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CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION
AND IMPLEMENTATION:
A STUDY OF QUEENSLAND
HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

A thesis submitted by

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Health Science at
University of Queensland, Brisbane

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This thesis presents a study of curriculum change processes in the key learning area of Health and Physical Education in Queensland, Australia. The study involves two different sites in the curriculum construction and implementation process: one the curriculum writing stage, the other the implementation stage in a secondary school. The researcher was a participant in the change process at both sites. The evidence that informs this study is drawn from specific document analysis, experiences, interviews, observations and journals of key participants within each site.

This study explores the notion of syllabus-curriculum-policy as socially constructed and open to contestation and struggle. It holds that curriculum change processes, both at construction and implementation levels, are autobiographical, historical, social, cultural and political. Of particular interest are the agential possibilities and limitations in the curriculum change processes, thus micro-political perspectives of change are central to this study.

Using Giddens' structuration theory (1984) as a theoretical framework, this thesis demonstrates the construction and implementation of a syllabus-curriculum-policy, where participants draw upon existing curriculum and institutional structures and personal philosophies and experiences — all of which shape their practices and occur within the temporal, physical and social contexts of the curriculum construction and implementation institutions. The structurational model of curriculum provides an analytical device to investigate and understand social interactions in the curriculum construction and implementation case studies. The explication of the interrelationship between curriculum, human agents and institutional practices is represented through the notion of duality of curriculum.

This study provides a critical analysis of curriculum change that is both reactive and proactive. Using the structurational model of curriculum analysis, the quest for authentic change is brought to the fore in the concluding chapter. Authentic change presents a multi-layered frame useful for analysis of educational change processes. It proposes the need to understand the emotional and dialogical base of typologies of
change for human agents, the interaction with institutional practices and properties, and that these processes are situated within temporal and spatial contexts. Through this frame, educators, teachers, administrators and stakeholders of educational change connect their personal beliefs, values and experiences with the organisational practices. It is a dialogical process and promotes an ethic of care. However, it also brings contestation and conflict. Such contestation, however, is necessary to understand the authenticity of actions.
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REFERENCE LIST
DECLARATION

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.

Signed: ______________________
Maree T. Dinan-Thompson
August, 2001
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My gratitude must also go to the ‘participants’ in this thesis. I feel honoured that they allowed me into their very busy lives, to share their experiences, to explore and analyse them and to make their stories public.
ACCESS

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Maree T. Dinan-Thompson                  Date
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<td>Australian Education Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>AISQ</td>
<td>Association of Independent Schools Queensland</td>
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<tr>
<td>ATSI</td>
<td>Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander</td>
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<tr>
<td>AWE</td>
<td>Association of Women Educators</td>
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<td>BSSSSQ</td>
<td>Board of Senior Secondary School Studies Queensland</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAC</td>
<td>Competitive Academic Curriculum</td>
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<td>Concerns Based Adoption Model</td>
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<td>CURASS</td>
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<td>DEETYA</td>
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<td>Ed.Qld.</td>
<td>Education Queensland</td>
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<td>Health and Physical Education</td>
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<td>HRE</td>
<td>Human Relationships Education</td>
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<td>IEP</td>
<td>Individual Education Programs</td>
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<td>KLA</td>
<td>Key Learning Area</td>
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<td>LOTE</td>
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<td>MCEETYA</td>
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<td>NPDP</td>
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<td>OBE</td>
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<td>SEPEP</td>
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<td>SOSE</td>
<td>Study of Society and Environment</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Curriculum reforms initiate and are constitutive of educational change processes — processes influenced by larger societal issues. More significantly, they are highly political and linked strongly to the government of the day. In Australia, the *Hobart Declaration on Schooling* (AEC 1989) and more recently the *Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century* (MCEETYA 1999) declare the purposes of education in Australian schools. These purposes, which are to be delivered by the Federal Government and state governments, provide direction for the construction and implementation of syllabus-curriculum-policy at the school site. Thus, the role of the 'state', which includes key players in political, judicial and administrative institutions, is central to curriculum construction and implementation.

As a teacher, coordinator and part-time lecturer involved at the forefront of curriculum change processes, I became interested in making sense of such change. I was intrigued by the political and organisational nature of change — at both the education-system and school levels and the personal challenges, growth, responses and resistance experienced by teachers and schools. The interest to investigate curriculum change processes, and in particular the historical, social, cultural and political environs, evolved from personal experiences in my professional sites of practice in the key learning area (KLA) of Health and Physical Education (HPE). These experiences provided the impetus for this thesis.

Curriculum change is researched widely and continues to be so. More particular to this thesis are the debates surrounding curriculum construction and implementation. Debate focus areas include the technicist approach to curriculum construction and

The HPE KLA is no exception (Allan and Thompson 1984; Kirk 1988, 1994, 1996; Macdonald and Brooker 1992; Penney and Evans 1999) to these debates and studies. At the national level in Australia, the Curriculum Corporation developed two documents that outlined the essential learnings for Australian schools (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b). The Australian states followed with their own versions of the KLAs, most recently Queensland, who published its Health and Physical Education KLA Years 1–10 syllabus in 1999 (QSCC 1999a). The construction of the syllabus document was linked very much to political agendas, including a stringent timeline, in the decision to have a rolling development of two KLA syllabi per year. Thus, much of the development was contained within an election period (see Chapter 2).

This thesis provides an account of an investigation into curriculum change processes, specifically in the Health and Physical Education KLA, at both state and school level. It examines the construction of the Queensland curriculum document and the construction and implementation of both national and state curriculum documents within a secondary school. The sites investigated were those of my professional practice.

The investigation continued over a four-year period in the form of interrelated case studies (see Figure 1.1). The first case study investigated how the Queensland HPE syllabus was constructed; the second involved the construction and implementation of, firstly, the national statement and profile HPE documents and, secondly, the trial of the Queensland HPE syllabus.
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**Figure 1.1 Timeline of case studies in this thesis**

This introductory chapter briefly sketches the theoretical basis used in investigating the curriculum change processes and outlines the probable significance of this research to curriculum change processes and educational change generally. The research process is also described, including the settings and the questions that framed this investigation. The chapter concludes with an overview of the structure of the thesis.

### 1.1 Theoretical basis

Giddens' structuration theory (Giddens 1984) provided the basis for the analytical frame used to investigate curriculum change. A structurational model of curriculum was developed to assist in this analysis, and the notion of *duality of curriculum* is central to this model. Further, conceptualisations of curriculum-syllabus-policy, curriculum construction and implementation, and the micropolitical nature of change are integral to these investigations into curriculum construction and implementation studies.

#### 1.1.1 Giddens' structuration theory

Giddens’ structuration theory (1984) forms the underpinning theoretical framework for this investigation. His assumption that the interplay between human agency and social structures shape, change and replicate our actions and interactions, is prominent
in analysing the construction of the syllabus document and implementation processes at the school site. As Giddens (1984) intended, I have used elements of structuration theory as ‘sensitising devices’ to develop a structurational model of curriculum. This model is built upon the premise that curriculum is both a product of human action and a medium for human action. It sees syllabus-curriculum-policy as socially constructed by agents yet institutionalised in education systems. It is agents who bring curriculum into being, and it is the curriculum that produces the possibility of agency in the construction and implementation process, hence there is a duality of curriculum.

Curriculum is seen as a structural property of educational organisations that both enables and constrains social interaction between human agents and institutional practices. Importantly, too, are the temporal and spatial contexts in which these interactions occur. Thus for curriculum construction and implementation, the situatedness of curriculum within personal beliefs, values and experiences, and educational organisations and practices is affected by the social and physical contexts.

Structurational models for investigating the interaction of human action and social structure in curriculum construction and implementation were developed, providing a multi-layered and united perspective from which to examine the complex and erratic nature of curriculum change processes. This analytical model is theorised in Chapter 3.

1.1.2 Interpretation of syllabus-curriculum-policy
The phrasing of ‘syllabus-curriculum-policy’ suggests a personal interpretation of the terms thus providing the foundation of this study. I have purposefully linked the terms syllabus, curriculum and policy. I perceive that all three are interrelated in that they have the key elements of statements of intention, the setting of cultural norms and a direct link to accountability of educational bodies, including practitioners. However, these key elements are very much formed within temporal and spatial contexts of the players involved in developing or implementing the syllabus-curriculum-policy. The body of knowledge expressed in syllabus-curriculum-policy is socially constructed through and by the players’ interactions. My interpretation has
led me to believe that all three terms, in the format of documents, are essentially segments of knowledge that older generations choose to pass on to younger. This involves choice that is personal and involves alignment or coalition with other players. The three terms are theorised in Chapter 2.

1.1.3 Curriculum construction and implementation
The coining of the phrase ‘curriculum construction’ (Brady and Kennedy 1999) is relevant to this thesis. Traditionally, the phrase ‘curriculum development’ was used to identify the processes involved in producing a syllabus document. However, my research revealed that the term ‘construction’ was significant in displaying an agency’s role and the social and political context in which these processes occur. These contexts are very much open to struggle and contestation.

Thus, curriculum construction and implementation form the basis of this study in the sense that these processes occur in personal and institutionalised practices. They are influenced by individual’s experiences, values and beliefs and thus individual agents are political entities in interpreting the curriculum and are affected by schooling or systemic practices. In this thesis, a personal account of moving within and across case sites is explored and thus demonstrates the blurring of the boundaries between curriculum construction and implementation.

1.1.4 A micropolitical perspective
Curriculum change occurs in social and political environments. The interactional nature of change between student–teacher, teacher–teacher, teacher–administration and teacher–stakeholder brings a micropolitical perspective to change processes. Micropolitical studies in education demonstrate that personal and systemic relations cannot be discounted in the syllabus-curriculum-policy construction and implementation process (Ball 1987; Sparkes 1990; Blasé and Anderson 1995; Datnow 1998). In fact, if they are ignored then it is most likely that educational change processes will fail (Sparkes 1990; Datnow 1998). Because the discussion of micropolitics are considered taboo in organisations and so often go unspoken, an undercurrent in social interaction occurs. Such practices have been referred to as the ‘background conversations’ and the ‘seedy underside’ (Datnow 1998). In my
investigation of processes involved in curriculum change, I consider there is a need to study the power relationships that exist within educational change settings at both personal and systemic levels. Furthermore, the dialogical and emotional components of micropolitics need to be understood because curriculum change involves great social effort. If such components are not acknowledged they can 'enter through the back door' (Hargreaves 1998) and damage change processes.

1.2 The research process

Two different case studies form the sites of investigation, both of which were sites of my professional practice. Evidence that informs this study was collected over a four-year period (1995–98) during the introduction and construction phase of the HPE KLA at both national and state level. Participants involved in the studies are best described in their specific sites.

Case Study 1 — Participants included the chairperson and writers of the syllabus document and myself, in my dual roles of representing the Queensland Catholic Education Commission and as a teacher implementing the trial syllabus drafts.

Case Study 2 — Participants included teachers constructing and implementing the draft Health and Physical Education Years 1–10 syllabus at a private secondary school and myself, as teacher and coordinator of the HPE faculty (department).

The research questions below framed investigations at each of the case-study sites:

- What processes were involved in the curriculum construction and implementation of the Queensland Health and Physical Education syllabus?
- What understandings are generated when structuration theory is used as an analytical frame for curriculum change?
- What are the agential possibilities/limitations in curriculum change?

The data-collection strategies were designed to capture 'thick descriptions' of the case-study sites, and display 'experiential understanding' and 'multiple realities' of the participants. Data included records and minutes of meetings, informal and semi-structured interviews, participant-observation notes, document analysis of draft syllabuses and curriculum programs, and maintaining a personal journal of experiences.
1.3 Significance of the research

This thesis is significant to curriculum change research being undertaken in Queensland, and further to studies in Australian curriculum. There are several components of the research that are worth sharing and benefiting from.

Firstly, curriculum change, including syllabus-curriculum-policy construction and implementation, in recent times has been at the forefront of government political agendas in Australia, New Zealand, England and Wales. I consider that my research is unique in providing an understanding of curriculum change through two different and yet interconnected lenses. The research presents critical interpretations at the classroom and school level, and at a system level, in the construction of syllabus-curriculum-policy. Thus it provokes further the separate studies undertaken at either school or system sites and challenges researchers to pursue interconnectedness.

Secondly, and specific to Queensland, the establishment of the Queensland Schools Curriculum Council (QSCC)1 and consequent construction of the Health and Physical Education KLA syllabus for Queensland schools has presented a new inter-systemic nature of curriculum construction. My research raises the concern about whose interests are served when a syllabus is constructed. Specifically, it raises the notion of competing interest groups in Health and Physical Education, including school systems, content specific lobby groups and special interest groups. The study highlights the interplay of voices and their influence on syllabus construction, evidenced through triangulation of interview material, meeting records and textual changes in the drafts.

This study is also significant in researching the role of the state in the construction and reconstruction of public policy. The state can be defined as consisting of key players in political, judicial and administrative institutions that have a complex relationship with the government of the day (Taylor et al. 1997). In this case, I refer

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1 The Queensland School Curriculum Council is a statutory body responsible for the development of curriculum materials for the compulsory years of schooling in Queensland (Years 1–10). It is an inter-systemic body accountable for the delivery of curriculum to Education Queensland schools,
to the State Government of Queensland and the administrative structure of particular departments—for example, the Queensland School Curriculum Council. The state is of crucial importance in understanding the construction process having the ability to translate ‘values, interests and resources into objectives and policies’ (Davies 1996, p. 19). Ball (1994, p. 21) takes this further by saying that state policy can establish ‘the location and timing of the contest, its subject matter and the rules of the game’.

This view supports the notion that policies ‘produced by and for the state are obvious instances in which language serves political purpose, constructing particular meanings and signs … fostering a commitment to the notion of a universal public interest’ (Codd 1988, p. 237). It is difficult to identify which interests have been given value once policy has been constructed. I argue that it is essential to look behind the construction of policy documents to ask questions about whose values are given priority.

In addition, the structurational model of curriculum and investigative models for analysis of duality of curriculum are significant and worthwhile to future investigations into curriculum and educational change processes. They identify the interrelationship between human agents and organisational structures in the creation of change at the personal and system level. They provide a model for multi-layered analysis of curriculum change that has potential to display the complexity and convoluted nature of change.

Finally and further developed, the notion of authentic change has much to offer in the construction and implementation of curriculum and educational change processes. Authentic change proposes the need to understand the emotional and dialogical base of typologies of change for human agents, the interaction with institutional practices and properties, and that these processes are situated within temporal and spatial contexts. Through this frame, educators, teachers, administrators and stakeholders of curriculum and educational change connect their personal beliefs, values and experiences with the organisational practices. Authentic change is a dialogical
process that promotes an ethic of care and is strongly linked with the ‘professional ethic’ of teaching.

1.4 Structure of this thesis

Section A presents the initial chapters of the thesis. They locate the research in the literature, theoretical foundations and methods appropriate to the study of curriculum change processes. A brief historical analysis of Health and Physical Education curriculum in Queensland is provided to contextualise the study. Giddens’ structuration theory (1984) and its applicability to this study is elaborated on and discussed. Methods of data collection are expanded upon and the ethical nature of undertaking study in ‘one’s own backyard’ are explored.

Section B presents the case studies of curriculum construction and implementation. Each chapter presents data collected in the separate but related cases.

Section C provides analysis and synthesis of the case studies through the social frame of ‘structurational model of curriculum’, and examines further the research questions that framed the investigation. Future applications in curriculum change processes are also foreshadowed.
CHAPTER 2

THEORISING CURRICULUM AND CURRICULUM CHANGE

Effective change involves conflict, complexity, the culture of institutions, the thoughts and feelings of participants, and relationships with the wider community. It cannot be mandated.
(Brady and Kennedy 1999, p. 229)

This thesis is concerned with innovation and change within the Queensland Health and Physical Education curriculum. Dominant discussion focuses on the key learning area (KLA) of Health and Physical Education (HPE) and yet the broader issues of stakeholders in education, reproduction and transformation of education and society, and the selection of schooling directives and materials are raised. Hence, the historical, political and social influences of curriculum construction are identified.

I begin this chapter by theorising the interpretation of the terms ‘syllabus’, ‘curriculum’ and ‘policy’. As introduced in Chapter 1, the notion of defining the three terms as separate fragments of knowledge has been questioned and a new interpretation proposed. Key to this interpretation is the social construction of knowledge (Young 1971; Goodson 1988; Kirk 1994). Such an understanding was applied to the construction of curriculum, where traditional models and dominant forms of curriculum were examined, and stakeholders of curriculum construction and implementation identified.

Specifically, the identity and meaning of HPE in Queensland curriculum was examined, in turn providing a foundation for the progression and regression of curriculum construction in HPE for Queensland schools. A historical analysis of such developments for the period 1980–99 has also been included. Finally, concepts and models of curriculum change and associated micropolitics were considered.
These themes provide the framework of the case studies investigated in this research.

2.1 Theorising the terms ‘syllabus’, ‘curriculum’ and ‘policy’

The act of defining the terms ‘syllabus’, ‘curriculum’ and ‘policy’ is a complex social process, which involves drawing on ideas disseminated in the public domain and fixing them into pointed frames of knowledge. However, this is not a logical process. Particular definitions gain acceptance through apparently general agreement. Moreover, this general agreement is only a surface impression since, most often, some participants have more say than others. Reaching general agreement, then, has the possibility of advantaging certain social groups and marginalising others.

It is difficult to accept the general distinctions made between syllabus, curriculum and policy. Walmsley (1999) makes similar statements about this difficulty and yet returns to the distinct definitions between curriculum and policy. He notes that the terms could not be considered individually but sees only policy as political, pedagogic or social (and not curriculum and syllabus). Moreover, several noted researchers (Young 1971; Goodson 1988; Taylor et al. 1997; Brady and Kennedy 1999) have attempted to define the terms and yet rarely have they interpreted the interconnectedness between the three. It is essential to theorise the body of knowledge surrounding all three terms, thus providing the reader with an understanding of how their roles have been interpreted, individually and collectively, in this research.

Phrasing the three terms using hyphens — syllabus-curriculum-policy — was how their relationship to each other has been interpreted. The obvious relationship is one that exists hierarchically, where a policy is developed following institutional decision, and a corresponding curriculum statement and syllabus are then constructed to provide guidelines for practitioners. However, it is proposed that curriculum and syllabus documents could be actually interpreted as policy. The theoretical basis for this interpretation was based on the following literature review.
Traditionally, curriculum has been defined as a course of study leading to a particular outcome, certificate or degree, and a syllabus as further defining the main points of the course of study. Nonetheless, curriculum and corresponding syllabi are broader than a written course of study to culminate in achievement. Goodson (1988, p. 9) defines written curriculum as:

- an important part of a consolidated ‘state’ system of schooling;
- setting ‘standards’ and defining statements of intent; and
- providing clear ‘rules of the game’ for educators and practitioners, parameters but not prescriptions.

Thus, curriculum provides public knowledge of standards through the provision of guidelines for the practitioners, possibly in the format of a syllabus. In addition, Goodson (1988, p. 10) raises the idea that patterns of curriculum were ‘defended and reproduced through socialisation’. Such a statement suggests that social interactions within education interest groups are responsible for forming this public knowledge. It is proposed in this body of work that while knowledge becomes ‘public’ it is created in the ‘privacy’ of special interest groups.

Taking up Goodson’s definition, the first point raised the notion of curriculum shaping and coordinating a system of schooling, implying a controlling factor in the construction and delivery of curriculum on the assumption of an invisible set of unified beliefs and values. It is in this area that the role of the state in the construction and reconstruction of public syllabus-curriculum-policy can be seen. The state can be defined as consisting of key players in political, judicial and administrative institutions that have a complex relationship with the government of the day (Taylor et al. 1997). In this thesis, the State encompasses the State Government of Queensland and the administrative structure of particular agencies — for example, the Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC), Education Queensland (Ed.Qld.), Catholic Education (Cath.Ed.) and Independent schools. The state is of crucial importance in understanding the syllabus-curriculum-policy construction process because it has the ability to translate ‘values, interests and resources into objectives and policies’ (Davies 1996, p. 19). Ball (1994, p. 21) takes this further by saying that state policy can establish ‘the location and timing of the contest, its subject matter and the rules of the game’. Such a comment reiterated Goodson’s third point in defining
curriculum. This view also supports the belief that syllabus-curriculum-policy 'produced by and for the state are obvious instances in which language serves political purpose, constructing particular meanings and signs ... fostering a commitment to the notion of a universal public interest' (Codd 1988, p. 237). These documents have power in serving as an instrument of, and/or for, political intervention and intent according to an assumed set of common values.

Kirk (1988) expands on this interpretation by conceptualising curriculum as consisting of three broad characteristics: knowledge, interaction and context. Knowledge transmissions can be dependent upon and/or affected by many variables, including the learner, the institution and/or the society. Interaction, or action upon this knowledge, may rely on all of those variables and be acted upon in a variety of ways, depending upon the social, political and historical context in which it occurs. Essentially, Kirk (1988) believes that knowledge is socially constructed and dependent upon the players, the situation and embedded historical and political structures. He contends that there is a need to consider both the interactional dimensions of power and structured relations of power within the physical and temporal context. Ozga (2000, p.2) reflects this point of view in seeing policy as 'process rather than a product, involving negotiation, contestation or struggle between different groups'. This is reiterated also in Penney and Evans (1999) studies into PE curriculum and policy construction and implementation in the United Kingdom.

Young's idea that school knowledge is socially constructed may have influenced Kirk's and Ozga's interpretations. Young states, as early as 1971, that education (and all that is inclusive of education) is a 'selection and organisation from the available knowledge at a particular time which involves conscious and unconscious choices' (1971, p. 24). Those choices are a result of the interactions among players. Young (1971, p. 27) takes this further by suggesting that the 'construction of subjects, disciplines and syllabi [are] sets or provinces of meaning which form the basis of the intersubjective understandings of educators. The school curriculum becomes just one of the mechanisms through which knowledge is socially distributed'.
In addition, Ball (1994, p. 10) recognises that policy is 'an “economy of power”, a set of technologies and practices which are realised and struggled over in local settings'. This can be linked to both Young and Kirk’s interpretations of intersubjectivities, selection and circulations of power in the construction of knowledge, represented in this case in syllabi-curriculum-policy. Brady and Kennedy (1999) support this conceptualisation of contestation and intersubjectivities or values being embedded in curriculum:

Curriculum represents a consensus between groups/individuals in society to influence the education of young people ... [it] is constructed by groups/individuals to suit the particular interests they represent. In this sense, the curriculum itself is not neutral — it represents a point of view or a perspective. (Brady and Kennedy 1999, pp. 9–10)

Taylor et al. (1997, pp. 15–16) make similar observations about policy. They state that 'policy is value laden; policy exists in context; and policy is more than the text'.

Before moving on I need to raise the second point of Goodson’s definition of curriculum to further expand on the interconnectedness of the terms. Goodson (1988, p. 9) sees curriculum as ‘setting ‘standards’ and defining statements of intent’. Interestingly, a policy has been defined as the ‘implicit or explicit specification of courses or purposive action ... directed towards the accomplishment of some intended or desired set of goals’ (Harman 1984, p. 13). It is, therefore, evident that direct links can be made between Harman’s definition of policy and Goodson’s definition of curriculum. Intention, the setting of norms and the policy’s close association to control of education bodies, including practitioners, are key elements of both definitions. Taylor et al. (1997) expand on these links:

Public policies in education thus had two main functions: to provide an account of those cultural norms which were considered by the state as desirable in education; and to institute a mechanism of accountability against which student and teacher performance could be measured. (Taylor et al. 1997, pp.2–3)

The Queensland School Curriculum Council’s statement on a syllabus document supports these interpretations in saying: ‘Traditionally in Queensland, centrally approved syllabus documents have been used to convey curriculum expectations for the compulsory years of schooling’ (QSCC 1998i, p. 3). From these interpretations it could be inferred that syllabi, curriculum and policy are linked to the issue of
accountability. The setting of (mandated) standards or norms provides the basis for performance.

Walker (1988) introduces a new element to the interrelationship of the terms. He states that ‘policy represents the espoused theories of policy makers and other interest groups … for example, curriculum statements typically provide practitioners with a policy statement and suggested strategies to implement it’ [my italics] (Walker in Allen 1988, p. 317). In the case of Queensland education it could be inferred that curriculum statements in syllabi represent espoused theories of the QSCC, writers, advisory committee and other interest groups. Conversely, Kemmis (in Taylor et al. 1997, p. 3) contends that policy is increasingly replacing educational theory as a source of guidance for practitioners. It could be argued also that the ‘espoused theories’ of interest groups replace educational theory as a source of guidance (through policy) for practitioners. Thus, the assumption can be drawn that a cross-directional implementation of policy, curriculum and syllabi exist as frameworks for educators’ actions.

These actions could occur in a school; a cluster of schools within a system; a state (such as the Ed.Qld. system); a state with externally sponsored agencies (such as Ed.Qld. plus Queensland Health); within the documents themselves, or with teachers (individually and/or collectively). It must also be noted that syllabus-curriculum-policy construction and implementation may occur within and across sites, and hence a blurring of boundaries results. Penney and Evans (1999) discuss this in their study of the National PE curriculum in the United Kingdom, but refer to it as varying levels (macro, meso, micro) of construction and implementation.

In theorising the framing of the terms ‘syllabus-curriculum-policy’, no distinct differences were found in their construction and implementation. Rather, the literature above displays commonalities between definitions and this is reflected in educational practice. The syllabus-curriculum-policy triplet, as used in this thesis, provides a heuristic device in that better represents the use of the terms in educational practice. It displays a blurring of the boundaries between syllabus, curriculum and policy and thus subsequent blurring of the construction and implementation divide.
Syllabus-curriculum-policy is about process rather than product. The words of Pinar et al. (1995) reflect this interpretation.

It is what the older generation chooses to tell the younger generation ... (and) is intensely historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological and international ...[and] becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define themselves and the world. (Pinar et al. 1995, pp. 847-48)

Thus, in this thesis, where the terms ‘syllabus’, ‘curriculum’ and ‘policy’ are used (singly or concurrently), they are interconnected.

2.2 Syllabus-curriculum-policy construction

This thesis was concerned with the construction and implementation of HPE curriculum in Queensland. The term ‘construction’ rather than ‘development’ was chosen specifically in the belief that it conveys both the messages of structure and design, and the contested nature and socio-political dimension of curriculum construction and implementation. Moreover, it allows for the contextual nature of curriculum to be visible, to raise the questions of ‘Constructed by whom? For whom? and Why now?’ Brady and Kennedy (1999, p. vii) support this position stating: ‘Curriculum is constructed in two senses: it is constructed by human agency and by social and political constraints and realities’. Hartley (1997, p.43) extends this interpretation in his definition of curriculum:

Curriculum — or should we say a curriculum — is therefore always set within the socio-historical context. It is contingent upon, not ‘above’, that context.

This socio-historical understanding is not typically represented in the discussions about existing models of curriculum that have served as frameworks for curriculum decisions, documents and assumptions.

One model has, to date, dominated curriculum work. The work of Ralph Tyler in 1949, since titled the ‘Tyler rationale’ or ‘objectives model’, has provided educators with a procedural approach to curriculum planning. Based on four questions, the model comprises a logical sequence of development.
Much criticism has been published claiming that this model is excessively linear, containing a ‘means-ends rationality’ (Posner 1995, p. 15). Additional criticisms are that the model focuses on evaluating instructional objectives and may ignore unintended learning experiences (Marsh 1997), and that it ignores the interrelationships between the four elements (Reid 1993). The objectives model presents a technicist approach to curriculum construction based on a technical production system whereby schooling is considered to be production-oriented, decisions are primarily made by experts, and pedagogy is justified according to outcomes (Posner 1995). This technicist approach splits the sites of construction and implementation. This debate is still relevant today as Brady and Kennedy (1999) account as being the dominant model in Australia. They claim that the role played by federal and state governments in curriculum construction is evident to this current day. This is consistent with the centralist and hierarchical nature of the ‘state’ (as discussed previously), and the technicist approach to curriculum. Penney and Evans (1999) report of similar issues in the United Kingdom and in Spain as stated by Farrell (2000). Such issues are taken up in Chapter 5.

In the 1960s and 1970s alternative models of curriculum planning were being developed. Taba (1962) and Cohen (1974) (as stated in Brady and Kennedy 1999) displayed a definite movement away from the linear process and towards the design of more interactional models of curriculum construction. This generated a closer link between curriculum development and implementation. Moreover, Schwab (1970) extended the concept of interactional models of curriculum construction in offering the ‘eclectic’ approach. Schwab (1970) believed that the learner, the teacher, the
subject matter, and the social and institutional milieu or context were the key elements of the curriculum (Posner 1995). Any curriculum that did not consider these elements equally was flawed.

At the same time, Walker (1971) promoted a ‘naturalistic’ model of curriculum to reflect observed practice. A three-step sequence was established: platform-deliberation-design. Teachers’ values and beliefs formed a social, political and historical foundation to the curriculum. They are deliberated over and then the design of the new curriculum can occur. Debates about this model centred on the aspect of deliberation and the reaching of consensus (Brady and Kennedy 1999).

Australia has made an attempt to undertake alternative models of curriculum construction in the development of school-based curriculum development (SBCD). This form of curriculum planning was promoted heavily in the 1970s and 1980s and encouraged individual schools to meet the educational needs of their own students (Brady and Kennedy 1999). This in turn asked teachers to consider the physical, temporal, economic, social, political and cultural contexts in the construction and implementation of the curriculum. However, all schools, or states/territories, did not embrace the concept equally. It appeared most apparent in New South Wales, South Australia, the Australian Capital Territory and Victoria (Brady and Kennedy 1999).

Interestingly, Johnson and Reid (1999) provide a differing perspective on curriculum formation. They believe that much of the curriculum designed in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in Western societies has been competitive academic curriculum (CAC). This form of curriculum selects knowledge that is gendered, racial and historical, as it is a ‘selection from the culture’ (Johnson and Reid 1999, p. x). Connell (1998, p. 84) suggests the following characteristics of CAC:

- an abstract division of knowledge into ‘subjects’;
- a hierarchy of subjects (with classics, now mathematics, at the top);
- a hierarchical ordering of knowledge within each subject (fine-grained distinction between elementary and advanced material);
- a teacher-centred classroom-based pedagogy;
- an individualised learning process;
formal competitive assessment.

Thus, CAC privileges the culture from which the knowledge has been selected and marginalises other groups. In recent years there has been much comment about challenging the CAC that has been grounded in the hierarchical power of the institutions and organisations (the state). However, Connell (1998, p. 85) suggests that the cultural rationale for CAC may be dislodged in future years due to erosion of authority in universities, the influence of education markets, and the combined traditions and knowledges in multi-ethnic societies. The taken-for-granted values and beliefs underpinning the CAC curriculum will be under threat.

More recently, the notion of ‘outcomes-based education’ (OBE) (Spady 1993; Brady 1996) has provided a basis for curriculum construction and planning. This outcomes movement, a priority for many Western countries, was initiated through discussions on performance standards at both national and international levels (Brady and Kennedy 1999). OBE is ‘not a program but a way of designing, delivering, and documenting instruction in terms of its intended goals and outcomes’ (Spady 1988, p.5). These outcomes provide:

- coherence between curriculum, assessment and reporting;
- assistance for teachers and parents to develop and apply explicit teaching and learning strategies; and
- a common language to improve communication between professionals and to focus system support for teachers and schools (Eltis, 1995, pp.21-22).

The national profiles documents (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b) for each KLA display this approach as do subsequent State and Territory documents.

The process-partnership model of curriculum construction and planning involves ‘across-boundary collaboration’ (Fullan 1999, p.61). This model asks for collaboration amongst teachers, writers and other stakeholders. It is hoped that in this partnership, all parties are involved in shaping the curriculum, and possibly transforming the materials as a result of their experiences along the way (Kirk and Macdonald 2001). Fullan (1991) interprets this as ‘two-way inside-outside reciprocity’. This model has been applied in the HPE National Professional
Development Project (NPDP) and in the syllabus construction process at the Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC).

It is apparent too that these models of curriculum construction, planning and implementation influence the shaping the change process at the sites (see section 2.5 on models of curriculum change).

An awareness of the traditional models and possible dominant forms of curriculum raises the disquieting issues of the role of power in its construction. Tyler's model (1949) fails to consider curriculum construction involving social and political priorities. It is based on an intellectual discourse that is both culture- and class-specific. Nonetheless, Tyler's model has proven to be most dominant (Posner 1995; Brady and Kennedy 1999). An attempt has been made in the interactional models, specifically Schwab's (1970), to include the social and institutional context. Goodson (1988) contends that the social arena is a key element in the making of curriculum. Hence, he states 'curriculum ... is potentially a site of ongoing and dialectical action. Redefinition (and resistance) can be sponsored from below' (Goodson 1988, pp. 200-01). Despite this, Goodson's interpretations support the notion of hierarchical actions in curriculum construction. This is the basis of Connell's (1998) characteristics of CAC, and the notion that power relationships are apparent in curriculum construction and implementation.

Internal and external forces will shape the agenda and purpose of schooling in the written curriculum (Goodson 1988). These forces may be represented as what Brady and Kennedy (1999, pp. 6-9) contend are 'stakeholders in the curriculum'. They argue that everyone has a stake in the curriculum as it serves as a guideline to developing essential knowledge and skills in a democratic society. Therefore, curriculum is not neutral because it represents a consensus between groups. It could be argued this is always a circumscribed consensus.

The Commonwealth Government and state governments of Australia have proven to be active stakeholders in curriculum construction and implementation. Over recent years the Commonwealth Government has taken an increased interest in the shaping
of curriculum, apparent in the development of organisations, such as the Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) in 1987 and the Curriculum Corporation in 1989. The Commonwealth Government has an economic interest in the curriculum ensuring it provides students with the skills and knowledge that will enhance the earning capacity of future generations in the workplace. This is evident in the present-day importance of literacy and numeracy and the consequent introduction of national benchmarks. In addition, the Commonwealth Government is also interested in the school providing a foundation for several societal qualities that contribute to a democratic society — for example, social skills, cultural understanding, tolerance and justice (Brady and Kennedy 1999). However, all that said, it is the state and territory governments that have constitutional responsibility for schooling and, therefore, curriculum construction in Australia. The curriculum is open to differences between states and territories because they operate individually. It is also open to contestation among political parties. For instance, Wiltshire’s ‘Shaping the Future’ report proposed significant changes for Queensland schools in 1994 but because the Queensland State Government changed hands, proposed strategies were modified or dropped altogether. Furthermore, it is the minister of education who has the final say in curriculum construction (in Queensland and various other Australian states).

Thus it is that political forces impact upon the construction of any curriculum and its implementation. Stakeholders have great influence, including the teachers, as they are individual political entities at the forefront of determining the curriculum and how it is shaped in their classrooms.

2.3 Curriculum construction and implementation in HPE

There is a long history of curriculum construction and implementation research in HPE nationally and internationally. Researchers have focussed on different issues of construction and implementation, such as, gender (Wright 1996, 1997), sport education (Alexander, Taggart and Thorpe 1995; Hellison 1995), daily PE (Tinning and Kirk 1991), cultural (Salter 1999), specific projects, such as, HPE NPDP (Macdonald and Glover 1997; Penney 1998), national and international curriculum developments (Sparkes 1990; Glover 1994; Kirk, 1986, 1988, 1992, 1994, 1996,
1997; Penney & Evans 1999), historical accounts of curriculum developments (Allan and Thompson 1984; Kirk 1992, Walmsley 1999). Of particular relevance to this thesis is the specific literature related to curriculum construction and implementation in the State of Queensland.

2.4 Health and physical education curriculum in Queensland

Over the past 20 years curriculum construction in health and physical education for Queensland schools has been the subject of much upheaval and tension. There has been enormous change in the vision of the curriculum but little has changed the teaching environment (Walmsley 1999). This has been due to the many different interpretations of the place and purpose of health and physical education in schools and, in addition, specific interruptions, such as a moratorium being placed on all curriculum developments by the newly elected political leaders of Queensland. It is appropriate then that these interpretations, the nomenclature surrounding health and physical education, curriculum developments and interruptions are investigated in the literature informing this research.

2.4.1 Interpreting the position of health and physical education in Queensland

Historically, physical training was the foundation of health and physical education in Australian schools. The core of the program was preparation for military service for males and gymnastics for females (Tinning, Kirk and Evans 1993). In later years, the introduction of fitness, games and sports were included in the physical training with the vision of social skills being enhanced. Moreover, this program operated under the direction of school medical officers in each state (Kirk 1994). An assumption could be made that the physical training was constructed on the common goal of health and wellbeing, although not evident in the curriculum documents of that time. At a later date physical training was to be redefined as 'physical education'. This led to an increased status of physical education and the introduction of specialist physical education teachers in the 1940s (Tinning, Kirk and Evans 1993).

Further reconstruction of the Queensland curriculum in 1952 came under the title of 'Physical Education'. The obvious focus of this curriculum was physical skills, interest in recreational activities, attitudes and posture (Walmsley 1999). Health was
to have a focus in the 1972 document. For primary schools and entitled the *Health and Physical Education Curriculum Guide*, it set out the following objectives (Department of Education, Queensland 1972, p. 1):

- to develop physical fitness;
- to develop proficiency in useful and satisfying physical skills;
- to develop body awareness and control;
- to develop social skills; and
- to develop attitudes and practices for healthy living.

These objectives suggest that a heavy emphasis remained on physical development, which is visible in the document. The content outlined in the guide includes gymnastics, basic skills, athletics, swimming, dance/rhythmic activities, fitness activities, sport and games, outdoor adventure activities, adaptive physical education and health education, the later having a year-long focus only in the early childhood years. Moreover, only the term 'physical education' was applied to the planning and teachers' roles statements in the guide. A statement referring only to physical education contributing to cognitive and affective development was included (Department of Education, Queensland 1972). Such evidence indicates that although the document was titled ‘Health and Physical Education’, there was limited recognition of health.

Interestingly, a separate health education curriculum guideline (HECG) for Queensland primary schools was constructed in 1982, promoting a separate status for health education. No longer was health considered under the medical interpretation involving disease/topic approaches. The new emphasis was conceptual with the focus on prevention, health behaviours and the role of the community. It is worth noting that no distinct relationship to physical education was listed in this document (Department of Education, Queensland 1982). Following this was the construction of the *Health and Physical Education – Guidelines for Secondary Schools*, Years 8–10 (SHAPE) (Department of Education, Queensland, 1984). This document appeared to reintroduce health and physical education as one area of study; however, it divided the disciplines by providing separate learning experiences for health education and physical education. Significantly, the conceptual approach to both health education and physical education was introduced to the secondary school. Health education
continued the conceptual approach outlined in HECG, whereas physical education consisted of new approaches to learning planned under concepts such as fitness and energy expenditure. Nonetheless, Allan and Thompson (1984, p. 58), foundational curriculum writers and administrators in HPE in Queensland, stated that although physical education and health education had operated under two separate disciplines, the nexus of 'the common goal of health' had underpinned construction. At the same time the World Health Organisation introduced the concept of health promotion (WHO 1986), giving health education an increased status.

The divide between health education and physical education remained entrenched in curriculum construction in Queensland due to the development of the Physical Education Syllabus and Guidelines Years 1–7 in 1987. This draft document is significant in its attempt to reconstruct the 1972 document and introduce the conceptual approach to physical education in the primary school. Physical education was defined as having an extended and broad context, which included movement skills, participation and confidence, cultural significance, fitness and health, enjoyment, and contribution to lifestyle (Department of Education, Queensland 1987a, p. 18). This definition introduced the inclusion of areas outside the predominant focus on physical development. Furthermore, although this document was never formalised it appears to have influenced new advancements in health and physical education introduced in the P–10 framework document (Department of Education, Queensland 1990). The P–10 Health and Physical Education Framework document (for discussion purposes only) outlined six major purposes in making contributions to a sound and general education. The stated purposes were:

Health and physical education

- enables each child to enhance his or her physical development;
- develops movement skills which enable children to perform physical activities in a range of environments, effectively, efficiently and safely;
- can make a positive contribution to each child’s cognitive development;
- can enhance personal development by providing opportunities for each child to experience enjoyment and a sense of competence and accomplishment;
• assists in the development of those social skills, such as communication, cooperation, sharing and interdependence, that are considered important in our society; and,
• assists each child to choose lifestyle behaviours that enhance wellbeing, leading to improved quality of life. (Department of Education, Queensland 1990, pp. 2–5)

These purposes promoted a new vision for an integrated health and physical education in Queensland schools. This vision, however, was for discussion purposes only and has not yet gained recognition in schools.

Changes were occurring at the national level, too. Reports on Australian standards of health were compiled biennially from 1988 (Australian Institute of Health 1988; Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 1992; 1994). Issues of lifestyle-related illnesses came forth in these reports, displaying huge economic costs on the Australian population. Consequently, the importance of health education was promoted as a preventative mechanism to reduce the cost factor of lifestyle-related illnesses. Additionally at the national level, in 1994, the Australian Curriculum Corporation published a statement document as part of the national curriculum guidelines in health and physical education for all Australian schools. Again, the combination of the disciplines was promoted. The national statement states:

Studies in health and physical education are focused on the significance of personal decisions and behaviours and community structures and practices in promoting health and physical activity. More specifically, the area is concerned with: growth and development, fundamental movement patterns and coordinated actions of the body, the concept of fitness, physical activity, effective relationships, identity, safety, challenge and risk, the role of food, the multi-dimensional nature of health, and home and school. (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, pp.2–3)

It is apparent in this description that the defined nature of health and physical education for Australian schools has been greatly expanded to include not only physical and motor development, but also personal development, and the role of community and family. The emphasis of this statement is on an individual’s knowledge and actions in the promotion of health and physical activity for self and the community. Queensland appears to have adopted the national statement
framework (as has other states) for health and physical education in the new Years 1–10 syllabus constructed in 1999, which states:

The years 1–10 Health and Physical Education Key Learning Area reflects the dynamic and multi-dimensional nature of health and recognises the significance of physical activity in the lives of individuals and groups in contemporary Australian society. It provides a foundation for developing active and informed members of society capable of managing the interactions between themselves and their social, cultural and physical environments in the pursuit of good health. (QSCC 1999a, p. 1)

The literature examined above reveals a crisis of meaning and identity in health and physical education for Queensland schools. The constant division and rejoining of the disciplines suggests great debate about the intention(s) of the learning area. Thus, the identity and meaning of the discipline(s) promoted in curriculum developments are influential factors in gaining status and implementation in classrooms. Kirk (1994, p. 60) contends that the crisis exists only for physical education because it was being subsumed by the discourses of health, sport and competition, and fitness. He also states that the crisis in physical education was due to the discipline being ‘appropriated entirely by lobbyists for sport and health’ and suggests the need for public debate on physical education in the broader educational discourse (Kirk 1994, p. 61). I contend too that lobbyists, including curriculum writers and professional associations, have continuously moulded health and physical education. State political initiatives and interruptions have assisted this formation. Great contention exists on the interpretations assigned to the terms ‘health’, ‘health education’, ‘physical education’ and ‘health and physical education’. Not only has this been evident in the place and purpose of health and physical education but also in the nomenclature of the learning area.

2.4.2 Nomenclature – the name game

The naming process for this key learning area has certainly been intriguing, and indeed national and state titles do differ according to systems decisions. Nationally, the key learning area was entitled Health (incorporating physical education and personal development) by the Australian Education Council (AEC) in 1991. The AEC Curriculum and Assessment Committee (CURASS) was established in August 1991 to oversee the development of the national guidelines in the eight key learning
areas — English, Maths, Science, Health, SOSE, LOTE, The Arts and Technology. Understandably, much debate occurred about the naming of the learning area, which led to a foundational writer for the national statement saying:

The name of the learning area Health is a real issue. Not having the name Physical Education in the title puts a subject area that is well established in almost all schools on the periphery. PE has been marginalised even before we read a word of the Statement. (Taggart, Alexander and Taggart, 1993, p.22)

Under the direction of CURASS this title was changed in 1993 to Health and Physical Education (HPE), largely due to lobbying from the Confederation of Sport and support from the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (ACHPER) (Irwin 1993; Kennedy 1998). CURASS succumbed to the pressure of competing interest groups and renamed the key learning area. The nature of this particular naming process proves that curriculum is always open to the competing interests of sectional groups.

The name of the HPE KLA in Queensland has not been raised for discussion. The assumption could be made that all involved in the development of the syllabus accepted the status quo of the terms in the title. However, the inclusion of the traditional subject areas encompassed in the key learning area caused some discussion. Evidence of this appears in one of the case studies expanded upon in Chapter 5.

2.4.3 A brief historical analysis of curriculum construction in health and physical education in Queensland (1980–99)

Several curriculum developments have been described briefly in prior text; however, it is necessary to investigate the historical and socio-political arena surrounding such progression, and regression, in Queensland between 1980 and 1999. Originally it was my intention to provide a historical account of curriculum developments over the last decade but further consideration deemed it necessary to go beyond that to include the developments in health education and physical education in the 1980s. Enormous changes took place in health and physical education during this time, although it is significant to mention that the 1972 Health and Physical Education Curriculum
Guide remained the mandatory document for primary schools. But what was behind this? It also poses questions about curriculum priorities and possible contention and debate in curriculum advancements in this area. Thus, the notion of the involvement by competing interest groups in curriculum construction is raised.

Kirk (1994, p. 47) believes that the ‘excavation’ of a learning area involves ‘identifying crucial episodes in the process of constructing the meaning’ of it. He also contends it is necessary to note ‘the social positionality and vested interests of the people whose utterances have become part of the received wisdom of the field’. Only then will the examination illustrate the ‘continuities and discontinuities’ in curriculum construction and implementation. The positioning of health and physical education in Queensland, foregrounded in Section 2.3.1, illustrates such continuities and discontinuities. The common divide between, and occasional combination of, health education and physical education has been noted in the definitions attached to the curriculum developments. It is appropriate to this thesis to ‘excavate’ the health and physical education curriculum construction in Queensland over the years 1980–99.

Health education policy construction and publication surpassed physical education in curriculum development during this time. The Health Education Curriculum Guide (HECG), Years 1–7, was introduced into schools in 1982. The construction of supporting sourcebooks and materials followed in 1984. These were published and distributed to schools (in draft form) in 1988. This document was instrumental in creating a new vision in health curriculum, moving health education (HE) away from the disease/topic approach to a conceptual approach that identified key concepts underpinning HE. HECG also contained a ‘Scope of the Content’ for Years 1–12 HE, displaying the overall sequence of learning. Teachers were encouraged to take the broader view of the school setting, recognising the curriculum, the environment and services available, as well as community influences. HE became a more process-oriented learning environment asking children to develop skills in health actions (Kennedy 1998).

On the other hand, according to curriculum developments at the time, physical education in the primary school had been seemingly directionless. As stated
previously, the 1972 guide remained the mandated curriculum. Thus, the lack of
development had an effect on the quality of learning experiences in physical
education taught in Queensland schools between 1980 and 1994. It has been noted
that Queensland adopted de facto curriculums during this time, including the Daily
Physical Education Program, developed in South Australia, and Aussie Sport
programs, developed by the Australian Sports Commission.

*The Daily Physical Education Program* (DPE), published in 1982 by ACHPER,
provided daily fitness and skill lessons for classroom teachers (no physical education
experience was necessary). Seven volumes were developed, one for each year of
primary school. Four content areas formed the basis of the lessons, including dance,
movement exploration, games skills and swimming (Department of Education, South
Australia 1982). The uptake of the DPE in Queensland was colossal. In the same
year, the Department of Education, Queensland, attempted to construct a
contextualised DPE program for Queensland schools entitled *Daily 15/30 Physical
Education – Guidelines for the Primary School* (Department of Education,
Queensland 1985). However, due to the suggested time allocation of 225 minutes per
week to the program, without health and sport, the Daily 15/30 PE program never
reached publication or mandate (Walmsley 1999). The South Australian DPE became
the de facto Queensland curriculum and, possibly, the de facto national curriculum.

Aussie Sport(s) was an additional de facto physical education curriculum in
Queensland schools. Aussie Sport packages, under the direction of the Australian
Sports Commission and supported by ACHPER, became available to schools (in draft
form) from 1984. These packages promoted sports-based physical education
programs to be used in conjunction with DPE. Teaching manuals and workbooks for
30 modified sports were produced, and consequent coaching courses were established
Sport initially aimed their developments at the primary school, however expanded
their coverage from early childhood to secondary schools in the 1990s. Research into
schools participation in Aussie Sports has shown up to 55 per cent national adoption
(Walmsley 1999). It appears that these developments, too, have permeated
Queensland’s lack of mandated progress in primary school physical education.
A new secondary school curriculum was produced in 1984 entitled *Health and Physical Education – Guidelines for Secondary Schools* (SHAPE). However, it again divided the two disciplines of HE and PE. Health education followed the concept approach used by primary schools in the HECG. However, subject matter and suggested activities needed to be identified, as the conceptual approach was a new method of teaching in secondary schools. The physical education component also developed with conceptual approaches as units were planned around topics such as force, energy requirements and fitness. This was a groundbreaking document promoting a shift from traditional teaching strategies and experiences to integrating content and skills. It proved to be a rather difficult document to apply because it required subject renewal exercise by teachers involved, thus a great deal of staff development and assistance was needed. Limited support structures and funding were provided which resulted in an inability to fulfil the document’s demands. The authorities at the time — the Queensland Department of Education and the National Party government — disagreed with the ideology of the document and were extremely cautious about its use (Kennedy 1998).

The status of primary school physical education was to be re-established in 1987 with the development of the *Physical Education Syllabus and Guidelines Years 1–7*. The syllabus was modelled on the SHAPE document for secondary schools, promoting the conceptual approach to teaching and learning in health and physical education (Cain 1997). Physical education was planned under organising centres including moving with control on land and in the air, rhythmic and expressive activities, and manipulating objects. Sourcebooks were constructed to support the syllabus. However, at about the same time, the notion of preschool to Year 10 (P–10) frameworks arose in the Queensland Department of Education (1987) as foundation to future policy and curriculum development. The *Physical Education Syllabus and Guidelines Years 1–7* did not reflect this concept and could not be mandated.

In 1989, following a change from a National Party government to a Labor government, Queensland created links between state and federal policies and endorsed several federal initiatives. The federal government was also Labor at this
time. One such compelling initiative was the Hobart Declaration on Schooling, which led to ministers of education forming the Australian Education Council (AEC). This body was responsible for the ‘Common and Agreed National Goals for Schooling in Australia’. These goals described the movement towards national unity. Marsh (1989, p. 71) further endorsed this by stating: ‘no longer is it a matter of should there be a national curriculum, but rather what form shall it take and when’. The national curriculum would set guidelines for essential learnings for all Australian schools. Goal No. 9 states: ‘to provide for the physical development and personal health and fitness of students for the creative use of leisure time’ (AEC 1989, p. 10). Health and physical education was included as a general educational priority. However, the goal’s language was obscure in that it didn’t define whether HE and PE should be regarded as one integrated set of learnings or as divided disciplines.

The P–10 framework supported the national initiatives. HPE in Queensland became one of the key learning areas, uplifting the status of the subject and the teachers involved. No longer were PE and HE considered low priority. The curriculum framework for HPE was developed, published and distributed to schools in 1990. Syllabus development was to follow. Draft syllabi were developed in the two disciplines, separating HE and PE once more, although attempting to break down barriers between the two and encouraging integrated learning. The overall emphasis of the HPE KLA was lifestyle management. Unfortunately, these developments were to be shelved in February 1991, after a moratorium was declared on all curriculum development until a review to be undertaken by Hughes (1992) was completed. The review was entitled Managing Curriculum Development in Queensland, and approximately five years of curriculum development was put on hold awaiting the review process.

In 1992, it was reported that the P–10 framework was to cease and be replaced with P–12 (Preschool to Year 12) curriculum process. Other focus points were to highlight key competencies, make links with post-compulsory education and continue support for centralised control over curriculum development (Macdonald and Brooker 1992). At the same time, the Report of the Senate Inquiry into Physical and Sport Education (The Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia 1992) was released. The
evidence collected displayed support for physical education but a decline in resources and time allocation in schools across Australia. As a consequence, limited opportunities for student participation were reported and thus a decline in children’s skills and physical fitness.

During the years to follow, 1993–94, the Board of Senior Secondary School Studies Queensland (BSSSSQ) employed writers to construct two new senior (Years 11 and 12) syllabi under the disciplines of Health Education and Physical Education. Previous to this decision a review on senior syllabuses was undertaken (BSSSQ 1990). The emergence of the two separate disciplines was linked closely to trends in HPE in Australia and New Zealand, and tertiary education requirements. Funding, resources and the number of student enrolments were also influential in their construction (BSSSSQ 1990).

Later in 1993 the Curriculum Corporation developed *A Statement in Health and Physical Education for all Australian Schools*, a document initially in draft form as part of the National Curriculum Guidelines in Health and Physical Education for all Australian Schools. The development of the statement document was problematic due to difficult timelines placed upon the writers and the uncertainty of the name of the key learning area (as mentioned in Section 2.3.2). The statement document integrated the two disciplines, asking the stakeholders to shift in their vision to encourage a more social view of the development of lifestyle behaviours in health education and physical education. In 1993, the draft document supporting the statement and providing a reporting format entitled *Health and Physical Education — A Curriculum Profile for Australian Schools* was developed. Publication and distribution of these documents followed in 1994 (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b).

At the same time, Professor Ken Wiltshire, chairman of ‘Shaping the Future’ review on curriculum in Queensland, reported that the eight key learning areas were to be employed in curriculum development and school structures. The report detailed time allocation and mandated key learning areas for the junior secondary school. Implications of this report brought about much resistance in education; however, it
again supported the P–10 framework where HPE has since become a mandated learning for students (Wiltshire, McMenamin and Tolhurst 1994).

Supporting the introduction of the national guidelines for curriculum development in 1994 was the National Professional Development Program (NPDP) established and funded by the Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET, now titled DEETYA). NPDP funded a project that focused on the implementation of the HPE KLA in Queensland and Victoria. This project, which ran from 1994–96, offered a unique opportunity in the history of the health and physical education fields to generate new forms of curricula through processes of partnership and collaboration that included teachers, state education administrators and curriculum developers, researchers and teacher educators, professional associations and other interested organisations (Kirk 1996, p. 5).

The project was entitled 'Reviewing Curriculum in the Health and Physical Education Key Learning Area: A Model for Professional Development Using the Health and Physical Education Statement and Profile for Australian Schools'. It took on different roles within the time frame illustrated in Figure 2.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>School-based teacher inquiry (action research) whereby teachers undertook the process of developing awareness of the statement and profiles and applied them within their school programs. Workshops were run to support teachers (professional development).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.2 Key activities in NPDP (1994–96) (Adapted from Kirk 1996, p. 6)

Several management groups were organised in the operation of the program. These groups were the National Project Management Group, the Workshop Management Group and the Data Management Group. As their titles suggest, all performed separate functions to ensure the smooth running of the program. A state coordinator and school liaison officers were appointed to support the management groups and
were responsible for the day-to-day organisational activities and were directly involved with the schools. This project opened communication between curriculum development and professional development — an experience that was advantageous for Queensland schools. Penney (1998 p. 13) reported that the NPDP project created and sustained professional communities and that ‘the NPDP school projects showed with time, direction and support a teacher-inquiry approach to professional development can facilitate notable advances in teaching and thinking practices’.

During this same period curriculum development structures in Queensland came under review with a change of state government in 1995. Proposed developments in other key learning areas applying the national guidelines ceased to operate until new direction was given. New structures were established specifically for curriculum development, including the Queensland Curriculum Council and Queensland Schools Curriculum Office, who held ambiguous roles awaiting the review process. However, during 1996, under an interim standing, both structures progressed with developments. In February 1997, a newly titled Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC) became a statutory body responsible for all curriculum construction in compulsory years of schooling (Years 1–10). This intersystemic body was to act in curriculum construction (and not implementation) in Queensland for the three education systems: Education Queensland, Queensland Catholic Education Commission and the Association of Independent Schools Queensland. The Board of Senior Secondary School Studies, Queensland (BSSSSQ) had previously operated as an intersystemic body although with different purposes and jurisdictions.

A new syllabus for the P–10 HPE KLA became a priority because of the limited existence of current Queensland programs. HPE was being practiced but on a number of syllabi and resources. The process by which the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus took place was unique. A new intersystemic structure for compulsory years of schooling was introduced and new procedures for curriculum construction were therefore necessary. The HPE KLA syllabus development (alongside the Science KLA syllabus construction) began in June 1996 under the direction of QSCC. A project chair and three writers were chosen to start the design brief outlining the literature review and components of the proposed syllabus. Six months into the project another three writers were added to the team to assist in the construction
process. The writers were faced with integrating the two disciplines of HE and PE, lobbying from their professional groups, the political fracas of tight timelines, and lack of guidance in time allocation and common structures across key learning areas in curriculum development.

The project team was located at the QSCC office and all developments were under their auspices. QSCC was in turn answerable to the state minister of education. Developments were also taken to an advisory committee representing teachers of the three systems, as well as university representatives and members of the competing interest groups of Home Economics and Sport Education. A large consultative network was formed in the initial stages of construction with approximately 120 members. Many of these were interested teachers from Queensland schools. Sixty-two schools were involved in the trial process of the syllabus, held between July 1997 and June 1998. A case study examining the construction of the syllabus is expanded on in Chapter 5. Figure 2.3 outlines the structures involved in the construction process.
Implementation of the Years 1–10 Health and Physical Education syllabus (QSCC 1999) is still in progress in many Queensland schools. As an intersystemic body QSCC is to have no involvement in implementation although can develop support materials to assist teachers. They include a sourcebook guidelines, modules of units and teacher-based initial in-service materials. A consortium of health and physical education professionals, under the coordination of Education Queensland, tendered to produce the professional development and training materials, which have been circulated to all schools.

During this same year, the Hobart Declaration on Schooling National Goals originally set in 1989 was revised and the Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling
in the Twenty-First Century (MCEETYA 1999) was proposed. Of great importance
to the construction of this key learning area was the following statement:

In terms of curriculum, students should have:
attained high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding
through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the compulsory
years of schooling encompassing the agreed eight key learning areas:
• the arts;
• english;
• health and physical education;
• languages other than English;
• mathematics;
• science;
• studies of society and environment;
• technology;
  and the interrelationships between them. (MCEETYA 1999, p. 2)

The identity and meaning of health and physical education was further instilled as an
integral component of a child’s compulsory years of schooling.

Developments in HPE in Queensland over the period 1980–99 have been summarised
chronologically in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 A summary of curriculum developments in Queensland, 1980–99

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1982 | • Health Education Curriculum Guide, Years 1–7, (HECG) developed.  
      | • Draft Daily 15/30 Physical Education constructed for Queensland schools.  
      | • Daily Physical Education curriculum in use. |
| 1984 | • Health Education Curriculum Guide, Years 1–7, sourcebooks developed.  
      | • Additional de facto curriculum for physical education: Aussie Sport.  
      | • Secondary Health and Physical Education Guidelines, Years 8–10 (SHAPE) developed. |
| 1987 | • Draft Physical Education Syllabus and Guidelines, Years 1–7, developed for Queensland schools.  
      | • P–10 Framework introduced — a general framework including Health and Physical Education as a KLA |
| 1989 | • Hobart Declaration on Schooling — introduction of national curriculum.  
<pre><code>  | • Goal No. 9: ‘to provide for the physical development and personal health and fitness of students for the creative use of leisure time’ |
</code></pre>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
• Draft syllabus in senior health education.  
• Draft syllabus in senior physical education.  
• Draft policies in sport education and outdoor education |
| 1992 | • Hughes’ report released: P–10 to cease, replace with P–12; key competencies to be identified, links with post-compulsory education and centralised control over curriculum development. |
| 1993 | • Senior secondary health education in trial.  
• Senior secondary physical education syllabus in trial.  
• Draft national curriculum guidelines — statement and profile in HPE developed. |
| 1994 | • Prof. Ken Wiltshire’s report *Shaping the Future* released.  
• Publication of statement and profiles.  
• National Professional Development Program established in HPE. |
| 1995 | • Senior secondary health education syllabus in pilot.  
• Senior secondary physical education syllabus in pilot.  
• NPDP in HPE operating in schools. |
| 1996 | • NPDP in HPE operating in schools (final year).  
• Writers appointed to develop new P–10 syllabus in HPE under direction of QSCO.  
• Syllabus design brief and framework developed. |
| 1999 | • HPE KLA 1–10 syllabus published and released to schools.  
• Support materials: Initial in-service materials for teachers, sourcebook guidelines, unit modules and professional development and training CD-Rom.  
• The Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-First Century names health and physical education as a key curriculum area. |

This table summarises, in Kirk’s (1994) terms, ‘crucial episodes’ in the history of health and physical education curriculum construction in Queensland. The de-construction of these episodes has outlined the ‘social positionality and vested interests’ of various competing groups that have shaped the meaning and identity of health and physical education. Indeed, considerable debate and upheaval has occurred at the construction level which, in turn, has had an effect in Queensland.
classrooms. Walmsley’s (1999) research into physical education policy and practice in Queensland during the period from 1972–92, shows teachers’ rejection and ignorance of syllabus documents constructed during that time. I would argue that teachers’ voices are rarely considered in the curriculum change process, resulting in what Walmsley (1999, p. 285) calls ‘policy-practice failure’.

2.5 Curriculum change

As noted previously the curriculum, characterised by knowledge, interaction and context, is influenced by many factors, including the learner, the institution, and the society (Kirk 1988). These factors, singly or jointly, may initiate the need for curriculum change. Essentially curriculum change implies a level of metamorphosis in the overall plan of education, including teachers and their ideologies. Change occurs where there is a modification to the knowledge considered relevant, interaction between learners change, or the context is altered. However, many forces will have an impact on the interaction of the learners, institutions and society shaping the curriculum change. Indeed one of the most active forces is government political decision making. There is ample evidence that the current government political parties are an influential factor in reshaping or redefining the curriculum of our schools. For instance, as noted above, Wiltshire’s ‘Shaping the Future’ report proposed significant changes for Queensland schools in 1994 but due to a change of state government, proposed strategies were modified or dropped.

However, if curriculum change or modification is to benefit students, it will not only need to include what will be taught in the classroom but also must impact on the teacher’s beliefs and practices (Hargreaves 1995; Fullan 1991). Indeed, Sparkes (1990) contends that by curriculum change we are faced with the paradox of ‘innovation without change’ and ‘change without innovation’. While innovation is any idea, practice or material perceived to be new by the relevant unit of adoption, it does not necessarily involve change (Sparkes 1990). Sparkes also suggests there are different levels of change. They range from surface change (relatively easy) to real change (very difficult) along a continuum (Figure 2.4).
SURFACE CHANGE (relatively easy)

Level 1
The use of new and revised materials and activities, for instance, direct instructional resources such as curriculum packs.

Level 2
The use of new skills, teaching approaches, styles and strategies, that is, changes in teaching practices with attendant changes in the teaching role.

Level 3
Changes in beliefs, values, ideologies and understanding with regard to pedagogical assumptions and themes. This can involve a major reorientation of philosophy and image.

REAL CHANGE (very difficult)

Figure 2.4 Levels of change (Sparkes 1990, p. 4)

Surface change is easily recognised when teachers adopt kits, videos and texts. Change in content alone in these media has little or no impact on a teacher’s beliefs, values or teaching philosophy. For change that is more than surface level, teachers must choose to have the comfort zones of not only their practices but also their ideologies challenged and ultimately altered. However, the time and energy involved in attempting to disturb a teacher’s comfort zones may prove a negative factor in attaining real change. Real change involves ‘loss and struggle’ (Fullan 1991, p. 31).

There is a subjective element to real change and not all teachers will desire to take up this challenge. Even if teachers do want real change, they will have expectations placed upon them and their practices while operating within their ‘classroom press’ (Huberman in Fullan 1991, p. 33). Thus, the daily demands of the classroom and personal commitments of teachers are important considerations when adding to their work or introducing changes to it. Daily in the school environment they experience the ‘press for immediacy and concreteness, the press for multidimensionality and simultaneity, the press for adapting to everchanging conditions and unpredictability and the press for personal involvement with students’ (Huberman in Fullan, 1991, pp. 33–4). Indeed, teachers are already ‘saturated selves’ (Gergen 1991). These factors affect teachers in many ways. For instance, their attention is drawn to ‘day-to-day
effects’ and, in turn, they become isolated from other adults, their energies are limited and sustained reflection becomes difficult (Huberman in Fullan, 1991, pp. 33-4).

There can be a high personal cost to teachers when any innovation that leads to real change is implemented. It might also be questioned whether the innovations are worth the added personal investment when there is little hope of immediate returns. Implementations become ‘acts of faith. They require that one believe that they will ultimately bear fruit’ (House in Fullan 1991, p. 34).

Furthermore, teachers experience greater demands on their energy and time required learning new skills or roles associated with innovations. Serious consideration of such personal costs is a useful index to the resistance that could be encountered from teachers. Without diminishing the importance of the personal costs to teachers’ daily lives, perhaps an even greater challenge to innovation lies in the changes in teachers’ values, beliefs and ideologies. Guskey (1986, p. 7) contends that real change will occur only when students’ enhanced learning outcomes are ultimately evident in the classrooms. Allen and Glickman (1998, p. 520) support Guskey saying: ‘staying focused on students is a constant battle’ in a change process. The focus is on procedure rather than purpose. Likewise, Hargreaves (1998, pp. 572-74) states that the ‘emotions of teaching’, including bonds between teachers and students, are influential in the change process.

These notions of influences in the educational change process have implications for the implementation phase. A time lapse is common before enhanced student learning becomes evident. Early efforts by teachers may bring no instant results. This in turn has an effect on teacher resistance arising in both introduction and implementation phases. Nonetheless, the resistance may be largely due to lack of recognition of their daily subjective realities and the practical nature of change.

The policy-makers, curriculum writers and administrators may propose a model for change but essentially construction and implementation must evolve within the daily grind of teachers’ work and take into account the emotionality of change.
2.5.1 Models of change

A review of the literature displays no shortage of models recommending the most effective method of promoting and producing change to reshape education. Consideration of the broad range of curriculum stakeholders is necessary when examining models of change. Brady and Kennedy (1999, p. 3) state the content and function of curriculum is ‘both a social and personal construct’. Thus, models of change should appropriate all stakeholders, including students, teachers, parents, administrators, school communities, school systems, state and federal governments, and societal issues and values. Nonetheless, several of the models promote a top-down, procedural and centralised approach to change with little input from classroom teachers. Conversely, a model may promote a personal and individual approach to curriculum change. It is also significant to question the models’ support for the literature characterising ‘real change’. Commonly applied models of change within educational institutions are examined on the following pages.

Research, development and diffusion model

This model outlines the approach largely employed in curriculum development in Australia in the 1960s. Essentially, the model involves outside agencies (specialist staff) to research, develop and disseminate the curriculum. Components of the model are:

a) Invention or discovery of innovation;

b) Development (working out problems);

c) Production and packaging; and

d) Dissemination to mass audience.

(Edwards 1990, p. 15)

This is a centre-periphery model of change where there is centralised control over curriculum construction and minimal input from teachers (Kirk 1988; Deakin University 1995). It might also be coined a ‘top-down’ approach to change.

Problem-solving model

This model places the school at the centre. Staff share a problem-solving approach to monitor the needs of the school and continually modify the programs to suit those needs. Components of this model are:
a) Translation of need to problem;
b) Diagnosis of problem;
c) Search and retrieval of information;
d) Adaptation of innovation;
e) Trial; and
f) Evaluation of trial in terms of need satisfaction.
(Edwards, 1990, p. 15)

This model is advantageous in both designing unique programs specific to the school and community context and in promoting collaborative work cultures. It best represents what is known as 'bottom-up' change. However, because of the school emphasis, the quality of the work may not correlate with outside agencies' intent (Deakin University 1995).

Social interaction model
Developed by Havelock in 1971, this model displays a generalisation about the process of innovation diffusion. Havelock (1971) proposed the following stages:

a) Awareness of innovation;
b) Interest in it;
c) Evaluation of its appropriateness;
d) Trial; and
e) Adoption for permanent use.

Major criticisms of this model are the lack of specific methods of dissemination and that it is usually individual-based. However, it may reflect a realistic version of change, as teachers are generally involved in personalised social networks.

Concerns based adoption model (CBAM)
In the 1970s and 80s, the University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education proposed the CBAM as a method of implementing educational innovations (Anderson 1997). CBAM provides a model for understanding the affective and behavioural aspects of change as reflected in the underpinning assumptions:

a) change is a process, not an event;
b) change is accomplished by individuals;
c) change is a highly personal experience;

d) change involves developmental growth in feelings and skills; and

e) change can be facilitated by interventions directed toward the individuals, innovations, and contexts involved.

(Anderson 1997, p.333)

The model has three dimensions for conceptualising and measuring change: stages of concern, levels of use, and innovation configurations. However, all of these focus only on the individual.

The paths between phases of innovation and change

Many noted researchers (Berman and Laughlin 1976; Fullan 1991, Scott 1999) on models of innovation and change have identified similarities. A common agreement has been reached on three broad phases that form part of the change process — the beginning (mobilisation), middle (implementation) and end (continuance) of the innovation, with the ultimate goal of achieving an outcome. The beginning, or Phase I, (variously labelled initiation, mobilisation or adoption) has been depicted as the stages leading up to the decision to proceed with change. The middle, or Phase II, (implementation or initial use) involves the translation of the innovation into practice. The end of the innovation, or Phase III, (continuation or institutionalisation) refers to whether the change has become a formal part of the system or has been ignored.

Fullan and Park (1981) claim that change is a process, not an event. Figure 2.5 shows how Fullan (1991, p. 48) has represented this process.

INITIATION <-> IMPLEMENTATION <-> CONTINUATION <-> OUTCOME

**Figure 2.5 Fullan’s change process**

Although, the diagram may be interpreted as a linear progression of stages, that is not the true emphasis Fullan suggests. This process proposes that change is very much an interwoven web of influential factors that may progress smoothly through a series of various stages, or revert to the initial stage. Fullan (1991) has identified the main factors and their influence as listed below.

**Phase I: Initiation**

The concept of initiation raises the question, ‘Who develops or initiates the change?’

It may be the result of planned (mandated) change or the influence of a single person
within the school environment. Many factors will influence this initial idea. These will either provide support or create barriers to the mobilisation of the idea. Berman and McLaughlin’s model (1976) identifies four basic patterns of support, existing singly or in combination, in Phase I. They are:

- Opportunism, the response within an organisation to innovate as a result of funds or political demand;
- Top-down, where the innovation is taken on by authority figures within the organisation and passed down;
- Grass roots, where a specific group of persons develop and apply the innovation; and
- Broad-based support, where all stakeholders directly involved are participants in the initiation phase (in Tester, 1991).

These bases of support are essentially the sites in which the change is initiated or what Marsh (1997) has titled the ‘orientation phase’. Fullan’s list of factors relevant to the initiation phase further expands upon Berman and McLaughlin’s list by providing specific sites and concerns. Fullan (1991, pp. 50-61) identifies eight factors. They are:

1. Existence or quality of innovations — what is available to the school, what support exists within the system, clarity of innovations, needs of the school.
2. Access to information — individual teachers lack access to professional development and networks due to the subjective realities of teaching and isolation within regions.
3. Advocacy from central administrators — support from school systems, central authorities.
4. Teacher advocacy — teachers may give priority to adoption of individualistic innovations due to lack of time or energy to support others.
5. External change agents — regional and state coordinators play an important role.
6. Community pressure/support/opposition/apathy — growth in school population may initiate change, religious parental communities may influence change within the school, and in some communities there may be no support.
7. New policy and funds — government plays a huge role in reform in relation to funding available or policies are too general which may lead to difficulties in implementation.

8. Problem-solving and bureaucratic orientations — school systems may wish to become involved in the initiation because of funding and the building up of resources.

However, consideration of all of the above listed influences and support mechanisms is necessary to ensure the change process is favourable. Temporal constraints are an additional factor not taken into account in these lists.

Individual institutions will need to decide upon the best procedure to investigate and introduce the change. Participation by persons involved may be an issue resulting in positive and negative responses. Positively, involvement by all those who will be influenced by the change promotes confidence and ownership of the implementation phase. Negatively, persons involved may lose interest in the implementation phase due to the heavy investigation required in the initiation. Fullan (1991, pp. 63–4) has devised three stages for best beginnings. It involves the three Rs — Relevance, Readiness and Resources. *Relevance* can be best described as the need or practicality of the innovation: What does it really have to offer to students and teachers? *Readiness* refers to the school or institution’s capability of initiating, developing and adopting the innovation, which must be approached in terms of individual and organisational aspects. *Resources* describe both physical and human resources needed to support the change process. Thus, the following questions become important.

For the individual person:

- Does the innovation fulfil a personal need?
- Does the individual have the necessary background to the innovation?

For the organisation:

- Does the school have the resources — material and personnel?
- Will it suit the ethos and culture of the school?

While it is obvious that the above-mentioned three Rs should all be planned prior to implementation, it is sometimes necessary to see how the process progresses and build from these issues.
**Phase II: Implementation**

The initiation phase has direct implications for the success of the implementation phase. Resistance is likely to be encountered. Implementation is neither 'automatic nor certain' (Berman and McLaughlin 1976, p. 352). This inter-factional process is open to fluctuation and confusion. Berman and McLaughlin (1976) have explained this by establishing three likely events that occur in Phase II. They are:

1. Non-implementation: where persons involved do not continue to apply the innovation.
2. Co-optation: where innovation is adopted by authority figures and stakeholders are co-opted into applying the new ideas/methods.
3. Mutual adaptation: where innovation is been modified to suit daily practices of the stakeholders, and stakeholders alter beliefs, values and ideologies to meet the needs of the new organisational structure.

(in Tester 1991, p. 12)

(Real) Implementation promoting the process of 'real change' occurs at level three of Sparkes’ model (see Figure 2.4). Fullan and Park (1981, p. 10) define real implementation as 'consisting of alterations from existing practice to some new or revised practice (potentially involving materials, teaching and beliefs) in order to achieve certain desired student learning outcomes'.

Common (1981) provided an early base for Fullan (1991) by recognising the implementation processes as involving the teachers and schools to translate and interpret the curriculum according to their own needs, and to accommodate their skills, expectations and values. It is a dynamic process shaped through time. Common (1981, pp. 43–44) also identifies five characteristics of the curriculum that effect implementation:

1. The status quo — curriculum change that is radical and involves extreme shifts in ideologies is likely to lead to resistance.
2. Complexity — change that requires substantial changes in practice will not be employed.
3. Clarity — interpretation of the curriculum must be clear to all persons directly affected by its process — teachers, students, administrators etc.
4. Practicality — curriculum must apply to and meet current needs of the teachers involved.
5. Comparative advantage — curriculum must improve teachers’ current practices, different from what is already included in daily practices.

Fullan (1991) supports Common’s characteristics but feels they are oversimplified in that they do not take into consideration the local factors — such as school systems, the community, the principal and the teachers — and the external factors — government and other agencies. Fullan groups Common’s factors under the heading ‘Characteristics of change’, and further identifies key themes that have occurred within successful change processes providing a more lifelike description of its essential components. The themes are outlined in Figure 2.6.

**Figure 2.6 Key themes in improvement** (Fullan 1991, p. 82)

In brief, vision building permeates all themes. It identifies the values, beliefs and purposes within the proposed improvement and is shared by all persons of the school. Additionally, it involves the role of management in the change process. A supplementary theme — evolutionary planning — involves modification of the planning process according to the developments or reverse actions that may arise. It
should be a collaborative process combining top-down drive and bottom-up participation. Initiative-taking and empowerment is power sharing. Support is given to all members and promotion of collegiality is emphasised. Staff development and resource assistance is an integral part of change. However, training is essential throughout the whole of the process, not just in implementation. As Fullan (1991, p. 86) states: ‘People can and do change, but it requires social energy’. Institutions need to provide the opportunities for staff development to allow for this exchange and stimulation of energy. Monitoring/problem-coping does not refer to the evaluation of the change/improvement process. It involves continuous monitoring of the change process allowing for modifications and praise for successful innovation.

Restructuring includes organisational arrangements, roles, finance and school policies. Change may require the school to rearrange existing structures for effective innovation strategies to be employed. For example, time for team-teacher planning or alterations to timetable structures.

These themes are an interwoven web of desirable actions promoting successful and effective change. They display the change process as complex yet inspirational.

**Phase III: Continuation/institutionalisation**

Continuation is the transition of the innovation or change as it becomes embodied in regular operation of the organisation or its discontinuation. Funding, politics, formal institution systems, administrators, community and teachers may influence whether the innovation is institutionalised. All of the issues raised in the initiation and implementation phases will impinge on this acceptance or rejection.

Miles (1983) has developed a model of the institutionalisation variables, displaying both supportive and threatening agencies and factors affecting the real process of continuation (Figure 2.7).
Miles investigated these variables in 12 case studies. He identified that where institutions planned the support variables, successful continuation resulted. Thompson and Deer (1989) investigated the variables within the New South Wales secondary curriculum. They discovered that several of the variables had greater impact on the teachers of the schools. Ownership of the curriculum change process, support provided (both material and human) and commitment from the administration of the school proved to be the most influential. Fruitful change occurred only when these variables were planned.

Improvement within schools and classrooms is a continuous process embedding change within its practices, whether initiated internally or externally mandated. Continuation is problematic and is dependent upon the socio-cultural and political interactions in changing of the curriculum.
Partnership Model of Change

The process-partnership model of curriculum construction and planning explained in Section 2.2, involves ‘across-boundary collaboration’ (Fullan 1999, p.61). Due to this collaborative focus, the methods employed in the process of change need to reflect this. As stated previously, all parties are hoped to have a voice in the construction and implementation process and hence there is a need for various advisory committees and consultative groups. Feedback from these groups throughout the defined period of the change process shape, and sometimes transform, the reform materials (Kirk and Macdonald 2001). Hence there is a merging of ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ change processes. This model has been applied in the HPE National Professional Development Project (NPDP) and in the syllabus construction process at the Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC).

These models of change are situated temporally and are located spatially within varying and sometimes multiple sites of change. There is much fusion between the models of curriculum construction and implementation and the models of change. A key element in both of these processes is the micropolitical actions.

2.6 A micropolitical perspective of curriculum change

The consideration of ‘micropolitics’ builds a bridge between the two organisational worlds — one theoretical and research based, the other experiential (Ball 1987; Hargreaves 1995). Blasé puts forward the following view:

The micropolitical perspective on organisation provides a valuable and potent approach to understanding the woof and warp of the fabric of day-to-day life in schools. Micropolitics is about power and how people use it to influence others to protect themselves. It is about conflict and how people compete with each other to get what they want. It is about cooperation and how people build support among themselves to achieve their ends. It is about what people in all social settings think about and have strong feelings about, but what is so often unspoken and not easily observed. (Blasé and Anderson 1995, p. 12)

As indicated in this chapter, micropolitics cannot be discounted in any curriculum change process. Micropolitics will occur within and across sites of curriculum change. To interpret a micropolitical perspective of the change process, the key words are power, conflict and cooperation. Power, both constraining and liberating, may alter the behaviour of others (Corbett in Blasé 1991). Micropolitics is about the
use of authority and influence (Sparkes 1990), about who have ‘power over’, ‘power with’ or ‘power through’ individuals or groups (Blase and Anderson 1995). Conflict may result when people differ in their ideologies, values and beliefs and compete for positions. It may have a detrimental effect on power interactions by negatively influencing control or by questioning ideologies and roles. Conversely, conflict does not necessarily mean the tearing down of an organisational structure; it can be healthy to revitalise a stagnant system. Cooperation, on the other hand, is important in building support and is the basis for collegiality and good teaching:

Teaching collegiality and collaboration are not merely important for the improvement of morale and teacher satisfaction ... but are absolutely necessary if we wish teaching to be of the highest order (Shulman in Blase 1991, p. 47).

Hargreaves (1995) introduces a perspective on cooperation that he refers to as ‘contrived collegiality’. He suggests teachers’ working relationships are not flexible or development-oriented but administratively regulated, compulsory, implementation-oriented, fixed in time and space and predictable (ibid, pp. 195–96). These relationships do not effectuate change to the school culture but rather accomplish ineffective and fabricated collaboration. Cooper questions further the ownership of the school culture:

If teachers are told what to be professional about, how, where, and with whom to collaborate, and what blueprint of professional conduct to follow, then the culture that evolves will be foreign to the setting. They will once again have ‘received’ a culture¹. (Cooper in Hargreaves 1995, p. 189)

Such a culture will not be based upon collegiality and collaboration among the teachers. So for true collegiality and collaboration to exist, Hargreaves states it must be:

... deep, personal and enduring... not mounted just for specific projects or events ... not strings of one-shot deals. Cultures of collaboration are constitutive of, and absolutely central to, teacher’s daily work. (Hargreaves in Fullan 1991, p. 136)

Micropolitics involves the relationships negotiation that is the core of the collaboration and are central to the process of curriculum change in all environments (classroom, school, system etc.). They are the ‘woof and warp of the fabric of day-to-

¹ The term ‘culture’ refers to the values, beliefs, norms and habits of a particular educational site.
day life in schools’ (Blase & Anderson, 1995) and are fundamental to the prospect for 
real change.

2.7 Structuration theory and change

Much of the literature presented in the previous sections has been foregrounded on the 
understanding that the construction and implementation of syllabus-curriculum-policy 
is culture and context specific and thus shaped by social practices. Specifically, the 
literature displays the role of human agency (generally teachers in this case) and its 
interaction with educational structures, varying from syllabus-curriculum-policy to 
educational system conditions, as key features of the curriculum change process.

Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory provides an analytical framework to investigate 
such interaction.

Structuration theory proposes that the interaction between agency and structure is 
responsible for the production and reproduction of social practices. Giddens (1984) 
conceptualises the notion of ‘duality of structure’ to further explain this interaction 
and more specifically contends that structures are both the medium and outcome of 
human agency. Thus, structures are at the core of social practices and only come into 
being through them. In this case, structures, including syllabus-curriculum-policy, the 
institutional procedures, the school environment and polices, are the medium and 
outcome of human action. This conceptualisation is further explained in Chapter 3.

However, it is necessary to consider the existing applications of Giddens’ 
structuration theory framework and its possible application to curriculum 
construction, implementation and associated micropolitics within this thesis.

There is much flexibility in the application of structuration theory to research. 
Giddens (1984, pp. 326-27) openly states that ‘the concepts of structuration theory ... 
should for many research purposes be regarded as sensitising devices, nothing more’ 
and that ‘they may be useful for thinking about research problems and the 
interpretation of research results’. Such an open interpretation of structuration theory 
is evident in its existing applications as an analytical framework. Studies vary from 
larger societal issues of unemployment (Burman 1988), administrative power in 
bureaucracies (Dandeker 1990), and gender (Connell 1987), to more specific site
applications in the pure-bred beef business (Smith 1983) and psychiatric diagnosis (Spasser 1998). Nonetheless, several researchers have applied the concepts of structuration theory in the larger field of ‘change’. Again a cross-section of sites has evolved, ranging from communication, technology, organisational climate, organisation change and educational change. All studies focus on the interactional nature of agency and structure. The following paragraphs expand on structuration theory’s applicability to ‘change’ studies.

Most recent is the use of structuration theory in the field of communication. Hickey and Fitzclarence (2000) have proposed ‘conversational flow’ as a teaching strategy to access common understandings about risk-taking and anti-social behaviour within peer groups. The strategy is designed to provide the opportunity for adolescents, specifically young males, to speak, be heard and be supported, in an effort to express personal and collective knowledge and deal constructively with emotional content. Hickey and Fitzclarence (2000, p. 83) state: ‘Our development of “conversational flow” has been influenced by Giddens’ structuration theory (1984) and attempts to develop a communication method that works at the interface between wider structural discourses, such as risk-taking, and specific actions taken by individuals/groups’. Emphasis here is on the interplay between adolescents and constructs of risk-taking and anti-social behaviour. Such constructs only come into being via human action.

Although technology can be classified as a form of communication, this has not been the emphasis of applying structuration theory within technological settings. Rather it has been the interactional nature of technology that has been emphasised. Orlikowski and Robey (1991) present an in-depth study of technology as a social phenomenon. They suggest that the consequences of technology are social and material and investigated this notion within system development of technology and in the implementation of technology. They contend that technology has a dual nature: information technology shapes human action through its structural properties, and at the same time is a product of human action that has been developed out of institutional properties. Technology is both the medium and the outcome of human action. Orlikowski and Robey (1991, p. 151) state ‘... technology is an “occasion” for structuring because its presence provokes human interactions that may
subsequently effect revised social structures'. Thus, technology may ‘change’ social practices. Orlikowski (1992) further extends this study and coins the term ‘duality of technology’ to reflect its dual nature and possibility of change:

The view of technology as an occasion for structural change provides insight into how the socio-historical context influences the interaction of humans around the use of a technology ... [its] construction ... [and] reflects social interests and motivations. (Orlikowski 1992, p. 423)

In a further study of technology, Contractor, Seibold and Heller (1996) investigated how perceptions of media (software programs) emerge. They contend (1996, p. 473) that ‘... individuals do not form their opinions about media use in a vacuum ... differences in individuals interactionally influence one another'. Hence the social network and associated practices, including social interests and motivations as stated by Orlikowski (1992), are influential features in constructing perceptions of technology and in turn affects the implementation of technology.

Additionally, studies into organisational climate emphasise working conditions or work culture as interactional. Bastien, McPhee and Bolton (1995) studied the structuration of climate that highlights its active, social and practical sides. Themes were identified within the organisational climate that unified perspectives and beliefs of organisational members bound across time and space. The specific site of their case study occurred when a new chief executive officer was appointed to a company. Themes of trust, or what Giddens (1984) terms ‘ontological security of agents’, were investigated. Bastien, McPhee and Bolton put forward their point of view:

On the one hand, organisational climate is produced and reproduced through discourse between organisational members ... On the other hand, organisational climate is also a product of discourse among members of the organisation, so that climate emerges as structure and ‘reality’ through stories and descriptions, traded by insiders, of the organisation’s systems and processes. (Bastien, McPhee and Bolton 1995, p. 89)

Hence, themes within the organisational climate are both the medium and outcome of members (agent’s) actions. These actions represent the ‘background conversations’ in organisations and thus micropolitics are significant in organisational climate, as they are in curriculum change processes.
On a similar but larger scale, Howard and Geist (1995) investigated the structuration of organisational change as a result of a merger of companies. Structuration theory concepts proved fruitful in analysing the staff members’ responses and behaviours within the merger. Howard and Geist (1995, p. 111) state: ‘This theory of structuration suggests that organisational members are not merely subject to the structures of domination embodied in the organisation, but instead are active participants in creating those power structures’. The concepts of power and domination are highlighted here to reflect human agents’ interaction with organisational structures. Organisational members are knowledgeable and operative within organisational change and usually respond by feeling either empowered or powerless. Members take a stance or position that is appropriated by their response to contextual conditions (both temporal and spatial) of the merger. Howard and Geist (1995) likened this to ‘ideological positioning’ where staff members take on active or passive acceptance, or active or passive rejection, to a merger. Such an interpretation is applicable in curriculum change processes. Howard and Geist state:

Ideological positioning functions not only as a response to the merger, but also serves to produce and reproduce organisational structures that enhance or inhibit autonomy, identification, empowerment, and change. (Howard and Geist 1995, p. 129)

Essentially staff members’ positioning within the merger depicts the ‘degree to which they feel autonomous or dependent in this environment of change’ (Howard and Geist 1995, p. 119). Hence, human agents are knowledgeable and interact with structures to produce and/or reproduce social practices. Kirk (1986, 1989) discusses this in the study of educational practices.

In a study of a school based curriculum development (SBCD), Kirk (1986, p.298) proposed that

educational action never takes place in a social, cultural or political vacuum; the real possibility for change initiated by teachers is when they can learn to use the very structures which could constrain them to facilitate action which is closer to realising their own educational ideals.

Hence, there is acknowledgement of the duality of structure in curriculum development. In a later paper, Kirk (1989, p.45) states that structuration theory is a ‘key theoretical construct for curriculum inquiry’. He states that it provides a useful
device for studying the dialectics of knowledge, interaction and context and that the researcher too is part of the curriculum production and reproduction processes. Kirk (1998) then revisits the notion of ‘duality of structure’ to theorise its usefulness in understanding educational reform in light of other theories, such as those offered by Bernstein and Lave and Wegner.

Wallace (1991) too investigates educational reform in a small educational setting. The study of annual development plans, monitored by the Local Education Authority (LEA) in the United Kingdom, was the focus for Wallace (1991). He was interested in understanding the role of agency within the implementation of bureaucratic controls and believed that studying action in the schools and identifying contradictory interests would allow better understanding of policy implementation into new practices. ‘In particular it may enable us to explain how disjunctions may arise between policies as articulated and practices that result, without necessarily producing conflict’ (Wallace 1991, p. 398).

Wallace’s study was limited and shallow in its application of structuration-theory concepts to a confined school setting. However the interactional nature of policy implementation was explored, largely identifying that ‘this policy may inadvertently promote an interest in securing a high degree of control over development at school level ... [and is] linked to central government reforms’ (Wallace 1991, pp. 392–93). Thus, power, domination and politics are fundamental features of educational change. Wallace further states:

Actors at school level have an interest in translating policy statements originating outside the school into concrete practices in accordance with the beliefs and values of dominant individuals and groups ... so an increase in activity to promote internal development tends to promote an external interest in controlling the use of these resources according to the beliefs and values of dominant individuals and groups outside the school. (Wallace 1991, p. 388)

The interactional nature of policy implementation (in this case, resources within an educational change setting) is embedded within existing school structures and school community structures.
The studies presented above display flexibility in structuration theory application and yet limited application within the field of educational change, and more specifically within curriculum construction and implementation. Nonetheless, the studies presented outline structuration theory as *sensitising devices* in analysing the interactions and thus the production and reproduction of social practices. Chapter 3 further examines Giddens' (1984) structuration theory and its methodological adequacy for this thesis.

### 2.8 Summary

This chapter has provided a review of the themes in the literature pertinent to Queensland's health and physical education curriculum change. The identified themes provide the foundation for the two case studies discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. Most importantly, both case studies operate on the premise that syllabus-curriculum-policy are constructed and enacted upon in the same manner. They are culture and context specific and greatly influenced by stakeholders' values and beliefs, both individual and group. Syllabus-curriculum-policy are 'historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological and international' (Pinar et al. 1995, pp. 847–48). They are socially constructed fragments of knowledge selected by one generation to inform the next generation.

The role of the 'state' in syllabus-curriculum-policy construction and implementation is significant to this interpretation, and the two case studies. Key players in political, judicial and administrative institutions, in combination with the government of the day, are efficacious factors (Taylor et al. 1997). The 'state', at a particular point in time, has translated values, beliefs, and resources into statements of intent. Thus, syllabus-curriculum-policy are political instruments framing distinct meanings and directions. They are objects of political power.

Indeed, all of these factors are influential in curriculum change. Real change has been stated as 'changes in [teacher’s] beliefs, values, ideologies, and understanding with regard to pedagogical assumptions and themes' (Sparkes 1990, p. 4). Teachers are individual political entities shaping syllabus-curriculum-policy in their classrooms. It has also been noted that the institutionalisation of real change is more likely when
there is teacher ownership of the change process, human and material support, and commitment from administration. This in turn includes micropolitics. The understanding of power relationships, conflict and cooperation is necessary to prosper real change.

Structuration theory offers an analytical framework for the study of the interaction between human agents and structures in educational change. Specifically, curriculum, whether in construction or implementation, is both the medium and outcome of human action. This dual nature of curriculum is further discussed in Chapter 3.

In summing up, curriculum change in the two case studies is dependent upon the players, the situation, and the embedded historical, social and political structures. Structuration theory presents a conceptual framework that allows for sophisticated and comprehensive analysis of these features of change.
CHAPTER 3

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF STRUCTURATION THEORY IN CURRICULUM CHANGE

The study of day-to-day life is integral to analysis of the reproduction of institutionalised practices. (Giddens 1984, p. 282)

Since curriculum change necessitates individual actors (teachers and/or curriculum developers) working within institutional contexts (schools or educational bureaucracies), understanding the dialectic nature of such action required a theoretical framework that embraces such a dialectic. Giddens' (1984) structuration theory provides such a framework. Giddens' theories of agency and structure rescue some idea of society, its structures and social systems. He strongly rejects the entrenched 'dualisms' of social theory by focusing on the overlaps and confluence between agency (action) and structure. Structuration theory positions human existence as key to understanding social change. This convergence of human actors and society is confirmed in the statement: 'We have to grasp what I call the double involvement of individuals and institutions: we create society at the same time as we are created by it' (Giddens 1986, p. 11). Thus, Giddens contends that society is produced and reproduced through human action and rejects the notion that society has any hold over and above individuals.

Giddens' concepts of agency and structure are complementary to the research undertaken in both case studies. This chapter addresses Giddens' structuration theory and its potential methodological adequacy. The final chapters of this thesis address the potential insights of these concepts when applied to my sites of professional practice.
3.1 Introduction

Anthony Giddens is one of the most prolific writers of contemporary social theory. His work dates back to the early 1970s when he first demonstrated his concern over the subject/object dualism (Giddens 1971). Structuration theory is Giddens’ attempt to reconstruct social theory in response to dissatisfaction with the two branches of established thought: interpretive sociology and structural sociology. Giddens argues that interpretive theories, including hermeneutics, phenomenology and symbolic interactionism, do not sufficiently theorise the problems of institutional change and structural analysis because they assume too great a harmony between the individual and society. Additionally, he sees that neither structuralism nor functionalism adequately grasp the constitution of social life as produced by active human beings (Bryant and Jary 1991, Layder 1994, Tucker 1998). Thus Giddens’ formulation of structuration theory was to ‘put an end to each of these empire building endeavours’ (Giddens 1984, p. 2). He does not believe that structuration theory is a grand narrative contributing to the existing empires, but rather that it provides a set of sensitising concepts that might prove to be of use in social analysis generally, and social research in particular’ [my italics] (Layder 1994, p. 125).

Giddens’ basic unit of analysis is the recursive practice of social life: the daily drive to work, the staff meeting, the election of government and so on. This analysis extends to question the recurrent nature of these practices. Accordingly, the notions of agency (action) and society and how they are interdependent and interwoven are keys to his theory.

From a structuration theory perspective ‘social structures are both constituted by human agency, and yet at the same time are the very medium of this constitution’ (Giddens 1977, p. 121). In essence, his theory of structuration implies that a mutual dependency exits between agency and structure, what he terms duality of structure. He believes knowledgeable reflexive agents that are intrinsically involved with society produce action, and structures are cased within these actions: ‘They exist only in and through action, which produces, reproduces and changes them’ (Craib 1992, p. 112). Furthermore, Giddens believes that this interaction between agency and structure occurs within temporal and spatial zones. Thus, to enact the process of
curriculum change, participants must draw upon the existing curriculum programs, institutional structures and personal resources to shape their practices, all of which occur within the temporal constraints of the physical and social context of the institution.

At this point it is necessary to further define the duality of structure including the specific elements agency, structure, power, modalities within which duality of structure occurs and the centrality of time and space in structuration theory.

3.2 Duality of structure
The term ‘duality’ suggests that rather than being binary, structure has a dual nature. Structure is ‘internal’ to action and vice versa, and is unified in social practices — practices which Giddens believes are at the core of production and reproduction of social life. He sees the duality or non-binary nature of structure central to structuration.

Analysing the structuration of social systems means studying the modes in which such systems, grounded in the knowledgeable activities of situated actors who draw upon rules and resources in the diversity of action contexts, are produced and reproduced in interaction. (Giddens 1984, p. 25)

The duality of structure allows the analysis of both production of social life by human actors and the routine patterns of social life that occur in reproduction. Thus, ‘the structure or institutional properties of social systems are created by human action, and then serve to shape future human action. So human action can be seen on the one hand to constitute the institutional properties of social systems, yet on the other hand can be seen to be constituted by institutional properties’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, pp. 146–47). Cassell (1993, p. 12) concurs: ‘It is agents who bring structure into being and it is structure which produces the possibility of agency’.

3.2.1 Agency (action)
Giddens' notion of agency calls for a different understanding of how humans act in the social world. He positions the agent (human being) as reflexive, able to monitor day-to-day activities — what he terms as the duree of social practices (Giddens 1984). In doing so the agent produces and reproduces social practices by acting upon
structures. Human beings are knowledgeable and purposive agents who call upon personal experience and resources to act in particular contexts. This constitutes the recursive ordering of social practices (Giddens 1984). The monitoring of social practices, influenced by the agent’s rationality and motivation, are situated in time and space. They are bound by the physical and social contexts in which the individual acts. Additionally, actions have intended and unintended consequences.

The experiences and resources actors draw upon in activities are the medium by which to achieve specific intentions. At the same time, they are also the outcome (or unintended consequence) as the actor reinforces the structures by using them, therefore contributing to their reproduction (Layder 1994). When applied to curriculum, the guidelines are the medium from which teachers plan their daily classroom practices. At the same time (most likely unintentionally) teachers reinforce the value and status of the curriculum documents in their institution. This reiterates Giddens’ (1977) notion of social structures being the medium and outcome of interactions.

Giddens suggests that agency is composed at three levels. He uses these levels to explain social practices (Figure 3.1).

![Figure 3.1 Agency levels (Giddens 1984, p. 7)]

It is evident that Giddens makes a distinction between levels of consciousness and the unconscious. By consciousness he refers to ‘recall, as the means of recapitulating past experiences in such a way as to focus them upon continuity of action’ (Giddens 1984, p. 49). He further divides consciousness in analysing social practices. At the discursive-consciousness level the actor reflects upon and monitors actions, as well as gives rational accounts of those actions. She or he is able to recall and express verbally his/her behaviours and motivations. Practical consciousness allows the actor to ‘know’ what to do to produce and reproduce actions in a variety of contexts and
how to rationalise what is done. Giddens views practical consciousness as the most important component as it emphasises the continuous monitoring of social practices rather than discrete acts; reflexive self-monitoring sustaining continuity and flow of activity (Layder 1994; Tucker 1998). Actors will operate within both practical and discursive consciousness. There is no dividing line as the actor may be asked to provide a rational account of what action occurred (Giddens 1984).

The unconscious level is linked with memory traces as temporal mastery of human experience, much of which exists in the *duree* of action. However, Giddens (1984, p. 49) contends that the agent does not ‘have direct access’ to this recall due to ‘a negative bar of some kind inhibiting its unmediated corporation within reflexive monitoring of conduct, and more particularly, within discursive consciousness’. Thus, unconscious motives lie beneath consciousness and cannot be verbalised. However, wants/motives may have a generalised influence on actions and programs for action. For instance, Giddens (1984) contends that humans have unconscious motivations for security and trust, although this rarely motivates behaviour directly.

Giddens’ conceptualisation of *ontological security* as a sense of safety or comfort also considers the notions of security and trust. He defines it as ‘confidence and trust in the natural and social worlds as they appear to be, including the basic existential parameters of self and social identity’ (Giddens 1984, p. 375). Such interpretations are emotional and are positioned within the unconscious. Giddens emphasises that such confidence and trust relies on the routinisation of social practices, those that have been established from early childhood. A breaking of this routine may threaten the actor’s ontological security.

The link between routines and security needs further analysis. Firstly, human beings call upon rules and resources to re-enact general day-to-day practices, such as routinely following an order of activities within a certain time frame to get ready for work. Essentially this implies a ‘conservative nature of daily life’ (Cassell 1993, p. 14). Secondly, these routines are formed in ‘co-presence’, co-presence referring to face-to-face interactions. However, such interactions can threaten an actor’s security. Thus, Giddens suggests (through Goffman’s work on encounters) that individuals
cooperate in co-presence to reduce the possible risk to self in interactions. The establishment of trust is essential to ‘negotiate the routine of interpersonal engagements that are integral to the reproduction of social practices’ (Cassell 1993, p. 15). Hence Giddens states:

Ordinary day-to-day life – in greater or less degree according to context and vagaries of individual personality – involves an ontological security expressing an autonomy of bodily control and predictable routines. (Giddens 1984, p. 50)

This concept of routinisation of practices is grounded in practical consciousness — a continuous flow of conduct.

3.2.2 Structure

Structure in structuration theory differs to conventional approaches in sociology (Bryant and Jary 1991, Layder 1994). Structures are defined as rules and resources that actors draw upon in social practices. They exist ‘only as memory traces, the organic basis of human knowledgeability’ (Giddens 1984, p. 377). They are ‘subject-less’ as they can only be constituted in action. Thus, it is through structuration that structures come into being.

Rules are seen as the modus operandi of practice — ‘as techniques or generalisable procedures applied in the enactment/reproduction of social practices’ (Giddens 1984, p. 21). Moreover, rules may relate to the constitution of meaning or sanction modes of conduct (Giddens 1982). Rules are expressed first and foremost in practical consciousness and are the core of the knowledgeability of the human actor (Giddens 1984). Resources also form a component of the production and reproduction of social systems. Giddens contends that we cannot understand the notion of rules without resources. Resources are the medium through which rules are employed in social interactions. Two types of resources exist: allocative resources are material-based, such as environment and physical products of production/reproduction, that enable things to get done; and authoritative resources are complementary to allocative resources, are non-material and used to control or influence other human beings. Both of these sets of resources implicate power in social interactions (Giddens 1984, pp. 258–62). Such power ‘underpins a person’s ability to effect change in his or her social circumstance (their transformational capacity)’ (Layder 1994, p. 139). Thus,
structure enables human actors to make a difference. However, it also constrains action.

The constraining nature of structure has been well documented by the objectivist approach to social theory (for example, Parsons 1951; Marx and Engels 1968; Layder 1994). However, Giddens (1984, p. 25) contends that structure is both enabling and constraining. Orlikowski and Robey (1991, p. 147) in support of Giddens' interpretation state: 'the structural properties established by prior human action come to define and shape individuals' interaction, which in return recreates the structural properties anew'. Therefore it is recognisable that structure is not a barrier to action but part of its production — the duality of structure. This conception implies that the same structural characteristics are evident in the actor and in society, occurring simultaneously. Structure forms personality and society at the same time. Thus, structure is conceived to acknowledge both subjective and objective features, although is closer to humanist version (subjective) interpretations.

Taking the interpretation of structure as being 'subject-less' and therefore having 'virtual existence' (Bryant and Jary 1991; Layder 1994) it is difficult to envisage the construction and sustainability of social systems and institutions. For Giddens (1984, p. 25), systems and institutions comprise 'the situated activities of human agents, reproduced across time and space'. Regular patterns of social practices form social systems while reproduction of rules and resources form institutions. Both of these give 'societies their form and definition' and include 'established practices and the power relations that underpin them' (Layder 1994, p. 140).

Significantly, Giddens' (1984, p. 28) notions of social and system integration allow for better understanding of the sustainability of system across time and space. The analysis of differences in face-to-face interactions or interaction in co-presence (social integration) and interaction between people not in the immediate presence of each other (system integration) provides an understanding of time and space distanciation across everyday life (Layder 1994, Tucker 1998). In essence, these concepts are an attempt to view the convergence of the micro/macro dualism. For instance, policies governing an educational system are representative of system
integration as they stretch across time and space, and yet use of these policies in production and reproduction involve social (face-to-face) integration. Religion may also be an example of such integration (reciprocity of practices). Interestingly the acknowledgment of this integration returns Giddens to his concept of duality of agency and structure. He sees that systems and institutions cannot exist outside of the motivations and reflexive behaviour of human actors. He states they ‘exist in so far as they are continually produced and reproduced via the duality of structure’ (Giddens 1977, p. 134). Social systems and institutions are grounded in human actors’ rationality and motivations.

3.2.3 Power and the dialectic of control

The actor must act upon existing structures to produce the action. Indeed a relationship of mutual dependency exists between agency and structure. As a consequence, the rules and resources drawn upon by the agent are reconstituted through interaction across time and space. Power relationships form an essential part of this interaction, not only in the domination involved in the use of structures (comprised of knowledge, resources and facilities), but also in the intent of the actor to achieve desired outcomes. Essentially, power characterises all action, although power itself is not a resource (Giddens 1984, p. 16).

Giddens (1984, p. 14) views power as the capability of actors to ‘make a difference’, a transformative capacity. Tucker (1998, p. 114) concurs: ‘Power refers to the capacity of people to change the world’. Nonetheless, power does not remain the constitution of the agent as expressed in subjective approaches, but has ‘two faces’. Giddens (1984, p. 15) agrees with Bachrach and Baratz (1962) when he states: ‘There are two “faces” of power ... the capability of actors to enact decisions which they favour on the one hand and the “mobilisation of bias” that is built into institutions on the other’. Thus, power is a component of all social life and is both productive and repressive. It ‘does not necessarily involve exploitation or coercion, as it is also tied to freedom and interdependence’ (Tucker 1998, p. 114).

Giddens (1984, p. 16) presents the concept of ‘dialectic of control’ to demonstrate this two-way relationship in power. The agent has power to transform actions and yet
may be influenced by other agents (subordinates) who are able to mobilise resources to gain some degree of control over the conditions of production and reproduction. This dialectic of control is evident in both individual (a student protest against a specific classroom-management approach in a school) and collective actions (such as those of education unions). The availability of resources to agents determines whether they have freedom in their actions or are controlled by others. Nonetheless, a human actor will always have 'some' access to resources and is never completely powerless.

3.2.4 Modalities of duality of structure in interactions

Giddens has established three dimensions of analysis to extend the relationship between duality of structure and social interaction (Figure 3.2). He claims 'that the process of structuration (production and reproduction) of systems of social interaction involves three elements: the communication of meaning (signification), the exercise of power (domination), and the evaluation and judgment of conduct (legitimation)' (Giddens in Bryant and Jary 1991, p. 8). All interactions can be analysed in these terms.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Structure} & \text{signification} & \text{domination} & \text{legitimation} \\
\hline
\text{(Modality)} & \text{interpretive scheme} & \text{facility} & \text{norm} \\
\text{Interaction} & \text{communication} & \text{power} & \text{sanction} \\
\end{array}
\]

Figure 3.2 Dimensions of duality of structure (Giddens 1984, p. 29)

Each of these elements is a tool in an agent's hand when producing action. 'Actors draw upon the modalities of structuration in the reproduction of systems of interaction, by the same token reconstituting their structural properties' (Giddens 1984, p. 28). In brief, signification involves the agent acting upon rules of communication in a specific context. Domination involves how knowledge, resources and facilities are used to produce the action. Legitimation refers to the society or
community rules that shape or judge the action. Each of the elements co-exists to signify the recursive nature of duality of structure (Cohen 1989; Craib 1992).

However, it is important to expose how the modalities of interpretive scheme, facilities and norms create the link between social structure and human action.

- **Interpretive schemes** – ‘are the modes of typification incorporated within actors’ stocks of knowledge, applied reflexively in the sustaining of communication’ (Giddens 1984, p. 29). These stocks of knowledge provide the base for actors to state reasons for their actions and to share meaning. However, for both the actor and structures, this knowledge enables communication but may also constrain it. Orlikowski and Robey (1991, p. 149) contend ‘thus in any interaction, shared knowledge is not merely background but an integral part of the communicative encounter, in part organising it, and in part being shaped by the interaction itself’.

- **Facility** – power expressed in human action and structures of domination refers to the accessibility of resources, represented here as facilities. Orlikowski and Robey (1991, p. 148) suggest interchanging the term ‘facility’ with ‘resources’ as it appropriates that ‘resources are the means through which intentions are realised, goals are accomplished, and power is exercised’. Resources are divided into allocative resources and authoritative resources (see Section 3.2.2). In the subjective approach to social theory, resources are the medium for power to be exercised in the transformative capacity of agents, to ‘make a difference’ in both the social and material world. In the objective approach, resources and their reproduction constitute structures of domination. However, ‘it is only when the existing asymmetry of resources is explicitly challenged or countered, that the existing structure of domination may be modified’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 149).

- **Norms** – are rules or sanctions governing actors’ flow of conduct. Upon embracing a subjective point of view these codes of conduct are produced and reproduced by actors’ continual use of the sanctions therefore legitimating appropriate forms of behaviour and conduct. ‘Normative components of interaction always centre upon relations between the rights and obligations “expected” of those participating in a range of interaction contexts. Formal codes of conduct [law] … usually express some sort of claimed symmetry between
rights and obligations, the one being the justification of the other’ (Giddens 1984, p. 30). Thus, the moral obligation of the actor is emphasised. From an objective position, or the structure of legitimation, it is evident that these sanctions and codes assist in the formation of institutional practices. They reinforce ‘order through traditions, rituals, and practices of socialisation’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 149).

The double-ended arrows in Figure 3.2 also show links between the three structures of social systems: signification, domination and legitimation. Giddens (1984, p. 31) states ‘structures of signification always have to be grasped in connection with domination and legitimation’. Such a relationship re-emphasises the pervasive nature of power in social life. Additionally, Giddens (1984, p. 31) sees domination as the ‘very condition of existence of codes of signification’, not only in the distribution of resources but also as being inherent in social interactions. Likewise, norms express ‘structural asymmetries of domination’ (Giddens 1984, p. 30) and signification as they display commitment to the meanings they are supposed to generate. It is apparent that these structures are interdependent and vary in contexts, across time and space. Interestingly, Giddens (1984, p. 33) presents a definition of ideologies to display the interrelated nature of the structures in forming and sustaining discourses across time and space. He views ideologies as ‘those asymmetries of domination which connect signification to the legitimation of sectional interests’. Such interactions between the three structures are evident in the construction of a curriculum document. Participants in this process apply previously constructed sanctions, share mutual stocks of knowledge, and use these resources to construct the ideology to be presented in the curriculum document. However, it is a select group that decides on the production (and reproduction).

3.2.5 The centrality of time and space in structuration theory
The notions of time and space (particularly time) have been explicated in various approaches to social theory. An objectivist approach holds the perception that time is a linear process, assembling social practices in chronological order. Giddens contends that objectivists misunderstand the concept of time, as social life is recursive and situated in time and space. Thus, time and space are critical elements of
Structuration theory. Agents, institutions, organisations and nations travel through time and space. The patterned or recursive nature of social practices relates specifically to temporal and spatial conceptions of the physical and social environment in which they occur. Thus, the ‘routines’ that comprise social practices are recursive (and non-linear) within time-space paths. Practices have beginnings and endings that are managed by the actors (agency).

Giddens (1984) suggests there are three dimensions of temporality, and distinguishes between reversible and irreversible time (Figure 3.3).

Duree of day-to-day experience: ‘reversible time’
Life span of the individual: ‘irreversible time’
Longue duree of institutions: ‘reversible time’

**Figure 3.3 Dimensions of temporality** (Giddens 1984, p. 35)

Human agents have biological time that is irreversible due to its finite nature. This is best represented as the lifecycle and interacts with the repetitive nature of activities (duree of day-to-day experiences). Longue duree of institutions, or organisational time, reflects the understanding that human agents’ social practices are reproduced, conforming to established social forms that pass across generations. The arrows in Figure 3.3 show the various relationships within the dimensions of time. An agent’s lifespan interacts with both the day-to-day experiences as well as institutional time. Additionally, day-to-day experiences interact with institutional experiences. ‘These different aspects of time are interfused in our daily existences and intersect with the spatial patterns that represent our social lives’ (Layder 1994, p. 136).

Spatial patterns are recognised in the concept of locales, the site of the interaction. Thus ‘analysing the time and space coordination of social activities means studying the contextual features of locales through which actors move in their daily paths’ (Giddens 1984, p. 286). Locales are physical regions that have definite boundaries, such as a room in a house, school, street corner, village or territory occupied by the state. The contextual features of these locales ‘connects the most intimate and detailed components of interaction to much broader properties of the institutionalisation of social life’ (Giddens 1984, p. 119). Consequently, the ‘regionalisation of locales
stretching across time-space’ (Giddens 1984, p. 286) are involved in the analysis of social practices. However, regionalisation should not only refer to the localisation of space but also the ‘zoning of time-space in relation to routinised social practices’ (Giddens 1984, p. 119). For example, a school is a locale where a large number of interactions occur in a single day. However, schools are organised into rooms, specialised play areas, levels of floors, where activity occurs more frequently in some areas of the school at specific times of the day. Additionally, the school quietens at the end of the day to allow recuperation and readiness for the next day. There is a day/night link to social interaction.

Time-space relations are therefore essential in the analysis of structuration of social practices as they provide context to their production and reproduction. The concepts of social integration and system integration discussed previously in this chapter represent Giddens’ attempt to blur the boundaries of the micro/macro dualism. It is interesting to look at how time and space influence the connection of these forms of integration. Giddens has devised a scheme of concepts to help categorise the contextuality involved (Figure 3.4).

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.4 Time/space and social and system integration** (Giddens 1984, p. 132)

Analysis of these concepts provides an understanding of the ‘stretching’ of social relations across time and space or what Giddens (1984) terms *time-space distanciation*. This suggests an analysis of human actors’ day-to-day experiences—including types and number of interactions, the location, zoning and context of the locale, and the possible interdependence of locales across time and space—is necessary to understand production and reproduction of social life.
Giddens' notion of time-space distanciation is key to understanding changes in contemporary times.

...in contemporary societies individuals are positioned with a widening range of zones, in home, workplace, neighbourhood, city, nation-state and a worldwide system, all displaying features of system integration which increasingly relates the minor details of daily life to social phenomena of massive time space extension. (Giddens 1984, p. 85):

The rise of modern society has brought changes to social life, largely resulting in institutionalisation and centralisation (Layder 1994). Significantly, Giddens' analysis of modern social life takes into account the rise of the 'state', which greatly effects social integration.

Giddens suggests that the 'state' is a storage container for all time-space relations. He defines storage as 'a medium of 'binding' time-space involving, on the level of action, the knowledgeable management of a projected future and recall of an elapsed past' (1984, p. 261). Such storage is inherent in the recursiveness of institution reproduction. Moreover, power is generated through this time-space distanciation. The storage of allocative and authoritative resources, implicated in power relations, involves 'the retention and control of information or knowledge whereby social relations are perpetuated across time-space' (Giddens 1984, p. 261). Further, Giddens (1984) relates the storage of authoritative resources to surveillance of a populace. This concept implies that the state has control of the timing and spacing of human activities — a supervisory role that breaks down social integration. Thus, Giddens (in Tucker 1998, pp. 115-16) sees power in this sense as 'the capacity of institutions to indirectly control the actions of people by manipulating the settings in which interaction takes place'.

Furthermore, Giddens links the 'state' to urbanisation. Giddens contends that urbanisation is a 'distinctive feature of all societies characterised by extensive time-space distanciation' (1981, p. 6) where the city is the 'crucible of power' (1984, p. 262) allowing elites to cement their rule. It is these concepts of time-space distanciation and power that are central to Giddens' theory of social change.
3.3 Social change theory

It has been suggested that Giddens advocates a ‘discontinuous theory of social change’ (Tucker 1998, p. 107), as he does not see societies as evolving from one form to another. Hence social change is neither linear nor predictable. Giddens contends that it is necessary to deconstruct changes in social life rather than remodel or reconstruct, as in evolutionism. He contends that it is necessary to analyse and better understand the role of power existing within time-space relations in this process of deconstruction. In his writings Giddens (1984) uses the concepts of capitalism and urbanism (whilst discarding evolutionism) to analyse changes in tribal societies through to contemporary times.

Interestingly, it is Giddens’ belief that social change needs to be analysed within its historical context, although not within the general boundaries present by other theorists. Giddens (1984, p. xxvii) states ‘history in this first sense is temporality, events in their duration’. He goes on to say that the tendency to associate history with a linear sequence and the search for a general theory of social change is doomed. Giddens positions human existence as key to understanding social change, stating ‘The sorts of understandings or knowledge that human beings have of their own “history” is partly constitutive of what that history is and of the influences that act to change it’ (Giddens 1984, p. xxvii). Furthermore, he introduces the concept of ‘historicity’ to better interpret social change, defining it as:

The identification of history as progressive change, coupled with the cognitive institutionalisation of such identification in order to further that change. Historicity involves a particular view of what ‘history’ is, which means using knowledge of history in order to change it. (Giddens 1984, p. 376)

To reflect upon history becomes a means for changing history. Such an interpretation decays the taken-for-granted tradition as history becomes open to multiple interpretations. Individuals, according to their beliefs, values and motivations, can envisage and construct new forms of community. Thus power, interpreted as the capacity of people to make a difference, plays an important role in social change.

Power can be both productive and repressive. It may involve coercion and exploitation or provide freedom. Human agents will have access to resources that
will determine whether they have freedom or are controlled by others. Nonetheless agents will always have ‘some’ power. It is the power that exists within time-space distanciation that needs analysis to understand social change, such as those mentioned previously in the section on the rise of the ‘state’ and urbanisation.

In addition to the concepts of structural principles, time-space relations and intersocietal totalities (relations between societal systems), Giddens introduces two others to assist in the analysis of social change. He poses the concepts of ‘episodes’ and ‘world time’, stating that ‘all social life can be represented as a series of episodes; encounters in circumstances of co-presence certainly have an episodic form’ (Giddens 1984, p. xxix). Thus aspects of social life have a number of events, usually operating in a sequence from the beginning to the end. So, ‘in large-scale episodes’ Giddens means ‘identifiable sequences of change affecting the main institutions within a societal totality, or involving transitions between types of societal totalities’ (Giddens 1984, p. 244). For example, the rise of the state could be considered an episode, thus to analyse this formation involves cutting into history to discover the sequence of events that initiated the process, as well as tracing the progression through institutional transmutation.

‘World time’ emphasises the influence of intersocietal totalities on episodes. Social change is dependent upon ‘conjunctions of circumstances and events that may differ in nature according to variations of context, where context (as always) involves the reflexive monitoring by the agents involved of the conditions in which they ‘make history’ (Giddens 1984, p. 245). Thus the human agents’ knowledge of conditions and outcomes may influence social change.

3.4 Criticisms of structuration theory

Structuration theory has been contested for its endeavour to grasp the ‘systemness’ of the modern social world. Many researchers (Urry 1986, 1988; Cohen 1989; Bryant and Jary 1991; Craib 1992; Thrift 1993; Layder 1994; Kelly 1998; Tucker 1998) have contributed to the critique of structuration theory as vague and incomplete in its attempt to blur the structure/agency divide and to withstand the enticement to stay with one side or the other. Bryant and Jary (1991, p. 3) make this clear in stating:
‘Sociologists are often unsure what to make of Giddens because he is too big to be ignored, and too singular to be labelled with confidence’. In defence, Giddens states:

The concepts of structuration theory, as with any competing theoretical perspective, should for many research purposes be regarded as sensitising devices, nothing more. That is to say, they may be useful for thinking about research problems and the interpretation of research results. (Giddens 1984, pp. 326–27)

Giddens has not attempted to provide a grand theory of the social world but rather equip a researcher with a number of concepts to assess sociological analyses and research generally.

Giddens has been commended for his recognition and critical appreciation of past theories in developing his theory of structuration (Cohen 1989; Bryant and Jary 1991; Layder 1994). Tucker (1998, p. 7) concurs: ‘Giddens has admirably attempted to take what is best in sociological theory and reformulate it in the context of changing social circumstances’. Nonetheless, it is necessary to consider the levels at which critique of structuration theory has occurred.

A major criticism has been Giddens’ weakness in clarifying the concept of structure. Layder (1994) and Urry (1988) believe Giddens’ concept of structure creates confusion and uncertainty due to the abstract definition of structure. As we saw earlier, Giddens (1984, p. 377) defines structure as rules and resources that exist ‘only as memory traces, the organic basis of human knowledgableity.’ They are ‘subject-less’ as they can be constituted only in action. This definition severs the pre-existing definition of structure as part of the institutionalised context. Layder (1994, p. 141) sees this as problematic, and states: ‘If structure no longer means what it usually means, then the notion of a ‘duality of structure’ is confusing and misleading in that it appears to tackle the traditional problem of action and structure (as institutional context)’. Layder suggests that Giddens has not tackled the dualism but created a new definition. Urry (1988) contends that if structures do not exist in time and space and thus have a virtual existence (only in social practices), then how is it that social interactions can take place? ‘It is difficult to see how rules can be said to generate social interactions when they are themselves dependent upon that substantive interaction for their meaning and effect’ (Urry 1988, p. 102).
Layder (1994, p. 146) also supports the criticism of structure. He suggests that Giddens has focused heavily on the agent and failed to present an equal theoretical position on structure. Layder (1994, p. 146) states: 'structuration’s theory of the complexity of human activity is not matched by an equivalent appreciation of social-structural depth'. For instance, Giddens has provided a stratification model of the actor (including reflexive monitoring, motivation, rationality, unintended consequences and unacknowledged conditions of action) but has not offered a depth of social structures thus flattening out social reality.

Additional to Layder's claims are those of Kelly (1998) and Thrift (1993) who suggest bias for the ontology of the actor. Kelly (1998, p. 116) claims that ‘the prominence which Giddens gives to the notion of ontological security indicates an inbuilt “conservative bias”.’ Thrift (1993, p. 114) supports this by stating 'Giddens overemphasises individual action'.

The notion of recursivity, central to structuration theory, has also been criticised. It has been suggested that Giddens' interpretation of the recursivity (routinisation) of practices disallow creativity in social interactions. Thrift (1993, p. 114) states: 'It seems to me that human activity must be seen as far more occasional and inventive than Giddens seems willing to give credit for.' Tucker (1994, p. 145) concurs: 'If people are not “producing” or constructing social reality but merely following conventional patterns, then surely their behaviour cannot be said to be creative and certainly not transformative'. Such statements question Giddens' concept of an agent ‘making a difference’ in their interactions. Bryant (in Bryant and Jary 1991, p. 199) supports Tucker by stating ‘variations in human capacity for human action’ are underdeveloped. In this sense it appears Giddens has a simplified view of the actor. On the contrary Giddens (in Bryant and Jary 1991, p. 204) states the theory of structuration as an ‘attempt to provide the conceptual means of analysing the often delicate and subtle interlacings of reflexively organised action and institutional constraint’. The word ‘attempt’ displays Giddens' intentions of providing devices for analysis and yet, in contradiction, it elicits vagueness.
Giddens also has narrow recognition of culture. Thrift (1993, pp. 114-15) states: ‘Giddens refers constantly to symbolic resources, texts, selves and the like, which are the very stuff of culture’. Thrift goes on: ‘Giddens’ idea of culture is curiously anaemic, precisely because the ties that bind cultures are constantly created, only partly present and often non-conscious (if they were conscious they could be represented).’ Tucker (1998, p. 7) supports this by stating that Giddens ‘does not examine people as meaning-seeking creatures whose lives are subtly shaped by their cultural beliefs. Giddens has no strong theory of cultural innovation, of how different cultural orientations, developed in diverse contexts, can promote or deny capacities for creative social action’. Tucker further links this to Giddens’ rejection of evolutionism. Because Giddens believes that traditions are open to multiple interpretations, Tucker (1998, p. 122) questions Giddens’ denial of cultural traditions ‘which have a continuous historical existence and that modern people can draw on to create some sort of collective solidarity’. Tucker (1998) further questions Giddens’ concept of history and believes it is underdeveloped as he fails to specify what societies can learn from the past as well as stating definite links between elements of social change (the military, state, economy).

Finally, Giddens’ theory has been criticised as lacking in providing an adequate empirical position (Archer 1982; Fitzclarence 1988). His social practices have been placed on the abstract, theoretical level. Bryant and Jary (1991, p. 27) defend his theory when they write, ‘Giddens has never wanted empirical researchers to incorporate his whole conceptual vocabulary in their work’. Giddens (1984, p. xxx) concurs: ‘I do not try to wield a methodological scalpel’. Additionally, Layder (1994) contradicts the critique of structuration theory not offering potential application in empirical research; however, he does acknowledge that this application may require extra effort or ingenuity. Layder (1994, p. 147) states: ‘It is to Giddens’ credit that he has construed structuration theory in a non-dogmatic and flexible manner, since it aids incorporation into research and does not impose a “total world view” as is, unfortunately, often the case with general theories.’ However, the methodological bracketing suggested by Giddens may cause misinterpretation of different/singular aspects of social reality — the splitting of ‘institutional analysis (structure)’ and ‘the
analysis of strategic conduct (agency)—even though we accept them as being interwoven and interdependent (Giddens 1984, p. 288).

The levels of critique displayed above suggest there is concern with the incomplete nature of Giddens’ structuration theory and yet it appears it was never Giddens’ intention to provide a grand narrative. In defence of Giddens, Jary states the need to:

- recognise the undoubted value of:
  - a focus on structure and agency;
  - a multidimensional rather than a reductionist approach;
  - an intersocietal and time-space perspective; and
  - aspects of his insistence on an ‘episodic’ characterisation of historical change. (Bryant and Jary 1991, pp. 156–57)

Giddens presents a conceptual scheme to gain an understanding of social life. Urry (1986, p. 435) sums up structuration theory as ‘the most systematic, interesting and sustained attempt so far found to develop an approach to social theory that transcends the dichotomies of determinism and voluntarism, social and the individual and object and subject’.

3.5 Giddens’ structuration theory in this thesis: structurational models of curriculum construction and implementation

Structuration theory is flexible, because it does not impose a ‘total world view’. As a researcher I was able to draw upon elements for analyses of structure/agency interaction. I was able to undertake Giddens’ intentions for his theory in empirical research by ‘working out the logical implications of studying a “subject matter” of which the researcher is already a part and with elucidating the substantive connotations of the core notions of action and structure’ (Giddens 1984, p. xxx). The subject matter at the core of my investigations in this body of work is curriculum change, including curriculum construction and implementation. As such, I have used the elements of structuration theory to develop models for analysis in this thesis. The theoretical foundation of these models is expanded upon in the following section.
3.5.1 A structurational model of curriculum

Curriculum is both a product of human action and a medium for human action and, hence, contains structural properties. Syllabus-curriculum-policy is socially constructed by agents and yet at the same time is institutionalised in education systems (see Chapter 2). It is agents who bring curriculum into being and the curriculum that produces the possibility of human action in the construction and implementation process. Thus, the role of agency and structure in curriculum is interwoven and interdependent — *a duality of curriculum*. This notion of duality of curriculum is central to the structurational model of curriculum.

I propose that a structurational model of curriculum can be established as a device for analysis of the case-study material in this thesis. This model has been founded on work undertaken by Orlikowski and Robey (1991) and later Orlikowski (1992) in establishing structurational models of technology. While Orlikowski and Robey (1991) acknowledge that Giddens does not address technology explicitly in his structurational paradigm, they contend that such a model attempts to analyse the relationship between technology and organisations. Orlikowski and Robey’s research (as stated in Orlikowski’s later paper) is best described below:

> In suggesting that we try and understand technology from the point of view of structuration, I propose that it be considered as one kind of structural property of organisations developing and/or using technology. That is, technology embodies and hence is an instantiation of some of the rules and resources constituting the structure of an organisation. (Orlikowski 1992, p. 405)

I propose that curriculum, too, can be seen as one kind of structural property of organisations (education systems) constructing and/or implementing curriculum, and that structurational models of curriculum can assist in understanding the relationship between curriculum and education systems (organisations).

This model acknowledges the underlying principle of duality of curriculum when employing structuration theory to understand the relationship between curriculum and organisations. This duality is best explained in its

> ‘constituted nature’ — curriculum is ‘the social product of subject human action within specific structural and cultural contexts’ — and
its constitutive role' – curriculum ‘is simultaneously an objective set of rules and resources involved in mediating (facilitating and constraining) human action and hence contributing to the creation, recreation and transformation of these contexts’. Curriculum ‘is both an antecedent and a consequence of organizational action’. [my insert of the word curriculum] (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 151)

Thus, curriculum is an opportunity for structuring as it creates the possibility for human action and as a consequence may revise or alter existing social structures.

Due to the nature of the two case studies in this thesis, the model that I developed investigated only the relationship between curriculum construction and organisations, and curriculum implementation and organisations. This does not discount the possibility of other relationships arising or existing between curriculum and organisations. Details of the models for curriculum construction and implementation are explained in the following sections, and the analysis of case study material applying these models is illustrated in Chapter 7.

The theoretical model that integrates human actors, curriculum and structurational concepts is presented in Figure 3.5. Following the explanation of this model, I explain how the construction and implementation of curriculum is entangled in the three modalities of structuration theory.
Figure 3.5 displays a structurational model of curriculum that provides the model for analyses in this thesis. It recognises that the interaction between curriculum and organisations involves three key elements — human actors, curriculum and institutional properties — with various levels of influence and involvement (as
indicated by the arrows). These influences operate during all interactions simultaneously and continuously, although are situated in temporal and spatial contexts. This social interaction demonstrates the centrality of duality of curriculum. I now explore these relationships further.

First, curriculum is the product of human action (arrow a in Figure 3.5). Curriculum is created by human actors and needs to be implemented to have any effect. Curriculum, as constructed by human actors (commonly represented as project writers), is set within a socio-historical context, including social and political constraints and realities (Brady and Kennedy 1999; Johnson and Reid 1999). Hence the curriculum document will reflect the beliefs, values and assumptions appropriated by the writers at that time. Curriculum has to be implemented by human actors (teachers) to accomplish its set task, that being student achievement. The implementation of this curriculum reinforces its role in the organisation, the education system.

Second, curriculum is a medium for human action (arrow b in Figure 3.5). Teachers use curriculum documents as a basis for interaction between teacher and student, teacher and colleagues. It enables human action. However, curriculum also constrains human action as it states what core knowledge and processes a student must accomplish. Hence the curriculum conditions (to some degree) the teacher–student and teacher–teacher interaction. For instance, curriculum has some control in stating the content to be taught (constraining factor); however, students may negotiate curriculum contexts (enabling factor).

Third, this influence has been represented as the conditions of interaction with curriculum (arrow c in Figure 3.5). Interactions between curriculum and human actors, whether it concerns construction or implementation, are influenced by ‘institutional properties of their situation’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 154). Teachers will draw upon ‘existing stocks of knowledge, resources, and norms to perform their work, often doing so only implicitly’ (ibid 1991, p. 154). For example, whole school programs may outline specific school-based knowledge to be included in classroom programs thus sustaining the established practices at the school. At the
same time they are influenced by personal values and interests, and the expertise, power and culture that encompass their particular school context. In so doing the teachers are often reinforcing their organisation’s structures of signification, domination and legitimation.

Fourth, influence involves the consequences of interaction with curriculum (arrow d in Figure 3.5). Generally, interactions with the curriculum within an organisation reinforce pre-existing institutional properties. Such reinforcement sustains the organisation’s structures of signification, domination and legitimation. However, there may be occasions where these interactions alter institutional properties — for example, implementation of new curriculum documents may bring about changes to timetabling. This in turn will affect, and possibly transform, the structures of signification, domination and legitimation.

Fifth, all interactions occur within temporal–spatial contexts (--- in Figure 3.5). While not included in Orlikowski and Robey’s model (1991) it is necessary to consider that interactions involving curriculum, including construction and implementation, occur within physical and social environments that have particular time and space contexts. There are site-specific locales in which interaction takes place. Relations between day-to-day activities, the actor’s lifespan and institutionalised practices influence the times at which these interactions take place. For example, commonly, curriculum construction and curriculum implementation are separated in time and space. Educational systems are responsible for the development of curriculum (usually in a centralised office institution) and the actions that are constituted by curriculum occur within the school sites.

Significantly, these five relationships operate simultaneously and continuously between curriculum and organisations. Thus, the structurational model of curriculum provides a model for multi-level social analysis, the interplay between human action and institutional properties or the micro and macro levels within time and space contexts — the duality of curriculum.
3.5.2 Curriculum and the modalities of structuration

Giddens contends that social interaction can best be examined through the modalities of signification, domination and legitimation (see Figure 3.2). These modalities or dimensions allow for closer examination human action (subjective) and social structures (objective). He contends that 'the process of structuration (production and reproduction) of systems of social interaction involves three elements: the communication of meaning (signification), the exercise of power (domination), and the evaluation and judgment of conduct (legitimation)' (Giddens in Bryant and Jary 1991, p. 8). Thus, the interrelationship between human actors, curriculum and institutional properties, explained above as simultaneous and continuous, can be enhanced through the analysis of such modalities in both curriculum construction and curriculum implementation.

Curriculum and interpretive schemes

Curriculum provides a set of interpretive schemes by outlining concepts, knowledge, skills and processes that are thought to be appropriate for student learning at a particular point in time. Thus, curriculum communicates meaning to teachers, students, parents and the school community. Teachers construct their weekly, and even daily, experiences from the curriculum. Hence curriculum also conditions human action. It is institutionalised through the reinforcement of those 'stocks of knowledge ... making them standardised, shared and taken for granted' (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 155). Such stocks of knowledge are communicated at both state and national levels and by professional organisations — for example, ACHPER. In a similar manner, Kirk (1998) and Kirk and Macdonald (2001) discuss this as primary stocks of knowledge although is based on Bernsteinian concepts.

Curriculum and resources

Teachers employ curriculum to undertake their daily role and to make judgments about student learning. It is a resource that outlines rules for interaction with students, teachers, parents and other school community members. Curriculum constitutes a system of domination. Curriculum allocation to and in schools follows a pattern of authority, therefore reinforcing particular power relations. This may cause
conflict, as it is an area of change and challenge within our educational systems. For example, the instigation of curriculum change is usually an organisational decision that is imposed on teachers. This is an existing power structure within the education systems, more often than not accepted by teachers as the norm.

Curriculum and norms
Curriculum, discussed in Chapter 2, has been characterised as setting (mandated) standards or norms for the basis of performance. The Queensland School Curriculum Council (1998i, p. 3) states: ‘Traditionally in Queensland, centrally approved syllabus documents have been used to convey curriculum expectations for the compulsory years of schooling’. Hence, curriculum sets out the content and proposes set outcomes, which in turn can condition teacher–student interaction. Such norms embedded in the curriculum ‘constitute a moral order, a system of legitimation that directs action and thinking along prescribed paths, and encourages appropriate responses, shared meanings, and common interaction protocols’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 156).

Nonetheless, these social interactions occur within historical and organisational contexts. Such contexts include the social context and social processes surrounding the use of curriculum. The structurational model can acknowledge these social processes in both curriculum construction and curriculum implementation, including the tensions that may exist between the human actor and established institutional practices. For instance, the structure of domination in curriculum change may be an established organisational practice. However, there are opportunities for human actors to modify these practices weakening the organisation’s control. A reversing of power, or what Giddens calls the ‘dialectic of control’, may arise. As Mohr (in Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 157) implies: ‘Human action in organisations is never totally predictable (because it is never totally determined), and it is never totally random (because it is never totally unconstrained).’ Since curriculum is constructed for implementation by human actors, both intended and unintended consequences may arise.
This thesis set out to build a model than could be used to better understand the social factors pertaining to the construction and implementation of curriculum in organisations.

3.5.2.1 Structuration models for investigating the interaction of human action and social structure in curriculum construction and implementation

The following models allow for investigation of both human actors and social structures within the sites of curriculum construction and implementation. Analysis within these sites, and in this case two particular education sites, may focus on any or all three modalities. Figures 3.6 and 3.7 display possibilities for investigation of both human action and social structure realms. The temporal and spatial contexts box has been included in both tables to openly state that such contexts underpin all interactions.

Figure 3.6 displays the model for investigating the interaction of human actors and social structure during curriculum construction, with Figure 3.7 displaying the model for investigating the interaction of human actors and social structure during curriculum implementation.
The realm of social structure in the curriculum construction process

As shown in Figure 3.6 it is the human actors, and in this case the curriculum writers, who produce the curriculum. However, this model informs us that curriculum writers work within an institutional context (see top half of Figure 3.6) and are influenced by pre-existing curriculum documents, processes for development of such curriculum, availability of resources, and the conventions of their organisation. Curriculum writers draw upon the structures of signification, domination and legitimation in the curriculum construction process. This model provides a guide for investigation of the
particular organisation’s interpretive schemes, resources and norms to determine whether they enable or constrain the curriculum writers’ actions.

For example, the Queensland School Curriculum Council currently publishes two new KLA syllabuses for Queensland schools annually (following a rolling two-year development period). Curriculum writers undertake the task of constructing a curriculum within that time frame — does this enable or constrain the writers? In addition, curriculum writers will draw upon the council’s stocks of knowledge to create the curriculum document, possibly enabling or constraining the writers’ actions.

**The realm of human action in the curriculum construction process**

Curriculum is the outcome of social action. Curriculum writers create meaning by applying existing valued assumptions and knowledge into curriculum documents, use their organisational power to achieve this and, as a result, create sanction by stating legitimate conventions for students to achieve the set outcomes (see bottom half of Figure 3.6). The structurational model shown in Figure 3.6 provides a basis for investigation of how curriculum writers employ interpretive schemes, resources and norms to constitute new curriculum materials. Conversely, curriculum writers may challenge the current system methodologies/structures — for example, the structures of writers’ positions and roles, advisory committees, trial schools — applied in constructing curriculum and further redefine the organisational structures, thus, modifying existing structures of signification, domination and legitimation.
### Temporal–spatial context

#### Realm of social structure
- Using curriculum, teachers draw on embedded knowledge, assumptions and rules, and through such use reaffirm the organisation’s structure of signification.

#### Modalities
**Interpretive schemes**
- Teachers appropriate the rules, knowledge and assumptions embedded in curriculum documents to plan and teach, or they may modify their patterns of use to create new structures of meaning that potentially alter institutionalised practices.

**Resources**
- Teachers appropriate the rules and capabilities embedded within curriculum documents to achieve authorised outcomes, or they may modify their patterns of use to create new structures of domination that potentially alter institutionalised practices.

**Norms**
- Teachers appropriate the legitimate conventions within curriculum documents to execute sanctioned action, or they may modify their patterns of use to create new structures of legitimation that may potentially alter institutionalised practices.

#### Realm of human action
- Using curriculum, teachers work within the rules and capabilities built into the documents and through such use reinforce the organisation’s structure of domination.

### Figure 3.7 Structurational model for investigating the interaction of human actors and social structure during curriculum construction and implementation
(Adapted from Orlikowski and Robey 1991)

The realm of social structures in curriculum implementation process

Curriculum is the medium of human action and thus conditions interaction between teacher and student, and teacher and teacher. It appropriates certain rules and knowledge, facilitates communication and learning, and reinforces cultural norms,
therefore promoting certain outcomes and constraining others. The structural perspective outlined in the top half of Figure 3.7 provides a model for investigating how these human actions are shaped by curriculum.

For example, a school’s (and possibly in the broader sense the education system’s) structure of domination is reinforced in the implementation of curriculum. Teachers work within the rules outlined in the curriculum documents to produce classroom activities and student learning. In this teachers sustain and reinforce the curriculum documents knowledge, values and sanctions in its implementation, hence upholding the structure of legitimation.

**The realm of human action in curriculum implementation process**

The implementation of curriculum at a school site appropriates the rules, knowledge and assumptions stated within the documents. Thus, norms are maintained within an existing organisational power structure. Drawing upon the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms within the structuration model allow for investigation of human action. However, it is possible that users of the curriculum, teachers in this case, may redefine these rules, knowledges and shared meanings and cause shifts in power. This also causes modification of control and authority. In the case of curriculum change, teachers are attempting to disrupt established patterns and make modification to the structures of signification, domination and legitimation. This appears to be a gradual process and is usually instigated through changes to interpretive schemes and accompanied resources, such as the provision of professional development by education systems to build a shared understanding of the recommended changes and to supply resources to the school.

These models propose a dual concept of curriculum highlighting the relationship between curriculum and organisations. The models indicate that curriculum is both physically and socially constructed by human actors and yet also materialised through institutionalisation. Underpinning the models are the elements of structuration theory that appear well suited to display this interaction between curriculum, human actors and organisations. It provides a frame for multi-level analysis that is contextually and historically situated.
3.6 Summary

This chapter has addressed Giddens’ structuration theory and its methodological adequacy specific to the investigation of curriculum change in this thesis. The interdependent and interwoven nature of structure and agency has formed foundation to Giddens theory, or what he calls duality of structure and, for this thesis, duality of curriculum. In essence duality of structure involves ‘the ways in which a system, via the application of generative rules and resources, and in the context of unintended outcomes, is produced and reproduced in interaction’ (Cassell 1993, p. 118). It is concerned with the conditions governing or constraining continuity of transformation of structures, and therefore the reproduction of social systems across time and space. In this case, I investigated curriculum change within two specific educational sites via the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms, thus identifying conditions enabling and constraining the production and reproduction of these particular sites across time and space.

For this thesis, structuration theory provided a sensitising device for the investigation of curriculum and organisations. As Giddens states:

Structuration theory is not intended to be a theory ‘of’ anything, in the sense of advancing generalisations about social reality. [It] offers a conceptual scheme that allows one to understand how actors are at the same time the creators of social systems yet created by them. (Giddens in Bryant and Jary 1991, p. 204)

There is much to be learnt from applying structuration theory to curriculum construction and implementation.
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

We shall not cease from exploration
And the end of all our exploring
Will be to arrive where we started
And know the place for the first time
(T. S. Eliot's 'Four Quartets' in Bassey 1999, p. 36)

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the manner and bases of investigations carried out in this study. As already purported, there is much to be learnt from applying structuration theory concepts in curriculum construction and implementation, all embedded within curriculum change processes. The 'duality of curriculum' frameworks detailed in Chapter 3 provided the guidance for the studies undertaken across the two sites of my professional practice. Essentially, investigations explored the interaction between curriculum and organisations, involving human actors (teachers), the curriculum and institutional properties. The research processes employed took form and shape according to the developing and changing contexts of the two sites.

A critical case-study framework offered an ideal scaffold on which to base research questions, data collection techniques and analysis of data. For critical case-study researchers, knowledge and practice are embedded in unique contextual (social, political and cultural) situations that draw attention to particular issues and characteristics. It is these enabling or constraining issues and characteristics, uncovered via the multiple methods of data collection that provide meaning, enable interpretations and render the case 'critical'.
Giddens' (1984) structuration theory has been criticised for its empirical research inadequacies (as stated in Chapter 3). Nonetheless, the application of structuration theory concepts as 'sensitising devices' within the two case studies researched in this thesis allows for sophisticated analysis of interactions, issues and characteristics. As Hammersley (1992) states:

We must not see research methodology in terms of competing traditions, but rather as involving a complex of assumptions and arguments, some of them in conflict, and a range of strategies and techniques that have advantages and disadvantages for particular goals and in particular circumstances. (Hammersley 1992, p. 197)

The critical case-study framework allows for the exposure of socially constructed structures and relationships in curriculum change. It is advantageous in analysing the 'duality of curriculum' across two educational sites of my professional practice: a specific school site and a site particular to syllabus construction, both concerned with curriculum change processes. Figure 4.1 provides a timeline to situate this investigation temporally and thus historically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case Study 1</th>
<th>Case Study 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>NPDP in HPE at SC commenced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996 QSCC HPE design brief</td>
<td>QSCC HPE trial syllabus construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997 QSCC HPE trial</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 Timeline of case studies in this thesis

4.2 Studying cases

Qualitative inquiry within a critical case-study framework guides the research methodology. A qualitative study is holistic, empirical, interpretive and empathic (Hammersley 1992). It retains contextual and meaningful characteristics of real-life events and is a bounded system that exists within a larger culture. A 'critical' qualitative case study retains all these attributes as it searches for multiple views and
realities in the attempt to see contradictions or gaps within the case-study setting. The enabling and constraining issues and characteristics identified in and by participants’ experiences are key to the critical inquiry.

Hammersley (1992) contends that case studies are undertaken in regard to a phenomenon about which data is collected and analysed. He suggests that a case study is one of three case-selection strategies and consists of three criteria. Firstly, it is an ‘investigation’, secondly, it is ‘relatively small’ and thirdly, they are ‘naturally occurring (rather than researcher-created) cases’ (Hammersley 1992, p. 185).

Yin (1994, p. 12) claims that a case study is an ‘empirical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident’. Thus, the case is bounded temporally and spatially but also within research questions or issues. It is more concerned with the ‘how’ and ‘why’ rather than the ‘what’ and ‘how many’ and allows the researcher to deal with a variety of data sources, all collected in context (Yin 1994).

Yin (1994, p. 20) proposes a design structure to support the case-study approach, which appears to be based in a positivist framework. It has five essential features:

- a study’s questions
- its [theoretical] propositions
- its units of analysis
- the logic linking the data to the propositions
- the criteria for interpreting the findings.

Similarly, Bassey (1999, p. 66) presents a series of stages in an attempt to systematise the case-study process. He suggests:

- Stage 1: identifying the research as an issue, problem or hypothesis.
- Stage 2: asking research questions and drawing up ethical guidelines.
- Stage 3: collecting and storing data.
- Stage 4: generating and testing analytical statements.
- Stage 5: interpreting or explaining the analytical statements.
Stage 6: deciding on the outcome and writing the case report.
Stage 7: finishing and publishing.

Conceptual frameworks for case-study approaches offered by Yin and Bassey embody a narrow, technical and positivist approach that limits flexibility and the modification of procedures according to the changing contexts of the case-study sites, and hence cannot be rendered 'critical'.

Stake (1995, p. xi) defines a case study as 'the study of particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances'. It is bounded in temporal and spatial, naturally occurring circumstances, and is part of a larger culture, yet is able to provide a facet of this culture-sharing group (Wolcott 1967; Hammersley 1992; Stake 1995). In this thesis, both case studies form a part of the larger culture of education.

Stake (1995) presents notions similar to Yin and Bassey, although from an interpretive and critical perspective. He suggests the establishment of research questions and further issues specific to the contextuality of the case as a theoretical grounding. Clearly, issues are 'not simple and clean, but intricately wired to political, social, historical and, especially personal, contexts' (Stake 1995, p. 17). Moreover, these questions and issues form the conceptual framework for the investigation in particular sites and the considerations for data analysis. It is this interpretation that has informed the case studies in this thesis.

4.2.1 Research questions and issues for investigation

This thesis presents naturally occurring cases within my life as an educator — teacher, advisor, representative — over a period of four years (1995–98). Thus, they are, as Stake (1995) suggests, personalistic studies — labours of love.

The larger research questions (highlighted in Chapter 1) provided the frame of investigation; however, particular issues within each question and each setting grounded the cases to be studied. The larger questions were:

- What issues and processes were involved in the curriculum construction and implementation of the Queensland Health and Physical Education syllabus?
• What understandings are generated when structuration theory is used as an analytical frame for curriculum change?
• What are the agential possibilities/limitations in curriculum change?

Thus, at each site — a specific school site and a site of syllabus construction — curriculum change processes (both construction and implementation) informed by Giddens' (1984) structuration theory were studied. Significantly, the 'duality of curriculum' and thus the posing of the interactional nature of curriculum change influenced my interpretation in and of these studies. Hence, micropolitical processes became an important component of the studies and even more so, in my role as an agent of change within each of the settings.

Keeping in mind the above foci of the study, the case-study strategy provided the means for a critical investigation of the uniqueness and complexity of each case, and the interactions that occurred within their contexts. Case studies also enabled multiple realities to be presented — the different and even contradictory views of what was happening. With the emphasis in this study on knowledge and practices being embedded in unique contextual (social, political and cultural) situations that draw attention to particular issues and characteristics, these multiple realities expressed by participants in their interactions are key to gaining a better understanding of curriculum change processes. Hence, the aim of the critical case studies was to present 'thick descriptions', and display 'experiential understanding' and 'multiple realities' (Stake 1995).

To generate such data in the case studies there were several researcher qualities that needed to be considered and developed. First, I needed to formulate relevant questions (based on my overarching research questions) that would enable data to generation from participants. This also required my precise understanding of the issues to be studied. Second, I needed to listen as a researcher, both verbally and non-verbally, which is different from being an ordinary listener (Wolcott 1985; Erickson 1986). Third, it was important to learn to be adaptive and flexible to the changing contexts within each site, and fourth, a limited bias and openness to contradiction was necessary (Burns 1994). I specifically say 'limited bias' because I was an active participant within both sites and may have had conscious awareness of bias but not
the autonomy to act free from it. This point is discussed further in sections 4.4 and 4.4.1.

An outline of the demographic and idiographic details of the specific site selections follows.

4.2.2 Case-study sites
The sites selected for this study were both sites of my professional practice at the time of the study. Much current-day practice within teaching focuses on educational reform and thus the construction and implementation of curriculum change. The sites were not created by me but were naturally occurring within my professional life. I was a teacher and academic coordinator at a specific school site, a representative and advisor for my Diocese and the Queensland Catholic Education Commission. Due to my prominent role within each of these settings the nexus between me being both researcher and participant, and insider and outsider, reactivity and researcher bias need to be examined. This is not an attempt to safeguard the researcher from making unreasonable and unfair interpretations but to state openly that a researcher's intent and values cannot be separated from the research process. Such matters are explored in data collection techniques and analysis (Section 4.2.3 and 4.2.4) and ethical procedures (Section 4.4).

Stake (1995) suggests that in selecting data sources, the researcher should consider the best persons, places and occasions that best understand the case. To do this, it was important to record every act, word or gesture in order to provide thick descriptions, experiential understanding and multiple views. A range of participants contributed to the study according to the contextual features of each site. The intention of the case study approach was not to intervene in the naturally occurring curriculum change processes. However, this proved unrealistic because, as the researcher, I had impact, and even desire to have impact, in certain situations. My roles impinged on existing patterns of social relations and this study presents a representation of reality. The fact that I have undertaken this research is evidence of a desire to 'make a difference' (Giddens 1984).
Sunshine College

Sunshine College (SC) is a private secondary single-sex school with an enrolment of 480 students and a teaching staff of 35. My role within the school during the time of this study was initially as a pastoral care coordinator, and then an academic coordinator. Specifically my academic coordinator role encompassed the coordination of teaching and learning in the HPE KLA. This KLA integrated the subjects of physical education and home economics and, in addition, required linking with the religious education coordinator to fulfil the personal development requirements of the HPE KLA.

Sunshine College is located in the central business district of a regional town in Queensland with a population of approximately 100,000. The socio-economic and cultural background of the students attending the college varies greatly. It had a history of innovative curriculum implementation prior to this study (1995–98), introducing vertical curriculum structures for their middle-school years (Years 8–10) in 1989 and providing students with flexibility and choice by promoting concepts such as multi-age learning. This innovation was supported by a large number of staff who, in turn, were promoted to work collaboratively across disciplines.

During the years 1995–98, the HPE KLA faculty (staff teaching units encompassed under the HPE KLA umbrella) progressed through various implementations of new curriculum documents. Initially, the national statement and profiles (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) formed the impetus to revisit Years 8–10 curriculum offerings and associated pedagogies, and in later years, the Years 1–10 HPE KLA syllabus (QSCC 1999a).

The participants involved in the study over the four-year period included the teachers planning and delivering units of work under the HPE KLA umbrella. Largely, this involved physical education and home economics teachers. Over the four years there was minimal faculty movement in the teachers involved. The total group included eight teachers, one who transferred out of the school during the study. Several others, however, left the study and returned to it due to the nature of the vertical curriculum and semestered units of work. Data were collected from these participants at various
times, including four rounds of interviews along with anecdotal notes and observations recorded from faculty and staff meetings and classroom teachings. Units of work and school documents also supported this study. Additionally, a personal reflective journal was kept to record my perceptions of the curriculum change processes.

Syllabus construction site – Queensland School Curriculum Council

The setting of the construction of the Queensland Years 1–10 Health and Physical Education syllabus formed this case-study site. The office of the Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC), an intersystemic statutory body answerable to Queensland’s minister of education, provided this setting.

My role within this site was a representative one. As a nominee from the Queensland Catholic Education Commission (QCEC) to the Syllabus Advisory Committee (SAC), I represented Catholic school interests on the committee and reviewed current happenings in syllabus construction as well as keeping QCEC (and the five Diocese of Queensland) informed. My role in trialling the draft documents would have had some influence on this representation.

The QSCC is responsible for curriculum development in all schools for the compulsory years (Years 1–10). Hence it constructs and disseminates curriculum materials to Education Queensland, the Catholic Education Diocese in Queensland and the Independent Schools Association in Queensland. The process by which the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus took place was unique. A new inter-systemic structure had been introduced and new procedures for syllabus construction were therefore necessary. The development of the HPE KLA syllabus (alongside the construction of the Science KLA syllabus) began in June 1996 under the direction of QSCC. A total of six writers were engaged (at various times) over the construction period until the syllabus was published in 1999. In addition, to assist the construction, a project chair was employed to coordinate the construction process and the advisory and consultative processes. As well, 62 trial schools were selected to implement the draft syllabus for review.
Participants in this study included the project chair and writers of the HPE KLA syllabus. Two rounds of interviews were conducted with the project chair and writers over the construction phase. Observations, anecdotal notes and documents supplied at the syllabus advisory committee meetings helped provide a rich description of happenings. In addition, a personal reflective journal was kept to record my perceptions of this process.

4.2.3 Data-collection techniques and analysis

As Hammersley (1992, p. 183) states: ‘The research process is like finding one’s way through a maze’. Due to the changing contexts in the case-study settings the research process took shape and form alongside the studies. Hammersley’s maze existed within both sites as the contexts and experiences changed across time and multiple voices were discovered in triangulation both within and between the cases.

The primary fieldwork techniques comprised the following qualitative research techniques: participant and non-participant observation, interviews, journal records, document analysis, including informal text analysis, and response/reflection sheets.

Participant and non-participant observation

The objective of applying this technique was to ‘understand the research setting, its participants and their behaviour’ (Glesne and Peshkin 1992, p. 42). Participating in the social and cultural life of the settings allowed observations and interpretations generated about human life to be grounded in daily life experiences. This technique’s purpose was to provide an insider’s perspective of the experiences in the settings. My role as a participant-observer moved across a continuum from passive observation (non-participant) to active participant. The other participants’ acceptance of my role as researcher/participant was key to the collection of data. I was sometimes an observer, sometimes an insider participating in the setting and, occasionally, an outsider participant. Any observations drawn from the settings, whether in the role of observer (non-participant), insider or outsider participant, were influenced by the role and presence granted to me by the participants.
My position on the continuum varied across the two case-study settings. At Sunshine College I interacted with the teachers primarily as a participant in the project, although on many occasions undertook the observer role noting actions, reactions, comments, and describing the work environment. However, my position as academic coordinator, and my strong personal interest and reactivity to happenings in curriculum implementation saw me play a major participatory role throughout the study. In faculty meetings and staff meetings I was more an observer, although not quite an outsider because of my coordinator role. However, in observing classroom and outdoor lessons I undertook the bystander role and was largely ignored as the normal routine of teaching physical education and home economics took place. Students would occasionally ask about my presence in their classes and were informed that I was part of a group of teachers working together to improve student learning.

The syllabus construction site saw me working along the continuum of observer to insider. Within the SAC role I acted as an observer in the meetings to record acts, words and gestures. I was also an active participant within these discussions, particularly in my dual role as Catholic Education representative and trial school/teacher. I usually found it difficult to suppress my reactivity, leading to observer becoming participant.

The cross-existence of the case-study settings and the tracking of experiences over a three- to four-year period has allowed for many repeated observations, thus providing multiple voices in the relationships for these particular cases.

**Interviews**

Interviews are one of the most important sources of information because they are key to participants expressing multiple views and realities. As Stake (1995, p. 67) suggests, interviews provide a sense of place, people and passage of time. It is within interviews that participants are able to provide insights into the study and further suggest other sources of information. The researcher and interviewees are engaged in a process of generating data together.
It is most common that unstructured or semi-structured interviews are used in case studies so as to allow participants to inform on happenings, describing particular views of experiences rather than responding to a series of questions (Patton 1987; Glesne and Peshkin 1992). Moreover, each interviewee will have a unique story to tell so researchers need to be flexible and modify issue-oriented questions accordingly. Occasionally, one interviewee may become an informant and be willing to chat informally about happenings. It is important that the researcher does not rely or depend on this one interviewee but uses other sources for confirmatory or contradictory evidence.

In this thesis a semi-structured interview technique was the primary source of generating information from participants in face-to-face interchanges. An interview guide was prepared without fixed wording or ordering of questions. The contents of the questions to be constructed during the interviews were not only drawn out of the critical issues of each case setting at that time but also expanded on what the analysed scripts indicated was important to each participant. Such a format allowed stronger rapport between researcher and participant to develop, and ensured more flexibility and less intervention in the description of happenings and thus more credibility in the participants’ responses as their own language and perspective is given value (Burns 1994). Additionally, semi-structured interviews may provide insight into the participant’s construction of interpretations and experiences. However, the researcher can never epitomise all the personal intricacies and interpretations as only the participants can experience them.

The use of this technique fostered the development of my interviewer qualities, which included establishing initial rapport to encourage participants to tell their story, being perceptive to the participants’ emotional, physical and mental comfort, being anticipatory yet naïve, analytical and assertive in redirecting the interview if necessary, carrying out non-reactive, non-directive and patient probing (Glesne and Peshkin 1992). Key to all of this was being an effective listener, withdrawing personal experiences, directing researcher interpretations from the interview and developing key responses, such as ‘Mmm’, ‘Go on’, ‘Can you tell me more’, ‘How did you feel about that’ and ‘What happened next?’ Several of these qualities
improved over the study period and are still developing in my current role of researcher.

Semi-structured interviews took place in both settings. Teachers at Sunshine College and curriculum writers at QSCC participated in four and two rounds of interviews, respectively. Each time the interviews began by encouraging the participant to talk freely and reflectively by opening discussions at a personal or anecdotal level. The critical issues guiding each of the interviews are explained in detail in chapters 5 and 6. All the interviews were taped with the written consent of the participants so as to record complete dialogue and lessen misrepresentation. Transcripts of the interviews were returned to participants for verification, checking and possible deletion of information given.

In addition, several informal interviews took place. These were conducted in a variety of settings, including hallways, classrooms and outdoors, and in various forms — for example, following meetings (of various kinds), in general discussions and during phone calls. Anecdotal notes from these discussions were written down soon after the fact so as to decrease the chance of misrepresentation of information shared.

All interview transcripts and informal interview documents were then coded to allow the researcher to determine the source and the temporal nature of the data. The identity and timing coding systems are displayed with the data in chapters 5 and 6. Because of the smaller number of participants in the syllabus construction case study, unisex pseudonyms were used to maintain the anonymity of writers, such as ‘Kym’. A corresponding number attached to the pseudonym represents the interview round, either 1 or 2. Where there were larger numbers of participants at Sunshine College, an alphabetical and numerical coding system was devised to identify participants and the timing of collection of information. For example, a Sunshine College teacher was allocated ‘C’ to identify that particular person and a number to show the interview round, from 1 to 4. Interview transcripts were further categorised according to the identification of the critical issues and or key tensions arising within the case settings (to be discussed in Section 4.2.4).
Journal keeping
A personal journal was kept to record my perceptions of the curriculum change process in each case-study site. Keeping a journal enabled me to reflect upon the events that took place and pose questions about the subjective realities, which would add meaning to those events and my actions. The ideas, data, feelings, experiences and evidence recorded in the journal were influenced by the critical approach to the studies. My journal holds experiences ‘as a puzzle frame holds its integral pieces’ (Holly 1994, p. 4).

Document collection and analysis, including informal text analysis
Documents are very much a part of the social and cultural environment of critical case studies. A variety of documents was used as complementary and comparative sources of data and proved valuable in shaping observations and interviews. The documents at Sunshine College included school policies, material supplied at staff/coordinator/HPE faculty meetings, minutes from the meetings, and HPE work programs. At QSCC, documents included draft syllabus copies, materials disseminated for SAC meetings and to trial schools, evaluation reports and minutes of meetings.

Some informal text analysis took place in reviewing the above listed documents. This is evident in the case study descriptions in chapters 5 and 6 — for example, the wording changes that took place between drafts of the syllabus and their projected meaning at the QSCC site. This procedure was employed to enhance the interpretations drawn within the case settings.

4.2.4 Data analysis
The collection of data is a simpler task for the researcher. Analysis is difficult and time-consuming. Analytical strategies proposed by many researchers (Burgess 1984; Patton 1987; Burns 1994; Yin 1994; Stake 1995; Bassey 1999) were consulted and yet analysis of the data was dependent upon specific contextual features of the case-study settings and to some extent my individual research interests and ideals.
Additionally, the critical case-study framework was to influence the analysis of information.

Burgess (1984) presents a synopsis of analytical strategies in a chapter that sums up 10 case studies. He suggests that varied forms of analysis can take place and that in some cases the researcher has a clear idea about the data while in others the themes and categories emerge from the data. Cases in this thesis were not selected to highlight theoretical points or propositions nor to maintain or refute them. Rather, these naturally occurring settings illuminate participants’ experiences of key issues and processes relevant to curriculum change settings and gauge the usefulness of structuration theory (Giddens 1984) to analyse such processes. Most importantly, the data analysis continues through the case studies; ‘data analysis takes place alongside data collection’ (Burgess 1984, p. 265). Hence, the research process was dynamic and cyclical rather than linear and sequential (Macdonald, 1992).

The identification of critical issues and key tensions formed through categorisation of data or the researcher’s interest, was critical to this study. Once these issues and tensions were discovered in the data, I returned to the literature in a cyclic process to seek further understanding and illumination. This in turn raised new questions that were applied to the data. I also needed to return to the interpretation of an ‘issue’ in this thesis to further understand its influence in data analysis. Issues are convoluted, contrived and intricate to the setting, and are political, social, cultural, historical and personal. As Stake (1995) comments, they:

> draw us toward observing, even teasing out, the problems of the case, the conflictual outpourings, the complex backgrounds of human concern. Issues help us expand upon the moment, help us see the instance in a more historical light, help us recognise the pervasive problems in human interaction. (Stake 1995, p. 17)

They ‘emerge, grow and die’ (ibid 1995, p. 21) and can be divided into two classifications — etic issues and emic issues. Etic issues are those identified by the researcher and emic issues are those that arise from participants/actors who belong to the case. Evidence of these issues provides the multiple voices and realities so important to critical case studies in the description of the cases in chapters 5 and 6.
The critical issues identified are intricate to each of the settings but it is possible that several others were not explored.

The dissection of data collected has been undertaken through applying methods of direct interpretation and categorical aggregation (or coded data) (Stake 1995). Direct interpretations ask the researcher to search for meaning in the observations and recordings, to bring out the life of the case and identify early, situations where issues are apparent. Categorical aggregation asks the researcher to classify the data according to issues (variables) and look for repeated representation of such categories, issues or characteristics. These methods allow the qualitative researcher to understand human experience as a series of chronological happenings, and establish a chain of evidence (Burns 1994), rather than a cause and effect alliance. Thus, the dissection has allowed for the case studies to be pulled apart and put back together more meaningfully or, as T. S. Eliot (in Bassey 1999) says, to return to the start and 'know the place for the first time'.

Yin (1994) states it is important to view data for many more variables or possibilities than first thought. Stake (1995) advises that 'we must take more time' in analysing data, viewing them over and over again, reflecting, triangulating, being sceptical about first impressions and simple meanings. For the evidence most critical to our assertions, we isolate those repetitions and those correspondence tables most pertinent, challenging ourselves as to the adequacy of these data for that assertion [interpretation]. (Stake 1995, p. 78)

Searching for unanticipated findings, the surprises, is at the core of data analysis.

The multiple sources of data in use in this thesis are evident in data-collection techniques. Convergence of these multiple pieces of evidence brings strength and credibility to case study findings. As Burns (1994, p. 321) states: 'The use of multiple sources is a major strength of the case-study approach'. The 'converging lines of enquiry' improve the 'reliability and validity of the data and findings' (ibid, p. 321). The use of different methods is not only complementary to the case-study setting but also provides differing images of understanding and increases the 'potency' of the evidence (Smith and Klein 1986).
Stake (1995, pp. 112-15) talks especially about different types of triangulation that enhance validity and reliability. He suggests that researchers can employ i) data source triangulation; ii) investigator triangulation; iii) theory triangulation; iv) methodological triangulation; and, v) member checking. Most commonly methodological triangulation is applied in case-study research. For the purposes of this study, methodological triangulation and member checking were applied.

To many researchers, this may appear to be contradictory to a ‘critical’ research approach, however through the convergence of multiple sources of data, and possible identification of inconsistent and contradictory data (Mathison 1988), there is strength in identifying the enabling and constraining issues and characteristics within and across sites. Issues and characteristics emerged from within the cases, thus redirecting collection and analysis. Methods of direct interpretation and categorical aggregation described earlier permitted this flexibility and lessened misrepresentation when caught in etic issues, those of the researcher. Thus, there is no convergence upon a single proposition about a social phenomenon, but rather a ‘making sense’ of data through a holistic understanding of the case-sites and the researcher having a general understanding of the type of social phenomena involved (Mathison 1988).

As well, a further method of analysis that enhances this holistic understanding and ‘making sense’ of data is ‘time-series analysis’ (Creswell 1994; Yin 1994). This method is worthwhile as it traces changes in patterns (in direct interpretations and categorical aggregations) over time. Because these cases followed the curriculum change processes over a three- to four-year period it is possible to trace happenings and further appreciate the value of the findings.

4.3 So what’s good about case studies?

Reports of objections to case studies have been expressed frequently (Stenhouse, Ruddock and Hopkins 1985; Burns 1994; Walker 1983, 1997; McTaggart 1999). There is concern that case studies are subjective, anecdotal, time-consuming and lacking in reliability, validity and rigour. Walker (1983) specifically presents three reasons for not doing case studies in curriculum research. He suggests that they:
- intervene in others' lives, that power is with the researcher to interpret information, thus misrepresentation of the issues and characteristics are possible;
- present a distorted view of the world — case studies are situational and rely heavily on 'what is said' in interviews;
- are conservative — case studies capture an incident in time and space which can be held against moving reality, a record in literature and minds.

Walker's key concern is the danger of data misrepresentation, depending on the researcher's power to choose what story the data is seen to tell. Yin (1994) poses that this can be countered by searching for the indefinite boundaries between the phenomenon and context or, as Stake (1995) recommends, by being sceptical, reflecting and triangulating repeatedly to search for adequacy in interpreting data.

An additional and more common objection to the case-study approach is that generalisations cannot be made from case-study findings. However, Stake (1995, p. 8) sees this as a strength, stating: 'The real business of case study is particularisation, not generalisation'. Burns (1994, p. 327) says: 'The case-study investigator is trying to facilitate the reader's own analysis more than deliver statements of generalisation'. Although it could be said that a case study, as with a scientific experiment, is generalised to theoretical propositions with the goal of expanding theories. Hammersley (1992) presents an interesting interpretation on this comparison. He suggests that:

while case studies do not involve manipulation of variables, it is possible to use the comparison of existing cases to make reasonable judgements about causal relationships...the findings of case study research are likely to suffer less from reactivity and therefore may involve higher ecological validity than experimental research. (Hammersley 1992, p. 196)

Simons (in Bassey 1999, p. 36) concurs in saying that in-depth case studies that acknowledge the possible tension about generalisations can 'yield both unique and universal understanding'. In examining my two case studies this way I hope the reader makes reasonable links both within and between the sites.

McTaggart (1999) takes a different point of view here where he contends that extrapolations can be drawn from case studies and not generalisations. He suggests that it is conceivable to infer unknown possibilities from what is already known. This
reinstates Yin (1994) and Stake’s (1995) support of Burns’s (1994) contentions to search for the unanticipated findings, the surprises.

Case studies that start off with a case in its own right rather than as an instance are more likely to uncover unanticipated findings. This openness to surprise and availability for multiple purposes is a real strength. (Burns 1994, p. 330)

While acknowledging the objections, there is value in an intensive and thorough examination of a contemporary phenomenon or facet. To negate some of the objections, procedures can be applied to improve the ‘means’ of the case study. Multiple sources of data and convergence of issues in data analysis, will assist in reducing misrepresentation by the researcher (Patton 1987, Burns 1994) and thus enhance credibility of findings (see Section 4.2.4). Case studies are temporal and spatial in context, however exposure to a number of participants and not just key informants, and in this thesis across two sites, provides the researcher with multiple views and a more holistic recording and construction of the issues and characteristics.

In can be assumed that many of the objections presented above have developed from viewing research methodologies as competing traditions. Case studies present a strategy and group of techniques that benefit particular research phenomenon(s) and contexts, and disadvantage others. The critical case-study approach benefits the investigation of the ‘duality of curriculum’ across a range of educational sites.

4.4 Ethical procedures – researching one’s backyard

Ethical procedures for conducting research on human activity are stated in the Australian Association of Researchers in Education Code of Conduct (http://www.aare.edu.au/ethics). The granting of an ethics clearance from the university was part of this research outlining the specific methods to be used and the clear language statements to be provided to participants. Such procedures clearly state that participants may withdraw from the study at any time, including information collected up to that point in time, and that data would be stored in a secure place to confirm confidentiality. Additionally, a coding system and/or pseudonyms are to be applied to anonymise participants’ information. These procedures frame a moral and ethical approach to the studies.
Nonetheless, as mentioned earlier, I entered the studies in these case settings with researcher 'bias'. Burns (1994) suggests that a necessary claim for a qualitative case-study researcher is 'to be free of bias'. I discount this attribute because no one can ever be free of bias. I was an active participant in the two case-study settings where I entered with particular biases, several of these still present when the studies were complete. These biases, consisting of personal values and beliefs, influenced my behaviours, reactivity and my positioning on the participant–observer continuum. Thus, I believed it necessary to acknowledge those biases and provide thick enough descriptions for the reader to assess the credibility of my accounts.

As a researcher I was undertaking research in my own backyard — sites of my professional practice — which can cause ethical and political dilemmas (Glesne and Peshkin 1992). Humphrey (1995) states that the ethical nature of conducting research within one's work environment poses concerns about the subjectivity of data collected and the effect on the collaborative cultures. Hence, there are ethical and political concerns as words, actions and gestures become part of a public agenda. Martinez (1990) presents a counter claim to the subjectivity concern of researching in one's backyard. She contends that because the researcher is actively involved in the research site, she or he is able to provide richness to the case-study data that an outsider cannot. The researcher is knowledgeable about the context that enhances the 'thick descriptions' and 'experiential understanding' in the recordings.

An additional factor that endangers the collection of data is the perception of 'public reporting beyond the school' (Simons in Burgess 1989, p. 131). The researchers are accountable to their colleagues and need to openly discuss (as noted in a language statement) the reporting process and in its additional role will assist in internal studies and decisions. Thus, 'formal procedures facilitate the growth of trust and help ensure its survival' (Nias in Burgess 1989, p. 123) throughout the studies.

4.4.1 Researcher background
It is fitting to consider the notion of researcher background influencing data collection and analysis following my discussion on researcher bias. The personal values and beliefs that I have established are grounded in my past experiences and discourses.
As Bullough and Pinnegar (2001, p. 13) state: ‘Who a researcher is, is central to what
the researcher does’. Thus, my background, initially as a primary school teacher
(originally early childhood) and then further as a specialist HPE teacher in both
primary and secondary school settings, influenced my perceptions and interpretations.

Furthermore, the literature and research processes that I have been exposed to from
my undergraduate days through to the present time add to that influence. Due to my
background and positivist approach undertaken within my masters degree, I struggled
with theorising critically and in writing because I saw increasingly that there could be
no single truth. I believe the influence goes even further to my white, female, upper
middle-class, Catholic upbringing in a small rural community, which also had an
impact in what I was able to see in the data.

Clearly these social constructions are evolving throughout the research process as was
my understanding of curriculum change processes.

4.5 **Summary**

This chapter aimed to present the manner and basis of the studies undertaken in this
thesis on the understanding that they were informed by the notion of ‘duality of
curriculum’ and that knowledge and practice is situated in unique contextual (social,
political and cultural) situations. Further the chapter argues that the critical case-
study framework presented an ideal structure in which to document information and
analyse the interactional nature of curriculum change processes. Such a framework
highlights the multiple voices and realities within curriculum change and further
questions the enabling and constraining issues and characteristics at each case site.

Case study definitions have been put forth and, more specifically, the interpretation
this thesis is based upon. The identification and examination of ‘critical issues’, both
etic and emic, are pertinent to the case-study findings. It has also been recognised
that there are limitations to case-study approaches and that several procedures can be
put in place to negate these concerns and lessen the chance of misrepresentation. An
additional limitation is that of ‘researcher bias’. As Simons (in Bassey 1999, p. 36)
suggests, we need to live with the tensions and ‘reveal both the *unique* and the
universal and the unity of that understanding. To live with ambiguity, to challenge certainty, to create encounter, is to arrive, eventually, at “seeing” anew.

Moreover the researcher needs to acknowledge these tensions and use them to search for unanticipated findings and surprises within the case-study data with the possibility of linking contextuality or peculiarity of the case to the larger educational field.
SECTION B

PROLOGUE

This thesis investigates curriculum construction and implementation and the interplay with human agents and their organisations. Before using a ‘duality of curriculum’ analysis (see chapter 7), it is necessary to present the two case studies in descriptive form using entering frames of Goodson (1988), Sparkes (1990), Fullan (1991) and Hargreaves (1995). These descriptions, exposed in chapters 5 and 6, explore the enabling and constraining issues embedded within the unique contextual situations of each case site.

Chapter 5 displays a critical policy analysis of the construction of the Queensland Years 1–10 HPE syllabus (QSCC 1999a). Chapter 6 presents a secondary school site investigation where both the national statement and profiles (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) and the Queensland Years 1–10 HPE syllabus (QSCC 1999a) were implemented. Both settings probe the interactions between the human agents, the curriculum and institutional properties. Key to these investigations was the micro-politics — the ‘seedy underside’ (Datnow 1998) of curriculum construction and implementation.
CHAPTER 5

CASE STUDY 1:
A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE YEARS 1–10 HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION SYLLABUS IN QUEENSLAND

Any text will include and privilege certain interests and ideologies, and equally, subordinate or exclude others. Inevitably, texts are political, serving and promoting, but equally overlooking and subordinating particular interests.
(Penney and Evans 1999, p. 24)

5.1 Introduction
This case study exposes a critical analysis of the construction and reconstruction of the Health and Physical Education syllabus in Queensland over the period 1996–99. It argues that the creation of a syllabus-curriculum-policy is a political act. It involves the presence of competing interest groups with different agendas and intent that occurs at different levels (macro, meso and micro). Largely, the focus of the study is on the writers of the syllabus and particular groups surrounding them. Thus, a ‘critical policy analysis’ reveals the enabling and constraining issues and characteristics for the writers that were situated in the unique social, political and cultural context of syllabus construction. Figure 5.1 provides a timeline to situate and the study temporally and thus historically.

1 As stated in Chapter 2, where the terms syllabus, curriculum and policy are used (singly or concurrently) they are interconnected.
1996
- Formation of QSCC
- Selection of HPE syllabus writers
- SAC formed
- Design Brief and syllabus overview developed

1997
- HPE trial syllabus #1 developed (February)
- Trial implementation process commenced in July
- SAC meetings continued (4 over the year)

1998
- HPE trial syllabus #2 developed (February)
- Revised trial implementation process commenced in February
- HPE trial syllabus #3 developed (July)
- HPE trial syllabus #4 developed (August)
- HPE trial syllabus #5 developed (September)
- SAC meetings continued (5 over the year)

1999
- QSCC Years 1-10 HPE syllabus and support materials published (January)

**Figure 5.1  Case study 1 timeline**

Central to this case study is the notion that syllabus-curriculum-policy is the ‘implicit or explicit specification of courses or purposive action … directed towards the accomplishment of some intended or desired set of goals’ (Harman 1984, p. 13). It also recognises that it is ‘an “economy of power”, a set of technologies and practices which are realised and struggled over in local settings’ (Ball 1994, p. 10). Policies are contested and remodelled within their physical contexts. These contestations and consequent reconstruction of the syllabus-curriculum-policy result from particular agential possibilities and limitations. Syllabus-curriculum-policy is thus both product and process.

The study of the construction and reconstruction of the Years 1-10 HPE syllabus for Queensland schools highlights both the product and process components. While the focus is on construction and reconstruction at the QSCC level, a blurring of the boundaries between construction and implementation occurs in the trial process. It is the aim of the partnership curriculum construction model employed by QSCC that implementation by the teachers will have impact on the construction process. However, differing interpretations and contestations in this critical case study are exposed in the focus on the contextual processes in the evolving document and in the
key issues and tensions manifested in the construction and reconstruction process (for selection of key issues see section 4.2.4 – data analysis). The key issues here include the nomenclature specific to this key learning area, the conceptual bases of content and language, the positioning of physical activity in the syllabus and the identification of and catering for special interest groups in the syllabus. These interrelated critical issues are visible in the textual changes that have occurred in various drafts over the construction period.

It is also important to note the role of the state in the construction and reconstruction of public policy. The state can be defined as consisting of key players in political, judicial and administrative institutions who have a complex relationship with the government of the day (Taylor et al. 1997). The state (defined in section 2.1) is of crucial importance in any understanding of the construction process as it has the ability to translate ‘values, interests and resources into objectives and policies’ (Davies 1996, p. 19). Ball (1994, p. 21) takes this further by saying that state policy can establish ‘the location and timing of the contest, its subject matter and the rules of the game.’ These views support the notion that policies ‘produced by and for the state are obvious instances in which language serves political purpose, constructing particular meanings and signs … fostering a commitment to the notion of a universal public interest’ (Codd 1988, p. 237).

It is difficult to identify which interests have been given value once policy has been constructed. I argue that it is essential to look behind the construction of policy documents to ask questions about whose values are given priority. However in this case study not all stakeholders have provided input into the ‘behind’ investigation (due to the distinct foci of an EdD study only the writers and closely linked groups on the SAC were involved) and hence claim can be granted to a partial story.

5.1.1 The current context – why the new policy and why now?

Over the past decade, Queensland school curricula have been undergoing a review process. Bodies of review, national initiatives, and changing governmental structures have been heavily influenced by political agendas. As a result of frequent changes of government, from National to Labor to National–Liberal coalition and more recently,
back to Labor, curriculum and policy matters have been continually reviewed and occasionally reversed. It might be inferred that education policy is a marketing tool used to influence voters. However, some stability has remained in Queensland politics in relation to the intersystemic structure proposed by the Labor government in 1995. The Queensland Schools Curriculum Council, which is responsible for policy development for all schools for the compulsory years — Year 1 through to Year 10 — has been established. Although government parties have changed twice since its inception, this structure has remained and is now a statutory body. It is important to note here that although QSCC is at the helm of policy construction, it is not concerned with implementation of policy (with the exception of the trial period).

In 1999 and 2000 much debate arose over the role of the education statutory bodies in Queensland, including QSCC and the Board of Senior Secondary School Studies (BSSSSS). Discussions have taken place about the intersystemic nature of the bodies and additionally their relationships with each other.²

Queensland’s developments have also been influenced by happenings at a national and international level. At a national level, the ‘Common and Agreed National Goals for Schooling in Australia’, established in 1989, set common goals for all states and territories in Australia. Goal number nine was ‘to provide for the physical development and personal health and fitness of students for the creative use of leisure time’ (Australian Education Council 1989, p. 10), reinstating HPE as an essential component of all children’s learning. These goals were revisited in 1999 and continued to value the role of HPE (MCEETYA 1999).

Key learning areas (KLAs) were first introduced at a national level, influenced by international developments in the United Kingdom, America, Denmark and New Zealand. In 1994, the Australian Curriculum Corporation produced a ‘statement’ document as part of the national curriculum guidelines in HPE for all Australian schools. The document to follow the statement, Health and Physical Education — A Curriculum Profile for Australian Schools, outlined the essential learnings for

² The Australian College of Education, Queensland Chapter, held a forum to raise such issues. The information shared here was recorded in discussion following that forum.
students (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) that are expressed as a result of engagement in the KLA.

Central to the KLAs was the change to outcomes-based education. The change from objectives and content-based curricula to outcomes was due largely to the preoccupation with accountability. The adequacy of a curriculum that was based on statements of content was questioned (Curriculum Corporation 1994a). The accountability phenomenon that emphasised the measurability of demonstrated performance also expected that the public be informed of services being provided and for whom, and an explanation of the policy purpose, intended beneficiaries and expected outcomes (Goodwin 1996, p. 70). Beare (1995) identifies accountability as one of the characteristics of structural reform in Australian education. Others include:

- efficiency and good management as priorities;
- simple, political control outlining ministerial responsibility;
- devolution of responsibility where schools take greater responsibility for their own affairs;
- national priorities being established by the national government.
(Beare 1995, pp. 144–45)

Linked to the accountability phenomenon was the notion of ‘incrementalism’ where policy is dependent upon previous, or existing, policies and practices. This is seen in the construction of the HPE KLA Years 1–10 syllabus in Queensland. The pre-existing policies that this KLA builds from are the ‘P–10 Structure Research and Frameworks’ proposed in 1988; the national curriculum documents; interstate policy documents, such as the West Australian Health and Physical Education syllabus; the senior Physical Education and senior Health Education syllabuses and the ‘games for understanding’ draft documents (see Chapter 2).

Such forms of review have their source in economic factors and they are particularly significant in the development of policy in HPE. Studies undertaken by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1988, 1992, 1994) and two important health studies (Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation 1987; Department of the Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories 1988)
have led to a renewed focus on health education and physical activity. More recently, research and media inquiry has explored the relationship between obesity and a decline in physical activity in children. The health costs incurred by rising obesity and lifestyle diseases have put pressure on the education sector to raise awareness of the benefits of health and physical activity.

In Queensland, an official primary HPE school document has not been published since 1972, and in the secondary school, documents for health education and physical education were last published in the late 1980s. Given this ‘historical lack of direction and support for curriculum development in this area’ (University of Queensland 1997, p. 2) teachers in the trial schools welcomed the development of a new Years 1–10 HPE syllabus and were happy to trial it.

5.1.2 Researching the process

Tracking the construction of such a document provides evidence that policy development is very much a contested, contrived arena. In this study I show that competing interest groups struggled over the syllabus content and language, all of which produced the statements of intent (Goodson 1988). In these struggles adherence to evolving institutional procedures was significant.

During this construction stage, key issues and tensions became evident, identified by me as participant and researcher and also by the syllabus writers. The interview material, minutes of meetings and textual changes to the syllabus drafts collected during this time period illuminated these issues and tensions. Interview data were collected in December 1997 (end of first six months of trial) and August 1998 (near completion of the project). There were key contextual issues at those times that will become evident in the discussion of data.

Interviews were conducted with the Project Chair and five of the six members of the writing team. One of the writers chose to be excluded from the research for personal reasons. Further, one of the interviewees left the project twelve months before it was completed due to the expiry of his secondment period from his schooling system.

Refer to Chapter 2 for historical analysis of Health and Physical Education curriculum documents.
While I felt a certain lack of substance in the construction study, common critical issues and tensions have been raised by the writing team and hence there is great richness in the data collected. The names of the interviewees have been kept anonymous. Unisex names have been allocated and no distinction can be drawn between project chair and writers. The personal communication data recorded will note either #1 or #2 to distinguish first and second round interviews.

I now wish to explore these critical issues further. The first issues to be discussed are the tensions that evolved in the construction process itself and secondly a number of issues pertinent to the content and language of the syllabus.

5.2 Power (re)negotiation in the evolving document – The ‘Construction’ Process

The political nature of the policy construction and reconstruction process has been mentioned previously in this thesis. Codd (1988, p. 245) suggests that policy is an ‘ideologically constructed product of political forces’. He contends that analysis of a policy document involves the critique of the values, assumptions and ideologies underpinning the text appearing in the document. Moreover, Ball (1994, p. 43) advocates that policies ‘are typically the cannibalised products of multiple (but circumscribed) influences and agendas’. However, only certain agendas are acknowledged as warranted pieces of information and hence only certain ‘voices’ are heard at any one point in time. This implies that dominant and minority groups exist in the reconstruction of knowledge. Thompson and Gitlin (1995) believe that a system of privilege and entitlements exists within institutional structures and that ‘players’ can assume to have the right to certain goods and services whilst others must continually fight to demonstrate their claims. ‘Members of dominant groups are assumed to have a legitimate claim to the service, deference and gratitude of those outside their groups’ (Thompson & Gitlin, 1995, p. 136), reinforcing the view that power is central to the construction of policy.

I now take up how this power is (re)negotiated in the construction process. Key players are identified wielding their own agendas. Textual and procedural changes will expose the competing interests as identified in the various drafts of the policy.
document. Importantly, too, the writers are exposed as key players in the syllabus construction. Vignettes displaying their individual values and beliefs are examined to uncover particular focuses and agendas.

5.2.1 The ‘construction’ process

The process by which the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus took place was unique. A new intersystemic structure was introduced, and new procedures for policy construction were therefore necessary. QSCC was formed as a result of political decisions and from recommendations stemming from the Wiltshire Report (Wiltshire et al. 1994). Its responsibility was to develop all curriculum materials for the compulsory years of schooling (Years 1–10). For the first time, the members of QSCC were typically representing the three schooling systems and a variety of interest groups (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Official and appointed members of QSCC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFICIAL MEMBER</th>
<th>NUMBER OF PERSONS APPOINTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director-general of Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOVERNOR IN COUNCIL-APPOINTED MEMBERS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPRESENTATIVE GROUP/NOMINATION BY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Queensland – Director and a principal nominee</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Catholic Education Commission</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association of Independent Schools of Queensland Inc.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Teachers’ Union</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Association of Teachers in Independent Schools</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Education, Training and Employment Commission</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Council of Parents and Citizens’ Association Inc.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federation of Parents and Friends Associations Qld.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Parents and Friends Council of Queensland</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Forum</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Previous to this body being established, Ed.Qld. was responsible for curriculum development and Catholic and Independent schools largely implemented Ed. Qld’s policies. In establishing QSCC there was an initial period of 12 months before it became a statutory body. Hence an ‘interim’ council was to hurry the duties of the council to ensure the intersystemic body was operational and seen to be satisfying electoral promises.

During the ‘interim’ council period the Health and Physical Education and Science syllabuses began to be constructed. In February 1997, 12 months after the appointment of the initial writers of the syllabi, QSCC became a statutory body. Although this appeared as a modus operandi it caused difficulties for the writing teams. The new QSCC was to review the decisions made by the ‘interim’ council and hence modify procedures for the development of syllabi. Logan, a member of the HPE KLA writing team, comments about the changes to these procedures.

The decisions have come from a level at council, and being a relatively new body, and us being the first KLA, it was all part of the process of establishing exactly what they did want in syllabus documents … The ground keeps shifting as their decisions and information becomes more refined and more informed and they have clearer ideas of want they want. (Logan, personal communication #1)

The council took time to work through issues and more specifically to outline the requirements for the syllabus, sourcebook and initial in-service materials. Additionally, the curriculum handbook that was to present writers with these requirements was an evolving document alongside the construction of HPE and Science syllabuses. As Syd (personal communication #1) states ‘it was a bit of the chicken-and-egg thing’. Syllabus writers were asked to develop a design brief and then a draft syllabus to go out to trial schools without a curriculum handbook presenting guidelines for such documents. For the writers that has certainly been ‘a major stumbling block’ (Lee, personal communication #2).

Due to the difficulties in establishing an intersystemic body, including the institutional procedures and policies, and more specifically the refining of the syllabus and policy documents, an executive working party (Curriculum Committee) was established in September 1997 (QSCC 1997d, p.2) to review particular curriculum
documents and make representations before the council meetings. This would allow
council meetings to be more time-efficient.

Under the direction of QSCC, the HPE KLA syllabus development (alongside the
Science KLA syllabus) began in June 1996, the goal to have completed syllabus,
sourcebook and initial in-service materials by December 1998. So in June 1996 a
project chair and three writers were chosen to start the design brief outlining the
literature review and components of the proposed syllabus. Six months into the
project another three writers were added to the team to assist in the construction
process (see profiles of these writers in Section 5.2.2). A new project chair was also
appointed early in 1997 due to the resignation of the original chair from the QSCC
appointment and Ed.Qld secondment. Three of six writers responsible for the
construction of the syllabus came from specialist primary school physical education
backgrounds, the other three, from secondary school health and physical education.
This, discussed later, had an enormous impact on both the resulting nomenclature and
content. Importantly, the writers came from both Ed.Qld. and Independent schools.
Three of these writers also had experience in the tertiary sector and comprehensive
experience in curriculum development.

In June 1997 three additional writers joined the team to develop the sourcebook
guidelines and modules, and the initial in-service materials. The project team was
located at the QSCC office and all developments were under the auspices of QSCC.
The QSCC was in turn answerable to the state minister for education.

Developments were also taken to an advisory committee representing teachers of the
three systems — Ed.Qld., Catholic Education, Queensland, and the Association of
Independent Schools, Queensland (AISQ) — as well as university representatives and
members of the competing interest groups of home economics, and sport education.
The following table outlines the interest groups (and number of representatives)
included in the advisory committee.
Table 5.2 Health and Physical Education Syllabus Advisory Committee Representatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANISATION</th>
<th>NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Association of Independent Schools</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Queensland</td>
<td>5 (one representative specific to Special Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relationships Education Ministerial Reference Committee</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board of Senior Secondary School Studies (through to September 1997)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation Qld</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Catholic Education Commission</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qld Association of Independent Schools &amp; Qld Teachers Union</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Federation of Qld</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of Higher Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland Aboriginal &amp; Torres Strait Islander Education Consultative Committee</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland School Sport Council</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent Organisations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics Institute of Australia Inc.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Access (Ed Qld) — from September 1997 to completion</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A large consultative network was formed in the initial stages of construction with approximately 120 members. Many of these were interested teachers from Queensland schools. Sixty-two Queensland schools became involved in the trial of the syllabus over the period from July 1997 to June 1998. Primary, secondary and special education schools, a distance education and an outdoor education centre were drawn from the three schooling systems of Queensland, namely Ed.Qld. (44), Catholic Education (12) and Independent Schools of Queensland (6).

Figure 5.2 (over page) has been developed to best display the structures involved in the construction process and endeavours to represent the ideal democratic process.
where all representative groups share a ‘voice’ in the construction of the HPE syllabus.

5.2.1.1 National and state agendas
Competing interests at the national and state level influenced the construction of the syllabus. Largely these agendas determined the location (at the state and regional levels) and timing of the syllabus construction. There was definite political purpose in developing the syllabuses, not only in delivering statements of intent and particular
meanings for public interest (satisfying electoral promises), but also in complying with national initiatives that had already been established in other states across Australia. As Lindsay (personal communication #1), a member of the syllabus writing team states: 'There are many agendas to accommodate, and many tensions to be held in balance between state and national imperatives'.

The state of Queensland had been slow to adopt the KLA approach in curriculum development that existed elsewhere in Australia. The national statement and profiles were established to promote common learnings among all Australian children (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b). Lee (personal communication #2) sees this as 'the genesis of a political theme where we were to use the national documents and [satisfy] the need for some sort of national system'. Hence, the national documents formed a foundation for the development of the Queensland version of the HPE syllabus, although Queensland opted to develop a condensed and further integrated approach to the KLA, as did Western Australia.

Further pressures at the national level included the preoccupation with accountability and the associated concept of benchmarking. In literacy and numeracy, benchmarks are being trialled in Years 3, 5, 7 and 9, to check that all Australian children attain competency at these levels. Money has been allocated from the Federal Government for diagnostic support. Given the interest in accountability at all levels of educational systems, and the finance available, the benchmarking movement is particularly powerful. This power is reflected in the HPE syllabus alignment with the benchmarking movement as displayed in the inclusion of typical achievement. The syllabus states:

For the purposes of planning and assessment, outcome levels typically relate to year levels as follows:
• students demonstrating Level 2 outcomes are at the end of Year 3;
• students demonstrating Level 3 outcomes are at the end of Year 5;
• students demonstrating Level 4 outcomes are at the end of Year 7;
• students demonstrating Level 6 outcomes are at the end of Year 10.
(QSCC 1999a, p. 27)

Logan signifies the influence of the benchmarking movement by stating:
... also pressure from a national level in terms of things like benchmarking and the pressure to align, and that also impacts on content of what goes into the syllabus and outcome statements. (Logan, personal communication #1)

In contrast Kym denotes a level of frustration with the influence of accountability. S/he sees the syllabus as a:

    continued evolution of a document that is tied more closely to an accountability mechanism as opposed to a document which lays out the possibilities and options. This has resulted in a continuing reductionist approach to the KLA. (Kym, personal communication #1)

An inference could be made that the accountability and reporting component has been a constraining factor on the breadth of the KLA. Writers were encouraged to work within the structure and make links to community issues and government policies within the syllabus content. The syllabus became a vehicle for economic and political agendas of health, road safety, drug and alcohol education and suicide prevention. The writers were generally supportive of these links as confirmed by Lindsay's comment:

    You would hope that government departments or statutory authorities such as ours would be able to coordinate their policies to an extent that that could occur. ... [I believe it is] legitimate use of political power to influence education. (Lindsay, personal communication #2)

Nevertheless, the emphasis was to project a futures orientation to such links. Syd states:

    In keeping in mind of the future, we just can't be narrow on things that today are the focus of those government strategies or community issues. You have to be broad enough to enable things that might occur in the future [of] five to ten years. (Syd, personal communication #2)

Setting the construction and publication timeline for the syllabus documents was a state political issue. Whether the timeline be linked to political promises or the attempt to bring Queensland KLA development to that of the other states of Australia, the binding nature of it caused great concern and frustration for the HPE KLA writing team.
5.2.1.2 A stringent timeline

The construction, trial and reconstruction were to be completed in a 2.5-year period, June 1996–December 1998. Lindsay saw the imposition of the timeline as a political expectation. S/he states:

One of the expectations from the government and the previous government is that curriculum change will be occurring at a fairly fast rate so that all of the syllabuses for KLAs, and even optional syllabi for KLAs will be ready for implementation basically within the space of three years. (Lindsay, personal communication #2)

The HPE syllabus-in-development working document has progressed through a series of drafts. The construction and reconstruction process has produced five drafts since its inception in May 1997 through to the final draft document produced in September 1998, leading to the published version being released in January 1999.4 Several shifts have taken place within each draft, with new structures being imposed as a result of competing ‘voices’ heard.

The number of drafts developed within a 16-month period is evidence of changes made to the syllabus document, including overall structure, learning outcome statements and language. Although the writers had to make changes to the document and disseminate it for consultation, the deadlines for the project remained the same. Logan says:

that sort of thing is frustrating, particularly when in the meantime, the work that we’ve done, you tend to feel as though you’re going around in circles a bit. Also, getting pushed, I guess in certain directions, which we’re not entirely happy with, but which have been made at a level above us.

(Logan, personal communication #1)

The writers were frustrated at many levels: the time wasted in the first six months when their writing had to be reshaped, the pushing from above, and having to wait for decisions to be made by a higher authority.

It appears that decisions made by QSCC had delayed progress for the syllabus writers. Joe sees the timelines as a great concern. S/he states:

The timelines have been problematic, incredibly problematic. This particular stage of the timeline is a good example. We’ve got deadlines coming up, we’ve been wanting to work on this since the evaluator’s report, to start it, but we’ve been waiting for decisions [from QSCC] and there’s still decisions to be made. (Joe, personal communication #1)

Because of the December 1998 deadline for project completion, and the adverse changes made to the syllabus following the completion of the trial in June 1998 (three drafts followed the trial completion), the published syllabus was not trialled. This was a great disappointment for the writers who began the project believing they would have a period of three to four months following the trial completion to refine the syllabus document.

This final version of the document will never be trialled in a school, simply again because of the timelines and that is a concern because when you are so close to a document there may be a problem in it that we can’t see because we are close, but it’s obvious to a practising teacher when they go to implement it. (Logan, personal communication #2)

Several members of the SAC reiterated this comment at the August 1998 meeting (QSCC 1998f). One of the members also raised the concern that ‘due to the strict timelines, the SAC and smaller consultation group, including trial teachers, are the only persons to respond to the August draft and there needs to be time allowed to be answerable to our systems’. It seems that the writers were but instruments obeying ‘rules of the game’ (Ball 1994) according to the timelines set by the state.

5.2.1.3 Decision-making processes

Decision-making processes were evolving due to the new intersystemic context of developing syllabi for Queensland schools. The grounds of syllabus structure, content and wording were shifting constantly to not only refine the document but also comply with new policy directives set by the council. These changes had great impact on the syllabus writers, implementation in the trial schools and the consultation processes outlined in Figure 5.2.

Lindsay provides a point of view about the construction and decision-making process by stating that a lot of changes happen within the broad vision of the curriculum.

5 These notes were recorded in my personal notes of the 3/98 SAC meeting.
That’s almost always the case with any state-wide curriculum development in a liberal democracy, and exacerbated by the intersystemic nature of this one, and the invention of relationships which must occur in a new organisation with a new council etc. Lindsay (personal communication #1)

However, other writers had different views seeing the decisions (or lack of them) made ‘above’ as a barrier to progress. For example, Lee (personal communication #1) states: ‘These decisions that council are making should have been made a minimum of 12 months ago’. He continues: ‘The decision-making process was from on high’ and ‘There seems to be no recognition that the lack of decision interferes with what happens here’. The parameters within which the writers had been working were altered to suit the new requirements, asking the writers to ‘take their intent of what was valued, ... keep the foregrounded philosophy, ... within those new parameters, ... those new structures that have been put forward’ (Joe, personal communication #1). This quote from Joe indicates that the writers saw their work as being done within a framework altered by an authority, the QSCC. It was up to the writers to interpret QSCC intent and values. Syd (personal communication #2) agrees stating: ‘You sit and you wait for a council meeting, thinking what changes were we going to have to make’. This caused anxiety not only for the project team or teams, but also for the trial teachers. A comment from Lee (personal communication #1) voiced this concern. S/he implies that the Council is out of touch with the decisions being made and the effect on the trial: ‘So we’re the bunnies that go out to schools to say, “Well listen guys, sorry we can’t tell you anything because we’re waiting yet again for another decision”.’

Significantly, the lengthy development time of the Queensland Curriculum Handbook (which then became ‘Framework’) that was to provide guidance to policy development was also responsible for this confusion and tension. Unfortunately this tension developed alongside the construction of the HPE and Science syllabus (and more recently the Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE) and Languages other than English (LOTE) syllabi). The SAC meetings confirmed such frustration. The minutes of the first meeting for 1998 read:

The curriculum framework is also impacting on the development of syllabus. Section 1 of the syllabus is to be reworked to comply with council decisions and to show the relationships between overall learning outcomes and the syllabus outcomes. (QSCC 1998b, p. 2)
A textual example of the differing agendas between the QSCC and the writers can be illustrated in the physical layout of the syllabus. As a result of the November 1997 QSCC meeting, an extensive relocation of content had to be achieved between Drafts 1 (May 1997, QSCC 1997c) and 2 (February 1998, QSCC 1998a). Draft 1 produced a document consisting of seven sections on essential learnings and associated issues, such as whole-school planning and teaching approaches. The council members, the Syllabus Advisory Committee (SAC), and Ed.Qld. thought that too much information was included in this document, more than was necessary in a syllabus, particularly when schooling systems might differ in approaches. As a result, QSCC needed to:

- revisit interim council decisions (decisions made previous to the council being endorsed as a statutory body);
- produce a curriculum framework for Queensland;
- establish consistency in the syllabus format across the KLAs (as HPE and Science produced contrasting documents in their first draft); and
- define the role and structure of a syllabus.

The role of the syllabus proved interesting, with the final decision being that syllabi could not rule on issues such as time allocation or learning covered in each year of schooling, which would give possible consistency across all KLAs. After further consultation the sections were reduced and renamed using the terms ‘Rationale, Outcomes, Assessment’. Core learning outcomes (CLOs) were established, and level statements were limited to three sentences.

Unfortunately the Draft 1 document had been released to trial schools for implementation, and Draft 2 meant a new start, posing more complications than the introduction of an integrated KLA. Student-intended outcomes were modified dramatically to include the new decisions made about the role of the syllabus and its components. This included removing rules, such as time allocation, from the syllabus, and remodelling outcomes into the revised sentence structure. For trial schools this meant reversing the implementation that occurred in the first six months to include the modified outcomes and associated assessment procedures. The evaluator’s report (University of Queensland 1998) reflected this reversal in a loss of trial schools and decline in implementation in 1998.
Questions were also raised about the members of the council, the curriculum committee and their individual interests. For example, Syd questioned what influence those members had and what they brought to council meetings.

I know at the last executive working party [curriculum committee], they were looking at outcomes and it was very interesting to hear the types of things said. For example, [name deleted] said: ‘Where have you got water safety? We had a drowning in our schools’, and in court they say ‘Were the kids taught this?’ and we can say ‘Yes’... they would say it’s [the inclusion of particular content] accountability, but it’s really looking after their own interests. (Syd personal communication #2)

The influence of personal agendas is also raised in the next section, in a discussion of the problematic nature of becoming an intersystemic body.

Nonetheless, Lindsay suggested there was a need to consider a larger perspective about decision-making processes in an intersystemic environment.

There is a need to consider the broader political and educational context of policy development for schooling in an intersystemic environment ... It can be unsettling for people unaccustomed to the way in which curriculum development on a state-wide or national scale typically occurs, with a recursive and relentless process of consultation. (Lindsay, personal communication #1)

However, the process of consultation, open to trial teachers, the Syllabus Advisory Committee and consultative networks, might have lost some influence over the construction period. Three writers of the project supported this view. Syd (personal communication #1) said that ‘... [on] the big decisions, I don’t think our consultative network or our advisory committee has had a chance to influence’. Additionally, Lee (personal communication #1) commented:

I think in getting from the draft [Draft 1, May 1997] to the yellow version [Draft 2, February 1998] I think we were pretty faithful to the consultation that came about, and in terms of our own work there, whereas I think that’s a different story from then on. (Lee personal communication #1)

Kym (personal communication #1) supported Lee’s comment, reiterating the influence of council decisions and stating: ‘I do feel that teachers have been listened to in their feedback, but that their responses and comments have had to be tampered with and incorporated into other decisions’. These words implied that at best teachers did not recognise where their input was manifested in the final decisions or, at worst,
felt that their input had been ignored. It seemed that the power relations in this consultative process were co-ordered (Thompson and Gitlin 1995) in that the teachers’ (and sometimes writers’) voices got lost in the big decisions that got made at a higher level. This co-ordering was institutionalised in the hierarchical framework (see Figure 5.2).

The accommodation of these agendas within decision-making processes, whether they be political interests in the establishment of timelines or national or state imperatives, or personal interests, will always be problematic but in this case it is exacerbated by the intersystemic nature of the body.

5.2.1.4 Becoming intersystemic

The development of a body responsible for curriculum development for all three schooling bodies, plus an array of external agencies, is a desirable ideal but inevitably problematic. Pre-existing hierarchical structures present an additional consideration in the development of new relationships with the schooling bodies. Several of the changes mentioned previously relate to the establishment of an intersystemic body, such as the decision-making processes. However, the relationships to be established between QSCC and the three schooling bodies (Ed. Qld, Catholic Education Queensland and Independent Schools) proved to be political. Lee confirmed this:

I think there’s an awful lot of political plays to go through over the next couple of years before this whole place will actually operate as an intersystemic body and communicate with three systems who are also operating as systems, and work through them. (Lee, personal communication #1)

Lee suggested that Ed.Qld and Catholic schools, to a lesser degree, operated as systems but the Independent schools, although they had an association to represent them, operated independently. Lee (personal communication #2) went as far as saying that ‘Ed.Qld is the arm of the government that deals with the majority of Qld students in education’. This implied that Ed.Qld in its links to the government had a strong ‘state’ power. A textual example was the reformatting of Section 1 in the Draft 4 syllabus. The SAC minutes of the meeting declared the capacity of Ed. Qld. It recorded: ‘The inclusion of the introduction was particularly made in response to feedback from Ed. Qld’ (QSCC 1998f, p.3). Such feedback was brought to a council
meeting where modifications to the structure were endorsed. For the HPE KLA syllabus this was a particularly late stage in the project development.

Logan’s (personal communication #2) experiences of the three systems working together within the trial saw difficulty not in the systems themselves but in that ‘... the lines of communication within the system have probably caused us more problems’. This raises questions about the systems, how they functioned to provide feedback and whether personal agendas might arise. These issues became evident particularly within Ed.Qld., ‘the primary driver’ (Logan, personal communication #2).

Ed.Qld. has been mentioned above as having been a key player with a powerful voice in the construction process, both by virtue of its numbers and the fact that syllabuses were mandated in the public system, whereas the private sector had a choice. A significant factor was Ed.Qld.’s established history in policy construction for schooling in Queensland and then having to share authorship/power with QSCC. Nonetheless, while the writers understood Ed.Qld’s need to be the driving force it appeared that, as Logan stated earlier, the lines of communication within the system itself had not been effective. Three of the writers confirmed this view. Lee stated:

Ed. Qld’s position I find fascinating in terms of the political power plays ... their inability to have their house in order and give clear directions seems to be quite remarkable too, in that you have various decisions coming through at council that various officers lower down in their structure know nothing about and actually disagree. (Lee, personal communication #2)

This comment suggested disarray in providing syllabus-construction feedback. Syd confirmed this, suggesting that it was possibly linked to individual agendas.

Ed. Qld has definitely been the biggest player but their push and pull hasn’t been focused. While they’ve given a lot of criticism they haven’t really given us a lot of input ... their influence has probably been personal ownership. (Syd, personal communication #2)

A textual example of the issue of personal ownership is expanded upon in the exploration of conceptual bases of content and language (Section 5.3.2).

An additional factor, linked to the mandated component of the syllabus for Ed.Qld schools was the Queensland Teachers Union’s (QTU) involvement in the syllabus
construction. The QTU had a representative on the SAC for the duration of the project and yet in the final stages, when the document was in publication and due to be released to the schools, the union enacted a six-month delay in implementation. This greatly disappointed writers because of the detrimental effect it might have had on the actual implementation of the HPE KLA. Lee (personal communication #2) confirmed this frustration by stating ‘... the union’s position ... I find fascinating a major player could almost sit in silence within the seat of power [a member on the SAC] and then come in the back door all the time to influence what goes on’. More recently, in 2000, all ‘new’ syllabus implementation, including HPE, had a six-month work ban imposed in the aim of achieving better work conditions for Ed. Qld teachers.

The influence of the other two systems does not appear to have been as overt. The writers acknowledged general support from the systems, particularly Catholic Education where they have collective identity through the Queensland Catholic Education Commission (QCEC). However, it was also commented that although ‘theoretically they should all have the same input’ (Logan, personal communication #2) it seemed there had been a return to pre-existing power structures and not a functioning of the intersystemic opportunities. He said:

From what I understand in some of those council meetings is that the state system will suggest something and the other systems will follow ... because it seems like a good idea at the time [and] the state system has had the resources behind it in terms of what’s sitting in 30 Mary Street [Education House, Brisbane]. (Logan, personal communication #2)

5.2.2 Vignettes of individual writers’ values and beliefs

During the interviews the writing team members were asked to identify the experiences they brought to the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus, including their individual values, beliefs and philosophies of the HPE KLA. More importantly they had to identify specifically what should be visible within the syllabus. Each of the members shared this information in both interviews I conducted, firstly identifying such values and beliefs and, secondly, reflecting on the project to see whether those values had been included in the syllabus. The individual writer’s descriptions are recorded as vignettes.
Kym

Kym came to the construction process with a specialist primary physical education background, extensive experience in curriculum development and involvement in the tertiary sector. S/he was a writer of the national profile document and coordinated the National Professional Development Project (NPDP) for Queensland schools. S/he stated the following values regarding the HPE KLA:

- Movement is a fundamental aspect of life.
- Health and wellbeing is a valuable personal and social goal.
- Movement can provide a methodology for personal and social development.
- Regular physical activity provides a means for maintaining optimal physical functioning throughout life.
- Social and environmental influences on our personal health and wellbeing are becoming increasingly significant.
- Many students value competitive and structured activities and some students aspire to elite or specialised performance in the movement context.
- PE as a course of study can provide a movement foundation and the means for identifying avenues that will enhance their personal skill levels.

Underlying all of these was a commitment to the key principles of diversity, social justice and supportive environment as outlined in the national documents (personal communication #1).

When asked to comment upon the particular positioning of the issues s/he wished to contain within the syllabus, s/he stated:

> It is really difficult to keep track of all the perspectives that I personally wanted to maintain — for example, maintaining some integrity with the national documents, ensuring a socially just curriculum, being realistic to implement in schools, having some integrity with the expectations of traditional subject areas within the syllabus. (Kym, personal communication #1)

Lee

Lee said the following about his/her perception of the HPE KLA at the beginning of the project:

> I guess I had a narrow vision, having worked in the development of the two senior projects [Health Education and Physical Education], but while that gave me insights into some areas of the KLA, it certainly didn’t help with some of the other stuff. (Lee, personal communication #1)

Hence from personal experiences, Lee valued the ‘... the social view of health ... Ottawa Charter ... that sort of stuff is important to me. The senior PE stuff ... the
strategy work and the games for understanding stuff ... the socio-cultural aspect of PE’. S/he conveyed strongly his/her beliefs and valued social action in health education as promoted in the five principles of the Ottawa Charter. An emphasis on these was included in the ‘key concepts’ of Draft 1 (QSCC 1997c). Lee now believed that, although these principles were not explicitly visible in the syllabus, they appeared to be subsumed into other areas, such as ‘personal skilling and the supportive environments’ (personal communication #2).

Lindsay
Lindsay believed that the HPE KLA was intended to ‘primarily actively engage students in the investigation of the multi-dimensional nature of health and the importance of participating in physical activity’ (personal communication #1). The clusters of outcomes, skills and processes were to ‘deal with human development, human movement, human relations, the health of individuals and populations, and others identified nationally (safety, people and food, and physical activity and the community)’ (personal communication #1). Additionally s/he valued an acceptance of diversity, a commitment to social change while maintaining the disposition of open-mindedness, and an emphasis on the peaceful resolution of conflict. Lindsay did not come to the writing task with a HPE background and thus believed s/he was able to provide objectivity in the construction process.

Naturally enough, of course, the project team members come with a range of influences as well and I guess in many ways I’m a bit of a clean skin. So I can look with a jaunter style without having alignment to a professional association or without having alignment to a sector of schooling or tertiary institution or a schooling authority and say, ‘Why are we going in this direction?’ and throw up some challenging questions to the team members to justify why something or other is being included or excluded. (Lindsay, personal communication #2)

Joe
A primary physical education specialist and experience as a tutor and research assistant at the tertiary level, Joe (personal communication #1) identified ‘involvement in the NPDP project, where teachers were working with the statement and profile’, as assisting his/her perception of the KLA. Joe’s teaching experience in
physical activity appeared strongly in his/her values and beliefs. The approaches that were valued included:

... the socio-cultural perspective that it gave to physical activity was something that I was very supportive of, and certainly fitted within my notion of what was important in terms of PE ... consistent with the philosophy underpinning the physical activity strands in the statement ... the role of cognition, underpinning physical activity ... the theory/prac. dichotomy (Joe, personal communication #1).

Logan

Logan, a secondary HPE teacher undertaking a masters degree in health science brought a broader perspective of the HPE KLA. S/he valued ‘... the social view of health and health promotion and the socio-cultural perspective ...[the] need to start taking responsibility and taking action ... as well as an emphasis on kids being engaged in physical activity’. Additionally s/he acknowledged that the KLA ‘did encompass outdoor education, human relationships education and so on’ (personal communication #1).

When asked to reflect on the syllabus document as it was in Draft 3 (at the time of the interview), s/he commented: ‘Certainly there is a strong health flavour there and I am pleased with what we’ve got in health’ (Logan, personal communication #2).

Syd

Syd, a primary physical education specialist with experience as an advisory teacher, valued greatly an emphasis on engagement in physical activity. S/he stated:

I guess one of my values was the importance of physical activity, particularly for kids in the primary school. If they get a good grounding in physical activity and skills that are needs and attitudes etc., then things will improve as we go through (Syd, personal communication #2).

Syd had limited involvement in the NPDP involving the trial of the statement and profile. As a result of this experience s/he said: ‘So I understood what the KLA was about’ (personal communication #1).

These descriptions provide insight into the depth of knowledge and experience the writing team brought to the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus. To summarise the
writing team’s experiences: they were all from HE/HPE backgrounds and this caused observers some concern. Logan (personal communication #1) confirmed this concern when s/he stated: ‘… that was a criticism levelled at the team, was that the expertise was fairly narrow within HPE, and served to promote the image that it was HPE as was traditionally known.’ However, s/he continued to say:

And I guess all having come from PE/HPE backgrounds, that tended to be what we valued, and we had to be very aware of not positioning ourselves as just HPE, and rather, taking a broader view and trying to get input from health educators, home economics educators, outdoor educators and so on (Logan, ibid)).

However, the emphases on physical activity and social view of health were evident within the writing team’s ideologies. The significance of ‘engagement in physical activity’ particularly proved a critical issue in the selection of content and language for the HPE KLA syllabus. The textual examples and writing team’s comment on this critical issue is explored in Section 5.3.3.

Hence the construction process of the Queensland Years 1–10 HPE KLA syllabus has been a process of contestation and struggle identified in the issues explored thus far. These issues highlight the notion that power and politics were central to the contextual processes of syllabus-curriculum-policy construction. The QSCC attempted to develop new relationships with the three systems and provided representation for these systems and other interest groups on QSCC, Curriculum Committee, SAC, trial schools and consultative network. The timeline, decision-making processes and national and state imperatives lessened the effect of these committees and groups. Individual writers’ values and beliefs about the HPE syllabus construction presented influence on these decision-making processes and particularly selection of content. Existing power structures, both institutional and personal, have influenced the construction process. As a result of these influences Lee (personal communication #2) raised a major concern, saying: ‘Once again, we have something going out to schools that they haven’t seen’.

These issues and tensions also had an impact on the selection of content and language for the Queensland Years 1–10 HPE KLA syllabus.
5.3 Key issues in the content and language of the Years 1–10 HPE KLA syllabus for Queensland Schools

This section further analyses the values, assumptions and ideologies underpinning the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus. Moreover, it examines these assumptions in formulating the content and language of the syllabus. Again such issues and tensions highlight the difficulty of QSCC becoming an intersystemic body but, more importantly, make clear the dominant and minority groups and their struggle for power in the syllabus construction. Key to illustrating these issues and tensions were the interview material, the minutes of the SAC meetings and the textual changes in the consequent drafts of the syllabus. Drawn from this material were the contentious matters of nomenclature, the conceptual bases of the syllabus content and language and, in particular, the role and place of physical activity and the inclusion of the needs of special interest groups.

5.3.1 Nomenclature – what’s in a name?

Should the policy document be entitled ‘Health’, ‘Health, Physical Education and Personal Development’, ‘Health and Physical Education’ or ‘Physical Education and Health’? The naming process for this key learning area has certainly been intriguing and indeed national and state titles do differ according to decisions of each state and system. Nationally, the key learning area was entitled ‘Health (incorporating Physical Education and Personal Development)’ by the Australian Education Council (AEC) in 1991. The AEC Curriculum and Assessment Committee (CURASS) was established in August 1991 to oversee the development of the national guidelines in the eight key learning areas — English, Maths, Science, HPE, SOSE, LOTE, The Arts and Technology. Under the direction of CURASS this title was revised in 1993 to become ‘Health and Physical Education’ (HPE), largely as a result of lobbying from the Confederation of Sport and support from the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (ACHPER). The Home Economics Association had lobbied for its inclusion and territory, as its discipline had been split across three key learning areas — HPE, SOSE and Technology. The home economics lobby was marginalised by allied groups that belonged solely to one key learning area, so HPE it became, largely due to political manoeuvring from the Confederation of Sport (Irwin 1993; Kennedy 1998); CURASS succumbed to the pressure of competing interest.
groups and renamed the key learning area. The nature of this particular naming process proves that policy is always open to the competing interests of sectional groups.

The name of the HPE KLA in Queensland was not raised for discussion. The assumption could be made that all involved in the development of the syllabus accepted the status quo of the terms in the title. However, the writing team acknowledged the history of the nomenclature and Logan’s comment illustrated this.

I was aware of some of the problems simply with the name of the HPE KLA, for example to the Home Economics educators, and also how the physical educators felt when it was just called the Health KLA. (Logan, personal communication #1)

Hence some discussion took place on the inclusion of traditional subjects (existing subject cultures operating in schools). Joe saw this as a particular challenge:

... the biggest shift for teachers, for schools, for interest groups, is that in the past we’ve looked at traditional subjects whereas now we are looking at a KLA which of course has a lot broader perspective than a traditional subject and therefore has a lot of interest groups that relate to it. (Joe, personal communication #2)

Textual changes in the syllabus drafts confirmed the input of particular interest groups and their visibility in the content and language. Draft 1 of the syllabus did not specify the scope of the KLA embracing learnings traditionally addressed in subject areas, but rather in terms that took cognisance of the strands stated in the national statement and profiles (QSCC 1997c, p. 1). Traditional subject areas that contribute to the KLA were named in Draft 2, and they included Physical Education, Health Education, Home Economics, Human Relationships Education, Lifeskills and Outdoor Education (QSCC 1998a, p. 5). The inclusion of Personal Development and Sport Education arose in Draft 3, 12 months into the construction process (QSCC 1998d, p. 1). At the same time this text was relocated from page 5 to page 1 of the syllabus to be included in the rationale. All of the above stated subject areas appear in the published document. It is questionable as to whether the inclusion of the subjects in different drafts resulted from the lobbying of interest groups at SAC, with the support of the alliance across groups. This is discussed further in Section 5.3.4. perhaps Discussions also arose in defining the concept of ‘physical activity’. For example, the Home
Economics interest group questioned whether the skill development could include chopping skills in the preparation of food for healthy eating practices.

The writers appeared confident that the interest groups were able to locate themselves either in the syllabus or accompanying documents. Nevertheless, as Lee stated:

Whether it's the home they want or it is visibility they want, I don't think I will comment on that because I am pretty sure in a couple of cases the answers would be no. (Lee, personal communication #2)

Several reasons might be given for this discontentedness. These are explored further in the discussions surrounding the inclusion of particular interest groups in Section 5.3.3.

The writers expressed concern about the emphasis in language on the traditional subjects and that it might lead teachers to continue their traditional practices. Logan said:

[it is]... certainly a concern when you hear some teachers saying: 'This is just HRE, Health and PE. Nothing's changed', and that is a concern because there is a lot of change in the document once they read it and see what it actually demands of them and of the students. (Logan, personal communication #2)

Hence much discussion took place about the conceptual underpinnings of the syllabus and their influence on creating a HPE KLA.

5.3.2 Conceptual bases of the HPE KLA syllabus

Several critical issues were to underpin the content and language used in the HPE KLA syllabus. The writing team members' individual experiences, values and beliefs outlined previously were highly influential in the selection of content and language. Other issues included outcomes based education and the directive to use the national statement and profiles (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b). The statement and profiles were of particular importance as they instigated the identification of key concepts and the decision to structure the learning outcomes within three or four strands. Each of these critical issues influencing the selection of content and language within the syllabus were evolving in the construction process and, in certain situations, evolving out of each other. They should not be seen as distinct issues but
rather as affiliated issues so as to express the multiple realities and richness within the case study.

5.3.2.1 Outcomes based education (OBE)

The change to OBE as an influential factor was mentioned in the contextual features instigating the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus for Queensland schools. The use of OBE (Spady 1993; Brady 1996) delayed the development of the HPE KLA syllabus. The direction of the outcomes for both the HPE and Science syllabi was an unresolved issue at the time of the design brief (September 1996) (QSCC 1996b) and was still causing difficulties for the writing team in July 1997. Minutes of the SAC meeting record the following:

Outcomes based education is another ongoing discussion topic. Criteria are still to be developed to assist teachers make judgments about the demonstration of achievement of the outcomes. (QSCC 1997d, p.1)

Draft 1 (QSCC 1997c) of the syllabus was distributed to schools in May 1997 with learning outcome statements, even though the matter of defining outcomes was yet to be resolved by both the writing team and the Council. This caused the writers to go back to the literature:

... particularly to the latest American stuff which had changed significantly from when we did the literature review 12 months previously, because their outcome stuff — they’d been operating long enough for people publishing the results of bits and pieces. (Lee, personal communication #1)

Significantly impacting on this review (after the trial of Draft 1) were comments from the trial teachers. As Lee (personal communication #1) stated: ‘... I mean we knew from talking to schools and they informed us that the outcomes had to change — it was only a question of what they were going to change to’.

In November 1997 the council endorsed the following decisions on OBE:

The characteristics of an outcomes based syllabus: Syllabi will: be developed for Years 1–10; have a consistent structure across the eight KLAs; identify both core and extension learning outcomes; take cognisance of core indicative time allocations. The structure of each syllabus will be: rationale; outcomes; principles and modes of assessment (QSCC 1997f, p.2).
When informed of these changes, the SAC committee members raised issues relating to accountability. The inclusion of the alignment statement of typical achievement in the syllabus was discussed, a concern also raised by Lee:

The time of planning to year levels, whilst it is not the nice theoretical outcomes based, is a practical measure that allows teachers to cope, particularly the general primary teacher who is going to have eight car loads running over the top of them. (Lee, personal communication #1)

Council decisions continued to impact on the restructuring of the content and language of the syllabus when it endorsed:

Learning outcomes for students are statements of what students know and can do with what they know. Strand level outcomes have a dual role, to inform curriculum planning and as a framework for assessment (QSCC 1997f, p.2).

In March the following year the interpretation was extended to state: ‘... the core learning outcomes describe learnings that are considered to be essential for all students’ (QSCC 1998b, p.3). This is more directive and yet tied directly to OBE literature.

Therefore the content and language of the syllabus was transformed to meet the new requirement of OBE as defined by the council. The council also directed that the national documents — statement and profiles — were to inform the construction of the Queensland HPE KLA syllabus.

5.3.2.2 The statement and profile definition

National initiatives were to have an influence on the content and language of the HPE KLA syllabus. The documents, A Statement on Health and Physical Education for Australian Schools and Health and Physical Education – A Curriculum Profile for Australian Schools (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) were to provide the foundation definition of the KLA. This impacted significantly on the writing team’s task, as Joe commented:

... [this was] one of the initial directions we were given, and I think the words went something like ‘in the development of the syllabus, the statement and profile would be a significant starting point’... We weren’t starting in a vacuum, but we were starting with this definition of our KLA. (Joe, personal communication #1)
Additionally, the other Australian states had already employed this definition of the KLA to produce their curriculum documents. Consequently:

The other thing that had significant impact, too, was looking around at what the other states had done because it certainly was a time of change and still is, and seeing what they have done with the statement and profiles and how they've modified them, I think they were perhaps the key impacting documents. (Joe, personal communication #2)

The strands and consequent sub-strands of the national profile were to provide the conceptual base for the content and language. The writing team was given the initial instruction to 'pare down' the national statement and profile and 're-sort all of the concept things or to reorganise them into a way that we were happy with' (Syd, personal communication #1). The intention behind the paring down the statement and profile strands was to make it 'more manageable for teachers, maintaining one eye on the possibility of reporting frameworks emerging from the syllabus structure, while trying to ensure that there are few casualties on the way' (Lindsay, personal communication #1).

The conceptual underpinnings promoted in the profile sub-strands were valued highly by the writing team and, along with the five principles of health promotion, became the 'key concepts' of Draft 1 (QSCC 1997c). The changes to the structure of the syllabus, the definition and wording of outcomes caused these key concepts to be condensed and combined over various stages of the syllabus construction. It was noted in SAC minutes that key concepts would have a reduced role within the syllabus, and particularly in planning (QSCC 1998b). Table 5.3 displays the textual changes that occurred.

**Table 5.3 Changing nature of key concepts in the syllabus drafts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SYLLABUS DRAFT</th>
<th>KEY CONCEPTS FOCUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Draft 1 (QSCC 1997b)</td>
<td>29 key concepts to illustrate core curriculum — Strand 1: 7, Strand 2: 11, Strand 3: 11.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draft 2 (QSCC 1998a)</td>
<td>Condensed the key concepts into just three for each strand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draft 3 (QSCC 1998d), Draft 4 (QSCC 1998e) and Draft 5 (QSCC 1998g)</td>
<td>Did not state openly the key concepts but was expected they would inform the core learning outcomes (CLOs).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A concerning development was to occur at the August 1998 SAC meeting where members were asked to review all of the strands’ CLOs and suggest improvements. The most comprehensive change was to occur in Strand 3, ‘Enhancing Personal Development’, where it was recommended that:

the organisation of the core outcomes and the core scope to focus on the following issues:
- Personal and cultural identity
- Relationships and community standards
- Growth and development
- Communication and cooperation.

(QSCC 1998f, p. 5)

Previously the four CLOs within this strand did not include the concept (sub-strand) of growth and development. Textual examples of the changes were as follows:

Core Learning Outcomes
2.1 Students describe how individuals and groups share characteristics and are also unique.
2.2 Students suggest actions they can take to support positive interactions with family, special people and friends.
2.3 Students demonstrate communication skills to express ideas, needs and feelings in a variety of situations.
2.4 Students demonstrate ways to show fairness and consideration of others in group activities.
(QSCC 1998c, p. 20)

Core Learning Outcomes
2.1 Students describe what they like about themselves, how they are special and how individuals and groups share characteristics but are also unique.
2.2 Students suggest and demonstrate actions, behaviours and attitudes that support positive interactions with family, special people and friends.
2.3 Students compare similarities and differences between people at different stages of life.
2.4 Students demonstrate verbal and non-verbal skills to express ideas, needs and feelings and to show consideration of others.
(QSCC 1998d, p.19)

Several of these changes could be linked to a refocus on the sub-strands of the national statement and profile but they could also be linked to a particular SAC member who initiated them. His/her previous experience with the national statement and profiles informed his/her decisions and his/her personal expertise was influential in making the recommendations, although receiving support from the group.
Curiously though, Joe (personal communication #2) commented that ‘in terms of breadth of the document and capturing all that we valued, I think it’s perhaps broadened through different drafts’.

5.3.2.3 Three or four strands?

With the directives given to condense the national statement and profile strands, four possible models of organising the core curriculum were set out in the design brief (QSCC 1996b) and were presented to the SAC members for discussion (QSCC 1996a, 1996c). Much discussion was also to take place among the writing team members. Largely this discussion was concentrated on the choice of three or four strands. When discussed at the SAC these models raised some concern. Such concerns focused on ‘that some strands from the profile may lose identity when a core is defined’ (QSCC 1996c, p.3). At the following SAC meeting members agreed to the following:

... the need:
• for all seven strands of the national profile to be represented in the syllabus;
• for the document to be readable (user-friendly);
• for a combination model.
It was also agreed that reporting should not drive the syllabus. (QSCC 1996e, p.3)

The combination model chosen displayed four strands, which appeared in the design brief endorsed by the council (QSCC 1996b, pp. 4–5). The four strands were:

• Promoting Health and Human Development;
• Developing Movement Concepts and Motor Skills;
• Enhancing Relationships with Others; and
• Creating Healthy Communities and Environments.

Nonetheless, the writers and SAC continue to discuss the choice. Lee commented:

Do you have three streams, do you have four, do you have twenty-four? How do you take this great mass ... and give enormous prominence to some things? ... How do you then change all that with people’s values working through there? (Lee, personal communication #1)

In the end, the ‘decision was taken away from us and we were directed to have three strands’ (Joe, personal communication #2). The writers were asked to work within the three-strand/three-sentence structure. Concerns were then raised within the team. ‘How do we keep all that we considered important foregrounded within that structure, and if we can’t keep it foregrounded, what does it mean?’ (Joe, personal communication #1). The writing team remained aware of the need to reduce the
strands and to highlight particular concepts at the expense of others. Lee (personal communication #1) confirmed discontent among the writing team when he said: ‘I’m not a 100 per cent sure whether what we’ve got here … what we’ve done now …[brings] 100 per cent agreement with the team, although it is a workable issue’.

Hence the Draft 1 syllabus disseminated to the schools stated:

The knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that are essential to the learning area have been accommodated under three syllabus organisers:
- Promoting Health of Individuals and Populations;
- Developing Movement Concepts and Motor Skills; and
- Enhancing Personal Development and Relationships. (QSCC 1997c, p.2)

Great unease remained within the writing team over this decision. Lindsay (personal communication #1) contended that the main reason behind the choice of three strands was the ‘manageability and reporting issues’ for teachers and yet it was ruled at a previous SAC meeting that the choice of strands should not be driven by a reporting agenda. Syd saw the selection of these three strands as continuing the status quo:

I think what we’ve done is just reinforced the study of current practice, ie. Health, PE, HRE … the integration of physical activity across more than one strand is something I’d be looking to see, so it wasn’t just the Health, PE and HRE. (Syd, personal communication #1)

Syd was obviously concerned that vested interests would ensure that teachers would continue to teach ‘subjects’ as they knew them prior to the syllabus. The SAC members also raised this concern. It was recorded in the minutes of a meeting (QSCC 1997b, p.2) that a concern was the ‘failure of the current 3 organisers [strands] to challenge the current HRE, health and PE mindset’. Syd extended this interpretation in the second-round interviews:

I still believe we should have had four strands, with two of them, one a very heavily physical activity like the movement concepts that we’ve go now, but another one, and I’m not quite sure what the structure would have been, but maybe the fitness stuff out of that … like the profile one of physical activity in the community … recreation … socio-cultural maybe too … we stayed with the three …[it] is part and parcel of the workload for teachers … it was a workload issue for teachers and given the union’s attitude, they would even like fewer outcomes and this has been consistent all along … It was a decision that was made. (Syd, personal communication #2)

Several meanings could be interpreted from Syd’s statement. It appear s/he was concerned with the reductionist approach to the strands due to the impact on the teacher’s workload but s/he was also flagging the need to expose ‘physical activity’
further within the syllabus. This appeared to be a vested interest. Joe (personal communication #2) also suggested the need for 'physical activity' to be emphasised further when s/he raised the concern that the balance of the outcomes may have been uneven in interpreting the syllabus to be very theoretical from Strands 1 and 3. When viewing the vignettes of Syd and Joe's values and beliefs they brought to the construction of the syllabus, both presented a heavy emphasis on physical education; hence the comments above could be interpreted as a personal agenda to mandate physical activity across two strands rather than just one as occurred.

In summarising the critical issues and tensions illustrated in the conceptual bases of the content and language of the syllabus, it appeared that several influences caused contestation and remodelling of the text. Structural decisions made on OBE, the significance of the statement and profile documents, the key concepts and amalgamation of these into an integrated framework, and the individual writers' values and beliefs were also evidenced in the textual changes. Joe (personal communication #2) passed comment on the selection of content and language: 'It's interesting how we've moved around in a big circle back towards the broader definition of the KLA'. Joe's comment suggested a return to the definition provided by the national statement and profile. This was evident in mapping the CLOs of the published document (QSCC 1999a) with the strands and sub-strands of the statement and profile. All concepts underpinning the strands and sub-strands are evident in the Queensland syllabus with the exception of 'sexuality', which does not have much visibility. The significance of physical activity is indeed apparent in the published document. The textual changes made in the draft documents to achieve this emphasis are explored below.

5.3.3 The positioning of physical activity in the syllabus
The syllabus title of Health and Physical Education suggests that physical activity would form a necessary part of it. However, as stated previously, it was essential that the syllabus considered broader content. The writers were aware of the need to accept the diverse nature of the key learning area although their beliefs (expressed previously) about the necessary predominance of physical activity influenced its significance in the published syllabus.
Also, the debates on the decision to have three or four strands, discussed previously, also had input on this positioning. Physical activity within the three-strand structure has only a one-strand focus although the intent was to have integration across strands. As mentioned by several writers a four-strand structure would have allowed physical activity to be emphasised in two strands plus the integration. Hence it is questionable whether the strand decision was reductionist in the breadth of the key learning area or, perhaps of more importance to the writers, it was interpreted as being reductionist in the emphasis on physical activity.

In addition to the writing team’s perspectives, the SAC was generally supportive of the physical activity focus early in the construction process. The minutes of the third SAC meeting in 1996 record (QSCC 1996e, p. 3) ‘... not enough emphasis on PHYSICAL in the outcomes’. The use of capital letters suggests a note of importance in flagging the ‘physical activity’ agenda. Comments from the writers confirmed their focus on physical activity for the syllabus.

The value in the physical activities was very important, simply because of the increased sedentary nature of humans these days, and the related health benefits, but also need to value physical activity in its own right and teach the skills for understandings for life long participation. (Syd, personal communication #1)

Logan supported this: ‘... and the fact that physical activity was a unique aspect of it ... we certainly needed to hang on to that’ (personal communication #1). This ideological view was never absent from the text.

Draft 1 stated that a ‘minimum of 50 per cent of time allocated to the core program was to be devoted to physical activity’ (QSCC 1997c, p. 24). Why 50 per cent? The numerical value placed on physical activity was adopted from the senior PE syllabus that was in trial/pilot phase at that particular time, recognising the influence of the writers involved in that trial/pilot. The rule of time allocation was dropped due to QSCC decisions on the role of the syllabus in Draft 2 (see section 5.2.1.3).
Constrained by the new structure, Drafts 2, 3 and 4 emphasised in theory 'engagement in physical activity'. Joe explained how the writing team was to reinterpret their valuing of physical activity within the syllabus structure:

... the rule about physical activity ... we've been given this direction that there shall be no rules, then what was the intent of that rule? ... we need to re-visit that then just to remind ourselves of what was the intent behind the rule, and how might we achieve a similar outcome within the new structure. (Joe, personal communication #1)

In Draft 2 (QSCC 1998a, p. 1) the following statements were designed to deliver the message on physical activity.

The syllabus recognises that:

• physical activity plays a role in the promotion of health and personal development;
• participation in physical activity plays a significant role in the lives of individuals and groups in contemporary Australian society; and
• physical activity has a dual role as both a source of content and a medium for learning.

Drafts 3 and 4 presented a different way of encompassing the message.

The learning area recognises the contribution of participation in physical activity in promoting health, and also recognises the unique role of physical activity as a medium for learning about health, movement concepts and motor skills and personal development. (QSCC 1998d, p. 1; 1998e, p. 3)

However, the role of physical activity was further discussed at the August 1998 SAC meeting. Although not written within Section 2.6, 'Principles of planning using outcomes' in Draft 4, the importance of physical activity was debated and was to be included in this section. Additionally the title of Strand 2 was discussed and a suggestion put forward to change the name to better encompass the socio-cultural perspective of physical activity. At the next meeting it was noted that Strand 2 was renamed ‘Developing Concepts and Skills for Physical Activity’ (QSCC 1998h, p.1). There was no discussion recorded on physical activity nor were there future suggestions recorded in the minutes of this meeting.

An interesting development arose at the September 1998 (4/98) SAC meeting where in reporting on the August 1998 council decisions the following occurred: ‘For the HPE syllabus, council decided that the 50 per cent rule included in the draft was to be

6 Personal notes recorded at 3/98 SAC meeting.
reworded to indicate the emphasis on physical activity in the KLA and is to be moved to the rationale (Section 1.1)' (QSCC 1998h, p.2). The SAC did not discuss this recommendation at that time and hence it was taken for granted even though no such suggestions had been put forward from the August SAC meeting. Consequently, later in the day, a vote was taken on the inclusion of this particular emphasis and the wording to display it. The 4/98 SAC minutes of the meeting read as follows:

8. General Business
‘50% physical activity rule: In order to meet Council requirements, the committee was asked to consider the wording of the ‘50% rule’.
The wording in the syllabus presented to Council was:

A minimum of 50 per cent of the time allocated to the learning area should actively engage students in physical activity.

[Writing team member, name deleted] proposed that the wording be amended to:

A majority of the time allocated to the learning area should actively engage students in physical activity.

Following discussion, a vote on the proposed wording was taken. The result was 9 for and 5 against. (QSCC 1998h, p.3)

Hence, although there was disagreement particularly from the Home Economics representatives (QSCC 1998j, p.1), Draft 5 (QSCC 1998g) was to include such a statement about engagement in physical activity. The wording presented to council, recorded in the minutes above, were those stated in Draft 1 in May 1997. It appears that the instigation for the reinstatement of such a statement came from the writing team themselves as the ‘rationale’ from Draft 1 had not been discussed further at SAC meetings nor was it discussed with other consultative groups. This was best summed up by Logan:

I think in terms of valuing the physical activity we’ve mandated that through the CLOs in the syllabus … whilst our intent was the mandation of physical activity it kind of got lost a bit in the words but I think we will be able to address that for the final syllabus document. (Logan, personal communication #2)

The strength of the words ‘our intent was the mandation of physical activity’ re-emphasised the valued position of physical activity. Additionally the phrase ‘I think we will be able to address that for the final syllabus document’ suggested a particular strategy to achieve this position. This interview material was collected following the August 1998 SAC meeting and before the September 1998 SAC meeting.

Consequently, Draft 5 was modified to state:

Emphasis is placed on active engagement in physical activity as a key aspect
of the learning area. A significant amount of time in the KLA should be allocated to learning experiences that actively engage students in physical activity. (QSCC 1998g, p.1)

At the same time, highlighting ‘engagement in physical activity’ was also to occur in the section ‘Using outcomes for planning and assessment’ on page 22 of the published version (QSCC 1999a).

Just as arguments took place over the positioning of ‘physical activity’, so did they exist over the inclusion of interest groups’ perspectives in the document.

### 5.3.4 Defining content and language – the inclusion of interest groups

Due to the diverse nature of this key learning area, the inclusion of interest groups was problematic. Each group struggled for identity within the HPE syllabus. Nonetheless, each group had power to influence the visibility that valued their field within the document and the accompanying materials. This power was used both individually and collectively where alliance groups sometimes developed. Moreover, some of the voices were more political than others in their search for territory in the document. Such power plays are evidenced in the groups interpreted by the writers as ‘interest groups’.

Several interest groups were identified earlier in this thesis. The design brief (QSCC 1996b) encompassed current research on Home Economics, Special Education and Outdoor Education. These interest groups were identified as having a role on advisory committees or, as Lee interpreted it, having ‘a seat of power’ (personal communication #2). Lindsay explained the roles of the groups on the various committees.

> ... the groups are actually represented on advisory committees or councils or whatever else because they probably have a legitimate reason to lobby for their schooling authority or for their union or whatever else. (Lindsay, personal communication #2)

However s/he also noted that ‘there tends to be alliances established between particular groups [in] the course of the project’ (Lindsay, personal communication #2).
The writing team have been conscious of the interest groups due to the diverse nature of the key learning area as evidenced by Logan’s earlier comment. Joe (personal communication #1) also states this awareness: ‘... I think we have to balance the broad spectrum of teachers that are going to work with this document. I think that’s certainly been a consideration we’ve had because of the breadth of the KLA the whole time’. The breadth of the KLA was also noted within the selection of trial schools. Not only were the three schooling systems represented, they were spread demographically to encounter remote, rural and urban schools and target particular interest groups such as the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. Additionally an outdoor-education centre, a distance-education centre, two special schools and specific home economics classes were targeted. The writing team were adamant that they listen to the input of groups. As Joe stated:

I think the lobbying in most cases has been with a genuine valuing of content area and trying to foreground that content area and make sure it’s overt, whether that be outdoor education or other areas. They want to make sure it’s visible because it’s valued. (Joe, personal communication #2)

Despite these claims of listening the writers had ultimate power and their interests lay in physical activity.

Several groups were seen to be more proactive than others. Lee (personal communication #2) contended that ‘the main players are home economics in particular, very vocal, very well organised. Outdoor education and sport are continually pushing at the edges but not as physically as home economics’.

5.3.4.1 Home Economics

Home Economics teachers were fighting for identity across three KLAs — HPE, SOSE and Technology. The Home Economics (HEc) Association was struggling for territory within the HPE KLA syllabus and the writing team were aware of these difficulties. As Lee (personal communication #2) stated: ‘... it must be quite threatening despite the value of learning that someone would have in the traditional home economics’. Three members of the writing team praised the HEc Association for their participation and feedback. For example, Joe (personal communication #2) commented: ‘... Home Economics ... have been very overt throughout the curriculum
development which has been good ...[they have] contributed significantly with feedback’.

Logan expressed some concern for the discontentment held by the HEc group at various times. S/he perceived the frustration to lie within their struggle to be identified in the first KLA to be developed and that

... I think it was probably seen as us being a bit antagonistic towards them but in reality it was probably more the case that within the parameters we were set we couldn’t accommodate some of their wishes. (Logan, personal communication #2)

Notice this justification by appealing in the rhetoric to parameters set outside the writing group. This was typical of power play in justifying the inclusion or exclusion of the HEc voice within set boundaries. Interestingly the group were involved in the development of the additional materials — for example, the sourcebook modules — and thus spread their visibility.

An example has been taken from one of the SAC meetings to show the HEc struggle. A SAC member:

... questioned why, in the key concepts, nutrition is singled out since it is a content area, not a concept. He suggested the wording be altered to make the language more appropriate to that of a conceptual statement ...[Home Ec Representative, name deleted] argued for its inclusion and the need for Home Economics teachers to see their area reflected in the key concepts. (QSCC 1997d, p. 2)

The words here were indicative of how personally the interest groups took these struggles for visibility. Although the SAC member was asking for the language to be changed to suit OBE directives, it was interpreted as wanting to exclude the content of nutrition peculiar to HEc interests in preserving their discipline as a visible component of the new syllabus.

The introduction of elective syllabi by the council and successful lobbying by the HEc Association, has brought about the construction of a Year 9 and 10 Home Economics Elective Syllabus (QSCC 1998j, p. 2). Their proactive manner achieved visibility in the HPE KLA syllabus and accompanying materials, as well as an elective syllabus.
5.3.4.2 Special Education

Special Education was recognised by a SAC committee member and through the selection of two trial schools, although it could be inferred that limited recognition was given in the overall construction process. The notion of inclusion of Special Education in the syllabus came about very late in the construction process.

It was only when trial schools raised the concept of having Pre Level 1 statements specific to Special Education contexts that its inclusion came to the forefront. The writing team had considered the inclusion of Pre Level 1 statements but they were intended for early childhood students. Furthermore, the Special Education representative on the SAC (QSCC 1997e, p.4) 'did not support a Pre Level 1 as these students are catered for with individual education programs (IEP)'. The notion of Pre Level 1 was then discussed with various bodies, including Ed.Qld., the trial schools, Queensland Recreation Association for People with an Intellectual Disability (QRAPID) and at the QSCC. As a result of these discussions, Pre Level 1 was 'renamed Foundation Level' and a Special Education forum was to be held in six centres in late 1998 (QSCC 1998h, p. 1). Due to the lateness of these decisions in the timeline of the HPE KLA syllabus project, the directives could not be implemented in the published document. As recorded in the September 1998 SAC minutes (QSCC 1998h, p. 2): 'Although additional consultation with the Special Education community will be sought, decisions will be too late for inclusion in the Science and HPE syllabuses.' However, there was an attempt to cater for special needs contexts in the accompanying materials. 'In the section of the sourcebook containing elaborations of the outcomes, there will be some examples of outcomes developed from the Foundation Level statement' (QSCC 1998j, p.1).

5.3.4.3 Outdoor educators

The outdoor educators were not represented on the SAC and yet, as a professional association, they sought to find recognition in the HPE syllabus. Four members of the writing team were aware of the outdoor education context for the achievement of the CLOs. As Kym, said: '[the outdoor educators] have been very keen obviously to see outdoor education as a valued medium through which learning in this KLA can occur' (personal communication #1). Late in 1997, the SAC made comment that more
learning experiences in outdoor education should be included in the syllabus.

However, the structure of the syllabus was changed and the visibility of the outdoor context could only be seen in the accompanying materials. The outdoor educators became actively involved, at their insistence, in the development of the sourcebook modules, creating units of work specific to outdoor education in the HPE KLA. Although the outdoor educators fought for visibility they were seen to be an interest group and not 'a political voice' (Syd, personal communication #2).

5.3.4.4 Sport

The nomenclature surrounding the HPE KLA has already exposed the inclusion of sport in the syllabus. The sport lobby group proved interesting for the writing team. A distinction was made early in the construction process that PE and Sport were particular areas of learning. As far back as the Wiltshire Report (Wiltshire, McMenamin and Tolhurst 1994) sport was considered outside the HPE KLA but remained a key component of schooling. Hence sport was considered a medium for learning, and this was particularly illustrated in the sourcebook modules. However, there appeared to be some confusion in this notion and as a result:

... they did have a jump up and down. They were going to the Minister, they were doing this, they were doing that because I think that was a misunderstanding. They had a change of membership on the SAC, we didn’t have the word ‘sport’ through the document … ‘sport is not there, this can’t happen, it’s got to go to the Minister’… So the word ‘sport’ has been reinjected into the outcomes when we talk about games or physical activities. I don’t know why ‘physical activities’ isn’t all encompassing. The Sport Federation were happy, once it was explained to them [that] modules and specialised skills will be taught, that’s the tool that’s being used to teach a syllabus, so they quietened down a lot. They didn’t get to the Minister. That was a bit of a storm in a teacup, but again in recognition of their interest, the word ‘sport’ has reappeared. (Syd, personal communication #2)

As stated in the nomenclature discussion, the words ‘sport education’ appeared in Draft 3 (QSCC 1998d).

However, the sport lobby group seemed to have support for this misunderstanding as it recorded earlier that trial schools and consultative network suggested to ‘… include sport education in the subject disciplines [in the rationale section]’ (QSCC 1998b, p.3). This was also supported by a SAC member who raised discussion about the ‘relationship of Sport and Recreation studies with the HPE KLA and whether there
were plans to develop curriculum materials in this area’ (QSCC 1997f, p. 4). It seemed that Logan’s concern raised near the end of the project warranted attention.

My concern with the sport has been ensuring that people recognise that sport is separate from PE and just by getting kids to play sport doesn’t mean that they are becoming physically educated. (Logan, personal communication #2)

This raised another point about the writers and sport lobby group’s interpretation of the phrase ‘sport education’ in the syllabus. Interestingly it was never raised for discussion. In recent years the term ‘sport education’ has been applied to display a deeper understanding of sport culture. Siedentop (1994, p.191) proposed that there was a gap in physical education programs where ‘sport activities have typically been utilised without reference to the dimensions and characteristics that give sport its meaning’. He expressed concern about sport being used in trivial and boring ways because it involved only the performance of skills and games. Alexander and Taggart (1995, p. 9) developed the Sport Education in Physical Education Program (SEPEP) to capture the sport education approach. This program encouraged an ‘ethic of participation’ and encompassed the motivating aspects of community sport within PE classes. Students were not only involved in activities to become players but also undertook additional roles, such as umpire, team coach, manager, captain, publicity officer and a member of a sports management board. SEPEP promoted student activism in their local sport culture and exposed the influence of political, economic and socio-cultural factors. Given that the writers’ points of view were very much aligned with this interpretation of sport education and not the traditional message of ‘sport’ it could be inferred as the reason behind the inclusion of such a term.

5.3.4.5 Others

The writers identified a further three interest groups in the selection of content and language for the HPE KLA syllabus. These included the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander (ATSI), the Human Relationships Education (HRE), and Association of Women Educators (AWE) groups.

The ATSI group had representation on the SAC. The representative was invited to take the content and language of each of the drafts and provide feedback specific to ATSI interests. There was also representation in the inclusion of remote community
schools in the trial process. However, the ATSI group appeared to have ‘a lot of trouble in terms of resourcing, in being able to get somebody to respond to our documents’ (Logan, personal communication #2). Membership on the SAC changed regularly over the period of the project. However, as Logan said:

... [a person, name deleted] has just taken on the role and is doing an excellent job ensuring the document is supportive of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture and values and [s/he] seems quite happy with that. They’ve never really lobbied us as such. (Logan, personal communication #2)

This regular input began in July 1998 when comment could only considered on the final two drafts of the syllabus.

The HRE was given recognition on the SAC; however, no input was received from this group. Joe and Lee (personal communication #2) were conscious of not having received any input although understood that this syllabus includes an umbrella for them. The nominee did not attend meetings nor did the association produce any feedback. Lee was intrigued: ‘...Interestingly enough human relationships people and so on, there seems to be no push, no lobby or whatever there ... that’s the most controversial part of the syllabus’ (Lee, personal communication #2). Teachers participating in the HPE NPDP previously identified this feeling of controversy in HRE (Macdonald and Kirk 1996). In a mapping of current practice in light of the profile sub-strands, ‘more teachers felt there is a “moderate” to “high need” for professional development in those sub-strand topics they have least confidence in teaching, such as sexuality, consumer health and personal and cultural identity’ (ibid. p.10). The most frequently voiced area of need was sexuality. However, the HRE lobby group did not appear to show concern about this in the syllabus construction.

Finally AWE were consulted for input on the selection of content and language. Logan (personal communication #2) stated that this group ‘basically have looked at our document from an equity focus and a supportive environment focus, I guess, asking whether we have recognised girls’ needs as well as boys’.’

Thus a variety of interest groups had input into selection of the statements of intent contained within the syllabus document. Several were prepared to provide political
action to achieve visibility while others were proactive in their involvement and hence influenced the construction of the document and the additional materials.

5.4 Summary

The chapter provides a critical analysis of the construction of the HPE syllabus in Queensland through the revelation of both enabling and constraining issues and characteristics. The information presented clearly shows that for the writers’, syllabus-curriculum-policy development is a political process, with both public and private interests identified in the critical issues and tensions illustrated. The HPE syllabus is a typically cannibalised product of many influences and agendas (Ball 1994). The role of the state can be identified in the key players (QSCC, Ed.Qld., sport and physical educators), and are exposed in the critical issues and textual analyses. Each group used power to influence others and to protect its members. Both competition and alignments between groups and individuals were evident in achieving dominant positions in the construction process thus highlighting agential possibilities and limitations. However, other groups and individuals (stakeholders) could have presented additional agential possibilities and limitations and for that reason, a partial story is told here.

This critical case study did demonstrate that power relations and politics (both macro and micro) are central to policy construction. The construction and reconstruction of the HPE KLA syllabus is an example of what Taylor et al. (1997, p. 50) term ‘policy as settlement’, where the policy attempts ‘to suture together and over matters of difference between the participating and competing interests in the processes of policy text production’. However, it remains to be seen what the teachers will do to, or with, the text. As Codd (1988) makes clear, each policy is open to a plurality of meanings, composed of contradiction and vested interests. The implementation of policy is subject to ‘interpretations of interpretations’ (Rizvi and Kemmis 1987), as the readers and the text have interpretational and representational histories (Dinan 2000).
CHAPTER 6

CASE STUDY 2: CURRICULUM CHANGE

CONSTRUCTION AND IMPLEMENTATION

AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

... the power to decide upon policy in a school may be concentrated in the hands of a few.
(Laird et al. 1994, p. 148)

6.1 Introduction

The construction and implementation of the HPE KLA is the foundation of this study. The research presents a case study of curriculum innovation over a four-year period (1995–98) at Sunshine College (SC), during which time I held the position of Health and Physical Education Coordinator. This case study explores the notion that the curriculum change process is problematic and complex. It involves the interaction of the teachers, the institutional practices and external agencies, all of which contribute to the micropolitics of the physical and social environment. Thus it is a critical case study through the exploration of constraining and enabling issues and characteristics embedded within the social, political, cultural and physical context of curriculum construction and implementation at SC.

Fullan’s (1991) model of change informed the procedural focus to the innovation as the HPE staff worked through phases of initiation and implementation with the vision of continuation and aspiring towards better outcomes for their students, the teachers and the school. Furthermore, Sparkes’ (1990) conceptualisation of teacher change levels were key to the analysis and particularly the questions of whether surface or real change was to arise from the construction and implementation of the HPE KLA.
Teachers' pedagogy and ideologies were central to the examination of such interpretations and consequently highlight the possibilities and limitations of agency within this particular school context.

Over the period 1995–98, SC HPE staff members were involved (to varying degrees) in the initiation of the curriculum review and subsequent innovation. This was prompted by current trends in curriculum development in Queensland and other Australian states (Wiltshire, McMenamin and Tolhurst 1994; Brady & Kennedy 1999). Such trends included the HPE curriculum as outlined in the national statement and profile documents1 (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) and more recently, the Years 1–10 Health and Physical Education for Queensland Schools (QSCC 1999a). Thus, in 1995–96 the HPE staff became involved in the trial of the national documents in the national Professional Development Project for Health and Physical Education in Australian Schools (NPDP), and in the years 1997–98 undertook the trial of the QSCC HPE syllabus. These external projects supported the initiation and implementation of revised curriculum offerings for Years 8–10 HPE students.

6.2 Contextual features influencing curriculum change at Sunshine College

The school contextual features were influential in the curriculum change process. Such features included the temporal and spatial positioning of the school — for example, ‘What was important to the school and teachers at that point in time?’, ‘How did it relate to other schools and the Diocese in which it existed?’ and ‘Where was it that this change was likely to take place: classrooms, outdoors, staff meetings, corridors and pedagogies?’ All of these questions bring together what Hargreaves (1995) terms the structure and culture of the school.

Both the school structure and culture are contested domains. Each is socially constructed by the actors involved (teachers, administration, school systems, students, parents etc.) and are open to struggle and conflict. Structural procedures, ideologies and pedagogies are struggled over in their particular physical and social contexts.

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1 The national statement and profile documents for Australian schools, developed in 1994, outlined the conceptual framework for each key learning area and the essential learnings for Australian students.
The day-to-day activities display the possibilities of sharing collaborative, collegial and cooperative relations or the limitations of insulated and secure traditional practices.

So for SC, what were the contextual features that depicted the school structure and culture and how did they impact on curriculum change in the HPE KLA? Exploration of the demographics, school system arrangements, the teacher cultures and subcultures, and specific teacher ideologies that impacted on this case study were needed.

6.2.1 The school context
Sunshine College is a Catholic secondary school for girls, with an enrolment of 480 students, and a teaching staff of 35. It is located in the central business district of Cairns, a regional city in tropical North Queensland. The population of the school consists largely of middle-class white Australians and an approximately 10 percent of Indigenous students. The college has a hundred-year history and for some of that time was a coeducational primary and secondary school. The college is bound by ties of loyalty, with many of the students’ parents and grandparents having attended in their compulsory schooling years. Significantly, several staff members also attended the college for their compulsory schooling.

The staff at SC varied in age with a few early career teachers, although the majority of staff were in their 40s. Only 15 per cent of the staff was male, none of whom held positions in administration. Approximately 55 per cent of the staff had taught at the college for more than eight years with three staff having been there for more than 13 years. Interestingly, three of the staff members had primary school training rather than the traditional secondary discipline-based teacher education. Also, in contrast to other secondary school staff environments and due to the smaller number of staff members, most were located in a common staff room. Only eight members were located outside of this shared space, having specific offices across the school. However, to ensure that all staff came together at least once a day, it was stressed that morning teas were important times for celebrations and discussions.
The culture of the school was seen as influential in the development of a new curriculum. SC had already established itself as a school where innovative curriculum was welcomed. For instance, the college introduced vertical curriculum structures for their middle schooling years (Years 8–10) in 1989 providing students with flexibility and choice in their learning, and promoted multi-age learning. These innovations were supported by the majority of staff, some of whom taught across disciplines. In some cases teachers worked collaboratively across the disciplines. However, the units of work remained within the entrenched subject disciplines supported by the external requirement of a Junior Certificate to be produced when a student exits Year 10. At the time, the Board of Senior Secondary School Studies Queensland (BSSSSQ) issued this certificate. This was to change in 1996 where the school itself became responsible for this certificate thus allowing for greater freedom of subject arrangements.

In support of improving teaching and learning the staff undertook various other curriculum initiatives. These included the student performance standard trial in the subjects of Maths and English, the development of technology/library/subject units of work and the trial of syllabus developments at both the compulsory schooling and senior years.

6.2.1.1 The change to HPE

Discussions particular to the curriculum review process in the HPE units began in 1994. The philosophy of vertical curriculum structures, the need to provide foundation for senior schooling and the identification of overlap in curriculum coverage in traditional subject units were all influential factors. Additionally, my personal desire for improved learning for secondary school students and interest in curriculum development affected discussions for the change.

Highly powerful in the early stages of this process was the introduction of the eight key learning areas\(^2\) (KLAs) as set out in Wiltshire’s ‘Shaping the Future’ report (Wiltshire, McMenamin and Tolhurst 1994). This report proved to be the most influential (external) factor because it outlined the future of the KLAs in compulsory...
years of schooling in Queensland schools. The eight KLAs were emphasised as core to Year 8 but only four KLAs (English, Maths, Science, Studies of Society and Environment) were core in Years 9 and 10. Other learnings were to be subject-based. For example, Health and Physical Education and Sport were considered as ‘essential’ learnings although not core (ibid. 1994).

By 1995 SC was looking to introduce new HPE curriculum offerings in response to staff decisions, new Queensland curriculum initiatives and the recognition of the newly published national statements and profiles for each KLA (Curriculum Corporation 1994a). The staff decisions were predominantly made by myself and one other colleague. Upon closer analysis as to why we, two out of 35 staff members, were promoting these changes, both of our teacher-training experiences were at odds with the traditional secondary structure. I was primary generalist trained and the other staff member undertook additional training to combine, unusually, the two teaching areas of Home Economics and PE.

As a result of our influence the HPE staff, and hence the college, became involved in the national Professional Development Program (NPDP) Health and Physical Education project (Kirk 1996; Penney 1997). This project, operating between 1995 and 1997, provided the motivation and funding for staff to map the existing offerings and identify overlap, specifically in the subjects of Physical Education (PE), Home Economics (HEc) and Religious Education (RE). The project also provided an avenue for the introduction of integrated curriculum within the vertical curriculum design, a development discussed as early as 1993. Again my experience as a primary generalist teacher with a desire to construct meaningful learning environments in the secondary school was an influencing factor here.

Structural changes to middle management (academic) positions were also discussed at this time. They arose from an increase in student population numbers and thus the possibility of creating more middle-management positions. Previous to these discussions academic coordinators existed only for the subjects English, Maths and

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2 The eight key learning areas — English, Maths, Science, Health and Physical Education, Languages other than English (LOTE), Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE), The Arts and Technology.
Science. Possible structures for the positions were designed and voted on by staff, and, in 1996, the college implemented KLA-based middle-management positions. Among these was my position as Health and Physical Education Coordinator. My role included the coordination of teaching and learning in Physical Education and Home Economics, as well as communicating with the Religious Education Coordinator about the personal development curriculum. The structural base of the school was now KLA-oriented with KLA faculties established and faculty meetings (set by administration) implemented. Several teachers taught across KLAs and meetings were grouped and timed to allow maximum attendance and input from teachers. However, funding structures for the school were not altered to display the KLA structure but remained tied to traditional subject areas.

At the same time, the Wiltshire Report recommendations became inactive because of a change in Queensland government, which caused some angst at the middle-management level. Questions surrounding the establishment of KLA-based positions or subject disciplines arose again for discussion. Nonetheless, the KLA faculties were to remain as a result of the national directions on KLA structures and consequent influence on syllabus development in other states.

The Middle Schooling (Years 8–10) Vertical Curriculum Handbook for SC students was revised to display the subjects being regrouped under KLA umbrellas. This handbook served the purpose of outlining the semester units of work and their accessibility. Students and parents viewed the units to choose the appropriate path of learning. HPE included Physical Education and Home Economics. Health Education was encompassed within these two traditional subject disciplines. The sewing and craft construction sections of Home Economics, more appropriately classified under the Technology KLA, remained within the HPE KLA grouping as a result of staff decisions. This positioning suggested the entrenchment of subject disciplines and a level of staff insecurity with such a challenge to their established location as experts in a particular field that was named.

In 1997 knowing that the national documents were to provide the foundation for the QSCC Years 1–10 HPE syllabus for Queensland schools (QSCC 1999a), SC extended
and enhanced their HPE curriculums by participating in the trial of the syllabus. The trial provided teachers with further opportunities for professional development. They were released from their daily routines and their attendance at trial workshops promoted the sharing of experiences with our staff and teachers from other schools involved in the trial. The units of work developed within the NPDP were appropriated to the Queensland syllabus. The content and pedagogy of the units within the handbook were remodelled. However, the KLA structure promoted in this handbook remained and hence the pre-existing school structure prevailed.

During 1998 the remodelled HPE semester units continued to be reconceptualised due to modifications to syllabus outcomes. The HPE work programs had been written to promote the new vision of HPE, as recommended in the Queensland Years 1–10 syllabus, and the national documents. The curriculum change process at SC had been instigated largely through external projects (NPDP, syllabus trial), and the associated funding support, along with my personal interests and position as coordinator. However, no further external funding was forthcoming for professional development to support continuation of the project after the completion of the trial project in July 1998.

It is also interesting to note the college’s position in relation to the larger school system. SC, at that point in time, operated as an individual entity. Although it was located within the Cairns Diocese and received federal and state funding through this organisation, the college was autonomous in its internal funding, staffing and involvement in various projects. While both the Cairns Diocese and the QCEC had no direct control over the college they remained aware of the developments and had input into some of the discussions and provided further funding during the four-year study. SC had the freedom to direct the teaching and learning for their particular schooling context. The staff were invited to contribute to these directions at various levels of meetings.

6.2.2 The HPE faculty – positions and ideologies
As mentioned earlier, I entered this case study with the orienting frame of Sparkes’ (1990) teacher change levels. He contends that for ‘real’ change to arise, teachers’
values, beliefs, ideologies and practices must change. Importantly, the teachers involved in this construction and implementation of the HPE KLA all entered with different values, beliefs, perceptions and concerns. It is such differences that either project the change forward or limit the new message of the KLA. The teachers’ positioning within the school context also affected their acceptance or rejection of the new KLA. Consideration of the physical and social location of the HPE staff in relation to other staff and its subculture is necessary to understand the complexity of the change process and more specifically the micro-politics of the case. For example, two members of the HPE faculty were brought from other disciplines to teach HPE due to the timetable allocation. Their position within the faculty was problematic because of their expertise in, and loyalty to, their previous teaching areas.

Over the four-year period, the HPE faculty consisted of eight members, six females (including myself) and two males. Descriptions of the teachers’ backgrounds, pedagogy focus and early perceptions of the curriculum change process are shared below to aid interpretation of the multiple voices that exist in this case study. The alphabetical codes identifying particular teachers are applied to denote the interview transcript data in further sections. The code will also have a number attached to display the order in which the data were collected — for example, the number 1 represents the collection of data in 1996 while the number 4 represents late 1998.

**Teacher A:** male, early 30s, History- and Religion-trained with an interest in HPE, seven years teaching experience in secondary schools, sportsmaster for the school, member of PE staff. Teacher A’s pedagogical focus was on skill and performance. An early comment in the implementation emphasised it was a ‘tough time … but at the same time I believe it was a positive step for kids, school, us and state’. Additionally, he added that the new KLA ‘may raise the seriousness of the subject’.

**Teacher B:** female, early 30s, HPE- and Science-trained, employed at school for Maths and Science, no real wish to teach PE, involved in junior HPE classes due to timetabling. Her lack of desire to teach PE became apparent by the comment: ‘I was involved in HPE meetings when they didn’t clash with Science’. Nonetheless, in further discussions about the implementation she stated: ‘I feel out of touch because
of not [being] involved in the initial planning'. Ambivalence is apparent in such comments. Interpretations could imply ignorance of the implementation or a new desire to gain a better understanding.

Teacher C: female, late 20s, Home Economics teacher, arrived at SC in 1996, participated in the statement and profile implementation in Tasmania and had a base knowledge of KLA structure. However, pedagogy was based on a heavy emphasis on textbook work. She was keen to ensure the preparation/practical emphasis of food was retained within units of work. This is reinforced by her comment: 'I have a] fear of Home Economics importance being lost ... [the syllabus] hasn't taken in healthy diet and practice — nutrition.'

Teacher D: female, 40s, Home Ec. and PE trained, which is an unusual combination of subject disciplines. Taught at SC for over 10 years. She expressed a willingness to lend support for the integration of knowledge although wanting to retain an HEc identity. Early comments stated: ‘No real practical emphasis on food preparation’ ... 'not Home Economics language but Home Economics gets a big mention in Technology’ ... 'I don’t think you can teach health without teaching food preparation ... teach how to eat in moderation.’ An interesting comment arose in the discussion about traditional subject areas when she said: ‘Home Economics has been proactive in methods and strategies for a long time so I feel HPE is catching up’, thus highlighting a clinging to subject disciplines. Her pedagogical focus was particularly on the learner and was evident in her search for a variety of sources and methods of teaching. Her comments suggest struggle and loss of identity.

Teacher E: female, 40s, Home Ec trained, arrived at SC in 1997, initially relief teacher, good rapport with students. Her commitment to the implementation varied in lack of attendance at meetings and reflection comments. Her area of priority was preparing students for senior years.

Teacher F: female, late 30s, Science-trained, interest in outdoor activities and inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning. Became a PE staff member in 1998 because of timetabling. Valuing the learner-centred approach to teaching and learning
initiated her involvement in the change process, although upon questioning changes to her pedagogy for HPE lessons, she commented: 'it’s not really that new.'

Teacher G: male, early 30s, PE-trained, arrived at SC in 1994 but left the school and thus the project in 1997. His pedagogy focus was process-oriented and connectedness to the real world. The focus was on the learner and there was a great willingness to rethink and attempt new pedagogies. The search for innovative content and strategies within the inquiry approach was apparent in his approach.

Coordinator [Me]: female, early 30s, primary generalist and PE major background, entered into full-time HPE teaching at SC in 1992, eager for integration of subject disciplines and learner-centred approach for teaching and learning (primary training influence), proactive in curriculum developments and a representative at various committee levels. Early comments in the construction and implementation: ‘I am concerned about the replication of knowledge for the students at SC and also the lack of cognition in the PE subjects ... skill and performance only ... also, ill [lack of] preparation for the senior subjects.’ While this highlights the proactiveness of the coordinator it might also suggest a personal and political agenda.

This group of HPE staff might also be referred to as a teacher sub-culture. However, the HPE identity, its location in the power hierarchy inclusive of the whole staff at SC, and individual ideologies and positions within the team create acceptance of, but also bring resistance to, the construction and implementation of HPE KLA. Personal and political agendas are evident within the teachers’ comments producing agential possibilities and limitations.

Keeping both the structure and culture — the school contextual features and the teachers’ individual positions and interpretations — in mind, several issues and tensions arose in the construction and implementation of the HPE KLA.

6.3 Issues in the construction and implementation of the HPE KLA
The reconceptualisation of HPE at SC brought about particular issues and tensions for the HPE staff and school as a whole. The predicted struggle and loss within the
change process became evident within the multiple voices and interpretations portrayed in the interview data, official feedback forms to external agencies, staff and faculty meeting records and my personal journal.

The history of the reconceptualisation across the years of 1996, 1997 and 1998 has been described briefly in a previous section. During this time data were collected, initially in 1996 for the purpose of reflection on the change process but in 1997 they became an important component of my doctoral research. Hence, data collection began in a comprehensive manner in 1997 and thus the key issues and tensions are evidenced more within the QSCC syllabus trial than the NPDP implementation.

My personal journal records a journey of critical reflection over the four-year period. It contains my interpretations, questions and struggles. The critical reflection framework outlined by Francis (1995, 1997) provided foundation for my journal entries. The framework (adapted from Francis 1995) was formatted as a series of questions:

- What happened? (What was I doing? What were others doing?)
- What was trying to be achieved? (And by whom?)
- How might others see it differently?
- How might my biography, values and beliefs have influenced this situation? (Impact on my interpretation and choices)
- What alternatives for action were there?
- Who was advantaged/disadvantaged?

I identified critical incidents and reflected on the happenings and possible future implications. The journal displays critical examination of my practice as a coordinator and teacher of Health and Physical Education. Furthermore, my ‘agent of change’ possibilities and limitations are identified and examined.

I used excerpts from my journal and from teachers’ comments to highlight the critical issues and tensions identified during the curriculum change project (for selection of key issues see section 4.2.4 – data analysis). These issues and tensions focus on teacher voice and ownership; challenges to balkanisation, including organisational limitations and possibilities of changes to teacher pedagogies; my struggle with allegiance to all groups; and ambivalence in the ‘change agent’ role. Additional to these issues and tensions were the issues of time and funding.
Central to the identification of these key issues and tensions was my positioning within the school and diocese, my processes of agency and my knowledge about change processes throughout the four-year period. My position within the school and the diocese developed very quickly as a result from my interest in curriculum development (initiated from my Masters studies) and more particularly in the HPE field. Temporally, this coincided with the development of the national statement and profiles (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) and then involvement in the HPE NPDP for Queensland schools. Through volunteering for committee representations at diocese and local level and becoming proactive in curriculum, recognition for this participation was granted at a state level. This was evident in my appointment as the QCEC representative for HPE and drug education at conferences, and the HPE SAC. At the same time, I became the winner of the 1996 Noreen Wilcox Award for Excellence in Education in the Peninsula Region (classroom based) and thus received further acknowledgement from the school and the diocese for my teaching and involvement in various curriculum committees and representative roles. Such experiences and interactions positioned me with various processes of agency through which I could act to ‘make a difference’ (Giddens 1984).

Throughout this time, I was engaged in professional reading associated with those representative roles and with my doctoral study. My knowledge of change processes was developing at the same time as data collection for this study was taking place and hence the discourse of ‘curriculum change’ was captured early. This discourse influenced my actions and my judgements. Journal recordings illustrate this and thus are identifiable in some of the key issues and tensions discussed in the following sections.

6.3.1 Teacher voice and ownership
Both Goodson (1991) and Sarason (1990) emphasise teacher voice and ownership as key to educational change processes. Goodson in particular believes that teacher voice is important to understand individuals’ lives and purposes. It is these voices that need sponsorship in teacher development. Sarason is convinced that teacher development is central to curriculum change but also that existing power relationships
should be examined. Teacher ownership of not only the curriculum change process is important but also reconsideration of power relations among staff (including the principal), students and parents.

O'Toole (1999), too, stresses teacher ownership of the change process as central to creating and sustaining educational change. He provides the analogy of a school bus to expand on the concept of teacher ownership.

... teachers are in the driver's seat. The vehicle is moving and policy makers seem to have control of the accelerator. However, the policy makers cannot control the detail of the bus's movement and it may end up in a ditch if they struggle directly with teachers. Alternatively, some teachers may bail out completely and drive other buses in completely different directions! (O'Toole 1999, p. 276)

Hence, the following questions were important for SC: Who was driving the bus? Was it an individual or a team of drivers? Who had control of the accelerator? Did some teachers encounter barriers and decide to bail out or take a different direction? Were there driving lessons or feedback sessions that allowed for identification of the intersections or disjunctions?

The recorded comments of the teachers and my journal excerpts provide insight into the complexity of this change process. Individuals’ beliefs, experiences and training, and their physical and social location in the school played a critical part in whether the staff member accepted, grappled with or resisted implementing the revised HPE curriculum. Moments of anxiety, loss and struggle were expressed in our comments, displaying discomfort, and sometimes challenge, to teaching practices, beliefs, values and ideologies.

As Fullan’s (1991) model of change suggests, an initiation phase is at the beginning of the change process. Because it is a process, the initiation phase is not only evident in the beginning stages of the project but also occurs at particular times during it as redirection arises. Hence teachers were asked to reflect on their roles in the beginning and along the journey of the revised HPE KLA implementation. Hargreaves (1995) coined the term ‘collaborative cultures’ to emphasise the need for teachers to establish deep enduring relationships and to be active in all phases of the curriculum change process. If collaborative cultures were established within this case study then the
teacher's comments would reveal individual roles in decision making and associated power relationships. However, teacher comments illustrate conflict in the ownership of this project from the initiation phase right through to the end result.

On questions on ownership in the initiation phase the following views were expressed:

Did we have a choice? I thought you [the coordinator] made the decision and then administration. [2:A]

If I had said no, I think it still would have gone ahead. [2:C]

I thought a decision had already been made. [2:B]

These comments suggest that the initiation of the project lay in my individual use of the power located within the position of HPE coordinator. The middle-management role brought with it specific hierarchies of power which were perceived by several HPE staff as the impetus for the HPE KLA implementation.

My reflection on an initial planning day organised for the HPE faculty staff lends credence to this presence of power, more specific in this excerpt to the setting of the agenda. I wrote:

Step one: clear up any misunderstandings of syllabus directions, choose planning format (from proformas given at conference) and the process of mapping.

This comment exposes my intent to direct the meeting procedures, and more particularly displays 'power over' (Blase and Anderson 1995) participants of the day.

An additional comment about the same day states:

We worked our butts off today to get semester overviews completed for seven units. Some ambiguity exists about the model of learning (inquiry approach) in the learning experiences and the key principles ... also the appropriateness to SC and my own philosophy ... Am I also forcing my opinions and visions upon the rest of the faculty members or do they see it differently?

This initial comment indicates that I was aware of my potential influence on team members. I questioned how the staff members might have seen the day's achievements and particularly their input at the meeting. Although this comment might appear contradictory to the previous agenda statement, it identifies myself as an agent of change in conflict. The first comment recognises a power hierarchy co-
ordered by the HPE coordinator role, and the second comment questions this power and interpretation from the staff members. Knowledge of Fullan’s (1991) change model, Hargreaves’ (1995) notion of collaborative cultures and Ball’s (1987) concept of micro-politics underpin this questioning.

A fourth teacher’s comment added to the above perceptions although it promoted a teaming of two key players in the initiation of the project.

We [the coordinator and myself] had specific roles in the instigation of the trial … unsure about others. [2:D]

Additionally, though, her next comment provided further insight into her motivations as it inferred involvement as a result of fear of loss of territory.

I needed to be involved for Home Economics’ sake so the subject isn’t lost and the richness of the two areas (Health and Physical Education and Home Economics) is to be used. [2:D]

The struggle involved in the redefinition of her discipline area impacted upon her ownership of the project. It was the fear of loss of identity of the discipline that motivated this teacher and it was through these lenses that she interpreted every change.

Taking cognisance of the perceptions above, the next step was to investigate whether staff felt pressured or influenced by me or other persons during the implementation phase because of the feeling of powerlessness in the early decision-making processes. Varied feelings were expressed. One teacher said:

I was pressured to do more work in designing tasks and units … but this is a benefit for students and staff … in the end. [2:A]

Such comment suggests some authority during the project. The words ‘but’ and ‘in the end’, and the noticeable pauses, imply a feeling of uncertainty, and possible dissatisfaction with either the pressure enforced in changing work practices or his daily routine.

Conversely, another teacher said:

No, I haven’t been pressured. [It was] part of something that had to be done. Change is always there. Time is the real issue. [2:B]

This was supported by another teacher’s comment:
No, I’ve not felt any power relationships but I have felt that I haven’t given you [the coordinator] enough support because of all of the caps that I wear. I am frustrated that the other staff are oblivious to the work being done. [4:D]

The mixed responses suggest ambivalence about whether collaborative partnerships were in place for purposeful change. The level of teachers’ input into the change process was affected by their day-to-day routines along with perceived notions of power in the relationships.

It is significant to consider the teachers’ actions in light of the busyness of their day-to-day routines. One could interpret their actions as lack of commitment and ownership; however, their ‘classroom press’ (Huberman 1983 in Fullan 1991) may take priority. As O’Toole (1999, p.273) states: ‘Teachers’ busy lives may drive explicit recognition of the impact of staff development experiences from their minds.’ Their day-to-day routines that lay within prior beliefs and values were given preference.

The following reflection was recorded in my journal following a planning day:

Interesting start to the day — our homerooms were taken care of so turning up by 9 a.m. should not have been too hard ... Out of the six of us three were on time (including me), one a little late, another arranged a doctor’s appointment (forgot about today), and another was off to get Year 12 work away to a panel chair. I wonder if this shows the attitude for the day or to the change project?

My final comment was self-centred and shallow because it did not consider alternative demands on the teachers’ actions nor who might have been advantaged or disadvantaged in the organisation of this planning day.

The level of support for the staff, such as a planning day, was linked to my position as coordinator: ‘My support [the support given to me] depends upon what support the coordinator is given’ [3:B]. Perhaps her reflection relates to the previous comments about the role and position of coordinator as being authoritative and/or influential, specifically here in attaining staff development and resource allocation.

Interestingly this notion of support being granted through other persons appears to have carried over into the dependence upon the external agent. One teacher said: ‘[I’m] unsure of future directions’ [4:F]. And another: ‘The lack of direction from the
top — more guidance is needed for trial schools … it’s not working now so what happens when it’s implemented Queensland wide?’ [3:C]. It seems that there had been compliance with external agency direction of the curriculum change. This in turn diminished the possibility of establishing collaborative cultures.

In an attempt to take account of the concerns outlined above and create richer dialogue about the project I suggested the team lunch away from the school during a planning day. I had set the agenda for the day and possible time frames. The following describes a particular critical incident:

Coffee and/or commitment?
We were expected back at school when one teacher remarked ‘Have I got time for a coffee, Maree?’ and another said ‘I might have a hot chocolate’. I wrote in a reflection:
I don’t know how to interpret this but we knew we were behind in our daily plan and this just set us back further … I thought if I said ‘no‘ this may have placed authority on the day’s routine — emphasising the power play. I backed off as I knew I needed to work collaboratively with these people day by day. Simple things like that can cause problems later on.

Upon our return to school we continued with the unit developments and the time constraints were clear. The following reflection provides further insight into the day:
I was wrapped up in checking over the day’s work for the secretary to type up and completing major/minor and level record sheets and I didn’t hear the bell go. Within two minutes or so the five teachers had all vacated the room leaving me … papers were picked up by the teachers but once that time had come, clear out. Maybe it’s a reading of the attitude again. ‘Take as much as you can (day off, longer lunch, late start) and give what you need to (in the time provided)’.

These comments displayed my angst in the desire to establish collaborative cultures for the enhancement of change and the reluctance of the teachers to give time to this. However, upon further analysis of my second reflection, the beginning comment indicated a personal commitment that could have been viewed by the teachers as ‘power over’ — I was seen as being responsible for the final checks and what gets typed up thus diminishing their sense of ownership. Also, my writing, on closer analysis, identified a me/them type of thinking. This was further confirmed by a teacher’s comment: ‘You’re the one with the expertise from attendance at conferences and meetings’ [3:C]. Thus the expert/novice divide was apparent too. While expertise
in collaboration is important it needs to exist in a ‘community of professional equals’ (Hargreaves 1995) and this was not so for the HPE staff at SC.

In light of the discussion presented above on teacher voice and ownership, the existing power hierarchy of coordinator/teacher was evident and presented a barrier to developing collaborative cultures. Despite my intention and perception that I was facilitating curriculum change, the data on teacher voice would indicate that perhaps my actions were less than collaborative. Alternatively, it could be interpreted that the teachers granted me power to act on these occasions.

The middle-management power hierarchy and several comments about subject territory suggested a balkanised culture at SC. There were loyalties and identities tied to departmentalism and this caused contest to the curriculum change process.

6.3.2 Challenges to balkanisation

Hargreaves (1995, pp. 212-40) coined the term ‘balkanisation’ to describe collaboration that can divide. In the school environment, balkanised cultures separate teachers into insulated and often competitive sub-groups. This is a particular problem for secondary schools with their deeply embedded historical, political and organisational patterns. Often separate department staff rooms and specialist teaching spaces reinforce isolation from peers and the separateness of discrete discipline cultures. As a consequence there is a ‘myth of changelessness’ (Hargreaves 1995, p. 218) with reduced opportunity for teachers to learn from each other.

SC, whilst displaying support for innovative curriculum with the common staff room, introduction of the vertical curriculum, and involvement in several other curriculum initiatives aimed at improving teaching and learning, was entrenched in the historical, political and organisational subject departmentalism. In an added move to de-balkanise ‘The Body’ was introduced, which was an integrated subject across three traditional subject areas. Nonetheless, several elements of the balkanised culture impacted on this curriculum change process. These elements included the existing timetable arrangements, the Middle School Vertical Curriculum Handbook, set faculty meetings and budgetary allocations to subjects. These organisational
limitations also had an impact on the construction and implementation on the new and unfamiliar pedagogies associated with the reconceptualised HPE curriculum.

6.3.2.1 A reconceptualisation of HPE: ‘The Body’ and renewed HPE units

Curriculum change developments for HPE at SC were based heavily on the conceptual bases of knowledge expressed in the national documents (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b). These documents promoted a socio-cultural view of health and an associated critical perspective approach to the teaching of health. In support of the social view of health, a more inquiry-based pedagogy was emphasised. Thus, laying the foundations for curriculum innovation and development in HPE at SC.

These foundations can be further attributed to the involvement of key persons, namely a PE teacher, Science co-ordinator, Teacher D, and I, where an alignment of values and beliefs about teaching and learning and more specifically, HPE were met. Our own training and reading (at varying individual levels) had led us to value the social view of health, learner-centred approach to pedagogy, and holistic and integrated learning for students. Thus, the national statement and profile documents (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) matched our personal conceptual bases of teaching and learning in HPE. Additionally the vertical curriculum structure at SC provided the freedom to explore these pathways.

Because the construction of the syllabus had been influenced by the national documents, I believed participation in the QSCC HPE KLA syllabus trial would further enhance the movement towards the social and cultural view of health, the critical perspective in teaching and investigative teaching pedagogies. My beliefs did not have to be challenged and thus I could support the change.

The QSCC syllabus (1999a) gave priority to these concepts and further promoted active construction of knowledge and the socio-cultural perspective in physical activity. Significantly, too, the QSCC syllabus amalgamated the strand-based content organisation of the statement condensing seven strands, and consequent 15 sub-strands, into three strands.
Recognition of health as ‘dynamic and multi-dimensional’ is foundation to the social view of health. This concept proposes that individuals’ and community’s health is influenced by a number of factors.

Socio-cultural factors incorporate the following elements: social structures, social factors, economics, employment, social relationships, support networks, family structures, culture, and faith or religion. (Williams 1998, p. 9)

Hence this pushes an understanding of health outside the traditional bio-medical perspective. In light of these factors, the social view of health promotes social action. Students are encouraged to become active and informed members of society and to recognise the ways in which their decisions and behaviours affect themselves and others. Additionally they are to transfer this interpretation to physical activity to consider the family, social, cultural, economic and political influences on participation.

The social view of health and socio-cultural perspective to physical activity advocated the active construction of knowledge and corresponding changes to teacher–student interactions. The statement document (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, p. 9) promoted processes that ‘enable students to interact effectively with others, formulate ideas, reflect on experiences, gather and interpret information, consider the positions of others and make judgments about personal and social actions’. This is a change from traditional pedagogical approaches applied in the objectives model of curriculum.

Consequently, as early as Draft 1 (QSCC 1997c) of the HPE KLA syllabus, the learner-centred inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning was noted. The model of inquiry emphasising phases of understanding, planning, acting and reflecting taken from the Nutrition in Action Curriculum Development Package (Curriculum Corporation 1996) were represented as foundational to student’s learning experiences. The published QSCC syllabus embraced this understanding:

A learner-centred approach to learning and teaching views learning as the active construction of meaning, and teaching as the act of guiding and facilitating learning. This approach sees knowledge as being ever-changing and built on prior experience. (QSCC 1999a, p. 6)
Thus, reflection on prior experiences and strategies of problem solving and decision making were to form teacher and student interactions. This was to be true not only of classroom activities but also of outdoor physical activity sessions. Furthermore, the accompanying syllabus documents (QSCC 1999b, 1999c) and in particular, example units of work and professional development activities, display this approach.

In line with the policy, semester units were remodelled to promote the socio-cultural perspective of health and learning in an investigative and inquiry-based environment. The focus became very much on the learner and the teacher became the facilitator of knowledge. Previously these foci were reversed with the teacher in control of content and process. Students negotiated and planned their learning experiences, taking responsibility for their learning. Teacher professional development opportunities were designed to develop the associated pedagogical approaches, although limited due to cost and disruption to the school.

A direct attempt to weaken the subject boundaries emerged in the NPDP in HPE through the construction of a semester unit that integrated the previously compartmentalised knowledge contained in the subjects of HEc, PE and Science. This integration was initiated by student response to the overlap of knowledge and particular teachers in the school, notably the Science coordinator, a PE teacher and myself, the HPE coordinator. The national documents for the HPE and Science KLAs framed the unit and due to the practical nature of the subject, the Technology KLA was also mapped. Table 6.1 outlines the conceptual base of the semester unit.
Table 6.1 Overview of ‘The Body’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEMESTER 1 OR 2 — approximately 18 weeks, 4 lessons per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONCEPTS:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human Development: developing an awareness of body systems and maintenance; investigating influences on development of systems, for example, poor nutrition, an awareness of environmental factors and community programs/initiatives; discussing attitudes on sexuality and role of men/women/boys/girls in society, describing stages of development at puberty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human Movement: analysing muscle movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• People and Food: analysing food intake, making judgments concerning food groups and nutrient requirements; investigating media, cultural, social and family influences on food; identifying major nutrient requirements for adolescent growth and activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Health of Individuals and Populations: discussing the impact of exercise on health.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Working scientifically: designing experiments, recording data collected during experimentation, answering direct questions and writing conclusions, selecting information that clarifies experimental work, demonstrating performance in process tests, demonstrating ability to locate information for assignments, presenting assignments and conclusions drawn from dietary analysis, analysing in reflective writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Life and Living: identifying parts of a system in dissection to body parts (e.g. chicken wing, heart), demonstrating performance in content and process tests, identifying malfunctions of living systems, demonstrating analysis in reflective writing and written assignment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Natural and Processed Materials: using models of body and body systems to explain function and component of foods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Design, Make, Appraise: conducting experiments, identifying dangerous situations and safety procedures, constructing experimental/assignment design.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Information: demonstrating performance in laboratory work, analysing data and presenting assignment with computer-aided programs, selecting and using resources for given assignments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Materials: designing experiments and assignments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our intent with this unit was to prompt a pedagogical shift to an inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning, an approach that we valued and thought that our personal pedagogies reflected. Students were encouraged to participate in and negotiate their learning experiences, to question their own beliefs and the arguments and views presented in articles or textbooks, to discuss interpretations and to raise concerns. The technique of reflective writing was employed to achieve further student involvement. These changes were an attempt to break down the traditional
thinking of divisions between the disciplines. I later conceptualised this as an attempt to reduce the balkanisation of subject departmentalism. It was done with a deliberate attempt to bring about change.

It is evident here that the decision-making surrounding these curriculum change processes were initiated by this teacher group (the Science coordinator, a PE teacher and myself, the HPE coordinator), and consequently taken to middle management. Having two academic co-ordinators proposing these curriculum initiatives may have assisted in the progress of so-called acceptance and positive experiences in teaching the unit.

Teachers directly involved in the development and teaching of ‘The Body’ and students undertaking the unit saw benefit in its teaching, content and pedagogical approach. Two teachers stated:

The collaborative planning that has taken place between PE, Home Economics and Science departments has given us an insight into the content areas covered in each subject area ... the marriage of three subject areas has helped break down subject barriers and allow students to see a more integrated approach. [1:D]

The introduction of ‘The Body’ to our school has been successful in many facets, largely due to the collaboration between teachers in preparation and the real-life learning experiences which gives purpose to the students study ... the nature of the implementation gives students a degree of ownership of their ‘new’ knowledge ... assessment empowers students to extend themselves and develop an understanding of their responsibility in learning. [1:G]

The Science coordinator linked this integration to the use of the national documents.

The national statement and profiles have allowed the transfer of information from one learning centre to another — a good thing ... curriculum changes are desirable and inevitable ... collaboration is important. [1:H]

Two students commented:

I enjoyed the subject ‘The Body’. It was different to my other subjects because it involved a variety of activities ... One of the things I noticed about the subject was the way we were taught and assessed.

I think all the students should complete this unit as an awareness and understanding of their own bodies ... Students benefit from learning
while participating in dissections, physical fitness and theory. [1:S3]^3

Hence the semester unit has seen the inclusion of traditional subject areas within integrated learning experiences with an emphasis on a shift in pedagogy and student–teacher relations. This semester unit was central to the achievement of a major in the three traditional subjects of HEc, PE and Science, and attempted to weaken boundaries within the balkanised structures of existing timetable arrangements, budgets and faculty meetings. These are explored in the following sections.

Physical Education units were also remodelled to move away from the traditional focus of teaching games and sports to allowing for student input and responsibility for learning. Such shifts encouraged students to participate in a variety of roles in their physical activities, such as coach, peer tutor, referee; to investigate the ethical nature of games; and to develop skills using a ‘game sense’ approach (see Thorpe and Bunker 1992). The year 8 unit, PE110 demonstrates this (see Table 6.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEMESTER 1 - approximately 18 weeks, 2 lessons per week</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONCEPTS:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human Movement – participation in aquatics, ball games (selected by student group), and outdoor education activities (e.g. hike, orienteering, abseiling, kayak building), skill and strategy development in physical activities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Challenge, Risk and Safety – identification of safety procedures within physical activities and development of policy for outdoor education experience, participation in first aid procedures specific to outdoor experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ethics – exploration of development of rules, undertake various roles within physical activities (coach, participant, trainer, referee), emphasis on maximum participation within physical activities, modification for activities for special needs students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• People and Food – identifying links with HE110 re nutrition guidelines and application of these for outdoor experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Environmental Health – environmental awareness particular to outdoor education experience and development of procedures for care within that particular context.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personal Development – respect for individuals, communication, bullying and group work strategies to be applied in classes and outdoor education experience.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2 Overview of PE110 – skill development

^3 Student data collected in the NPD✎.
Two of the teachers who taught PE110 stated:

It motivated me to implement ‘Games for Understanding’ type strategies, i.e. student led/centred rather than all teacher-led … this type of strategy requires more time. It can be very successful through students listen[ing] to their peers; students [are] more likely to remember if input/rules come from them.[4:B]

I have moved to an investigative approach to teaching games (game sense has been a good support) and in theory. Student learning has been more independent and inquisitive [coordinator].

The unit emphasised a pedagogical shift although remained titled ‘skill development’ and as a ‘physical education’ unit thus retaining the distinct subject culture.

Modification of other units promoted a combination of traditional sporting activities and recreational activities, fitness, dance and aerobics, and aquatics. A theoretical component was added, such as for one of the aquatic units, safety in the aquatic environment and in another, sun safety. Decisions surrounding the content and conceptual bases of these units, made on planning days, were influenced by the syllabus-curriculum-policy texts, individual teacher’s beliefs, some student input into combinations of activities, and preparation for senior subjects. Figure 6.1 provides an overview of HPE units at SC.
Whilst these units appear to promote a more holistic approach to HPE, theory and practical lessons remained separate with the exception of two of the teachers (Teacher D and I) who attempted to integrate theory and practical. These two teachers were also involved in teaching the Senior PE syllabus which promotes this integration further. Otherwise, of four lessons allocated per week, one was allocated to theory and three to practical activities. Hence, in many cases, ‘theory has been an add on’ (as recorded in my journal) and usually provided the link to health in the syllabus or national documents. The splitting of the disciplines remained entrenched.

The timetable, the handbook, the faculty meetings and the budgetary allocations too limited the implementation of ‘The Body’ and modified HPE units. Each of these
presented constraining issues to the curriculum change process and in turn diminished the possibility of pedagogical change.

6.3.2.2 Timetable arrangements

Configuration of the timetable brought some resistance to the curriculum change project. Several components of the timetable needed exploration to illustrate the level of constraint. Firstly, the construction of a secondary school timetable is a difficult process with the allocation of teachers across senior- and middle-school subjects plus taking into account middle-management positions. A significant influence here is the enterprise bargaining agreement reached between the system's union and employer.

The most common procedure, and one that was undertaken at SC, was the allocation of teachers to senior subjects first followed by middle school units. Hence the historical and political status of the senior subjects was taken for granted. This also carried over to the allocation of hours where additional time was given to senior subjects. However, all middle-schooling units, regardless of their discipline, were given equal allocation of time. Due to the vertical timetable structure in the middle school, student selection numbers determined the allocation of classes. For example, 15 students may have selected a Level 3 PE unit equalling one teacher while 120 students may have selected 'The Body' (Level 2 across subjects PE, HEc, Science) unit equalling four teachers. Following the collation of this data a staffing timetable was constructed. The deputy principal (curriculum) was responsible for this timetable and usually consulted the KLA coordinators in relation to the middle-schooling subjects. In the case of the HPE KLA encompassing PE and HEc, this consultation should have involved both of these teaching areas; however, I was consulted only for the PE teaching positions. The most senior HEc teacher was consulted for HEc units. Such actions display entrenched subject departmentalism.

Given the status of senior subjects and student selection of middle-schooling units, SC staff were sometimes required to teach outside their discipline areas. This occurred in teaching PE. Over the four-year period there were three occasions where teachers from a science background were required to teach PE units. This caused some difficulty in the knowledge base of the unit and associated pedagogies. However, it
could also be interpreted as beneficial in bringing a scientific base to the units, both in knowledge and pedagogy.

A second limitation of the timetable arrangements was the organisation of time for teacher dialogue. Following our NPDP experience I asked the deputy principal to consider allocating corresponding spare periods for HPE staff to allow for discussion about the HPE units being taught and possible planning. This was arranged where possible and while it was not set in the timetable as discussion time for the teachers it provided an avenue for it. However, although this timeslot was used moderately by staff, several teachers commented that time was a barrier to the curriculum change.

- No time to discuss, clarify ideas, outcomes, assessment. [4:E]
- Time and effort — I think I am doing what is needed but I am waiting for time to discuss and get feedback. [2:C]

These teachers’ comments suggested an already heavy teaching load and that their involvement in the project came at a cost of finding additional time to share experiences and rebuild social energy.

Additionally the continuance of the timetable structure of one 90-minute period and two 45-minute periods per week caused some difficulty in the implementation of the revised units and associated pedagogies. A teacher commented:

- Working under the traditional timetable structure [the] students struggle to finish [their] work on time. [4:E]

Hence the timetable arrangements were a constraining factor in the implementation of the reconceptualised HPE curriculum. These timetable arrangements also reinforced the distinct subject culture outlined in the handbook.

6.3.2.3 The Middle Schooling Vertical Curriculum Handbook

The set structures for the Middle Schooling Vertical Curriculum Handbook were mentioned briefly in Section 6.2.1. The adoption of KLA middle-management structures was seen as having influence on changing the then current handbook offerings to accord with the new academic coordinator structure. However, this was to be a contested domain. A critical incident from my journal best reflects this:
KLA or subjects?

I was called in to have a meeting today with [the principal] to discuss the revisions of the handbook. It seems our previous coordinator and staff meetings, some with national consultants, that mapped traditional subject areas under KLA umbrellas has gone astray. [The principal] informed me that several of the coordinators and teachers do not agree with the placement of the Home Economics units under Technology as they are the information technology units. Also, that the Business Principles units would remain as a specific unit section in the handbook and not be positioned under Technology. She could see my angst with this and said: 'Maree, we have to respond to these comments and this is what I have agreed to'. I walked away angry at the resistance to the KLAs but could see it also as fear of losing territory and identity. I think my primary generalist background prevents me from understanding this. I wonder what will happen to ‘The Body’ subject? Will this decision present difficulties for our teachers involved in the trial?

There were several issues embedded in this incident. Firstly, the introduction of a middle-management structure and professional development sessions/meetings did not give potency to changing teachers’ beliefs and values about subject departmentalism. Secondly, my own values and beliefs, as the only primary presented bias in this incident, prevented me from seeing others’ points of view. And thirdly, I was largely concerned about the HPE curriculum change and effect that this would have on the teachers involved. Hence my personalised view of curriculum change had impact on my actions and behaviours in this incident.

An additional factor that assisted in retaining subject cultures both at SC and at the larger implementation of the KLAs was the continued identification of traditional subject areas within the key policy documents. The complexity of this nomenclature surrounding the construction of the QSCC HPE KLA syllabus (QSCC 1999a) was highlighted in Chapter 5. This also became apparent at the implementation level. The national statement (Curriculum Corporation 1994a) outlined content within three strands of ‘communication, investigation and application’, ‘human functioning and physical activity’, and ‘community structures and practices’. This statement provided ‘... a framework for the development of a range of subjects, courses of study and programs. Traditional subjects such as health education, physical education, home economics, outdoor education, personal development, human relations education and life skills education will draw heavily on this statement’ (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, p. 8). Hence, established subjects remained central to the organisation of curriculum at the school level.
The NPDP in HPE recognised these traditional subjects although emphasised the sub-strands of the statement — growth and development; sexuality; movement skills; safety; ethics; identity; personal development; consumer health; environmental health; fitness; community and recreation; people and food; nutrition; health of individuals and populations; and games and strategies — as curriculum organisers. The QSCC syllabus construction, informed by the national documents, embraced the new conceptualisation of the KLA including a statement about the inclusion of traditional subjects (see Chapter 5 re the contestation over the statement content). The syllabus states that the scope of the syllabus is to embrace learnings:

that traditionally may have been included in subjects such as health education, home economics, human relationships education, lifeskills, outdoor education, personal development, physical education an sport education. (QSCC 1999a, p.1)

Significantly too, the three strands of the QSCC syllabus are ‘Promoting the Health of Individuals and Communities’, ‘Developing Concepts and Skills for Physical Activity’ and ‘Enhancing Personal Development’ which can be easily aligned with HE/HEc, PE and Religious Education/Human Relationships Education. Again, this reinforces the organisation and compartmentalisation of knowledge.

6.3.2.4 Budgetary allocations

This subject departmentalism was also reinforced by the budget allocations. Throughout the four-year period, budget allocation continued to be subject-aligned and hence there were no changes to the existing hierarchy. KLA coordinators were not responsible for their KLA budgets. Only if s/he was in charge of a subject was it part of the responsibility assigned to the coordinator role. For instance, over the period of this study the HEc budget of $2000 went to the most experienced HEc teacher and the Sport budget ($7000) went to the sportsmaster. There was not a distinct budget allocation to Health and Physical Education and hence if I, as coordinator, wished for particular materials to support professional development sessions I had to ask both the HEc teacher and sportsmaster to provide this.
6.3.2.5 Faculty meetings

Set faculty meetings to discuss work programs, undertake pragmatic school requirements and raise concerns, proved problematic across the duration of the project. The meetings, conducted after school, operated on a rotational basis in the attempt to allow all staff to attend. For example, a teacher responsible for both HEc and English units had to attend both meetings, usually operating in different weeks of the term.

A problematic issue for these meetings was the cluster of teachers under the KLA umbrella. For example, it was found that teachers in the SOSE area occasionally broke up into separate History and Geography meetings. While I attempted not to do this in the HPE KLA there were occasions where the professional development was more specific to PE and so HEc teachers did not stay for that session. Upon reflection, these actions helped to retain the subject divide.

Significantly, too, these meetings became procedural and constrained. The statement below outlined my concern about these meetings:

> These faculty meetings seem to be getting more difficult in terms of meeting times and teacher involvement.

A particular critical incident reflects this concern.

**Memos and reactions!**

Although each teacher received a semester calendar from administration I had taken it upon myself to place HPE memos in staff trays the week before our set faculty meeting. Our timing for this upcoming meeting was tight. It was to occur in the second-last week of term and coincidentally reports were due the Friday after the meeting. So, I placed the memos in the trays and I received some ugly responses. ‘How long will it take?’ ‘Do we really need one?’ ‘I don’t think I’ll come — too much on!’ I reacted in haste and replied to the comments by saying that we really did need a meeting and we could attempt to get through the material quickly.

This incident presented a tension in conducting the meeting and diminished the possible outcomes.

Upon delving deeper in these reflections through the use of the question framework in my journal, the following comments were recorded across the project:

> I am unsure about effectiveness of today’s meeting — looking at watches etc.
I displayed authority in ensuring that all remained behind school for the meeting — maybe we need to return to the coffee shop — away from school environment.

I was a little annoyed with the authority I had to display here — power in setting dates, timelines, setting expectations. See what goes?

Body language by two members, in particular, displayed disinterest — I tried to move meeting along and ended up cutting it short as it didn't appear productive.

All of these comments attempted to critically analyse the meeting incidents and suggested alternative actions. They expressed a concern for collaborative cultures and of my personal use of power in the meetings and discussions. Collectively, they also demonstrated contrived collegiality (Hargreaves 1995). The strategy of set faculty meetings controlled developments in the HPE KLA. It appeared that this strategy suppressed the desire to be involved. Hargreaves’ diagram of the plunger demonstrates this clearly.

![Diagram of plunger](image)

*Figure 6.2 Contrived collegiality*
(Hargreaves 1995, p. 238)
6.3.2.6 Diminished opportunity for new pedagogies

The reconceptualisation of the HPE curriculum at SC was presented in the development of ‘The Body’ and modifications to specific PE units. The exploration of the timetable arrangements, Handbook, budget allocations and faculty-meeting procedures demonstrated complex factors that have impacted on the HPE curriculum change project. There was reduced opportunity for the development of new and unfamiliar pedagogies associated with the implementation of the HPE KLA. However, even within these organisational limitations there was evidence of some pedagogical changes. Four teachers stated:

Trial as a group has helped awareness and adapting teaching strategies towards new focus. [3:C]

Hopefully, individual teachers keep abreast of new ideas and recognise the worth of student centred learning. [4:F]

In some aspects ... [the syllabus] made me revise teaching strategies and methodologies. [4:A]

My teaching has changed slightly as a result of motivation not pressure. [4:B]

Others chose to comment more specifically on classroom change:

Student are motivated, more involved. [4:D]

Participation is high in a range of activities. [4:B]

Some chose to reflect on the projects worth and identify specific changes that have occurred. One teacher stated:

[It is] encouraging students to be accountable for their personal health and empowering them with knowledge and skills to gather, analyse and evaluate data. [4:E]

Another commented:

The work is more exciting and more effective. [The] classroom is less teacher-focused and procedures more in line with investigation approach taken in senior years. [4:C]

Yet another said:

Having been closely involved in pre NPDP junior PE and post, I’ve found changes that have occurred [to be] positive, futuristic and heading PE and HEc into the next decade with purpose ... have [it has] become less content driven and more student centred in [their] learning experiences. [4:D]
My own reflection on a planning day suggested evidence of new learnings, although questioning their application:

I acted more as a facilitator on this day only assisting in two of the nominated units ... format was altered and model open for discussion too. New learnings were voiced. It will be interesting to see whether they are put into practice.

There was also evidence of 'loss and struggle' (Fullan 1991) in the teachers' comments. The struggle of employing new and unfamiliar pedagogical approaches was made clear in the following statements.

- My understanding of an investigative approach to teaching — half the time I don’t know what I’m doing. When I’m busy it’s easier to go back and use the old stuff. [4:C]

- Barriers to implementation ... students pre-experiences [of decision making and problem solving] ... quiet/slow students can fade into the background ... decision-making abilities vary. [4:D]

- Bright students enjoyed the challenge. Slower students struggled to design goals and propose alternatives, make selections etc. Students [are] expecting to be spoon fed and not wishing to try something different. [4:E]

However, the depth of change and consequent loss and struggle was problematic when the following response was given to a query on the inquiry approach: ‘I’ve always used it (science trained)’ [3:F]. This might be true or it might indicate reformulating new pedagogy within known and comfortable ways.

While the conceptual bases of the new HPE KLA challenged teachers’ pedagogies the extent and depth varied across the group with the most change occurring in those whose beliefs were challenged least. Most saw the differences between students, rather than anything within themselves, as the key barrier to change. However, nearly all the teachers recognised that increased student ownership as the key outcome of the new policy.

Significant to these comments was the concept of teachers ‘making sense of change’. The interpretation of several teachers’ perceptions, including mine, suggested that change was a process not an event. It is a complex, dynamic, evolving transaction involving an interplay of multiple voices and contexts. The teachers’ comments
displayed individual positioning within the project and at times whether they were accepting, struggling or rejecting the HPE KLA curriculum change and its associated pedagogical change. To return to Sparkes’ (1990) notion of levels of change, teachers perceived real change where they identified changes within their classrooms and their students’ learning. Other comments suggested that the level of change was superficial because of barriers encountered or that there was no initial involvement in the decision-making process.

In summary, the issues and tensions discussed outline the context of balkanised cultures that can divide collaboration, particularly within a secondary school site where subject departmentalism is given status. One teacher’s comment illustrates this point of view when stating that the HPE staff ‘altered [the] existing course to suit [the syllabus and sourcebooks]’ [3:E]. The use of the word ‘existing’ emphasised this concern. Conversely, several developments presented challenges to balkanisation and attempted to weaken or blur the boundaries, with some improvements to teachers’ pedagogies. Nonetheless, the issues and tensions revealed that the HPE curriculum change at SC had been conformist, contrived and co-optative and on most occasions collegiality was ‘reduced to congeniality’ (Hargreaves 1995, p. 195).

6.3.3 Multiple allegiances
My allegiance to all groups with which I was involved in this implementation became problematic. My roles included those of HPE teacher and coordinator at SC, HPE chairperson for the Cairns Diocese Curriculum Committee, representative for QCEC on the QSCC HPE SAC, teacher at a QSCC trial school, and also encompassed previous associations with HPE NPDP personnel. My loyalty to each of these groups and my underlying commitment to an integrated and inquiry-based pedagogy (as per my primary teacher training) were challenged and my actions and behaviours on closer analysis were sometimes contradictory.

The me/them impression has been raised in previous reflections and usually referred to ‘me’ and ‘the HPE staff’. Largely these comments showed my position of influence. However, it was also noticeable in the following comments that my prioritising of influence fluctuated. Sometimes my loyalty lay with the external
allegiance while other times there was a shift to a school focus. Additionally, the notions of ‘power over’, ‘power through’ and ‘power with’ (Blasé and Anderson 1995) were identifiable in these incidents.

Firstly my allegiance struggle with the HPE staff or administration was noted in a reflection as I struggled with administration to organise a planning day, which was required (for ease of relief teachers) to compartmentalise the teachers according to PE or HEc. However, following a draft time frame being put to the teachers, a complaint came forth about the segregation of time and perception that it was not shared equally across the teacher groups. The strategy of ‘power with’ teachers in PE/HEc groups (collectively) was employed here to achieve a change in program. I listened to the teachers and reorganised the time schedule to satisfy the complaints. Nonetheless, my comment on this read:

This is where the political games take place and as the coordinator/facilitator I am the person in the middle. I hope I made the right decision.

My comment exposed the struggle to satisfy teacher input and the need to consider the consequence of such decisions. My allegiance went to the HPE teachers. As a group they demonstrated ‘power over’ my planning day organisation to make changes.

Allegiance with external agencies displayed ‘power through’ in gaining funding and consequent release time for a HPE planning day. I wrote:

I discussed the day with [administrator at the Catholic Education Office] and finally a school decision was made. I felt I was fairly reasonable bouncing ideas off administration, CEO [Catholic Education Office] and teachers involved. This is important in the change process to collaborate with teachers to plan for our benefit — make the time productive.

Although the comment suggested collaboration among administration, CEO and teachers, the words ‘for our benefit’ suggested a ploy in attaining the day’s release for particular purposes. When it couldn’t be achieved at the school site I decided to take it to the system level, thus gaining ‘power through’ this agency to attain funding. If I had not held an official role in the hierarchy, this appeal to a higher level would have been more difficult. I was also known at this level as an ‘award-winning teacher’ in
the system beyond Catholic Education and this had added to my being known and with this knowing came agency.

The compliance with the QSCC trial school procedures (another external agency) was pervasive in the change process. Chapter 5 illustrated the complexity involved in the construction of the HPE KLA syllabus. I also displayed a reflection of this complexity at the coalface — the school-based implementation of the syllabus. I wrote:

I am becoming very confused and concerned about the direction of curriculum development and its vision for the students. The more I experience the workings of the syllabus, the more negative I become ... I am trying not to relay this over to my staff although body language, comments and lack of involvement shows their disinterest too.

My struggle to understand the construction process was evident; however, I attempted to display emotional numbness in order to make progress with the implementation. Although, on closer analysis of this comment, the use of the phrase 'my staff' once again positioned myself (like a mother hen) as having responsibility for the process of change and the staff. It also displayed multiple conflicting allegiances in my relationships to staff, to the coordinator role and to QSCC.

A specific critical incident demonstrated this further:

**SAC Meeting — August 1998**

A task at this meeting was for SAC members to review all of the strands’ CLOs and suggest improvements. I joined the group focusing on Strand 3 'Enhancing Personal Development'. I was particularly interested in this strand due to its interrelationship with Religious Education. I was joined by one writer and four other SAC members. [name omitted — SAC member] was particularly influential due to her powerful position with EdQld and expertise in the NPDP [writer and coordinator]. The discussion was led by [name omitted — same person described above] and what developed was a reinsertion of the national profile sub-strands, those that were implemented in the NPDP. These included identity, ethics, growth and development and interpersonal communication. I agreed with this decision.

The above incident depicted comprehensive change in Strand 3 just one month before publication. In agreeing to these changes I was torn between Catholic Education and my involvement and association in the NPDP. The presence of power was demonstrated by one particular SAC member and achieved 'power with' other SAC
members. My loyalty to the QSCC and to Catholic Education was diminished through my former association with the NPDP writer and coordinator. Again my prioritising of allegiance affected my actions and behaviours in this incident.

The following reflections further displayed conflicting allegiances.

The day settled some confusion for us (me) but still an uneasiness as we don't know how the outcomes will be written and what will happen to previously developed units.

A short meeting to give feedback to staff from SAC meeting — I'm unsure whether this [trial school and my role on SAC] has helped our school progress/develop or not — maybe knowing too much information has been harmful to teachers' work, causing negativity??

The first comment suggested the indecision of the QSCC impact on the teachers and the units of work already prepared, although it did also suggest the me/them divide. The second comment took this further when it raised the problematic nature of my allegiance to so many groups and the possible negative effect it was having on the school and staff. My use of the possessive 'our' was significant here as it aligned me with the collective of the school. The following reflection continued to demonstrate my allegiance towards the school and staff:

What has been achieved so far and by whom? Awareness of syllabus development by school and planning of units. Who? I am the instigator but most appear to be participating. Success? Unsure — have our teaching practices altered — I'm not too clear on this. What about the students? Unfortunately I feel change has been planned and written on paper but I am ambiguous about real change, for myself too. My enthusiasm has declined to a point of disillusionment about where we are heading and the guidance provided. Has this change process really provided something for teachers to better their teaching of HPE?

Hence while I envisaged that my multiple allegiance to groups involved in the project would assist in keeping abreast of the change process it appeared quite the opposite. The conflicting allegiances became problematic for the 'change agent' role. My actions and behaviours could be considered disloyal on occasions to my school and colleagues, and on other occasions to the external agencies, bringing both possibilities and limitations to the 'change agent' role.
6.3.4 Questioning the ‘change agent’ role

Several of the reflections noted previously demonstrated my struggle with the ‘change agent’ role and the conflict in attempting to both deny and take up power in making a difference. Largely the reflections displayed that the ‘change agent’ role involved hierarchy and while this brought about possibilities for change it also limited collaboration.

I had conceptualised the ‘agent of change’ role to be one of support and enthusiasm to promote change possibilities. However, this could have been a limitation of the ‘agent of change’ role, reflected in the following comment:

Who’s holding it up now? It makes me question the process of change — even those who are titled ‘the change agents’ may be losing motivation to continue. The upheavals and confusion are depressing the process of change if there has been one happening.

While the educational change literature (Sarason 1990; Fullan 1991; Hargreaves 1995) advocates that upheavals and confusion are central to the change process I discounted this in preference for the procedural actions of the externally driven change process and the perceived actions of a change agent compliance. The following critical incident demonstrated a particular crisis point.

A crisis point!
A yukko day! A few tears and lots of frustration! I feel like a schizophrenic sometimes — believing in it, acting differently, unsure where I am heading with all of this. I am concerned about the effect it is having on the kids. I feel as though I am losing my motivation as an agent, time is running away. Is change too much to bear? Why do I become so disillusioned and frustrated?

Deep analysis of this incident revealed complex issues. The schizophrenic feeling not only pointed to the many different roles I played and allegiances I had, but also the impact they were having on the students at SC. My comment on the change agent role questioned the notion of motivation, enthusiasm and support. It also made recognition of the compliance with external time frames and thus to the hierarchy of change procedures. The question of disillusionment and frustration further confirmed contradiction between my beliefs about collaboration and the unpredictability of change, and the specific role of the change agent.
A similar reflection that summarised my conflict:

Am I becoming disillusioned with my place/position in attempting to bring about change? Are there too many hurdles?

However, this comment showed further conflict in the use of the phrase ‘my place/position’, reiterating the me/them impression raised previously and lending credence to the specific role of the change agent being solely responsible for change. The suggestion of hurdles could have implied barriers to progression of change or that the change agent role itself was a hurdle.

The role of the ‘change agent’ in this case study also became problematic due to this particular change agent researching her own backyard. This became evident in the interview process. I had written the following comment in my journal after organising interviews with the staff members:

Involvement in the research collection may cause some difficulties — will talk this over [with staff] on return [from holidays] and inform all teachers that I am after the truth and won’t be upset as I’m interested in the relationships and power play.

This comment showed my awareness of teachers being uncomfortable in the interview process due to their interpretations of the impact of interviews on our relationship as colleagues. It also recognised with the use of ‘I am after’ an intent and presented another conflicting point of reflection in the phrase ‘the truth’. It suggested the denial of multiple voices and interpretations from the teachers and reinforced my position as an authority with recognised position in the hierarchy.

On the other hand, the following comment suggested openness and an ability to critically examine each other’s actions and practices:

It was interesting to note that many teachers felt I was the instigator of the change plus administration, and they had no part in it.

The sharing of such comments suggested that a level of trust operated between HPE staff. Blasé and Blasé (1994, in Allen and Glickman 1998, p. 513) support this by stating that ‘without trust, people are likely to close up, to keep to themselves’.

However, another comment rendered this assumption problematic:

Generally good comments on myself as change agent, allowing flexibility, providing support, not a great deal of authority ... I question this! I wonder if
it's due to me being the interviewer and the uncomfortableness of being honest.

Hence there is some ambivalence in the comments recorded and again the interplay of power relations having impact on the project. Did they tell me what I wanted to hear? Did my position as the HPE coordinator raise doubts about what I got in the interviews? My beliefs in wanting this change were well known. How would this general knowledge have impacted on what they told me? Hence my role of change agent appeared to have permitted the voice I had and constrained the HPE teacher voice.

In summary, the 'change agent' role presented specific advantages to the curriculum change process. It brought with it motivation and enthusiasm, support from external agencies and a supply of resources (material, monetary and human). Nevertheless, in this case it also brought limitations. There was an assumption that change was the responsibility of the change agent and that the teachers linked this with the HPE coordinator role. There was also the possibility of too many resources and external compliance. For me this caused great angst. The schizophrenic actions and behaviours, dependent upon the social and physical contexts, displayed the contradictory conflict in my beliefs about educational change and my multiple allegiance to all groups.

6.3.5 Other issues and tensions: time and funding

Teachers' comments and my journal excerpts also raised the general issues of time constraints and funding. I say 'general issues' as they were reported in many educational change research projects as influencing factors (Apple 1986; Sarason 1990; Hargreaves 1995; Woods et al. 1997). The issue of time constraints can be read into several of the comments already discussed. Teachers mentioned limited time for dialogue and I raised the external time constraint. The intensified lives of teachers are exposed when involved in such projects. The day-to-day routines of school life are given priority and usually such curriculum change projects involved the injection of more time and effort. This can be at a personal cost to those teachers.
As raised earlier in this chapter, teacher development is central to educational change. Gaining funding for teacher release is one strategy for professional development sessions. A teacher’s comment summed up her interpretation of the necessity of time and money, among other things, for whole school improvement. She [3:F] commented ‘... lots of money, lots of time, lots of motivation and positivity, charismatic team leaders to guide process, genuine interest and involvement welcomed’. While this may appear a utopia for change it presented a focus on external input and not the teacher, students or school.

In general the HPE teachers saw support for additional time, and thus funding, as essential to their development; nevertheless, it could also be detrimental to other areas of the school. The comments below from both teachers and an administrator divulge this complexity. Two teachers commented:

Funding for teacher release, either from the school or Diocese has been difficult. [3:D]

Administration provided time eventually. [3:A]

An administrator’s comment in feedback to external evaluators provided an additional viewpoint to the provision of funding and hence teacher development planning days. She emphasises extra demands on:

... staff and personnel involved, other staff members taking replacement lessons and homeroom activities, an interruption to student learning etc … office staff doing the clerical work on top of own tasks [and] administration organising relief support.

Such a comment illustrated the multiplicity of the change process and need for collaboration and understanding across all levels of the school structure. It was not only the teachers who were affected.

6.4 Summary

This chapter presents a critical analysis of the implementation of the new HPE KLA syllabus at a specific secondary school site. The issues and tensions surrounding teacher voice and ownership, organisational limitations and opportunities for change to pedagogies, multiple allegiances to groups, the ‘change agent’ role, and issues of time and funding display the erratic and perplexing nature of curriculum change. The
HPE implementation process provided opportunities for curriculum and pedagogical change as promoted by the conceptual characteristics of the new syllabus. Conversely, there is also suggestion that possibilities for change were constrained through the maintenance of the traditional subject departmentalism.

The reliance upon external agencies also influenced this process. While there was some suggestion that this reliance limited the curriculum change, there was also some positive gains. However, possibly too much reliance occurred. Furthermore there is indication that this curriculum change process was procedural and operated through self-interest (Ball 1987), largely through my role as coordinator. Comments recorded displayed limited HPE teacher ownership and that support for the implementation had been achieved through the coordinator role. Hence the opportunity of collaborative cultures was diminished by the power being concentrated in key agents.

Thus the structure and culture of SC were contested and convoluted domains. Both elements were socially constructed through the interactions of teachers, institutional practices and external agencies. Whether these interactions were collegial promoting new pedagogies or insulated in retaining traditional practices depended upon individual and collective teacher agency. This case study demonstrates educational change to be a socially constructed process and identifies the need to better understand the agential possibilities and limitations in that process.
SECTION C

PROLOGUE
This thesis so far has presented two curriculum change case studies set within sites of my professional practice. The interplay between human agents and their organisations embedded in the physical and social contexts of curriculum construction and implementation revealed in these case studies is analysed in Chapter 7. The ‘duality of curriculum’ frameworks, based on Giddens’ (1984) theory of structuration (see section 3.5), was applied in the examination of the social interactions between human agents (syllabus writers, teachers), curriculum and institutional properties (school- and system-based). Curriculum is viewed as both a product of human actions and a medium for human actions.

These ‘duality of curriculum’ configurations promote an analytical framework of integration of agency and structure via the three modalities — interpretive schemes, resources and norms. For analysis purposes these modalities may be interpreted as operating singularly or, in providing a deeper analysis of social interaction, the modalities can be seen as operating in coexistence. Giddens (1984) contends that it is difficult to understand the enactment of sets of interpretive schemes without noting the allocation of resources to permit the existence of these schemes, and that these schemes validate norms. As well, Giddens consistently refers to the knowledgeability of the actor and his/her ability to routinely incorporate ‘what went before’ and anticipations of ‘what will come next’ into the present encounter’ (Giddens 1979, p. 84). Teachers and curriculum writers call upon embedded knowledge, values, rules, resources, sanctions and norms, all of which are vulnerable to ‘chronic revision in light of new information or knowledge’ (Giddens 1991, p. 20).

The synthesis of these social interactions in the two case studies has led to the rethinking of ‘real’ change as proposed by Sparkes (1990). The knowledgeability of the human agent within the ‘duality of curriculum’ presents new insights into this conception of change. The agent’s actions and behaviours in social interactions are key to bringing about curriculum change and this needs recognition within Sparkes’
framework. Chapter 8 proposes the reconceptualisation of levels of teacher change by the introduction of interwoven teacher-change typologies. Additionally, the notion of 'real' is challenged in light of these interpretations and the terminology of 'authentic change' is proposed to present a better reflection of curriculum change in these and future case studies. The metaphor of the kaleidoscope is applied to assist in theorising 'authentic change' encompassing the knowledgeability of the actor.
CHAPTER 7

MAKING MEANING
An Analysis of the Duality of Curriculum

... it is agency who bring structure into being and it is structure which produces the possibility of agency. (Cassell 1993, p. 12)

The theoretical model of a 'structurational model of curriculum' (explained in Chapter 3) displays the ability to draw upon Giddens' theory of structuration to study the subject matter of curriculum construction and implementation. The duality of structure concepts has been applied as 'sensitising devices' in the 'thinking about' curriculum change processes and more specifically in this chapter in the 'interpretation of research results' (Giddens 1984, pp. 326-27). Thus, the second research question, which asks for understandings about curriculum change generated through the useful analytical frame of structuration theory, is uncovered in this chapter.

The premise that curriculum is both a product of human action and a medium for human action is the foundation of these models. The model permits the analysis of the socially constructed syllabus-curriculum-policy by showing that it is produced and reproduced by human agents but is also embedded within educational institutions. Curriculum is one kind of structural property in institutions as it contains some of the rules and resources constituting the structure of a school, education system or educational body.

The two case studies presented in chapters 5 and 6 respectively illustrate the interaction between the human agents, curriculum and institutional properties. The structurational model of curriculum and, more specifically, the models for analysis of
social interaction in curriculum construction and implementation, are applied to analyse the happenings of the QSCC HPE KLA syllabus development and the implementation of the HPE KLA at a specific secondary school site.

7.1 Structurational model of curriculum

The structurational model of curriculum, shown in Figure 7.1, outlines the processes for social interaction in the two case studies. The interaction between human agents, curriculum and institutional properties are embedded within temporal and spatial contexts.

![Diagram of Structurational Model of Curriculum](image)

**Figure 7.1 Structurational model of curriculum**

Arrows $a$ and $b$ display the notion that curriculum is created by human agents and also provides the medium for human action, either enabling or constraining that action. Arrow $c$ displays the influence of the nature of institutional conditions in interactions with curriculum such as, available resources, set guidelines or established norms. Arrow $d$ is of particular importance in curriculum change as it displays either the reinforcement or modification of established practices. All of these interactions are situated within specific temporal and spatial contexts. The actors and organisation's timeframes and the locales in which these interactions occur are important to understand the complexity of the change process. These interactions are
operating simultaneously and continuously and hence the structurational model provides an avenue for multi-layered social analysis and demonstrates the centrality of duality of curriculum.

Giddens (1984) presents dimensions for closer examination of both the agents and structures in social interactions. The dimensions are represented as the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources (facilities) and norms. Curriculum is a set of interpretive schemes because it consists of stocks of knowledge and communicates meaning to teachers, students, parents and the community. Curriculum also constitutes the use of resources (or facilities) as it outlines the rules for action. The allocation of curriculum and the authority it holds reinforces particular power relations within educational systems. Hence, it validates a set of norms that set standards and encourage shared meanings, appropriate actions and responses. Resources are central to both interpretive schemes and norms displaying the pervasive nature of power in social life. However, not all interactions follow the pathway presented above because the individual agent is knowledgeable and his/her actions may result in both intended and unintended consequences.

Sections 7.2 and 7.3 offer an analysis of the case studies presented in chapters 5 and 6, respectively. The modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms situated in their temporal and spatial contexts provide the dimensions through which to analyse the social interactions. The critical issues, tensions and incidents highlighted in these case studies were selected to illustrate the interactions between human agents and organisations. While almost all of the issues, tensions and incidents displayed co-existence of the modalities in which the social interaction was manifested, it was also necessary to choose specific situations to highlight individual modalities. Thus analysis appear at both a singular and co-existence level displaying the richness and multi-layers of social interaction.

7.2 Duality of curriculum in curriculum construction

The model for analysis of social interaction between agents and structures in curriculum construction has been explained previously in this thesis (see section 3.5). This particular model viewed the interaction from the curriculum writers’ points of
view and their ability to construct a HPE KLA syllabus. Data from Chapter 5 are used to illustrate the dual role of agents and structure in this construction process.

7.2.1 Analysis of modalities of duality of curriculum in curriculum construction
Human actors communicate through the mode of interpretive schemes; exercise power through the mode of resources; and act on sanctions through the mode of norms. The structures of signification, domination and legitimation are manifested in the modes of interpretive schemes, resources and norms, respectively. In relation to curriculum construction it was envisaged that the syllabus writers would act through the modes to bring about changes to the established structures of signification, domination and legitimation and at the same time being shaped by them. Hence there was likely to be evidence of struggle and loss in the dual nature of agency and structure. An analysis of particular interactions within each of the modalities highlights this.

7.2.1.1 Interpretive schemes
Interpretive schemes, as mentioned previously, refer to the stocks of knowledge that actors apply reflexively in sharing meaning and stating reasons for their actions. This knowledge is central to all actions as it assists in producing and reproducing the action but also is shaped by it. Hence these stocks of knowledge are both enabling and constraining to action.

Within the syllabus, construction stocks of knowledge can be identified in several ways. Firstly, the pre-existing curriculum documents (see Section 2.3.3) involved in syllabus construction set standards. The PE and HE syllabuses, the draft outdoor education policy, the P–10 framework, the ‘Games for Understanding’ policy drafts, other states’ HPE KLA documents and current research surrounding the HPE KLA were all influential as signifiers of the knowledge to be contained within the new syllabus.

Additionally, the influence of outcomes based education set the language format to be applied in the syllabus. The drafts of the syllabus displayed confusion over the interpretation of this concept, and during the middle stages of the construction period
the writers were presented with new methods for communicating outcomes. It was not until the writers received the direction saying: ‘learning outcomes for students are statements of what students know and can do with what they know’ (QSCC 1997f, p. 2) that they could begin the new pathway of signification for teachers.

However, one of the most influential stocks of knowledge supported in both national and state agendas were the statement and profile documents (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b). As Joe (personal communication #1) stated ‘in the development of the syllabus, the statement and profile would be a significant starting point’. The statement and profile strands and sub-strands provided the conceptual base to the language and content of the syllabus although a direction was given to ‘pare it down’ so as to make it more manageable for teachers. As evidenced in Draft 1 of the syllabus, the writers acted on the statement and profile knowledge to position 29 ‘key concepts’ as core curriculum. These were clustered under the three integrated strands of Promoting Health of Individuals and Populations; Developing Movement Concepts and Motor Skills; and Enhancing Personal Development and Relationships. However, much contestation arose over the selection of the strands.

The choice of whether to go with three or four strands caused much controversy among the writers. Several (Joe, Lee, Syd) would have preferred the choice of four strands although openly commented on the decision being taken out of their hands. Two different arguments were to result. Syd (personal communication #1 #2, respectively) presented both arguments. Firstly, s/he said: ‘What we’ve done has just reinforced the study of current practice, i.e. Health, PE, HRE’. This concern was reiterated in a comment recorded at a SAC meeting where it was stated there was ‘failure of the current three organisers [strands] to challenge the current HRE, Health and PE mindset’. Such comments show the concern about retaining current sets of interpretive schemes and hence the reinforcement of the structure of signification. The second argument presented by Syd displayed a different interpretation. S/he said: ‘I still believe we should have had four strands, with two of them, one a very heavy physical activity ... but another one ... maybe the fitness stuff’. This comment was indicative of his/her personal valuing of particular stocks of knowledge and seeing them placed within the syllabus.
Thus the individual writers' values and beliefs about the HPE KLA (writers' knowledgeability) presented another stock of knowledge influential in the syllabus construction. These stocks of knowledge may have supported the current structure of signification or posed challenges to it. For instance, all writers were from a HE/HPE background and this shone through in their valuing of physical activity and the social view of health. While they acknowledged that they needed to take a 'broader view and ... get input from health educators, home economics educators, outdoor educators and so on' (Logan, personal communication #1), the positioning of the following statement on page one of the syllabus signifies their valuing of physical activity.

Active engagement of physical activity is a major emphasis in this key learning area. This emphasis recognises that participation in physical activity promotes health and acknowledges the unique role of physical activity as a medium for learning. A significant amount of time in the key learning area should be allocated to learning experiences that actively engage students in physical activity. (QSCC 1999a, p.1)

This supported the traditional interpretive scheme operating in PE and also took into account concerns about the loss of physical activity in the HPE KLA expressed in other states of Australia (Garrett and Piltz 1999).

Conversely the promotion of cognition in physical activity by the writers presented a challenge to current ways of thinking about and teaching physical activity. Both Joe and Logan (personal communication #1, respectively) commented on the 'theory/prac dichotomy' or 'kids being engaged in the physical'. Influencing this was the notion of 'in, through and about' physical activity that had a central feature in the senior PE syllabus developed for Queensland schools. Two of the syllabus writers had some involvement in this senior syllabus construction and trial. The writers were able to use their own, and what was seen as supporting, stocks of knowledge to enable a change to the existing structure of signification.

An additional but possibly peripheral stock of knowledge was to influence the writers. Introducing the curriculum committee to act as an advisory group to the council brought a select group of representatives with their own valued segments of
knowledge. The writers found this difficult, as evidenced in a comment made about a particular curriculum committee meeting:

... they were looking at outcomes and it was very interesting to hear the types of things, for example [name deleted] said 'where have you got water safety, we had a drowning in our schools', and in court they say it's accountability ... (Syd, personal communication #2)

Hence the writers were faced with particular stocks of knowledge that appeared pertinent to individual persons and/or education systems. This had to be accounted for in the content and language of the new HPE KLA syllabus.

On closer analysis of the process of construction the writers' actions were reflexive in producing and reproducing the structure of signification. This was evidenced in Joe's (personal communication #2) comment: 'It's interesting how we've moved around in a big circle back towards the broader definition of the KLA'. In this case, it could be interpreted that this reflexive movement inferred an unintended consequence of this particular writer's actions. However, as stated previously, the statement and profile documents were powerful in the creation of the syllabus content and language. Draft 1 displayed a strong commitment to the sub-strands of the profile document. Drafts 2, 3 and 4 did not openly state this commitment in the language of the CLOs. However, following review of Draft 4 at the August SAC meeting in 1998, there was a visible return to the sub-strand concepts with the exception of sexuality. A particular SAC member, whose previous experience and valuing of the statement and profile knowledge, was highly influential in this decision (see Section 5.3.2.2).

Thus the actions of the human agents were manifested in interpretive schemes, sometimes retaining particular stocks of knowledge and sometimes challenging them. Each human agent was influential in his/her own or the collective communication of the valued stocks of knowledge. However, this knowledge both enabled and constrained the actions to either reinforce or modify the structure of signification. The use of resources by the writers and other human agents (Curriculum Committee members, SAC members) were central to these actions.
7.2.1.2 Resources

The pervasiveness of power is key to understanding the role that resources play in social interactions. Curriculum is a resource that outlines the rules for interaction for students, teachers, parents and other school community members. It brings with it a system of domination by stating these rules. However, the writers of the syllabus were to work within particular constraints of time, budgets, pre-existing resources and authority to construct curriculum, hence they were working within a power hierarchy. Additionally though, the writers themselves could exercise power through the roles they held within the QSCC organisation to select the content and language of the syllabus. Hence there were multiple levels of power working within the construction process.

The timeline for the HPE syllabus construction was set by the state. Lindsay (personal communication #2) commented that an expectation of the government (and the previous government) was for all ‘syllabi for KLAs, and even optional syllabi for KLAs [to] be ready for implementation basically within the space of three years’. The writers were provided with strict timeframes for construction, trial and publication of material. A corresponding budget was provided for that timeframe. The power hierarchy of the Minister of Education for the state government transcending down through the QSCC to the writers and then teachers and schools was apparent.

This co-ordered arrangement of the writers being answerable to the council and then the council in turn being answerable to the minister caused some difficulties in the construction process. Much tension was to arise specifically between the writers and the council as a result of waiting on decisions made at council meetings before being able to progress with the writing. The number of drafts (five in total) of the syllabus is testimony to the decisions made and corresponding modifications. The syllabus writers (with the direct assistance of the SAC) exercised the power given to them to construct drafts of the document although were to await validation of the drafts at the council level. Several comments by the writers state the angst this caused:

... the decision-making process was from on high ... there seems to be no recognition that the lack of decision interferes with what happens here. (Lee, personal communication #1)
... you sit and you wait for a council meeting to think what changes are we going to have to make. (Syd, personal communication #2)

Such comments were an indication that the writers saw their work being undertaken in an institutionalised hierarchical framework — a system of domination.

Nonetheless, the writers, too, carried out a system of domination in their own wielding of power to either include or discount voices from particular interest groups. While there was recognition of the broad spectrum of interest groups and genuineness in their attempts to be visible within the syllabus, the writers were able to exercise power to make decisions about this visibility. For instance, the following comment describes the writer’s justification of either inclusion or exclusion of the HEc voice:

... I think it was probably seen as us being a bit antagonistic towards them but in reality it was probably more the case that within the parameters we were set we couldn’t accommodate some of their wishes. (Logan, personal communication #2)

The consultative network voice, too, was seen as being constrained within the parameters set. Syd (personal communication #1) stated: ‘... [on] the big decisions, I don’t think our consultative network ... has had a chance to influence’. Kym (personal communication #1) added: ‘I do feel that teachers have been listened to in their feedback but that their responses and comments have had to be tempered with, and incorporated into, other decisions’. Evidence of a system of domination co-ordinated by the QSCC is suggested here or possibly that the writers used this to justify their decisions when applying their own organisational power.

On the other hand a dialectic of control (Giddens 1984) is evident during the construction process. The notion of ‘dialectic of control’ suggests that the agents who have power to transform actions are influenced by other agents (subordinates) who are able to mobilise resources to gain some degree of control over the conditions of production and reproduction. In this case, particular SAC members and alliances between lobby groups influenced the syllabus writers. The first example was one specific SAC member who initiated a change to the Strand 3 outcomes at the August 1998 SAC meeting (QSCC 1998f). This particular person used his/her resources of expertise, gained as a statement and profile writer and coordinator of the HPE NPDP, to influence other members in his/her group to agree to changes to the Strand 3
outcomes. Collectively this gave him/her power to alter the CLOs in favour of the statement and profile concepts (see section 5.3.2.2).

A second example of a dialectic of control arose late in the syllabus construction period. Despite a Queensland Teachers' Union (QTU) representative being a member of the SAC for the duration of the HPE syllabus construction, the enactment of a six-month delay on implementation came as a surprise to the syllabus writers. As Lee stated (personal communication #2) '... the union's position ... I find fascinating a major player could almost sit in silence within a seat of power [a member on the SAC] and then come in the backdoor all the time to influence what goes on'.

The third instance of a dialectic of control can be seen in the formation of alliance between lobby groups to influence the writers' actions. The writers were aware of this alliance (see section 5.3.4) and their ability to ensure visibility in the syllabus. The most notable example of this alliance occurred in the voting process on the inclusion of a statement on physical activity at the September 1998 SAC meeting (QSCC 1998h). Alliances between Sport and Physical Education personnel strongly supported the inclusion of this statement and diminished the possibility of the Health representatives' vote. However, this alliance also agreed with the writers' value on physical activity and so, although it may have appeared to be a dialectic of control, it also contributed to the writers wielding their own organisational power to reinforce the structure of domination. These structures of domination legitimated particular practices, processes and knowledge.

7.2.1.3 Norms
Norms refer to the rules or sanctions that govern the actor's flow of conduct, setting expectations and an obligation to follow. The enactment of these norms sets actions along prescribed pathways and reinforces the institutionalised practices. In the case of curriculum construction, the establishment of the QSCC set standard practices for curriculum development (some taken for granted and some new processes); the writers' occupations and training; and the inclusion of benchmarking statements, are manifested in or manifesting norms of practice. Significant to these social interactions is the centrality of power.
The establishment of the QSCC at the helm of curriculum construction for the compulsory years of schooling indeed set the conventions for all syllabus development. Despite the QSCC being a new intersystemic statutory body, the normalised institutional properties from previous and existing syllabus construction organisations were transferred to this project. It brought with it the taken-for-granted procedures of having a Project Chair, a group of syllabus writers, advisory committee, trial schools, consultative network and an external evaluator. However, new to these procedures was the establishment of an ‘intersystemic nature’ to a council and curriculum committee that had the distinct role of ratifying the content and language of the syllabus. Additionally, the introduction of KLAs and need for consistency among KLA syllabus formats brought modification to previous curriculum construction processes. Hence some modification occurred to structures of legitimation containing rules and resources for curriculum construction for Queensland schools. Nonetheless, the normalisation of these practices brought power to the human agents following the standardised practices.

Adding to these practices was the writers’ occupations and training. Mentioned within interpretive schemes (section 7.2.1.1) was the influence of the writers’ training and occupation on their valued stocks of knowledge. Their selection as writers of the HPE syllabus validated their experiences. Hence it is visible in the syllabus that the areas of HE and PE are priority. Additionally, the selection of the three strands ‘Health of Individuals and Populations’, ‘Developing Concepts and Skills for Physical Activity’ and ‘Enhancing Personal Development’ that are likened to HE, PE and HRE legitimates the practices encompassed in those segments of knowledge.

Justified, too, are the national benchmarks of Years 3, 5 and 7 through the inclusion of the typical achievement statements. The syllabus states:

For the purposes of planning and assessment, outcome levels typically relate to year levels as follows:

- students demonstrating Level 2 outcomes are at the end of Year 3;
- students demonstrating Level 3 outcomes are at the end of Year 5;
- students demonstrating Level 4 outcomes are at the end of Year 7; and
- students demonstrating Level 6 outcomes are at the end of Year 10.

(QSCC 1999a, p.27)
The writers, influenced by a council decision, created a sanction by including this statement in the HPE syllabus and yet reinforced the structure of legitimation held at the federal level.

Specific issues, tensions and incidents were selected above to show the social interaction between human agents and structures that are activated through the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms. However, it is also important to view these modalities as operating simultaneously and continuously in the production and reproduction of action and thus explore their co-existence. This in turn elucidates a deeper understanding of the social interactions.

7.2.1.4 Coexistence of modalities

The coexistence of modalities in social interactions presents a multi-layered perspective to the integration of agency and structure. While incidents and issues can be viewed singularly (as presented in sections 7.2.1.1, 7.2.1.2 and 7.2.1.3), Giddens contends that it is through co-existence of these modalities that the recursive nature of duality of structure is evident. Actors call upon the structures of signification, domination and legitimation, specific to the social system they are situated within, to produce (and reproduce) human action. Giddens (1984, p. 31) states clearly that 'structures of signification always have to be grasped in connection with domination and legitimation'. Additionally, he sees domination as the 'very existence of codes of signification' and that norms express 'structural asymmetries of domination' (Giddens 1984, pp. 31–30). The double-ended arrows shown in the duality of curriculum models (see Section 3.5.2.1) demonstrate this relationship. Hence, particular incidents, issues and tensions arising in the construction of the Queensland HPE syllabus were analysed to display this interdependence.

The positioning of physical activity in the Queensland HPE syllabus was manifested in all three modalities. Key to the explicit emphasis placed upon physical activity, as stated in the syllabus rationale, was the interpretive schemes of writers, SAC members and existing curriculum documents. The vignettes of individual writers' beliefs and values (Section 5.2.2) identify a combined emphasis on 'engagement in
physical activity'. The following excerpts from writers' interview material confirm this:

The value in physical activities was very important (Syd, personal communication #1).

[approaches valued were] ... consistent with the philosophy underpinning the physical activity strands in the statement [document] (Joe, personal communication #1).

... and the fact that physical activity was a unique aspect of it ... we certainly needed to hang on to that (Logan, personal communication #1).

SAC members supported this emphasis from very early stages in the construction process. Minutes of a SAC meeting recorded ‘... [there’s] not enough emphasis on PHYSICAL in the outcomes’ (QSCC 1996e, p. 3).

Pre-existing curriculum documents, too, presented stocks of knowledge about physical activity that influenced the writers’ and SAC members’ input in interactions. Significantly, the Queensland senior PE syllabus ruling of 50 per cent of time allocated to physical activity was influential in a similar statement arising in the first draft of the syllabus. Such rulings legitimated the role of physical activity, hence setting norms for practice for the human agents in implementing the syllabus and demonstrating interaction between structures of signification and legitimation.

The structure of domination presented particular tensions for the writers when they attempted to state their emphasis on ‘engagement in physical activity’. The ruling of 50 per cent of time allocated to physical activity in Draft 1 was to be dropped in following drafts due to a decision made by council members. Writers had to act within this QSCC structure of domination to present their ideals. Notably, one of the writers, Joe (personal communication #1), presented a strategy for this when s/he stated: ‘[we need to] ... remind ourselves of what was the intent behind the rule, and how might we achieve a similar outcome within the new structure’. Thus, to achieve an emphasis on ‘engagement in physical activity’, the writers worked within structures of domination to ensure that their structure of signification became evident (and hopefully set a structure of legitimation).

This strategising by the writers became particularly evident when, at the September 1998 (4/98) SAC meeting, the issue of the 50 per cent physical activity ruling was
raised again for discussion. Discussion on this ruling had not occurred at the previous meeting, nor was anything recorded in the August minutes (QSCC 1998h). The following statement was recorded in the September 1998 minutes:

For the HPE syllabus, council decided that the 50 per cent rule included in the draft was to be reworded to indicate the emphasis on physical activity in the KLA and is to be moved to the rationale (QSCC 1998h, p.2).

The SAC did not discuss this recommendation at that point in time and so it could be assumed as confirming their own stocks of knowledge (structure of signification) about ‘engagement in physical activity’. Moreover it displayed acceptance of the structure of domination set in the council handing down guidelines for the syllabus.

Later in the day (of the September 1998 meeting) a vote was taken on the inclusion of a statement that would display this emphasis. This voting process also demonstrated a structure of domination within the SAC and although there was a group voicing disagreement with the statement, the heavy representation of physical educators and sport representatives visibly swung the vote. Importantly though, this instigation for the return of a statement emphasising the role of physical activity came from the writers themselves. They were able to ensure their own structure of signification particular to physical activity was accepted through using the resources provided to them as writers and, more importantly, the taken-for-granted domination process set by council. Logan’s comment confirmed this strategy:

... while our intent was the mandation of physical activity, it kind of got lost a bit in the words but I think we will be able to address that for the final syllabus document. (Logan, personal communication #2)

This agenda acted upon by the writers was evident in achieving the emphasis on physical activity and in its position on page 1 of the syllabus. Clearly, this showed the writers’ intended structure of signification and that it was largely achieved through domination. As a consequence it set in writing the legitimate role of physical activity in the Queensland HPE syllabus. Hence it set expectations and norms of practice (or the structure of legitimation) for other human agents to act upon. The positioning of physical activity in the syllabus had a recursive nature: agents produced and reproduced actions embedded in structures of signification, domination and legitimation to achieve its emphasis.
Issues and tensions surrounding the nomenclature of the Queensland HPE syllabus were also manifested in all three modalities. The inclusion of traditional subject areas displayed interactions between interpretive schemes, resources and norms. Section 5.3.1 outlined the sequence of events occurring in establishing components of the HPE KLA and their timely inclusion in the rationale section. It is on this matter that I wish to expand on specific incidents to highlight the integration of structure and agency in reaching the following statement:

The scope of the Years 1–10 HPE KLA embraces learnings that traditionally may have been included in the subjects such as health education, home economics, human relationships education, lifeskills, outdoor education, personal development, physical education and sport education. (QSCC 1999a, p.1)

From the beginning there was acceptance of the KLA being named ‘Health and Physical Education’. This signified the acceptance of the title by council, writers and SAC members and, in turn, confirmed agreement with their own stocks of knowledge about the area of learning. Additionally, there was confirmation of acceptance of a number of traditional subject areas included in the HPE KLA. From the second draft of the syllabus, PE, HE, HEc, Human Relationships Education, Lifeskills and Outdoor Education were sanctioned as traditional subject areas that contributed to the KLA. This sanctioning legitimated the national documents’ influence and signalled that particular stocks of knowledge were relevant. Twelve months into the construction process, personal development and sport education were added to the list. Additionally, this list was re-positioned in the syllabus to appear on page 1.

Specifically, the inclusion of ‘sport education’ arose out of contestation as presented in Section 5.3.4.4. The sport lobby group was keen to ensure visibility in the syllabus and hence acted strongly to achieve this. A comment from Syd (personal communication #2) demonstrated the sport lobby group’s action that brought about the inclusion of the phrase ‘sport education’. ‘... we didn’t have the word ‘sport’ through the document’ and the sport lobby group’s response was ‘... sport is not there, this can’t happen, it’s got to go to the minister’ — hence the inclusion of ‘sport’ in the outcomes and ‘sport education’ into the rationale. As Syd (ibid) continued: 'That was a bit of a storm in a teacup but, again in recognition of their interest, the word
'sport' has reappeared'. This process of action showed the sport lobby group's use of domination processes in the threat to involve the minister to achieve their visibility (their structure of signification and legitimation).

However, the inclusion of the phrase ‘sport education’ and not ‘sport’ in the rationale appears to fit closer to the writers' structure of signification and legitimation. The writers made a clear distinction from the beginning of the construction process that PE and Sport were different areas of learning. Sport was to be considered as a medium for learning. On the other hand, 'sport education' (Seidentop 1994; Alexander and Taggart 1995) was a pedagogical approach that encompassed learning particular roles in sport and the community in addition to learning skills. It promoted student activism and exposed political, economic and socio-cultural influences on sport. Hence it aligned very much with the writers' values and beliefs and their structure of signification. This incident might also be inferred as a dialectic of control within the domination process where the writers appeared to have satisfied the sport lobby group's agenda but more importantly satisfied their own.

Thus it can be seen that particular issues and incidents are better understood through the analysis of the interdependence of the three modalities. It displays a complex but united perspective to the social interaction between structure and agency. What isn't shown, however, is the temporal and spatial context in which all of these interactions occur.

7.2.2 Temporal and spatial context

According to Giddens (1984), the physical and social environments in which interactions occur provide further understanding of human agents' actions and, more particularly, reasons for the recursive nature of social practices. Agents, organisations and institutions travel through time and space. This time and space pathway should not be viewed as linear, such as the construction of dates, but rather as a series of 'routines' specific to physical and social environments and the knowledgeability of the actor.
Interactions specific to the actor have special individual time dimensions of lifespan, the *duree* of day-to-day activities (repetitive daily activities) and *longue duree* of institutions (organisational time). ‘These different aspects of time are interfused in our daily existences and intersect with the spatial patterns that represent our social lives’ (Layder 1994, p. 136). These spatial patterns are recognised as locales; the physical regions that contextualise the individual actions and institutionalised practices and stretch across time and space. They represent the types and number of interactions, the location, zoning and context, and have possible interdependence with other locales. Giddens (1984) terms this *time-space distanciation*.

Locales specific to this case study of curriculum construction were various and context-specific. At the institutional level, there were social interactions within the physical environment of QSCC, the SAC, the writing team offices, trial schools, classrooms, interest group meeting rooms (for example, Sport Federation), state conferences and regional cluster meeting groups. Additionally, the locales were positioned in electronic mail, corridors and telephone lines. These locales were zoned across a widespread geographical area and also within daily time structures, that is, most interactions would have occurred at specific times of the day. Important, too, was the knowledgeability of the actor in these interactions. Each actor had a history of experiences that s/he would bring to these interactions to produce (and reproduce) social practices. Furthermore, the individual actor would influence the number and type of interactions and whether they might link with other locales. For example, an actor at a trial school in regional Queensland would interact with a writer at QSCC, and an actor on the SAC who was also involved in a trial school would see interactions within both of these locales as being interwoven.

The writers’ locales were not only shaped by the QSCC institutional procedures and environment, but also their individual day-to-day practices. They each brought a history of experiences to the curriculum construction project and through their interactions produced and reproduced actions appropriate to that physical and social context. Writers were positioned within a wide range of zones including the ‘... home, workplace, neighbourhood, city, nation-state and a worldwide system’
(Giddens 1984, p. 85), all which integrated in some way to show connections between daily life and time-space distanciation.

The positioning of agents within the nation-state is relevant to this case study. Giddens (1984) sees the 'state' as the storage container for time-space relations. The 'state' here refers to the locale of the QSCC and previous curriculum bodies. The 'state' had a definite role in establishing the timeline for construction and this was embedded in political priorities. This stringent timeline manipulated the settings of the social interactions within both temporal and spatial contexts. The timing of interactions occurred within particular time zones and geographical locations. It could be inferred that the 'state' set a system of surveillance in the manipulation and monitoring of the construction process. Giddens (1984) also sees the 'state' most likely located within a city centre — the city as the crucible of power. This rang true for the case study under discussion where decision making and surveillance were conducted from the city centre of Brisbane.

Significantly too, the construction period represented what Giddens (1984) terms the episodic nature of change. Giddens (1984, p. 244) sees this as 'identifiable sequences of change affecting the main institutions within a societal totality'. The construction of two new syllabi every two years demonstrates this sequence, affecting educational institutions within the state of Queensland over a period of time.

### 7.2.3 Summary of duality of curriculum in curriculum construction

The curriculum construction process clearly demonstrates the notion of duality of curriculum. It reflects the interwoven and interdependent relationship between curriculum, actors and organizations. In light of curriculum debates, the data presented displays this relationship as one of both 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' approaches to curriculum construction. In some of the critical issues there was a reciprocal relationship, whilst in others not so reciprocal where agency was constrained by particular institutional practices. Hence, a multi-layered and complex understanding was presented.
To return to the structurational model of curriculum (see Figure 7.1), the creation of the syllabus is evidenced by the interaction between arrows a, c and d situated within specific temporal and spatial contexts. The Years 1–10 HPE KLA syllabus document is the social product of human action developed within specific structural and contextual (temporal and spatial) environments. This human action was informed by structures of signification, domination and legitimation, both at the individual and institutional level. Thus, the syllabus embodies and reinforces some of the rules and resources constituting the structure of the QSCC (the storage container). The modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms provided avenues for the integration of the agents and structures to produce this action and also action that modified the structures of signification, domination and legitimation in creating a new document within a new intersystemic framework. Significantly, too, some of the action was reproduced, thus displaying the recursive nature of social interaction. Thus, the syllabus is ‘both an antecedent and a consequence of organisational action’ (Orlikowski and Robey 1991, p. 151). This notion is further explored in the case study of curriculum construction and implementation.

7.3 Duality of curriculum in curriculum construction and implementation

The model for analysis of social interaction between agents and structures in curriculum construction and implementation has been outlined in Section 3.5 of this thesis. This particular model views the interaction from the teachers’ point of view and their ability to implement the new HPE KLA syllabus. Data from Chapter 6 are used to illustrate the integration of agency and structure in this construction and implementation process.

7.3.1 Analysis of modalities of duality of curriculum in curriculum construction and implementation

Social interactions in this case study illustrate curriculum as a medium for human action. The curriculum sets rules and knowledge, facilitates communication and learning, and sets conditions for interaction in the staffroom and classroom. This case study brings the introduction of new curriculum to the HPE faculty and school. Teachers may opt to sustain previous curriculum practices or modify them according
to the new documents. In sustaining previous practices they reinforce the pre-existing structures of signification, domination and legitimation. In modifying practices, challenges are placed upon these pre-existing structures in an attempt to alter them. Individual teachers' knowledgeability of experiences and institutional procedures — for example, subject departmentalism, professional-development opportunities — impact on their chosen actions. All of these actions are embedded in the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms.

Due to the complexity of duality of curriculum where teachers are informed by structures of signification, domination and legitimation and yet in implementing curriculum change, attempt to modify these structures, the social interactions are complicated, contested and even contrived. An analysis of particular interactions within each of the modalities, and co-jointly, highlights this.

7.3.1.1 Interpretive schemes
The interpretive schemes evident within this case study of curriculum construction and implementation are those stocks of knowledge that teachers apply reflexively in sharing meaning and stating reasons for their actions. The rules, knowledge and assumptions embedded in both the curriculum documents and in the school's (SC) organisation of curriculum are two identifiable interpretive schemes. The teachers employ these sets of interpretive schemes to produce (and reproduce) particular actions. Importantly, an individual teacher's knowledgeability is central to the interpretation of these schemes and, in turn, the teacher's responses and behaviours.

SC's organisation of curriculum within a vertical curriculum framework also evinces the structure of signification. The positioning of HEc and PE units having equal time allocation to all other subjects suggests the embedded assumption of value in these subjects. However, PE was a school subject and not a recognised board subject and hence had the hidden assumption of lesser academic value. At the same time the segregation of particular curriculum units into disciplines reinforces the notion of subject departmentalism. The budgetary procedures also reinforced this compartmentalisation of knowledge. Moreover, the HPE teachers' training (in general) tended to strengthen this structure. Nonetheless, the individual teachers’
knowledgeability of these rules and assumptions, and their previous experiences, would shape their actions.

The curriculum documents, too, propose a stock of knowledge for human agents to draw upon. Foundation to these curriculum documents was the designation of eight KLAs nationally and, in Queensland’s case, the Wiltshire Report (Wiltshire, McMenamin and Tolhurst 1994) confirming their status. Particular to this case study were the national statement and profile documents (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, 1994b) applied in the NPDP at SC, and the HPE KLA syllabus applied in the QSCC trial. They presented a new conceptualisation of HPE, proposing new or modified rules and assumptions for teachers.

These documents jointly emphasised a social and cultural view of health, a critical perspective in teaching and investigative teaching pedagogies. For instance, the statement document and the syllabus state respectively that learning:

... [will] enable students to interact effectively with others, formulate ideas, reflect on experiences, gather and interpret information, consider the positions of others and make judgments about personal and social actions. (Curriculum Corporation 1994a, p. 9)

... [is] the active construction of meaning, and teaching as the act of guiding and facilitating learning. This approach sees knowledge as being ever-changing and built on prior experience. (QSCC 1999a, p. 6)

Thus, for teachers, both documents presented a challenge to traditional pedagogical approaches and experiences. It asked for a new stock of knowledge about pedagogy to be created and several teachers’ comments indicated a positive response to this challenge:

Trial as a group has helped awareness and adapting teaching strategies towards a new focus. [3:C]
In some aspects ... [the syllabus] made me revise teaching strategies and methodologies. [4:A]
The work is more exciting and more effective. [The] classroom is less teacher-focused and procedures [are] more in line with investigation-approach in senior years. [4:C]

On the other hand one teacher’s comment also demonstrated the maintenance of existing stocks of knowledge.
My understanding of an investigative approach to teaching — half the time I don’t know what I’m doing. When I’m busy it’s easier to go back and use the old stuff. [4:C]

Corresponding to the existing and new curriculum documents were the units of work the teachers prepared for students at SC. These units present the rules and knowledge, thus informing action. They also set cultural norms and, hence, the structure of legitimation. Modifications to these units to align with the new conceptualisation of the HPE KLA set revised and/or new rules, knowledge and assumptions upon which teachers based their actions and thus altered existing structures of signification and legitimation. A teacher’s comment demonstrates this:

Having been closely involved in pre NPDP junior PE and post, I’ve found changes that have occurred [to be] positive, futuristic and heading PE and HEc into the next decade with purpose … [it has] become less content-driven and more student centred in [their] learning experiences. [4:D]

Central to all of these actions and behaviours in responding to change was the individual teacher’s knowledgeability of experiences and interactions. Teachers’ positions with the social and physical context of the school, and personal ideologies influenced acceptance or rejection of the new messages of the HPE KLA. For example, Teacher F, a science teacher whose interest in the inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning initiated her involvement in the trial (as well as timetabling) made comments such as ‘It’s not really that new’ and ‘I’ve always used it (science trained)’ [3:F]. Hence, there’s a suggestion of connection to her knowledgeability of experiences most likely within known and comfortable ways. Teacher D, too, showed a definite connection to her knowledgeability of experiences as a Home Economics teacher. She identified very early in the project that she ‘needed to be involved for Home Economics’ sake so the subject isn’t lost’ [2:D]. Furthermore, this comment connected her knowledgeability to her teacher training and expertise in a particular discipline area of knowledge.

Thus the social interactions manifested here in the interpretive schemes show both reaffirmation of SC’s organisational structures, maintenance of individual practices and also alteration to individual practices with the intention of modification to
institutionalised practices. Resources, whether human or material, were influential in such interactions and are explored below.

7.3.1.2 Resources

Curriculum, as a product of, and medium for, action is a resource that has power. It sets the rules, knowledge and assumptions upon which actions are shaped and hence exists within a structure of domination. Teachers work within the rules set in curriculum documents, hence reinforcing this structure of domination. Furthermore, curriculum is embedded within a larger system of domination, that being one established within an educational system. Education systems endorse curriculum documents and hence there is a hierarchical structure from system to school to teacher. The teacher is accountable for learning and thus implements curriculum documents. However, in this case study the implementation of the new documents was optional at the system level. Thus teachers’ ownership of the construction and implementation process influenced the structure of domination and use of resources. Teacher ownership issues, including the examination of power relations among staff, were central to this construction and implementation case study. Teacher comments reflected lack of ownership, as demonstrated by the following statements:

Did we have a choice? I thought you [the coordinator] made the decision and then administration. [2:A]
If I had said no, I think it still would have gone ahead. [2:C]
I thought a decision had already been made. [2:B]

One comment particularly demonstrated the power of decision making located within my middle-management position. Hence it was necessary to explore the notion of coordered power hierarchies attached to my role as HPE coordinator. My use of both authoritative and material resources (through attendance at conferences and meetings) proved influential in the decision-making process and thus ownership. As one teacher said: ‘You’re the one with the expertise from attendance at conferences and meetings’ [3:C].

Additionally, one other staff member became involved in building these resources and consequently was a member in this structure of domination. She saw this clearly when she stated: ‘We [the coordinator and myself] had significant roles in the instigation of the trial … unsure about others’ [2:D]. Crucial to our involvement was
our unusual teacher training for the secondary school environment, one a primary
teacher and the other a PE/HEc teacher. Our training supported the ideals of the new
HPE KLA conceptualisation (the new structure of signification) and we were able to
use those resources to further our capabilities within the curriculum documents and
school organisational procedures.

As a result of the HPE staff’s involvement in these curriculum construction and
implementation projects a HPE subculture developed and presented some contestation
to other staff members. This led to further involvement at staff meetings and
directions for the school — for example, middle-management structures — and
consequently a perception that as a group we exercised more power. Our capacity to
build both human and material resources, that is, knowledge about curriculum change
processes in Queensland and Australia, enabled us to establish a structure of
domination specific to these projects.

On the contrary the HPE teachers worked within the structures that outlined
conditions for interactions. The internal and external timeframes, including time
allocation, timetabling and project timelines, the budget, and pre-existing allocation of
resources within the school, both constrained and enabled interactions. Largely
though, the budgetary procedures and timetable at SC reinforced pre-existing
structures of domination. The budgets and timetable remained attached to disciplines
and so reinforced the institutionalised practices of subject departmentalism.
Consequently it continued to legitimate the subject divisions and the cultural norms
previously established.

Domination too was evidenced strongly in the coordinator role. Power was granted to
me in this middle-management position, demonstrated in my designation of meeting
agendas, project timelines and the responsibility of final checker of material. One of
the teacher’s comments suggests the feeling of powerlessness in the following
statement: ‘I was pressured to do more work in designing tasks and units’ [2:A]. It
could be assumed that the domination here was an administrative procedure. It
controlled collegiality and suppressed the desire for collaboration.
A dialectic of control that contradicts the coordered domination pattern also arose in the institutionalisation of HPE faculty meetings. Set HPE faculty meetings were organised by administration and, in my role as coordinator, I was responsible for their undertaking. However, these meetings became contrived and convoluted as demonstrated from my comment below:

These faculty meetings seem to be getting more difficult in terms of meeting times and teacher involvement.

Teacher comments such as 'How long will it take?' and 'I don’t think I’ll come — too much on' reflected my concern. Collectively, the teachers were able to exercise a dialectic of control or reverse the power given to the coordinator to organise these meetings. The following incidents recorded in my journal indicate this:

Body language by two members in particular displayed disinterest ... [I] ended up cutting it short as it didn’t appear productive.
I don’t know how to interpret this [asking for coffee and hot chocolate] but we knew we were behind in our daily plan and this just set us back further ... I thought if I had said 'no' this may have placed authority on the day’s routine — emphasising the power play. I backed off, as I know I needed to work collaboratively with these people, day by day. Simple things like that can cause problems later on.

Hence there was evidence of teachers working within the rules and capabilities built into both pre-existing and new curriculum documents and also some modification of practices to create new structures of domination.

7.3.1.3 Norms
The curriculum authorises particular values and sanctions that shape teachers’ actions. It legitimates norms of practice and thus presents expectations of accountability to teachers. These norms reinforce order and set normalised and ritual processes of curriculum construction and implementation. At SC, several documents and structures displayed specific norms to guide teachers’ actions. Pre-existing curriculum documents and work programs set specific cultural norms and expectations as well as the middle-schooling handbook.

The intention of the construction and implementation of the new HPE KLA was to challenge these existing expectations and structures although data appear to show that this may not have been the case at SC.
The Middle Schooling Vertical Curriculum Handbook legitimated the sanctions of subjects at SC. This handbook presented the legitimate conventions of practice to teachers, students and parents. An attempt to befit the unit descriptions in the handbook to the eight KLAs failed because of the subject departmentalism grounded within secondary schooling cultures (and thus the structures of signification and domination). A critical incident recorded in my journal displays this distinction of subjects:

... [the principal] informed me that several of the coordinators and teachers do not agree with the placement of the Home Economics units under Technology ... Also, that the Business Principles units would remain as a specific unit section ... I walked away angry at the resistance to KLAs but could see it also as fear of losing territory and identity.

These notions of territory and identity are linked to teacher-training experiences and the associated conventions of practice. For the HPE KLA, it further confirmed the maintenance of the existing PE and HEc structures and provided a structural barrier to the reconceptualisation of HPE.

Corresponding units of work and assessment tasks presented sanctions and norms for students and a basis upon which teachers would make judgment. The SC reconceptualised units supposedly presented new approaches to HPE knowledge and changes to pedagogical styles. However, as a result of its construction and implementation being the sole responsibility of the teacher, his/her knowledgeability about the stocks of knowledge presented affected the actions and interactions with students. Hence, while the reconceptualised units challenged structures of legitimization, the personal nature of the construction and implementation resulted in varying levels of modification, if any at all.

At an institutional practices level, the middle-management positions created by SC staff displayed the school’s support for new sanctions. The shift from subject coordinators to KLA coordinators appeared to advocate the alteration of institutionalised practices; however, the handbook, budget and timetable conventions of practice proved to override the value of these positions.
So far the curriculum construction and implementation incidents and issues have illustrated the integration of agency and structure through a singular modality. These have been selected specifically to display this level of social interaction. However, as Giddens (1984) proposes, all social interactions have modalities operating simultaneously and continuously. Thus it was necessary to examine their co-existence in relation to particular issues and incidents in this case study. Accordingly, a deeper and more complex understanding of the social interactions arose.

7.3.1.4 Coexistence of modalities

The interdependence of the modalities and corresponding structures of signification, domination and legitimation, have been mentioned in part in the above analysis of social interactions. The existence of curriculum as a medium for action demonstrates that these modalities operate co-jointly. A syllabus-curriculum-policy document is in itself an interpretive scheme that involves establishment of norms through the exercise of power. The exploration of further incidents and issues set out in Chapter 6 is explored below to show this interdependence and, accordingly, the complexity and multi-layering of curriculum construction and implementation.

The construction and implementation of ‘The Body’ unit at SC was embedded within all three modalities. The integrated unit of work proposed a new interpretive scheme to teachers and school organisational practices, as it weakened the subject departmentalism boundaries. Teachers drew on reconceptualised rules, knowledge and assumptions to teach and create a new structure of signification. This also brought the development of new sanctions for teachers to govern their actions and, consequently, a new structure of legitimation. This structure was now composed of teachers working collaboratively across subject departments to teach the unit ‘The Body’. One of the teacher’s comments reflects this:

The collaborative planning that has taken place between PE, HEc and Science departments have given us insight into the content areas covered in each subject area ... the marriage of three subject areas has helped break down subject barriers and allowed students to see a more integrated approach. [1:D]

As a result the school structure of domination evident in the subject departmentalism was challenged, and in turn the coordered system of timetabling subjects also needed review.
A corresponding structure of domination was also challenged in light of the new conceptualisation of 'The Body'. The 'teacher as expert' supported by subject departmentalism, was weakened in 'The Body' unit as students were encouraged to negotiate curriculum and learning experiences. One teacher commented:

... the nature of the implementation gives students a degree of ownership of their 'new' knowledge ... assessment empowers students to extend themselves and develop an understanding of their responsibility in learning. [1:G]

Students, too, were able to use their resources gained through 'The Body' learning experiences to alter the institutionalised practices.

Another set of issues and interactions demonstrated the joint existence of the modalities and demonstrated the difficulty in achieving possible alterations to structures. The QSCC syllabus (1999a) promoted three strands of learning that were highly contested. One of the main issues was that the strands chosen reinforced the current practices of HE, PE and personal development (see section 7.2.1.1). The implications of this interpretation were that it reinforced the balkanised cultures of the secondary school, the subject departmentalism and reinforced the traditional structure of signification. For SC, while there was opportunity to alter structures through the provision of (possible) new interpretive schemes and authoritative and material resources, the syllabus was mapped into the pre-existing structures of domination add legitimation.

Another incident that was analysed to reflect the co-existence of the modalities was in relation to my role as HPE coordinator. Chapter 6 explores this role comprehensively and presents evidence of dissidence. All three modalities were identified as operating continuously in my overall approach to the coordinator role. Significant to my actions within this role were my primary school training, beliefs and experiences. These formed the interpretive schemes that I used reflexively to explain my interpretations and actions. For example, my comments early into the change process: 'I am concerned with the replication of knowledge for the students at SC and also the lack of cognition in the PE subjects ... skill and performance only'. My interest in learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning were also evidenced early in the project. Accordingly, these experiences and beliefs were reinforced
through the new curriculum documents and thus it was my intention to legitimate those beliefs through the construction and implementation of work programs. ‘The Body’ unit was evidence of this as well as other units of work.

My intention, too, was to weaken the current domination of subject disciplines at the school. I was able to use both authoritative resources (knowledge of curriculum development, further training and research, position within school and Diocese) and material resources (collection of papers and units, funding, professional development sessions) to propel my intention. My use of the middle-management position demonstrated my capacity to use, to my advantage, the resource given to me in the school structure that had a co-ordered power hierarchy.

On the other hand, my struggle with multiple allegiances to groups displays the complexity of acting in a variety of institutions and the interwoven nature of these actions. Several of my actions here demonstrated my knowledgeability to act in situations for my own benefit and sometimes be swayed by other structures of domination. For example, my loyalty to the QSCC and Catholic Education in the matter of revising Strand 3 of the syllabus (QSCC 1998f) was weakened through my former association with the NPDP writer and coordinator (see section 5.3.2.2 and 6.3.3). I utilised the legitimate conventions that guided my actions in a previous project at that point in time, thus my knowledgeability had input.

At a general agency level, all teachers in this case study commented on the time available and busyness of their day-to-day interactions. This busyness could also be reflected in the coexistence of modalities. Each teacher acts within the interpretive schemes that are appropriate to their knowledgeability and makes use of resources and norms in those actions. A teacher may have acted reflexively through the modalities within each social interaction to reproduce and reinforce existing structures. For instance, the example of the teacher reverting to old teaching practices confirmed this. Due to the busyness of her day-to-day routines she reproduced those actions rather than challenging them and, in turn, maintained the structures of signification, domination and legitimation in the reproduction of her actions. At
different points, agents also presented challenges to these structures and thus possible alterations.

The temporal and spatial contexts in which these social interactions lay had impact on shaping those actions. Concepts of locales and zones were important to divulge deeper understanding of these interactions.

7.3.2 Temporal and spatial context

The individual teachers were positioned physically and socially within the school environment, the educational system, the external projects context and also their own day-to-day activities. Thus there was integration of the *duree* of routined activities with the *longue duree* of organisational time and, of course, the individual's life span. Notably, too, were the zones of time for these social interactions. They were specific to the timeframe allocated to the school day, including the subject timetable, and more specifically to the teachers of the HPE faculty.

The school timetable (discussed in Section 6.3.2.2) emphasised its affirmation of subject compartmentalisation. It set zones for interaction. The physical and social locales were departmentally based (whether classroom or staffroom) and proved to be influential in the types and numbers of interactions. Attempts were made to alter these zones and locales to weaken the subject boundary interactions. Time allocation was requested for further teacher–teacher interaction and also longer class periods for student–teacher interaction. However, these zones and locales largely remained entrenched in the balkanised culture of the secondary school.

Temporally and spatially there was compliance to external projects. The HPE faculty at SC was involved in two external projects, the NPDP and QSCC trial. For each of these projects the timeline and locales were set. SC complied with the particular timeline and hence had impact on the construction and implementation of curriculum, specific actions and discussions. The concept of surveillance could be explored here, too. Giddens (1984) contends that the ‘state’ has a role of monitoring actions and that the city is the crucible of power. In both of these projects, the city centre had the power in directing the social interactions and established a surveillance system. SC
was monitored closely with visits from project coordinators, requests for information and feedback.

The episodic nature of change is also applicable to the curriculum construction and implementation case study. The two projects demonstrate particular episodes of HPE curriculum change, the first having more impact on the HPE KLA nationally while the second being influential in the state of Queensland.

### 7.3.3 Summary of duality of curriculum in curriculum construction and implementation

The construction and implementation of the HPE KLA curriculum over the period of four years at SC demonstrated that curriculum was the medium for action and also the product of human action. Actors were informed by the curriculum to develop work programs specific to the physical and social context of the school and implement them in their classrooms. Discussions and actions were shaped by the curriculum and yet individual actors' interpretations of the curriculum demonstrate that curriculum is very much a product of human action. Thus, curriculum was both enabling and constraining action.

The modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms were eminently manifested in the integration of organisational structures and individual actions. The school, educational system and external projects contained structures of signification, domination and legitimation. The actors' (teachers') actions both reinforced and attempted to modify several of those institutional practices. Largely though, the teachers in this case study reproduced actions that reinforced institutional practices and hence the duality of curriculum analysis displayed a sway towards 'bottom-down' change processes.

### 7.4 Synthesis

The duality of curriculum, evidenced through social interactions between actors, curriculum and institutional properties is apparent in both case studies. The curriculum was both a product of human action and a medium for human action. The socially constructed curriculum was produced and reproduced in human agent actions
and was embedded within educational institutions. It contained the rules and resources constituted by the QSCC (educational system) and SC (school), was situated in specific physical and social environments, and was acted upon by individual actors.

As Giddens comments about analysing the structuration of social systems and, in relation to this thesis, systems of educational reform, it means studying the modes in which such systems, grounded in the knowledgeable activities of situated actors who draw upon rules and resources in the diversity of action contexts, are produced and reproduced in interaction. (Giddens 1984, p. 25)

The structurational model of curriculum (see section 7.1) and, further, the models developed to analyse the social interactions at the curriculum construction and implementation level (see section 3.5.2.1) best demonstrate these interactions. The interactions between curriculum, human agent and institutional properties are specific to individual actors, all of whom are learned and able to call upon their knowledability to interpret and produce (and reproduce) actions.

Studying the modes in which these case studies are produced and reproduced in interaction was important. The integration of organisational structures and individual actors was activated through the modalities of interpretive schemes, resources and norms. The case studies analysed highlighted the role of these modalities in particular interactions, issues and tensions. Additionally, the interactions demonstrated the role of agency and, more specifically, the possibilities and limitations of agency. In these cases the teachers and writers, and more particularly individual teachers and writers, were able to use the modalities to their advantage to enable action or, alternatively, were constrained by the modalities and structures in their actions. These notions are explored further in synthesising the two case studies.

7.4.1 Synthesising modalities
Giddens (1984) presents the modalities as key dimensions in the integration of structure and agency and thus the production and reproduction of interaction. In this thesis, the interpretive schemes, resources and norms were interpreted to provide a multi-layered analysis of curriculum change. Interactions between curriculum, human
agents and institutional properties are activated through these modalities and are impacted upon by the temporal and spatial context. The analyses of incidents, issues and tensions from each of the case studies illustrated the role of these modalities and their interrelationships.

Interpretive schemes, represented as stocks of knowledge that agents use reflexively to explain their actions, were identified as pre-existing stocks of HPE curriculum knowledge and system/school curriculum procedures. Writers and teachers were informed by these stocks of knowledge and, by situating them within their own experiences and assumptions, either reinforced or challenged the structures of signification. For instance, the notion of outcomes based education, the statement and profile documents, individual writers' and teachers' values and beliefs, and subject departmentalism in the secondary school, all presented stocks of knowledge to influence the HPE curriculum change processes outlined in this thesis.

Resources, both authoritative and allocative, were utilised by agents to produce their actions. The structures of domination, evidenced through authority displayed by the council and the HPE coordinator (myself), budgetary procedures, balkanised cultures and timelines impacted upon the social interactions. Conversely though, individuals and collective groups were able to reverse this structure of domination to bring about a dialectic of control.

Norms, displayed in the conventions of organisations (QSCC and SC), sanctions and values embedded in the curriculum, influenced the interactions. Writers and teachers acted upon these conventions and justified their existence, thus the structures of legitimization were affirmed. On the other hand, several writers and teachers presented challenges to these conventions in an attempt to modify the established cultural norms and statements of intent. For instance, the construction and implementation of ‘The Body’ work program presented a challenge to the existing subject departmentalism at SC and attempted to weaken those norms established in balkanised cultures of secondary schools.

More importantly though was the co-existence of these modalities in interactions.
Giddens never intended for these modalities to be analysed separately but rather saw that they were interwoven, allowing for a deeper analysis of social interactions. The analysis of the incidents of nomenclature and positioning of physical activity in the construction of the HPE syllabus, and the construction of ‘The Body’ unit and my role as HPE coordinator in curriculum construction and implementation, demonstrated the interrelatedness of the modalities and dependence upon each other. Where the interpretive schemes were utilised to alter the structure of signification, the use of resources (and structure of domination) were usually involved and, in turn, an alteration to norms of practice arose giving rise to a new or modified structure of legitimation.

However, central to all of these interactions was the agent. The agent is knowledgeable and intentional in producing (and reproducing) action. The curriculum was both enabling and constraining for the actors, thus presenting opportunities for change, and yet was also a site of contestation and struggle.

7.4.2 Agential possibilities and limitations

Giddens’ notion of agency positions the actor as reflexive. S/he is able to monitor the duree of day-to-day (routine) practices, to call upon personal experience and resources to act in particular contexts. S/he is knowledgeable and intentional and is bound by the physical and social context in which s/he acts. For example, as HPE coordinator, I was able to call upon my personal training and experience as a primary school teacher to interpret and act within the secondary school culture. I was intentional in using that knowledge and training to influence the new conceptualisation of HPE at SC and at the QSCC level. The physical and social environment of both of these locales influenced my choice of actions and behaviours.

The actor, writer or teacher discussed in this thesis, called upon existing curriculum structures to produce an action. As a result those existing structures were reinforced across time and space. For instance, the middle schooling handbook at SC reinforced subject departmentalism across a period of four years. Nonetheless, the writer or teacher also attempted to alter the structure and embed new stocks of knowledge and cultural norms for the system, school or classroom. An interaction that substantiated
this was that the authority gained in my middle-management position and allocative resources granted through attendance at conferences and meetings, were utilised to initiate the introduction of KLA-based middle-management positions. Hence, the writers and teachers, individually and collectively were active agents in the processes of curriculum construction and implementation.

As Giddens (1984, p. 16) contends, power characterises all action, although it is not a resource. Each of the actors had the capability of ‘making a difference’, a transformative capacity. The agent is knowledgeable in producing his/her intent and mobilising the power structures built into institutions. The pervasiveness of power as both enabling and constraining has been evidenced in this thesis. Power relations embedded within the QSCC and SC organisations limited several agents’ power. For example, the writers were constrained by the decision-making power granted to the council within the institutionalised practices of the QSCC. At the same time, the writers were able to collectively use the authoritative power granted to them within the QSCC to review the position of physical activity and achieve their own intent. A dialectic of control (Giddens 1984) was evident, reinforcing the notion that agents are never completely powerless. They have access to some resources and may achieve this power individually or collectively.

For me, my multiple positioning across the sites of curriculum construction and implementation, and the knowledge and experiences gained, has further allowed my processes of agency. Many possibilities were granted in the change agent role, for example, I was able to apply the inside knowledge gained at the SAC to assist in the trial process at SC. On another occasion, I was able to use my knowledge gained from professional reading and doctoral studies to influence both the syllabus construction and implementation at both SC and QSCC, and thus ‘make a difference’. On the other hand, this multiple positioning has limited my agency. For example, my knowledgeability, based on professional reading and experiences in the case sites, I became confused as to which group I was representing. Demonstrated here is the complexity of agency.
Additionally, my struggle with multiple allegiances and questioning of the 'change agent' role displays this complexity. My knowledgeability of situations sometimes enabled actions and on other occasions was at odds with the actions. For example, where I was unable to achieve funding for the teachers at SC, I utilised the authority and resources granted to me within the Catholic Education system to achieve this intent, hence my knowledgeability enabled this action. On the other hand, I believe I acted recursively to reproduce particular actions that felt comfortable for me. For example, the alliance with the NPDP writer and coordinator demonstrated my actions as retaining security attained in previous experiences instead of acting for Catholic Education and in an advisory capacity to the QSCC. I believe that this action lay within my ontological security, an unconscious motive. There was an established system of trust with this person and thus it was a predictable routine to align myself to his/her actions. Thus no threat came to my ontological security.

My questioning of the ‘change agent’ role also reflected this maintenance of security. While I had knowledge of collaborative cultures and complexity of change, I was reproducing actions of power granted within my coordinator position. There was much security in this action due to the affirmation of it at the institutional level — a coordered hierarchy of power relations. Thus it presented conflict in my agential possibilities and posed limitations.

Agential possibilities and limitations also needed consideration in light of unintended consequences. Giddens contends that actions have intended and unintended consequences. The knowledgeability of the agent suggests intention in action and yet unintended consequences can arise. In change processes, such consequences contribute to its erratic and unpredictable nature. In this body of research, an example lay with the teacher having the unusual training combination of HEc and PE. S/he intentionally became involved in the project to retain the visibility of HEc in the new conceptualisation of HPE. An unintended consequence of her actions was the affirmation of Technology and SOSE KLAs in HEc work programs. Another example is Lindsay, one of the writers, who decided on three strands rather than four for the HPE syllabus largely because of management decisions. An unintended consequence of his/her action was the reinforcement of the traditional HE, PE and
personal development/human relationships education divisions. So, unintentionally, traditional structures of signification, domination and legitimation were maintained.

The notion of duality of curriculum described in the structurational model of curriculum and consequent investigation models provided ‘sensitising devices’ in the analysis and theorising of research results. HPE curriculum change processes, specifically construction and implementation, were examined in this thesis. As a result, a more complex and theoretical understanding of social interactions between curriculum, human agents and institutional practices, situated in temporal and spatial contexts developed.

7.5 Applicability of duality of curriculum in existing curriculum change processes

The structurational model of curriculum, and thus the notion of duality of curriculum, was applied in this thesis to explicate the complexity of change processes. It explored the curriculum change process specific to HPE in Queensland. At this point, it is necessary to consider the applicability of the notion of ‘duality of curriculum’ to other educational change settings and processes.

The duality of curriculum is based on the theoretical understanding that agency and structure interact to produce and reproduce action. Giddens did not intend for structuration theory to be interpreted as a grand narrative but rather as a useful theoretical device for analysis of social interactions. Therefore, the ‘duality of curriculum’ model must be viewed in the same manner.

I consider that the duality of curriculum extends the current analysis of curriculum change as reflected in literature (Sparkes 1990; Fullan 1991, 1993; Hargreaves 1995), as it provides a multi-layered analysis of both individual and organisation. It defies the notion that curriculum construction and implementation is technicist and procedural, and that construction and implementation occur at different sites. It also complements the notion of ‘two-way inside-outside reciprocity’ (Fullan 1999) by highlighting the interaction of agency and structure. Thus, the model provides a basis for analysis of both ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ change.
More specifically, I consider *duality of curriculum* is worthwhile in foregrounding the centrality of the human agent in curriculum change processes. In this thesis, both writers and teachers were key to the action taken on curriculum. Whether actions were reproduced or new actions introduced, challenging the existing institutional practices was left to the individual agent. The knowledgeability of the agent was the nucleus to action. Thus the teacher, including his/her personal experiences, values and beliefs, situated within particular physical and social environments, is key to educational reform processes. Current curriculum change processes tend not to acknowledge the centrality of the teacher and have revolved more around a procedural focus of construction and implementation (Fullan 1993; Hargreaves 1995).

This gap within educational change research needs further exploration. To use Giddens’ terminology, there is need for recognition of the knowledgeability of the teacher. Individual teachers’ experiences and how they interpret them will influence their involvement in change processes encompassing personal and institutional interactions. There is an emotional and interactional component and institutional base. This led me to rethink Sparkes’ model of teacher change and more specifically the notion of ‘real’ change. This notion is explored further in Chapter 8.

7.6 Summary

The premise that curriculum is both a product of, and a medium for, human action was foundation to analyses of specific incidents, issues and tensions that arose in the case studies of curriculum construction and implementation in this chapter. The structurational model of curriculum and the investigative models provided sensitising devices useful for the analysis of interactions between curriculum, human agents and organisations and permitted a multi-layered and dialectical understanding of curriculum change. It demonstrated a complex but united perspective to social interactions between agency and structure.

Returning to my second research question regarding the notion of *duality of curriculum*, it has much to contribute to theoretical analysis of curriculum change,
permitting a deeper understanding of the complexity and erratic nature of change processes.
CHAPTER 8
TOWARDS AUTHENTIC CHANGE

As educators ‘we have a duty to become involved, to expand our circle of concern’ and realise that we ‘cannot avoid some level of personal, institutional and political involvement in the realisation of others’ rights’. (Bottery 2000, p. 190)

8.1 Introduction
Studying agency and structure in situ in educational change has always been a difficult process. This thesis attempts to describe this complexity by investigating the issues and processes involved in the curriculum construction and implementation of the Queensland HPE syllabus. The data collected demonstrated loss, struggle and contestation in these educational change processes and, more particularly, highlighted the micro-political nature of change.

Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory was functional to use as an analytical frame to understand the issues and processes and identify particular agential possibilities and limitations in the curriculum change sites (see sections 7.4 and 7.5). The structurational model of curriculum frameworks provided a scaffold upon which the issues and processes could be understood from a multi-layered perspective. This final chapter further elucidates this complexity and goes beyond the research questions to foreshadow future interpretations of curriculum change processes.

8.2 Curriculum change processes in which certain issues were evident
The synthesis of the data demonstrates the centrality of the teacher in interacting with institutional practices in the curriculum change process. The issues of ownership, the use of human and material resources, interactions with school structures and staff
relations provided evidence of particular agential possibilities and limitations and how the temporal and spatial contexts affected these.

The research also identified both strengths and gaps in the foundation literature and models underpinning the investigations. The analysis demonstrated that the curriculum — characterised by knowledge, interaction and context — was influenced by the human agent, the institution and the society. There was evidence of modification to the knowledge considered relevant and to interaction between participants and to the physical and social contexts.

Sparkes’ (1990) model of teacher change and his study into micropolitics provided a basis for the investigation and identification of issues and processes. He suggested that teachers move through three necessary phases. He believes that unless there is significant movement at all three levels we are faced with superficial rather than real change (see Figure 2.4).

These investigations led to the rethinking of ‘real’ change as the ultimate goal for teachers in curriculum changes and furthermore highlighted the emotional and dialogical basis of change endeavours. The investigations showed that there is a subjective element to real change and not all teachers want to take up this challenge. Many teachers/writers find change difficult for a range of personal and contextual reasons. Even if teachers/writers do desire real change, they will have expectations placed upon them and their practices by administrators and education systems while operating within their day-to-day routines. Thus, the daily demands of the classroom/system and personal commitments of teachers are important considerations when adding to their work or introducing changes to it. Due to the saturated nature of the teaching-self (Gergen 1991), teachers/writers become isolated from other adults, their energies are limited and sustained reflection becomes difficult (Fullan 1991).

Furthermore, teachers/writers experienced increased demands on their energy and time in learning new skills or roles associated with change. Serious consideration of such personal costs is a useful indicator to the resistance that could be encountered. Without diminishing the importance of the personal costs to daily lives, perhaps an
even greater challenge to innovation lies in the demand for changes in teachers’ values, beliefs and ideologies. The emotional labour involved in curriculum change processes is immense. Data generated in the case studies highlight these emotional and dialogical elements.

The teachers at SC demonstrated several moments where emotions formed a key aspect to their role within and discussion about change.

I am frustrated that the other staff are oblivious to the work being done. [4:D] The work is more exciting and more effective...less teacher-focused. [4:C] How long will it take? Do we really need one? I don’t think I’ll come — too much on. [as recorded in my personal journal]

The writers at QSCC also demonstrated the emotional side:

So we’re the bunnies that go out to schools to say: ‘Well listen guys, sorry we can’t tell you anything because we’re waiting yet again for another decision. (Lee, personal communication #2)

This process is a real rollercoaster of emotions — we push ahead and we’re happy, and then it’s scrapped. (Logan, personal communication #2)

In my role as coordinator and teacher at SC I too recorded the highly emotional element of change. Two particular incidents come to mind. The first was the discussion with the principal re the Middle Schooling Handbook and the decision surrounding KLAs or subjects. My journal shows

I walked away angry at the resistance to the KLAs but could see it also as fear of losing territory and identity. I think my primary generalist background prevents me from understanding this.

My emotions are tied up in my vested interests in the change at SC. The second incident shows confusion and struggle.

A yukko day! A few tears and lots of frustration! I feel like a schizophrenic sometimes — believing in it, acting differently, unsure where I am heading with all of this...I feel as though I am losing my motivation’. For Syd and Joe in the syllabus construction, their emotions and vested interests became caught up in the decision making. In asking them about their values and beliefs (see section 5.2.2), they both stated the value of physical activity was
important. Their desire for this had an effect on decision-making processes about three or four strands. Much discontent was displayed.

...the decision was taken away from us and we were directed to have three strands. (Joe, personal communication #2)

I still believe we should have had four strands, with two of them, one a very heavily physical activity...but another one...maybe the fitness stuff...we stayed with the three...it was a decision that was made. (Syd, personal communication #2)

Both the emotional and dialogical elements are particularly apparent in the ‘Coffee or commitment’ incident (see section 6.3.1, p.178). My desire to lead the curriculum change process was constrained by the need to focus on the interactional basis of change. The incident with the Sport educators (see section 5.3.4.4, p.158) in the construction of the Years 1-10 HPE syllabus also displays these elements. They perceived a difficulty in the visibility of ‘sport’ in the syllabus and decided to ‘jump up and down’ (Syd, personal communication #2). Only through the dialogical element was this incident disentangled to produce this visibility.

If, as Hargreaves (2000a) and others suggest (Denzin 1984; Guskey 1986; Beatty, 2000), emotions are so crucial to the change process, and Ball (1987), Sparkes (1990), Blase and Anderson (1995), and Datnow (1998) suggest that dialogical dimension is important, then this connection is worth exploring further.

8.2.1 Emotionality in change processes

Hargreaves (2000a) contends that emotions are the ‘windows of the soul of teaching’. Teaching should not only be considered in the rational terms of knowledge, skill and performance (procedure), but is inclusive of a ‘unique value worlds’. Moreover, emotions are deeper than technical skills. He states: ‘Teaching is an emotional practice as it arouses or bores, connects or distances, engages in critical discussion or norms of practice’.¹ Duignan (2000) supports this by stating that both teaching and educational leadership involve ‘love, passion and compassion, re nourishing of the heart and soul, and spirituality’. He holds that teachers, in all of their interactions, live out their deeply held personal values and honour others’ presence. Duignan’s

¹ Hargreaves (2000a) recorded in conference notes.
(2000) notion of ‘encounter others well’² underpins his conception of teaching and leadership.

McWilliam (1999) provides a different perspective of ‘emotionality of teaching’. She specifically discusses teaching in terms of ‘pleasure’. McWilliam sees an arousing and desirability component in pedagogy. In a chapter written with Alison Jones, she states: ‘If teaching-as-usual is unpleasant, dull and restrictive, then “good”, exciting, motivating teaching is erotic, passionate, dangerous and evokes body-pleasure’ (McWilliam and Jones 1996, p.128). However, teaching is not usually discussed in this manner but rather seen as a rewarding profession. Admittedly there is an emotional component to pedagogy but how can it or should it be interpreted? In her most recent work McWilliam (1999, p.29) further contends that ‘being happy or satisfied as teachers and learners is an important part of pedagogy as a moral and technical endeavour’.

Yet as a result of the lack of recognition of such pleasure and passion there is a numbness to what pleasure really is. McWilliam (ibid, p.30) believes that ‘pleasure is learned rather than naturally felt, and … it is learned through precise forms of training made available at particular historical times and places in the discursive organisation of disciplinary texts and prescriptive stories about pedagogical engagements of right and wrong sort’. If this is so, teachers learn precise postures and behaviours that are appropriated in their pedagogy.

Taking the emotive component of teaching to the extreme, Kets de Vries (1993) states that the clinical condition of ‘alexithymia’ exists in our society and schools and is most prominent in leadership. Alexithymia is a communication disorder where individuals are unable to find words to describe emotions. Individuals’ ‘true selves’ never emerge and an ‘inner deadness’ resides (Kets de Vries 1993, p. 69). If we are to take McWilliam’s interpretation of ‘pleasure’ here, and if the emotions are masked by learned behaviours, there is a strong possibility of greater misunderstanding of feelings and their effect on interactions.

² Duignan (2000) recorded in conference notes.
Earlier Denzin (1984) presented the notion of ‘emotional understanding’. Duignan, McWilliam and Kets de Vries’ interpretations build on this to further describe teaching as a value world. Denzin (1984, p. 137) states: ‘Shared and shareable emotionality lie at the core of what it means to understand and meaningfully enter into the emotional experiences of another’. He contends that emotions cannot be considered a linear process, as they dig into past experiences to interpret or read the situation at hand. Emotions vary across contexts and cultures. I would suggest that emotions built from past experiences underpin and reinforce our values, beliefs and ideologies. When these are challenged the emotional load can be significant.

Denzin (1984) also claims that ‘emotional misunderstanding’ has the capacity to disconnect human interactions and relationships. For instance, student defiance may be interpreted as a classroom behavioural issue rather than a larger social issue that exists outside of the school. This misunderstanding would be detrimental to the teaching and learning process. In the context of teacher change, a misunderstanding of how teachers are responding could, in fact, be a misunderstanding of teachers’ learning and thus individuals’ ability to change.

Likewise, Hargreaves (2000b, p.5) states: ‘successful teaching and learning therefore depend on establishing close bonds with students (and also with colleagues and parents), and on creating conditions of teaching that make emotional understanding possible.’

These conditions of teaching have been explored in the concept of ‘emotional geographies’ defined as:

the spatial and experiential patterns of closeness and/or distance in human interaction or relationships that help create, configure and colour the feelings and emotions we experience about ourselves, our world and each other. Hargreaves (2000b, p. 7)

For Hargreaves the concept of emotional geographies assists in the identification of the supports and barriers to emotional understanding. These supports or barriers are identified along a continuum from closeness to distance in interactions and relationships. Applying Hargreaves’ rationale, I hold that in relation to change processes, distances within and across these geographies may cause barriers to the
establishment of a change culture. Acknowledging and understanding the categories of these geographies may help to develop a productive change culture.

Hargreaves (2000a) poses five categories of emotional geographies (Figure 8.1).

![Figure 8.1 Categories of emotional geographies](from Hargreaves 2000a)

Socio-cultural distance refers to the diverse backgrounds and culture of people, including their individual beliefs and values. Bigum and Green (1993) refer to students as ‘aliens in the classroom’ where teachers lack a socio-cultural understanding of them. I claim that this may also be the case in teacher–teacher and teacher–administration interactions. Further, there is a need for teachers to develop this socio-cultural understanding at an institutional level, to identify the stakeholders involved and the organisational practices. Only when this happens, when the socio-cultural distance between staff and administration is reduced, may the possibility of ‘aliens in the staffroom’ be lessened.

Moral distance refers to judgment placed upon the purpose of the interaction or relationships. For instance, as a change agent different parties involved may judge a teacher according to whether the innovation was perceived to be right or wrong. Interestingly, Fullan (1993, p. 8) states that ‘managing moral purpose and change agentry is at the heart of productive change’. He contends that without moral purpose there is a lack of direction and consequently disintegration, and that through change morality is challenged. Earlier Tom (1984, p. 94) suggested that ‘... educational processes are moral as they are ‘... expected to involve the pursuit of desirable ends’. This is also evident in the classroom as parents may also judge teachers’ purposes. Moral distance alters depending on judgments made about purposes and principles. This distance varies for the different groups involved — for example, if parents do not understand the change proposed and teachers see it as increasing their workloads then
the distance between the two groups and the change agents will be wide, albeit for different reasons.

Professional distance refers to the division that arises from the interpretation of one person having status or qualifications higher than others, or being positioned within organisational practices in an authoritative manner. An obvious power hierarchy may develop here. A teacher, acting as a change agent, may appear to be an authority on elements of change and implementation, and such perceived authority may result in colleagues feeling threatened. Effective and open communication and negotiation skills are key aspects of reducing the professional distance.

Political distance pertains to emotional politics and is closely linked to professional and physical distance. Resistance, fear, or perceptions of force or lack of agency will influence interaction in a negative way. Challenging one’s vested, ideological and self-interests (Ball 1987) will build a feeling of power and/or powerlessness (Hargreaves 2000b). Powerlessness and resistance are accelerated when change disturbs established power positioning at both personal and institutional levels.

Finally, physical distance refers to the conditions for interaction that support communication between persons involved in a change process. Such conditions that go beyond the physical may include creating a teacher network for teachers involved in the implementation process, the creation of time for reflection to share experiences and to form a dialogue about the innovation. The creation of space for dialogue is important, whether in the same school or in a number of schools across geographical locations.

The categories of emotional geographies have potential to inform the educational change agenda. An awareness of these geographies can lead to the creation of conditions that allow emotional understanding. If, as Hargreaves (1997, pp.108–9) warns us, ‘educational reformers ignore the emotional dimensions of educational change, emotions and feelings will only re-enter the change process by the back door’. According to Beatty (2000), emotional understanding has been professionally hidden in the traditional literature and practice of teaching and leadership, and a
facade of emotional control and numbness exists. This is akin to Kets de Vries’ (1993) concept of ‘alexithymia’ and McWilliams’ (1999) learnt postures and behaviours. However, emotions can no longer be ‘subordinate, insignificant or peripheral’ (Beatty 2000, p.4) as they shape values, reason and action.

Most importantly, this emphasis on emotional understanding in interactions is not suggesting rationalisation of emotions. Goleman’s (1995) notion of ‘emotional intelligence’, which contends emotional responses can be taught and learnt, is limited in the emphasis on emotional understanding. Emotions are context- and culture-specific and if seen as key aspects to be learnt or taught for effective social interactions then ‘contrived emotionality’ (Hartley 1999, p. 320) will result. Mestrovic (1997, cited in Hartley 1999, p. 319) describes the contrived emotionality process as the ‘manipulation of emotions by self and others into a bland, mechanical, mass-produced yet oppressive ethic of niceness’. Emotional understanding in educational change processes emphasised in this thesis must not be seen ‘as the new legitimatory rhetoric in the management of teachers’ (Hartley 1999, p. 317).

Emotional understanding, that is, the shared and shareable emotionality, is central to comprehending the dialogical focus of curriculum change. This, of necessity goes beyond ‘niceness’. Anger, fear and the other emotional reactions to change are recognised, accepted and negotiated as essential to the process. Such recognition and negotiation of high emotions as a normal part of the cultural and political environment of curriculum change go some way to reverse what Datnow (1998, p. 2) refers to as ‘the seedy underside’.

8.2.2 A dialogical focus

A number of studies have focused on the dialogical dimension of curriculum change (Ball 1987; Sparkes 1990; Hargreaves 1995; Blasé and Anderson 1995) and are relevant to the discussions about closeness and distances in teachers’ relationships and interactions. Specifically, the political and professional distances mentioned above are identifiable links. However, the description of micropolitics as the ‘woof and warp of the fabric of day-to-day life in schools’ (Blasé and Anderson 1995, p.12) has commonly been discussed in terms of power, control, authority, influence and conflict. Such terms have been considered to provide a valid picture of school life.
and yet so often are unspoken and unobserved at the workface. Anderson (1998, p. 583) stresses this further: ‘... the micropolitics of participation are such that, even when participation is carefully orchestrated, most often power and influence remain in the same hands’. Thus there is a need for recognition of micropolitics at both system and school levels of educational reform. Wilkinson (2000, p. 13) accedes: ‘The dynamics of change and the cultures and micro-political agendas need to be galvanised into a certain direction, system-wide as well as in every school’.

Datnow also sees the need to provoke a focus on the micropolitics:

We seldom recognise the importance of the seedy underside ... the micropolitics. We do not focus on the politics ... enough, when in fact it is the political dimension ... that most often causes reform to fail. One reason for this is that the language of politics has long been taboo in educational settings. (Datnow (1998, p. 2)

Datnow describes politics as ‘the art of the possible’ and believes that three key elements need further investigation. These elements of discourse, ideology and social location interact within all circumstances. Power is constant in all of these. The agent has a particular purpose and influences towards this. In the case of curriculum change, the teacher has a political persona in the attempt to ‘make a difference’. Hargreaves’ (2000a) notion of emotional geographies allows these concepts to be identified and positioned at the forefront of teacher relationships and interactions in the school and the system level. More important, in the process of change it places emphasis on the key human element as to whether or not change will be effective.

Duignan (2000) poses a similar perspective on professional relationships. The concept, entitled ‘I in We’, suggests that teacher–leader relationships share a consciousness, a communion of values, beliefs and interests, a sense of stewardship, and an ethic of care. It is the role of the ‘I in We’ and in addition the ‘We in I’ that constructs our identities and relationships, and most likely contains a moral purpose. Both Buber (1970) and Bauman (1993) propose much the same views to explain human interactions. Buber (1970, p. 60) contends that ‘I’ and ‘Thou’ best describe his notion of ‘relation is reciprocity’, that humans have a caring function for others and self. Bauman (1993) believes that ‘I’ and ‘Other’ serves well to explain this link between self and others. About Bauman’s concepts of ‘I’ and ‘Other’, Smith states:
The self’s original condition is to feel responsibility for the Other — for those others who occupy the world along with the self .... the moral urge is innate. It is rooted in the autonomy of I, not imposed in a heteronomous way by society or the Other. (Smith 1999, p. 163)

Taylor (in Duignan and Bhindi 1997, p. 200) adds a different dimension to the notion of dialogical: ‘The genesis of the human mind is ... not ‘monological’, not something that each accomplishes on his or her own, but dialogical.’ He goes further to suggest that we don’t become full agents unless we understand ourselves and our identity through languages of speech, gesture, love and art. What we express in exchanges with others is important. Thus, it could be claimed that the key to understanding teachers in the curriculum change context is the dialogical connectedness that creates and supports agency.

The three frames model (Varghese 2000, p. 2) that has been used to support Education Queensland’s 2010 strategies implies a dialogical and micro-political focus but without intent. When commenting on the model, Varghese states: ‘Understanding our work and our professional lives are absolutely connected with how we relate to each other and ... how we understand and engage with the cultures of others’. He suggests that seeing emotions, intellect and values as such allows action plans to be devised to transform them into opportunities for success. This supports Hargreaves’ (2000a) notion of socio-cultural distance as an important feature of educational social interactions. Varghese (2000, p. 2) goes further to say we ‘need to learn to communicate across the borders and silos that exist within our organisation — to work across and with our generational and professional, cultural and geographical differences’. Meier (1998) applies a similar understanding in the implementation of change at her elementary and secondary schools. She introduces the notion of ‘viewpoint’ that allows staff and students to identify their individual histories and identities as they influence decisions being made, allowing for deepening the questions. Until these strategies become explicit, the socio-cultural distance between change agents and those that enact the change at the workface will remain wide.

In keeping with the arguments presented above I wish to extend Sparkes’ (1990) third level of change — ‘real change’— to encompass the emotional and dialogical
components of change. All interactions and relationships involve the subjective nature of self; change processes are emotive, moral and dialogical.

8.2.3 The ‘authentic’ debate

Sparkes’ (1990, p. 4) explanation of levels of teacher change referred to changes in beliefs, values, ideologies and pedagogies, which may involve re-orientation of philosophy and self-image. It is apparent that the third level of change currently focuses on evidence in actions, behaviours and possibly image, a rational approach. I would argue that emotions and interaction, morality and an ethic of care are fundamental to change agentry and, further, to attaining effective change. These elements are key to altering beliefs, values, ideologies and pedagogies, and thus, the third level of change definition must be revised to embrace and identify morality, emotions and interactions.

In addition to reconstructing the third level of change to include emotions and a dialogical focus, I question the notion of ‘real change’. What does the word ‘real’ imply? The following synonyms could be considered: ‘absolute’, ‘valid’, ‘certain’ and ‘factual’. In post-modern times, there is incredulity towards absolute therefore absolute as in ‘real’ is delegitimated, suspect and problematic. Within the curriculum change process, the search for ‘real’ change is highly speculative. Making a judgment that the implementation of new policies, curriculum or syllabi has resulted in ‘real’ or ‘absolute’ change is subjective, as it is largely a personal interpretation. I propose that more appropriate terminology for the highest level of change is ‘authentic change’. I have chosen the word ‘authentic’ to best display the focus on self and connectedness to others, as well as to provide a moral and ethical platform for teacher change. This interpretation extends the construction of meaning of ‘authentic’ and ‘authenticity’.

The term ‘authentic’ in relation to change has been examined in recent educational studies. Hodgkinson (1991), Terry (1993), Newmann et al. (1995), Einbender and Wood (1995), Duignan and Bhindi (1997), and Anderson (1998) provide arguments for the inclusion of the term ‘authentic’ (or ‘authenticity’) in connection with educational leadership, achievement, pedagogy, participation and assessment.
Newmann et al. (1995) provide a limited approach to authenticity by suggesting that it is knowledge, learnings or actions that are ‘worthwhile, significant and relevant’. Again there is an element of normalisation — by whose judgment is something worthwhile? They contend that successful authentic pedagogy can be linked to the sharing of norms and values, the focus on student learning, reflective dialogue, deprivatisation of practice and collaboration. Missing here is explicit attention to how ‘norms’ are negotiated.

Einbender and Wood (1995) documented teachers’ perceptions of authentic assessment and further identify elements of authentic practice. They contend that teachers’ authentic practice is visible through authentic relationships, authentic curricula, authentic instruction (pedagogy) and authentic assessment. The term ‘authentic’ is employed to mean ‘contextualised, meaningful tasks that have a genuine connection to the world outside the classroom’ (ibid. p. 12). Meier (1998) assumes a similar interpretation of authentic practice in her school. While it is viable that Newmann et al. and Einbender and Wood’s interpretations could be inclusive of all that has been conceptualised in the reconstructed third level of teacher change, their considerations of ethical and emotional actions are shallow.

Anderson’s (1998) study into what he titles ‘inauthentic’ and ‘authentic’ participation in educational reform processes suggests there is need to examine participation processes to bring about change. He sees possible misunderstanding of the term ‘authentic’ when it is interpreted as ‘a single essentialist core to participation’ (ibid. p. 573). He challenges this interpretation and more specifically the participation sites as being co-opted and contrived. His notion of ‘authentic participation’ calls for the strengthening of habits of democratic participation and the achievement of greater learning outcomes and social justice for all participants’ (ibid. p. 576). For him, authenticity is concerned with both the process and product of that participation. Anderson poses a series of questions to examine the authenticity of participatory practices:

a) Participation toward what end?
b) Who participates?
c) What are the relevant spheres of participation?
d) What conditions and processes must be present locally to make participation authentic (i.e., the micropolitics of participation)?
e) What conditions and processes must be present at broader institutional and societal levels to make participation authentic (i.e., the macro-politics of participation)? (Anderson 1998, p. 587)

I would add to these:

f) Whose participation is given value?

I would add to these:

g) What emotional geographies are engaged by the various groups participating?

Thus, personal and systemic political and cultural environments are exposed in the role of participation for self and others in educational change.

Along similar lines, Terry (1993, p. 102) claims that authenticity ‘entails action that is both true and real in ourselves and in the world’. This statement suggests that to be authentic involves self and a role within our world — dialogical focus (self and others). The words true and real also suggest an emphasis on the moral and ethical nature of our actions. If we are to see authenticity as self-fulfilling then it marginalises community. Taylor (1991, p. 50) concedes this interpretation when he defines the culture of authenticity as having two modes: a society level — fairness, equal chances for people to develop own identity; and an intimate level — identity-forming love relationship. Bhindi and Duignan (1997) suggest that this ‘self and others’ role is an area that has diminished due to corporate managerialism, obsession with self-interest, power and privilege in post-modern times.

On the other hand, Hargreaves et al. (2000) argue against this interpretation of authenticity in post-modern times. Because there are few ‘right’ answers in post-modern times, Hargreaves et al. (2000, p. 91) believe the term ‘authentic’ is problematic as it suggests the ‘sense of revealing some authoritative truth’. Additionally, they find it difficult to determine what is ‘real’ and what is ‘fake’, and particularly in ‘authentic’ assessment, tasks tend to ‘simulate reality as much as they create it’ (ibid. p. 92). So Hargreaves et al. have the same problems as those earlier mobilised in connection with ‘real’ — they use authentic as if it means ‘real’.

The writers I have discussed do not interpret ‘authenticity’ in educational change processes as suggesting conformity to an original — for example, a set of standards — as simulating reality or as truth. Rather they, and I, would want to suggest that
emotions and a care for ethics do shape a teacher's values, beliefs, interactions and pedagogies and so authentic change is about a process rather than a final measurable result. From this point of view, interpretations of 'authentic' and 'authenticity' have focused on the key issues of ethical actions and the negotiation of connectedness of values and beliefs in interactions and relationships. I argue that emotions exist in all of these actions and that they are omnipresent in teacher change. The term 'authentic' befits the reconstructed conception of teacher change.

In this thesis I have used the discourse of 'authentic' in applying it to my understanding of curriculum change processes. Nevertheless, it has become an overused term and presents for me a degree of unease in the coining of 'authentic change'. Currently there is a much discourse baggage surrounding the term 'authentic', ranging from its application in the marketing sense (e.g. the authentic meal at a restaurant) to the interpretation of 'real' learning experiences and outcomes. In light of this baggage, the theorising of 'authentic' and 'authenticity' discourse in this thesis needs to be seen as a more nuanced and sophisticated use of the term 'authentic', but the fact remains it is still a term that has serious shortcomings.

8.2.4 Typologies of authentic change

As a consequence of theorising authentic change it is evident that Sparkes' (1990, p. 4) levels of teacher change needed revising to include emotionality and a dialogical focus. Significantly, the concept of levels was also revised to reduce the hierarchical nature of Sparkes' model. The term 'typology' was included in recognition that these classifications are descriptions of teacher change nested within each other. This concept of 'nestedness' is to suggest that all three typologies might exist at one time. This is dependent upon individual teacher's experiences, interpretations, day-to-day routines and interactions. The linear representation implied in Figure 8.2 must not be confused with this underpinning characteristic of the typologies. Figure 8.2 adapts the Sparkes' model (1990, p. 4) to take account of these new ideas.
SURFACE CHANGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes to materials and activities that involves emotions and dialogue</th>
<th>The use of new and revised materials and activities, for instance, instructional resources such as curriculum packs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changes to teacher practices that involves emotions and dialogue</td>
<td>The use of new skills, teaching approaches, styles and strategies, that is, changes in teaching practices with attendant changes in the teaching role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes to ideologies and pedagogies that include values, beliefs, emotions, morality and ethics</td>
<td>Changes in beliefs, values, ideologies and pedagogies, taking cognisance of human interactions and the emotions within a dialogical morality and ethics. This can involve a major re-orientation of philosophy and image.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AUTHENTIC CHANGE

Figure 8.2 Typologies of teacher change

These typologies have taken a particular ‘human agent’ focus; however, they do not suggest that the agent is able to make these changes without the interaction with the systemic procedures and practices. The changes to materials, pedagogies and further changes to values and beliefs, can only occur through social and political interactions with curriculum documents, school organisation of these knowledges and systemic practices. The temporal and spatial context, too, is important. The physical and social contexts in which the agent is interacting — including personal, home, school and systemic contexts — will impact on their changes. Thus, the ‘duality of curriculum’ frameworks can be assimilated with these typologies (DinanThompson 2001).

8.2.5 Agency in authentic change

Returning to my third research question (see Section 1.2), I found that my concept of authentic change also impacted on agential possibilities and limitations. Authentic change recognises the knowledgeability of the agent (teacher and writer in this thesis) in the same manner that Giddens (1984) proposes in his structuration theory. Teachers and writers may choose to act upon curriculum change structures (material and human resources) according to their individual values, beliefs, and ideologies to ‘make a difference’. Thus, I propose teachers are authentically creating curriculum change and at the same time are being created by it. Within this ‘duality’ the
individual teacher's feeling of security, past experiences and knowledgeability are influential in the choice of actions, responses and behaviours. Hence the social and political interactions within which this action takes place are emotive, and contain a moral purpose and ethic of care.

The notions of agential possibilities and limitations were discussed earlier in light of the analysis of case study data (see Section 7.4.2). According to the knowledgeability of individual teachers and writers, there are many possibilities for them as agents of change. Each agent has some power in accessing resources, both human and material, to ‘make a difference’. In using the typologies above, the teacher has access to curriculum documents and kits to adjust their classroom activities, and the writer has access to pre-existing curriculum documents and ideas to construct a new syllabus. However, according to those agents’ values and beliefs — their own knowledgeability — they may choose not to alter practices. Within their day-to-day routines it may appear safer and require less emotional upheaval to maintain pre-existing practices, and thus no threat is posed to their ontological security. In addition, the organisational practices and procedures will affect this agential possibility in either a positive or negative way. School practices, such as the timetable, may reinforce traditional practices across time and space and not promote any modification to activities. Alternatively, the provision of financial support for the trial of a new syllabus might assist in the promotion of a new conceptualisation of a learning area. Thus, it is both a personal and structural relationship that may constrain or enable these changes.

Agents are knowledgeable and intentional in their actions, either as individuals or in a collective manner. They use past experiences, stocks of knowledge, human and material resources to interpret the production of actions, responses and behaviours, sometimes reproducing old practices and sometimes creating new ones. There is an emotional component to these actions in linking to past experiences and understandings as demonstrated in the link to my primary generalist background, and in Syd and Joe’s valuing of physical activity from their teaching experiences. They are also bound by the situatedness of the temporal and spatial contexts. The social interactions that occur in these contexts are not monological. They emphasise a ‘self
and others' focus and thus are dialogical, accomplished through interaction with others, as Taylor (in Duignan and Bhindi 1997) suggests. Most importantly, agents are never completely powerless as they have access to their individual knowledgeability and both human and material resources to create possibilities, if not individually then collectively. On the other hand, limited access to these resources may be constraining.

8.3 The quest for authentic change

The search for 'authentic change' provides a new challenge to investigating and monitoring the educational curriculum change process. This conceptualisation asks teachers, administrators and change agents to develop emotional understanding in all social interactions. It provides a basis for the act of teaching, inclusive of all that encompasses teaching, to become 'open' practice. Recently, Bascia and Hargreaves put forward a similar view:

Educational change must connect teachers to the system and society in an activist way, where they can see themselves not just as effects of the context, but as part of the context, contributors to it, and as agents who can and must influence how others perceive, shape and support their work. (Bascia and Hargreaves 2000, pp.33-4)

Thus, 'authentic change' requires a connection between the teacher, administrator, and stakeholder to the school, education system and society, and promotes a dialogical focus to the educational change process. It positions the change at both individual (agent) and organisational (structure) levels and, more particularly, focuses on their integration in interactions, that is a dialogical process.

Authentic change processes aim to construct a supportive, collaborative culture that provides the context for sharing and negotiating emotions, beliefs, values, ideologies and pedagogies. It encourages teachers, administrators and all stakeholders to be learners, to look inward as well as outward for growth, to make mistakes and learn from them. It would require educators to become:

politically ... aware, credible, earthly, practical, and, despite their frailties, strive to be ethical, caring and conscience driven ... live [living] their values to the best of their ability. (Bhindi and Duignan 1997, p.124)
Only then will educators and stakeholders in education be a part of the deep, personal and enduring relationships that are key to the vocation of teaching. They will create and reconstruct the culture rather than receive it, as happens in many curriculum change initiatives.

8.3.1 Authentic change and professional ethic

In belonging to the teaching vocation, teaching, as a profession, has a professional ethic, a system of beliefs and values. These beliefs and values have been presented at a government level (MCEETYA 1999) and have become a focus for research into the status of teaching in Australia (Australian College of Education 1997). Additionally, particular education organisations have made assumptions upon which teaching is to be guided and evaluated. The Board of Teacher Registration Queensland (1994, 1999) and Education Queensland (1999) outline specific qualities and requirements; there has been discussion about professional teaching standards (Australian Teaching Council 1996; Invargson 1998); and within teacher education, graduate qualities/attributes are set out (James Cook University, 2000). In addition, codes of ethics (Queensland Teachers Union 1989) and statements of professional ethics (Independent Teachers’ Association 1984) have been produced to present a duty of professional responsibilities to educators. Commitment to these qualities, goals and requirements are, however, an expectation and not commonplace. They rarely go beyond the rhetoric of policy statements.

Components of this ‘professional ethic’ (Independent Teachers’ Association 1984; Queensland Teachers’ Union 1989; Australian Council of Deans of Education 1998; Education Queensland 1999) display the teaching vocation as having a moral purpose. Carr and Kemmis (in Ewert 1991, p. 356) contend ‘... those who influence the nature, organisation and process of education can influence the character and expectations of future citizens’. Bauman (1993) extends this conception of morality to the belief that the moral urge is innate in understanding the feeling of responsibility for the ‘Other’. Hence behaving ethically under the guidance of morals is relative to self and others. Noddings’ (1984) earlier work offers this notion of an ‘ethic of care’. She believes that the ‘source of ethical behaviour is, then, in twin sentiments — one that feels directly for the other and one that feels for and with that best self’ (Noddings 1984,
The ethic of care is both self-serving and other-serving and yet it is tough because there is nothing objective or rational about ethics. Morals, and thus ethics, cannot be universal due to the subjective core. As Noddings states:

One who labels moral statements as expressions of approval or disapproval, and takes the matter to be finished with that, misses the very heart of morality. He [sic] misses the commitment to behave in a fashion compatible with caring. Thus he misses both feeling and content. (ibid. p. 91)

Noddings extends her interpretation of an 'ethic of care' into the classroom and contends that 'everything we do, then, as teachers, has moral overtones. Through dialogue, modelling, the provision of practice, and the attribution of best motive, the one-caring as teacher nurtures the ethical ideal' (ibid. p. 179). Her interpretations also reinforce the emotionality of teaching and the integration with personal values and beliefs (Denzin 1984; Hargreaves 1998, 2000a, 2000b; Beatty 2000).

Interestingly, Kennedy (1999) also sees this as a concern for the future of school curriculum in the twenty-first century. A prominent writer on Australian curriculum, Kennedy identifies a focus on ethical behaviour and moral education as crucial to avoid fragmentation of human agency. He identifies several of the issues mentioned above and suggests that the celebration of difference will be key to understanding and learning more from, and about, one another. In my view, the 'I in We' (Duignan, 2000), 'I/Thou' and 'I/Other' (Bauman 1993) could form the moral and ethical platform for planning and creating a better society.

Nonetheless, if we consider current educational reform agendas, I sense a bias toward rationality, procedure, judgment, objectivity, and measurability. Bauman (1993, 1995) sees this as the 'modern' approach to educational reform where controllability is key. He likens modernity to the analogy of a garden where the elite of bureaucrats and intellectuals cultivate a population that behaves under surveillance. He also contends that due to this control there is fear 'that individuals will feel too much personal responsibility for the good or harm they cause when acting under the orders of the organisations to which they belong' (Smith 1999, p.143). This in turn would weaken the organisation’s ability to control and achieve success. On the other hand, several individuals might also see that their responsibility can be passed to the organisation from which the surveillance originates.
Hence in emphasising the values of rationality and objectivity, emotions are ignored and an ethic of care is limited. Likewise, 'the importance of group membership, sense and meaning, morality, self-sacrifice, duty and obligation to additional values' are neglected (Sergiovanni 1992, p.xii). The studies carried out on change processes by McInerney et al. (2000) show disregard for the importance of 'teachers’ learning’. Indeed they say there is need for recognition of teachers being key players in the reform process and that whole school reform and teachers’ learning are interdependent. The dialogical interactions, including informal learning, collaboration and emotions, are at the core of teacher and whole school (system) reform.

Authentic change promotes a dialogical focus to change and accordingly an ‘ethic of care’ (Noddings 1984). Indeed to adopt Trilling’s interpretation, authenticity demands:

a more strenuous moral experience ... a more exigent conception of the self and of what being true to it consists in, a wider reference to the universe and man’s [people’s] place in it, and a less acceptant and genial view of the social circumstances of life. (Trilling 1974, p. 11)

Thus, authenticity involves examining one’s life for ‘ethical actions, interactions and relationships within groups, organisation and society’ (Bhindi and Duignan 1997, p. 122). It asks us to ‘face our fears and take responsibility for the true and the real in ourselves and the world’ (Terry 1993, p. 273).

Using my notion of ‘authentic’ I found Anderson’s (1998) conception of ‘authentic participation’ useful to further the emphasis on self and others. Anderson (1998, p. 591) sees that through authentic participation there will be recognition of how ‘participation is mediated by politics and culture’. That ‘authentic participation ...[is] important for the development of the individual, important for the creation of democratic institutions, and important as a means to increase learning outcomes’ (Anderson 1998, p.595). Only through authentic participation will democracy become participatory rather than representative and result ‘in more active and informed citizens and institutions with greater moral authority’ (Anderson 1998, p. 595).
So, to be authentic is to be loyal 'to one's own set of values' and to relate 'these values to the followership ... by human and humane intercourse' (Hodgkinson 1991, pp. 130, 133). Bottery (2000, p. 190) is in agreement when he states that as educators 'we have a duty to become involved, to expand our circle of concern' and realise that we 'cannot avoid some level of personal, institutional and political involvement in the realisation of others’ rights.' Fullan’s (1993) concepts of ‘inner learning’ and ‘outer learning’ can be likened to these interpretations. This contention holds that we must learn from within as ‘subjective experience is not just one of the dimensions of life, it is life itself’ (Fullan 1993, p. 138). Additionally, his concept of ‘outer learning’ establishes the importance of connectedness with others to grow and to learn.

Teachers, administrators and stakeholders in education are learners. This learning is gained through individual learning and interaction with others.

Authentic change embeds the ‘professional ethic’, dialogical base and emotionality of the teaching vocation within the educational change processes. Central to the change is the educator (teacher, administrator, stakeholder) and their interaction with the organisational practices. It asks the individual to connect their personal values and beliefs with the system of educational change. It is a dialogical process and promotes an ‘ethic of care’. It conceptualises a role for stakeholders of change to have an active role connecting their agency to structures in responding to, and shaping, education change. Thus, the notion of ‘duality of curriculum’ is evident in this relationship. Nonetheless, due to this connection at all levels of interaction — the individual, the school and system level — it brings with it contestation and struggle. However, such contestation and conflict is purposeful in understanding the authenticity of actions.

8.4 Epilogue

In conclusion, I offer the heuristic of the kaleidoscope to encapsulate attempts to understand curriculum change. In the kaleidoscope, the complexity of curriculum change processes can be represented as the construction of a variety of shape and colour patterns that alter in different ways with forward movement. The pattern can also represent the maintenance of distinct shapes and colour to show the reproduction of actions across time and space. I see these kaleidoscopic patterns as having a
metaphoric role in describing the manifestation of modalities in social interactions between human actors, curriculum and institutional properties as the curriculum change processes develop. Integral to these patterns are the temporal and spatial contexts in which these interactions occur.

The knowledgeability of the agent is central to this kaleidoscopic pattern and his/her interaction with personal, school and system structures. Giddens consistently refers to the knowledgeability of the actor and his/her ability to routinely incorporate 'what went before' and anticipations of 'what will come next' into the present encounter' (Giddens 1979, p. 84). Teachers and curriculum writers will call upon embedded knowledge, values, rules, resources, sanctions and norms, all of which are vulnerable to 'chronic revision in light of new information or knowledge' (Giddens 1991, p. 20).

Within each interaction, the human actor is knowledgeable and will call upon 'what went before' to assist in the interpretation of his/her actions in a particular physical and social location. A large component of this interpretation will be the kind and strength of the emotions that each actor feels, whether consciously or unconsciously. Thus, in the kaleidoscope the patterns representing action/interaction would take on various hues and shapes, depending on the context, knowledge, experiences, values, rules and sanctions of the actors involved (hence displaying coexistence of the modalities). The interaction may reinforce 'what went before' (the pattern) and reproduce the action, or may revise it according to 'new information or knowledge' (forward movement creating a revised pattern) and produce a new action. The word revision is important here to describe the retention of some of the embedded experiences, values, rules, resources and sanctions, and modification to others. Across time and contexts, actions and interactions are produced and reproduced displaying the recursive nature of daily life (Giddens 1984).

The physical and social contexts assist in the interpretation of these actions, responses and behaviours. A different set of experiences, values, rules, resources and sanctions would be called upon in a different situation, thus representing an altered kaleidoscopic pattern. Hence, the interpretive schemes, resources and norms for
individual actors would present distinctive and personal kaleidoscopic patterns with temporal and spatial contexts.

The kaleidoscope provides a metaphor to understand the complexity of investigating curriculum changes in situ. It identifies a personal and structural relationship, including an ethic of care and emotionality, situated in social, political and cultural environments in educational change.
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