture. However, the trial teachers may have been specially selected by the schools (as the course was experimental) and so some care in generalising is necessary. The actual numbers (Question 7) teaching the subjects are not representative of the State as not all non-Social Sciences schools were used as Controls.

(b) Opinion questions (8 to 24)

Favourable opinions: content of course, statement of course, availability of equipment, interest of pupils, acceptance of the course by all

except other teachers, activity methods, enquiry methods.

Neutral opinions: the timetable, time available, availability of materials, ease of use of library, testing by the school, suitability of furniture, acceptance by other teachers.

Unfavourable opinions: nil

(c) Frequency questions (25 to 37)

At least once a week: formal lessons, group work, individual work, free movement in the room, enquiry methods.

A few times a term: rearrange furniture, audio-visual equipment, activity methods.

Very seldom or never: free movement out of room, excursions, team teaching, exchange teachers, interview methods.

NOTE: There is food for thought when these are compared with the absence of unfavourable opinions in (b) above.

Comments on Comparison of Control and Trial Teachers (see Appendix A)

(a) Significant differences

The teachers of trial classes, as compared with teachers of control classes:

- have not got enough materials,
- think their school testing methods need improving,
- are happier with their course,
- think their pupils accept the course better,
- run much less formal classrooms.

(b) Interesting non-significant comparisons

The following are areas where differences might have been expected (or hoped for?) but where none were found:

- opinions about: content and statement of courses, the timetable, the time available, the equipment available, the interest of the pupils.
- frequence of use of: audio-visual equipment, excursions, team teaching, exchange of teachers.

Planning Models

McPhee, R.F. 1967	Lippit, J. Watson, J. & B. Priestly 1958	Chin, R. 1964	Bricknell, H.M. 1964	Griener, O.R. 1967	Guba, E.G. & P.L. Clark 1967
1.Anticipate needs	1.Develop need	1.Use Specialists	1.Research	1.Pressure & arousal	1.Research
2.Define Change	2.Establish relationships	2.Start Innovation	2.Program Design	2.Intervention & re-orientation	2.Development
3.Evaluate alternatives	3.Clarify Problem	3.Communicate & influence	3.Evaluation	3.Diagnosis	3.Dissemination
4.Determine Priorities	4.Examine Alternatives	4.Incentives to "buy"	4.Dissemination through Demonstration	4.Invention & Commitment	4.Dissemination
5.Allocate Resources	5.Establish goals	5.Planned-change relationship		5.Experiment	5.Implementation
6.Evaluate results	6.Change efforts			6.Re-inforcement & acceptance	
	7.Stabilise change				
	8.Terminal Relationship				

Change Models

Mason, R. 1967	Havelock, R.G. 1971	Rogers, E.M. 1962	Beal, G. & J. Bohlen 1968	Lionberger, H.F. 1970	Miles, M.B. 1964
1.Awareness	1.Build a Relationship	1.Awareness	1.Awareness	1.Development	1.Design
2.Interest	2.Diagnose Problem	2.Interest	2.Interest	2.Dissemination	2.Awareness & interest
3.Evaluation	3.Acquire resources	3.Evaluation	3.Trial	3.Teaching change, strategies	3.Evaluation & Judgement forming
4.Trial	4.Choose Solution	4.Trial	4.Adoption	4.Legitimation of new ideas	4.Trials
5.Implementation	5.Gain Acceptance	5.Adoption			
	6.Stabilise the innovation				

APPENDIX F

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
53 Alexander Street,
Burnie, 7320

29th July, 1967

Mr. N. H. Campbell,
Superintendent Curriculum Research,
"Westella",
181 Elizabeth Street,
HOBART. 7000.

Dear Hugh,

Our Conference of Primary Headmasters this year is to be held in Burnie on 30th September and October 1st and 2nd. You will receive an invitation and a programme in due course.

In the meantime I would be grateful if you would allow me to approach your Warren Brewer to give an introductory talk on "Social Sciences in the Primary Schools of Tomorrow".

If you and he are agreeable I would like him to talk for about half an hour and then organise 4 workshop discussion groups that would, I hope, produce something useful for Curriculum Research and would also give a shot in the arm to this dismal section of the primary school programme.

Regards.

Yours sincerely,

SENIOR SUPERINTENDENT NORTH WESTERN DISTRICT.

APPENDIX G

CURRICULUM CENTRE,
Education Department,
Edward Street,
Hobart.

24th March, 1966.

Questionnaire to Primary Schools

The Curriculum Office is seeking information concerning what changes primary teachers think should take place in the teaching of History, Geography, Social Studies. Your contribution here would provide real evidence on which your syllabus committee could later base decisions. Please indicate clearly to which grade you are referring in each case.

1. If you were given a choice between teaching (a)History
(b)Geography
(c)Social Studies

which of a, b, c, would you choose for:

Grade I = ☐
Grade II = ☐
Grade III = ☐
Grade IV = ☐

ONLY
Indicate grades with which you are familiar

Grade V = ☐
Grade VI = ☐

2. What TWO main reasons do you feel determine your choice at grade levels stated above.

Reason 1: _____

Reason 2: _____

3. What three types of lessons are most enjoyed by your pupils in grade _____?
Pupils most enjoy (Please tick the appropriate square):

Group work	☐	Reading	☐
Discussion	☐	Taking notes	☐
Acting	☐	Being told stories	☐
Being read to	☐	Building models	☐
Drawing	☐	Doing projects	☐

Other types _____

4. Do you favour giving notes YES ☐
NO ☐

5. Do you favour testing YES ☐
NO ☐

6. Do you also award marks for PROJECTS ☐
ORAL WORK ☐
OTHER FACTORS ☐

7. Do you test mainly because it helps pupils ☐
helps your teaching ☐
helps in writing reports ☐
pleases your superiors ☐

(Add any other factor)_____

8. The main weakness in current teaching of'

GRADE is
uninteresting subject matter ☐
shortage of textbooks ☐
repetition of exercise ☐
emphasis on appearance ☐
poor library facilities ☐
lack of time ☐
uncertainty of subject aims ☐

(Add any additional factor)_____

PLEASE RETURN TO:

CURRICULUM CENTRE
Education Department
Edward Street,
Glebe, Hobart.

APPENDIX H

Summary of Questionnaire to Primary Schools On HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, SOCIAL STUDIES

Q1. TEACHERS' SUBJECT CHOICE

	History	Geography	Soc. Studs.	Hist/Geog
Grade I	2	5	182	
Grade II	15	37	144	
Grade III	38	37	71	63
Grade IV	31	32	75	75
Grade V	28	23	102	86
Grade VI	20	21	108	62

Q3. TYPE OF LESSONS MOST ENJOYED BY PUPILS AS JUDGED BY TEACHERS

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
Group Work	42	26	33	(48)	61	49	259
Discussion	49	30	26	16	27	42	190
*Acting	(82)	(39)	(66)	(61)	(85)	(54)	(387)
Being Read To	48	27	30	26	26	19	176
*Drawing	(79)	(58)	(59)	(77)	(91)	(61)	(425)
Reading	48	33	19	19	34	40	193
Taking Notes	0	0	2	7	16	6	31
Being Told Stories	(98)	(66)	(78)	(46)	62	51	(401)
Building Models	72	25	27	26	35	17	202
Doing Projects	8	15	31	37	(88)	(77)	256

Q4. DO YOU FAVOUR GIVING NOTES

Yes	11	12	65	78	102	78	346
No	122	66	50	41	49	52	380

Q5. DO YOU FAVOUR TESTING

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
Yes	89	47	79	108	110	105	538
No	52	33	38	16	42	22	203

Q6. MARKS AWARDED FOR

Projects	6	9	29	43	80	73	240
Oral Work	18	14	19	22	32	40	145
Other Factors							

Q7. MARKS AWARDED BECAUSE IT

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
Helps Pupils	54	30	36	57	61	60	298
Helps Teaching	99	45	77	86	100	106	513
Helps Writing Reports	4	6	11	4	11	16	52
Pleases Superiors	1	2	11	6	8	3	31

Q8. TEACHING WEAKNESS DUE TO

Uninteresting Subject Matter	3	4	12	8	22	16	65
Shortage of Text Books	19	16	33	44	49	53	214
Shortage of Visual Aids	77	35	59	64	60	47	(342)
Repetition of Exercises	8	1	11	4	10	14	48
Empasis on Appearance	7	1	4	1	2	4	19
Poor Library Facilities	28	10	30	42	42	42	194
Lack of Time	62	41	47	50	58	52	(310)
Uncertainty of Subject Aims	11	8	15	9	7	26	76
Other factors							

Curriculum Centre,
Education Department, Hobart 20th April, 1966.

APPENDIX I

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT,
181 Elizabeth Street,
Hobart. 7000.

27th January 1970.

To the Infant Mistress or Headmaster.

You are no doubt aware that the Primary Schools Council has initiated a revision of that area of the curriculum that purports to educate our pupils about the society in which tye live. A social science programme is being planned to span Grade I to 4th year high school.

Stage I (Grade I and II) of the Social Science course has been designed, trialed under control conditions, evaluated and subsequently modified. An Extended Trial Version has now been produced.

It is hoped that all schools will particpate in the extended trials during 1970 (official implementation is planned for the succeeding year).

To assist with this work teachers will be provided with support materials in the form of a Community Study Kit and a correlated TV series for the Grade II section of the work. Additionally a series of in-service programmes will be conducted during the latter half of February to provide a firm basis for the work to be done.

Enclosed is an outline of the in-service arrangements. Bus fares will be provided for teachers required to travel. You will notice the programme involves substantially Grade I teachers during the mornings and Grade II teachers during the afternoons. Some teachers should try to attend both sessions if it can be arranged.

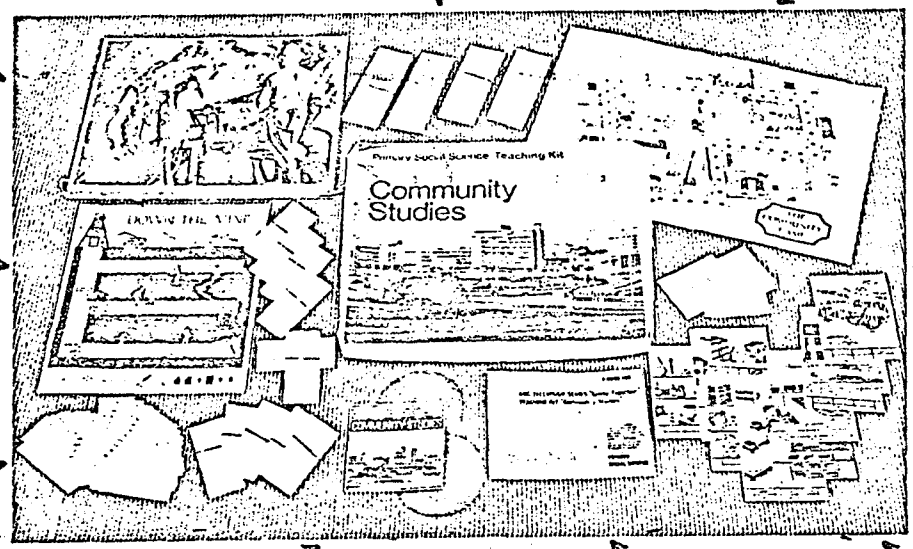
H.L. Swifte,
Chairman Social Science Syllabus Committee.

TEACHING KIT FOR GRADE 11 – COMMUNITY STUDIES

1. PHOTOGRAPHS – 48 large 23" x 17" photographs (4 for each T.V. programme) depicting natural but special community situations. They will be available for picture analysis and as a general teaching aid in a number of subject areas.

3. COMMUNITY SURVEY CARDS – 4 packets of 40 cards to enable children to conduct simple surveys and on the basis of the survey draw some conclusions and engage in follow-up activities.

2. COMMUNITY GAME – a "monopoly" type game for 2 to 8 players in colour, that will re-create community situations and will reinforce the ideas of the programmes and syllabus.



5. "DOWN THE MINE" GAME – two copies to reinforce ideas associated with the study of a mining community, for 2 to 6 players.

9. SPARES – cellophane bags and reinforcing eyelets for the photographs are included to add to the durability of the items.

6. WORD LISTS – 12 packs of 40 cards, to match, re-write or identify relationships. They will reinforce new words and ideas of the programme and syllabus.

7. COMMUNITY STUDIES RECORDS – 2 records with six tunes on each, using the T.V. programmes as themes to embellish the syllabus ideas. Simple instruments are used.

8. An A.B.C. TELEVISION TEACHERS GUIDE will suggest suitable introductory and follow-up activities together with a concise statement of aims and content of each T.V. programme in the series.

4. PICTURE WORK CARDS – 48 cards in colour, identification by symbols and identification by words, of community situations and ideas. The emphasis is on student problem-solving.

Personal Details: Social Science Seminar Team 1970

Original Change Team	Age at time of participation	'Position at time of participation in change-team (March 1969)	Training	Years of Experience	Still involved in Social Science Committee activities	Worked Overseas	Present 'position' 4 years later
Back Row L to R Mr. Walpole	26	Teacher	Teaching Diploma	6	Yes	Yes	Senior Teacher
Mr. Reed	50	Curriculum officer	Graduate	32	Yes	Yes	Senior Curriculum Officer
Mrs. Klaossen	34	Teacher	Teaching Diploma	12	No	Yes	Vice-principal
Mr. Hawkes	30	Senior Master	Graduate	10	Yes	Yes	Vice-principal
Mr. Best	36	Senior Master	Graduate	12	Yes	No	Supervisor of Social Science
Mr. Peirce	32	Principal	Graduate	11	Yes	No	Headmaster Class 2
Front Row L to R Mr. Brewer	35	Curriculum Officer	Graduate	13	Yes	Yes	Supervisor of Social Science
Mrs. Sweeney	57	Teacher-In-Charge Infant School	Teaching Diploma	39	No	No	Retired
Mrs. Dixon	49	Teacher	Teaching Certificate	24	No	No	Teacher
Mrs. Smith	37	Teacher	Teaching Diploma	12	No	Yes	Senior Teacher
Mr. Holden	49	Principal Class 2	Graduate	27	Yes	No	Principal Class 1
Miss Fish	24	Teacher	Teaching Diploma	3	No	Yes	Teacher

Education Department,
181 Elizabeth Street,
Hobart. 7000.

8th December, 1969.

Dear

I should like to take this opportunity to extend my sincere thanks for your time, energy and enthusiasm in assisting with the development of the 1st Stage of the Primary Social Science syllabus. The work has proceeded in excellent fashion and with a few modifications we can proceed with confidence.

As a result of the evaluation conducted, the visit to trial schools by Mrs. Curtis and subsequent committee discussion, the following decisions have been made.

1. As time is a rare commodity and as the evaluation programme and other communications have provided us with many of the answers we are seeking, there will be no further meeting this year of the trial school teachers.
2. In the light of the results of the evaluation, the course statement will be modified with respect to the preliminary format and some content in the units on "Animal Families", The School" and "Rural Communities".
3. The unit coverage will now be directed at Grades 1 and 2 only. (i.e. Units I, II and III will be directed basically toward Grade I and Units IV, V and VI will be directed toward Grade II.) Teachers will of course be welcome to manipulate this sequence to suit their own situation. Kindergartens, although now not officially part of the scheme, will be quite free to attempt any teaching of the Social Science ideas that are relevant to their classroom situation.
4. In 1970 the modified syllabus will be distributed on an extended trial basis. Any school wishing to attempt the work will be quite welcome to do so. The extended trial VERSION will be distributed to schools before the beginning of the 1970 school year or as soon as possible thereafter.

In-service orientation courses are being planned for early 1970. Should you have a suggestion for the conduct of seminars, please let Mr. Brewer know.

Again I express our gratitude to you for your pioneering work in the pilot schools and I take this opportunity of extending the Season's Greeting to you and our best wishes for a pleasant vacation.

Yours faithfully,

H.L. Swifte,
Chairman Primary Social Science Committee

APPENDIX M

PARTIAL ANALYSIS OF TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FORM OF THE SYLLABUS STATEMENT

1. THE PHYSICAL ARRANGEMENT OF THE DOCUMENT

(a) Clear and easy to follow.	18
(b) Confusing and difficult to follow.	-
(c) Adequate but needs modification.	2

If you have ticked (c) you may wish to make some comments.

.....

2. THE LANGUAGE AND EXPRESSION IN THE DOCUMENT

(a) Communicated clearly.	20
(b) Too sophisticated.	-
(c) Adequate - but needs modification.	-

3. THE DEGREE OF DETAIL

(a) Too detailed.	1
(b) Not enough detail.	2
(c) Adequate but some deficiencies.	10

4. Consider the following possible inclusions in the final amended syllabus statement. Tick one column for each of the following.

(a)	More suggested activities.	2	7	1	10
(b)	More suggested resources.	4	9	2	5
(c)	A preliminary statement about how children learn concepts.	1	10	1	8
(d)	A preliminary statement about the child's emotional and social growth.	1	6	2	11
(e)	A preliminary statement about learning theory and its relationship to the syllabus.	1	8	4	7
(f)	Some photographs of school at work on certain activities.	3	6	4	7

5. THE CHILDREN'S UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE BASIC IDEAS

(a)	Understood by all.	4
(b)	Understood by most.	16
(c)	Understood by some.	-
(d)	Not understood at all.	-

APPENDIX N

Notes by W.B. Brewer on Classroom Visitation to Miss A. Sypkes, Grade IV. Bellerive Primary School July 17th

Teacher was absent from the classroom when I arrived--a high noise level but most students were doing something. Room impressive. Half of one wall had been organised into shelving made from apple cases, all were labelled and bore the Dewey Classification Number. Strung diagonally across the room was a time line of coloured pieces of paper attached by pegs. At the back of the room was a crudely made man-sized cardboard robot. Miss Sypkes arrived and we talked about the programme. She said she was emphasising information retrieval skills. The robot hid a tape recorder and told short stories about pioneers. The time line was a sequence of events between today and grandfather's time from data obtained from home. I'm not sure what all the groups were doing. One boy was building a ducking box out of cardboard. Question: Why are you building that? Answer: It is in the story about the convicts. Question: Are you sure that's the way they were made? Answer: That's what the museum book says. Question: Where did you get the book from? Answer: The resource centre. The conversation continued. The student obviously knew how to use a card system provided for him

by the teacher, was acting independently and was trying to replicate the ducking box.

I asked Miss Sypkes about her system. She seemed enthusiastic about its operation. She explained as this was her first year of teaching, it took the pressure off her. Evaluation by short pen and pencil tests and project work. She showed me a paper Heading: Building a Classroom Resouce Centre. She prepared a staff meeting presentation (see Appendix L) An outstanding classroom. Enthusiastic about the innovation as methods were compatible with her style.

APPENDIX O

Notes by W.B. Brewer on Classroom Visitation, Miss Karen. Tumber, Grade II, Bellerive
July 17th.

Class was organised into five groups. One was outside working, painting animals they could see. Another group was building a model farm. The discussion with this group revealed that they had recently visited a farm for the day. Question to student: What kind of a farm was it? Response: Mixed farm. Question: What is a mixed farm? Response: A farm that sells lots of things. Question: Why? Is that good? Response: Yes. He's got lots of money. Group two were doing oral language work with the teacher. Two tin cans (telephones) were connected with string. One "farmer" was talking to another about the weather and the price of wool--uninhibited.

Group four were writing story books about their trip to the farm. The last group was in the corridor making a display of the farm. The class was obviously enjoying the learning, more than usual activity was in progress, the teacher moved among the groups discussed and posed questions to the students--the whole thing was beautifully organised--space maximised in standard classroom, no formal evaluation--the teacher recorded objective impressions on two variables--participation and progress. She had positive attitudes toward the innovation.

APPENDIX P

BUILDING A CLASSROOM RESOURCE CENTRE

Miss Sypkes,
Bellerive Primary School,
1970.

The following are selected extracts from the above 4 page paper:

1. PICTURES:

(a) Pasted on cardboard obtained from:-

(i) Breakfast cereal boxes.
(ii) Mercury scrap cardboard.
(iii) Supermarket ads.
(iv) Bought at Walsh's.
(v) Obtained through Supply and Tender Department.

(e) Sorted in boxes according to size. Classified numerically and stored upright. On reverse of each picture is written size and its number.
e.g. P(c)m = Pictures on cardboard - small
P(c)m = " " medium
P(c)mw= " " medium/wide
P(c)mt= " " medium/tall
P(c)l = " " large
P(c)lw= " " large/wide
P(c)xl= " " extra large

(f) Classification cards both of box sizes and numbers and subjects, placed in general catalogue.

SUGGESTED GENERAL CATALOGUE IDENTIFICATION LIST:

(a) Pictures (as above)
(b) Ph = pamphlets
(c) L = Life magazine articles
(d) NG= National Geographic Magazine articles
(e) W = Walkabout Magazine articles
(f) W.W. = Women's Weekly booklets
(g) N = Maps and Charts

(h) SN = Stencilled notes
(i) SL = Slides
(j) F.S. = Film Strips
(k) F = Films
(l) T = Tapes
(m) Dewey no's for books.

D. HOW CAN CHILDREN BE TAUGHT TO USE AIDS?

1. Lesson One: Discuss ways of getting information with children. Record these (e.g. put examples on separate pieces of card and suspend from ceiling). Play games with them in 'spare' minutes (e.g. "When I wanted to learn about ..... I found my information by ....etc.).

2. Lesson Two: Prepare a stencilled sheet with all aids available in classroom. Give child time to find out and record these. Sheets then stuck in folders or book for easy reference.

3. Lesson Three: Prepare stencilled sheet giving catalogue number of examples of each kind of aid. Children 'find' them and record answer.

4. Lesson Four: List a number of topics. Children record as many sources of information as possible on this topic.

5. Lesson Five: Let child choose topic. Child finds all information possible, organizes it in form of display, talk or both.

6. Lesson Six: Local librarians are very useful! Visit local library and do research work using encyclopaedia, pamphlets and newspapers.

APPENDIX Q

The
EXAMINER

71-75 Paterson Street, Launceston, Tasmania, 7250. Phone 31 5111

Dear Head Teacher,

Last year when we learned of the new social science curriculum to be introduced in Grades 3 and 4 we realised that we had a rare opportunity to help Tasmanian children and their teachers.

In consultation with the Curriculum Branch of the Education Department we planned the TASMANIAN LIFE series to provide supplementary material for classroom use. The first set of five parts was published in February, March and April this year, based on the theme of Transport and Communications because these factors dictated the discovery, exploration and development of the State.

Next year, again in February, March and April, we will publish the second set of five parts. These will be based on the theme of social order, law and government approached on a broad front.

Using many pictures and drawings to illustrate the simple text, this series will tell pupils why a community needs its various forms of government, and will describe how--and by whom--this system of law, government and law enforcement is exercised.

Considerable attention, of course, will be devoted to the early days of government in Tasmania, and how this system of autocratic military rule gradually evolved to democratic institutions.

Education Department officers and teachers in dozens of schools have told us that the first set proved most valuable. With their generous advice and suggestions, and with the experience gained in preparing the first set, we are confident that the second set will be more valuable still.

We have also been able to change the format to a size more convenient in the classroom, and to use a quality paper more durable than normal newsprint.

This has proved a costly enterprise. It has imposed a heavy load on the staff responsible for its preparation. But as we stated last year, today's children are our readers of tomorrow and we accept a duty to them. Those of us who have been associated with the project are really enthusiastic. It might be said that we've got the teachers' message.

This is a pioneering enterprise in the Australian newspaper field. We are glad to have been able to play a part in the Tasmanian Education Department's pioneering approach to the teaching of social sciences.

Yours sincerely,

F.G.N. EWENCE,
Editor.

A National Development

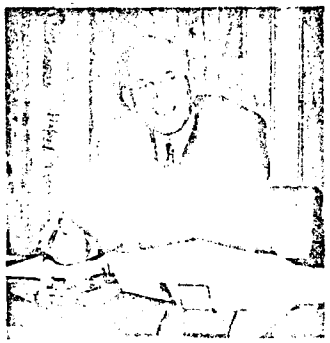
Educators throughout Australia are showing special interest in this area of the curriculum

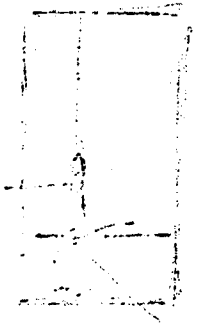
Sir Hugh Ennor (Secretary of the Department of Education and Science) in opening a U.N.E.S.C.O. Seminar in 1967, stated:-

"It is important that all children in the course of their education should have a chance to gain an organised, systematic and coherent understanding of the working of the highly industrialised society in which they live and in which as citizens, they will have to form opinions and make judgments.

So far throughout the western world there has been more attention given to the teaching of mathematics and natural sciences than to the teaching of social sciences. I am told that the situation is now changing. In the United States the same attention is now being given to problems of teaching the social sciences and it is being given by the same kind of people, eminent academics and capable teachers. The same thing is happening in Britain where some interesting experiments are being conducted in an attempt to improve the quality of education, and the quality of understanding which children gain of the structure and working of the social system.

In Australia we are only now commencing to consider this area in a systematic and determined way."





TO ALL PARENTS

One of the major functions of our schools is to educate our students about the society in which they live and help them to participate in that society in an informed and responsible way. By its very nature this task is both complex, controversial and ever-changing, and consequently we must frequently review the effectiveness of what we are doing in the classroom.

The evolving Social Sciences programme is a thorough and imaginative attempt to revise this part of our school programme. In effect this will replace Social Studies as we have known it for some years. The new Social Sciences programme not only includes some new areas of learning but also aims to revitalise the way in which the learning takes place. Other sections of this brochure pursue these matters further.

I hope you, the parents in particular and the public generally, will keep informed about the programme, recognise its importance and urgency and help the teachers assess its impact.

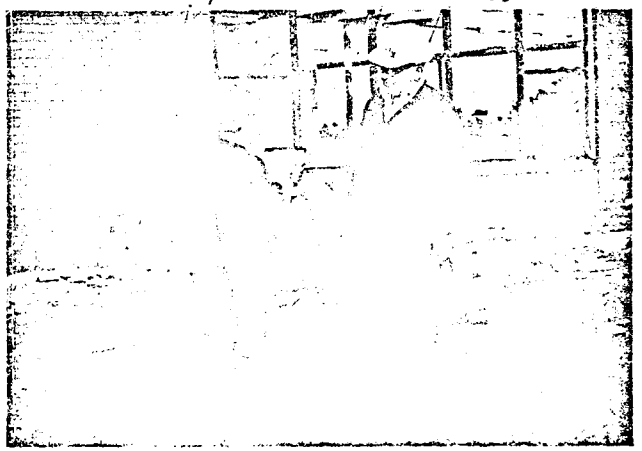
Yours faithfully,

A. V. GOUGH,
Director-General of Education.

TEACHING AIDS CENTRE, HOBART. 1971

The Social Sciences Programme

....an attempt to match social education and social reality



EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF TASMANIA
CURRICULUM CENTRE

APPENDIX R
PAMPHLET TO PARENTS

Why change?

Different needs

There have been dramatic changes in the structure of society which will have profound effects on the individual's role in society and have direct implications for the educational programme in schools. Ecological pollution, the "new" morality, dramatic technological change, increasing affluence, continuing urbanisation and the responsibility of 18 year old adulthood are some of the bewildering social realities that will be faced by our students in the near future.

The programme in social sciences that has evolved is an attempt to match social education with these social realities.

Different uses

"We want each pupil to understand this society of his, to grasp the manner of its behaviour, to acquire the skills through which it can be controlled and directed, to see the interrelationships of its parts, and to comprehend its pattern as a whole, and through this activity to improve the quality of the life which he and his fellow citizens share in this society."

(Connell & Brewer 1968)

What's new?

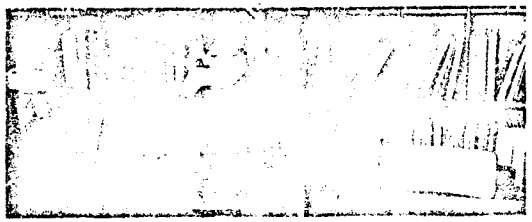
Content

The units of the programme should be seen as a totality, beginning in infant school and proceeding through to fourth year high school. The units of work involve key ideas and techniques from the various social science subjects such as history, geography, economics, political science etc., sometimes in an integrated fashion as in the case of the secondary school topic "Society and the Individual", or sometimes as a topic with a particular subject emphasis such as "Economy and Society".

All units attempt to meet the needs of the 'main stream' of our student population. It is a 'core' programme and modifications, deletions and additions will be made by each individual school to match its own learning environment.

Approaches

It is now clearly established that children learn best when they are stimulated, interested and actively involved in the learning. Accordingly this programme gives as much emphasis to process as to content. Both evidence and reasonable assumption support the claim that learning through discovery or enquiry – in other words learning to think – creates greater understanding and promotes the ability to make sensitive judgments.



Implications for Parents

Much of the traditional learning of past generations will be absent from this programme. The Social Sciences Programme aims to meet some of the more pertinent needs of our students so that they may be better equipped to participate in society. Important social issues such as leisure, automatuon, the problem of the aged, poverty, changing morality, prejudice, etc., will be examined in a frank, impartial and sensitive way.

Implications for Employers

It is an educational reality that we cannot teach everything. Therefore priorities have to be established. This programme aims to introduce material that has some relevance for the student and develop skills that will enable him to continue learning after his formal education is over.

These skills involve the retrieving and gathering of data, interpreting and analysing it, forming learned opinions about it and communicating those opinions to others in appropriate fashion. Consequently pupils will have fewer facts but hopefully more ideas, skills and abilities.

Implications for the General Community

In an attempt to make the learning interesting and real and promote finding out skills and desirable community attitudes, teachers and pupils have been encouraged to undertake learning tasks in the real world rather than in the artificial confines of the classroom. We are conscious of the demands this makes upon individuals and organisations. It is hoped that in this situation the community will become a partner in the learning enterprise and co-operate readily in pupil surveys involving field work and interviews.