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The Management of Educational Change in Pakistani Educational Institutions

By

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Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)
School of Education
College of Social Sciences
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Abstract

This research study aims to explore the process of educational change management in Pakistan through the experiences and views of institution heads and teachers to look at the reality of an externally mandated reform at the school level. Beyond contextualising the process of educational change at the school level within the Pakistani education system, the study aims to contextualise this process in the global perspective by delineating an emergent model of educational change management for Pakistani education system.

A change initiative to reform the national curriculum and assessment system for public examinations was investigated to provide the participants of the study a point of reference to express their opinions and to reflect upon and describe their experiences. This particular change initiative was part of a comprehensive reform programme called Education Sector Reform (ESR) programme initiated in 2002. To define the selection of institutions and the sample of teachers within those institutions, the curriculum and assessment system change at Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) level in the subject areas of English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies was focused in the institutions affiliated with the examination board of Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (FBISE). Beyond affiliation with FBISE, the selection of twenty institutions was made in order to balance a number of factors as the ownership, attraction for admissions, gender representation and administrative structures. The data collection was done at three stages through three research tools. At the first stage, the institution heads of the selected institutions were included in the research through semi-structured interviews. At the second stage an exploratory questionnaire, which was based on the interview data and the related literature, was given to twenty teachers in ten of the institutions included in the study. The data from this exploratory questionnaire was used to develop a structured questionnaire for the third phase of the research, which was given to 124 teachers in the twenty institutions included in the study. The sample was balanced for the subject areas and the length of teaching experience of the participants.

The analysis of data from both institution heads and teachers has converged on three overarching themes of student learning and assessment, issues related to the role of teachers in the process of change and the management of the reform process.

In summary, participating institution heads and teachers are positive about the need and purpose of the reform; they also consider it good for student learning and attainment but have reservations about the top down approach in change management and poor resourcing. They demand well-resourced institutions and teachers, capacity building for implementers in the institutions and their inclusion in the process of the reform planning. They suggest improved communication and coordination for effective implementation of the reform along with comprehensive, inclusive, consistent and research based approach in the policymaking, planning and implementation strategy of the reform, which needs to be incremental in nature.

Based on the data, especially the suggestions of the participants, an emergent model for educational change management in Pakistan has been outlined with strategic management at the core built around incremental, consistent, research based, inclusive and comprehensive, approaches. This model extends into the role of teachers: who are resourced with information, guidance, support, materials, facilities and funds, who are satisfied with the change management process and their professional status in the system and working conditions, and who are ready for the change through acceptance of the change (especially with reference to its effect on student learning), participation in the whole change process and
training. This emergent model has been situated in the existing research literature to highlight the similarities as well as the distinctive features of the Pakistani context.
Dedicated to my husband Tanvir Malik

Whose absence from UK and presence in Pakistan

made it all possible
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Author’s Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature _______________________________

JAMILA RAZZAQ
1.1 The background of the study

Change has been an integral part of human development with knowledge and education at its core. Knowledge and curiosity have brought enormous change in the human situation and its surrounding physical, social and cultural milieu. This resultant change, in turn, has led to great demands, challenges and opportunities for the development of knowledge and nurture of curiosity. Since education systems have taken over the tasks of knowledge generation and transfer in society, the struggle to regulate the cyclic and complex association between change and knowledge/development has been underway at different levels of the systems with varying degrees of concentration in different temporal and spatial settings (Harris, 2009; Levin, 2009). The motives behind this regulation have not always been pristine, especially in the presence of political expediency (Curle, 1969; Gunter, 2008; Hargreaves, 2005; Harris, 2009; Harris, 2011; Hoodbhoy and Nayyar, 1985; Levin and Fullan, 2008; Levin, 2010b), market ruthlessness (Cheng, 2010; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009; Harris, 2011; Hill, 2009; Walford, 2000; Whitty, 2008) and even religious predispositions in some education systems (Esposito, 1987; Hill, 1980; Kennedy and Lee, 2008; Simpson, 1971).

The dynamics of change in the educational arena have generated interest among the theorists and researchers, especially recently in the wake of high stakes accountability and impact of large-scale educational reform programmes (Hargreaves, 1997; Harris, 2011; Fullan 2009a; Levin and Fullan, 2008; Wendell, 2009). With the varying degrees of activity in the political, social and cultural cauldron, educational change has taken different forms in different time and space zones, which has been the subject of a number of individual and large-scale research projects. The established and growing interest and research in the domain of educational change has instituted it as a field of study in its own right. At this stage of development, there is a growing realization that the field of educational change is Anglo-centric and based on the scholarship from the developed world - largely western liberal democracies. For a comprehensive maturity of the field, the horizon of research is expanding to add perspectives from different geographical and socio-political locations. This research study is situated in this trend of contextualizing educational change, and sets out to explore the experience of educational change management in Pakistan.
Beyond this epistemological background, the research study has stemmed from the personal experiences of the researcher. Since 2002, the Pakistani education system has experienced a concerted and unprecedented reform agenda. The internal pressure to improve the quality of public education and multiple external pressures to meet *Millennium Development Goals* (UN Millennium Declaration, 2000) and *Education for All* (UNESCO, 1990) targets, to revamp madrassa education, and to contain the element of extremism (Gardner, 2005) led to devise Education Sector Reform (ESR) programme at the national level. This programme was launched in 2002 with a range of sub programmes targeting different levels of education and different issues and concerns in the Pakistani education system. In the wake of ‘the war on terror’ (Thomas, 2006) and the particular geographical and ideological position of Pakistan (Yasmeen, 2003), many international donors e.g. DFID, US Aid, GTZ, UN, World Bank etc provided the funding for different educational and social projects. These dimensions of political and financial issues added to the hype for the proposed educational reform programme ESR, though the initiators of every large-scale education reform programme endeavour to paint a positive image sometimes based on genuine convictions and sometimes to create illusions. The educators in the Pakistani institutions included in the study accepted the reforms due to not only the hierarchical decision-making and administrative control system in the country’s education system, but also, as revealed through data, for the perceived positive impact of these reforms especially on the teaching learning process. The researcher was teaching in the system and experienced the reform process, which followed the usual pattern in Pakistani education and came as a top down intervention in the institutions. This ‘modal’ process of change, which assumed the reform package to be ‘context free’ (Sarason 1996, p 62–63) was meant to be implemented across the target sectors, levels or segments of the education system with varying cultural and resources backgrounds. This created a situation where there were a range of competing factors and the researcher personally felt intrigued to investigate the process of educational change management in Pakistan.

After this brief introduction to the personal, national and disciplinary foundations of the research study, it is appropriate to provide an overview of its key elements. Therefore, in order to provide a broader backdrop, the rest of this chapter gives an overview of the key features of this research. This discussion has been developed and presented in four main sections containing the overview of:
1. The concept of change and different perspectives on its nature and management
2. The objectives, parameters and significance of this research
3. The Pakistani education system with its historical, cultural, social and administrative background
4. The structure of the thesis

The construction of ‘change’ is a key issue in education and is a central issue in this study. Therefore, it is pertinent to situate the concept of educational change by mapping out the theorization of the concept of change in general and educational change in particular through the views of researchers and scholars in the field. In the following section, these theoretical perspectives have been used as frames to describe the implications of initiating and managing change in educational institutions and the issues of the reframing and multiple framing of change management perspectives have also been considered with reference to the existing literature. This argument has been extended to pull in these multiple perspectives to link them with some of the models or strategies for the management of change.

1.2 The concept of educational change

Altrichter (2000) has described educational change from different angles creating varied images for change. These images envisage change as a process or a product, the result of intentional processes or the consequence of unintentional processes, change may be individual or collective, may result in profound change or a partial change, may be a pattern of stages or just an event, may be locally and temporally or universally valid and may be gradual or abrupt. Thus, change is variable and Dawson (1994) has identified those factors that shape a particular change process as being: the substance (type and scale) of change, the politics (social conflicts, pressures, negotiation) of change and the context of change. If the conceptualizations of both Altricher on educational change and that of Dawson on general change are seen together, it can be concluded that the dynamics of the determinants of change (the substance, politics and context of change) create the specific image of change in a particular context. Apart from a series of images, change can also be perceived as a broad-spectrum term covering an extensive range of concepts related to development particularly, renewal, evolution and innovation. The expansiveness of the term ‘change’ makes it a complex phenomenon; as many researchers (Carnall, 1999; Law and Glover, 2000; Wendell
have pointed out change is not a routine, technical, purely linear and programmatic process rather it is a complex social phenomenon.

The idea that change is essentially a rational, technocratic activity which can be mandated, is clearly thought through and leads to measurable outcomes is one that has been increasingly challenged and found to be misleading (Law and Glover, 2000, p 128).

‘Change is ubiquitous’ (Altrichter, 2000 p 1) and the educational world is not an exception. It is also buzzing with the notion of ‘change’ and its ancillaries like improvement, effectiveness, reform and innovation are reiterated repeatedly in the discourses relating to both policy and practice. Further, if education is considered as an activity resulting in growth and improvement, it becomes a closely linked phenomenon with the concept of change. Change becomes an imperative (Cheng, 1996) when the aim of education is improvement: ‘A changing education system is inevitable’ as public and governmental perception about the educational priorities change with changing economic and market forces and ‘no change is not an option’ (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 77). Increasing social and cultural diversity alongside the demands for improvement in pupil attainment is intensifying the demand for change-

The strain on current systems arises from twin pressures. The first pressure is to ensure and demonstrate better attainment across all students and schools, and narrow the gap between the highest and lowest achieving students. The second pressure is to respond to the ever-growing range of need and demand, expressed as social and cultural diversity; changing students, family and employer expectation; growing economic inequality and geographical polarisation. The major challenge therefore is to build systems able to reflect the heterogeneity and diversity of the societies they serve, without sacrificing the quality of learning outcomes or the public fairness of their distribution (Bently, 2008, p 207).

Although social and technological changes demand a thorough and timely response from education systems (Stoll and Fink, 1996); change ‘may also arise from internally generated innovation’ (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 77). It can be initiated for various reasons such as ‘personal status [of those initiating or pressing for change]; bureaucratic self-interest; concerns to meet perceived but currently unmet needs; concerns to comply with external
pressures and so on’ (Law and Glover, 2000, p 133). Therefore, sources of educational change can be multiple including ‘new legislation, inspection, pressures from staff, parents and students, new technology development’ (Lumby, 1998, p 191).

Several researchers talk about change as superficial or deep. Change can be surface or structural (Kinsler and Gamble, 2001), ameliorated or radical (Romberg and Price, 1983), first order or second order change (Cuban, 1990). The ameliorative, surface or first order change does not affect the structures, roles and culture. However, the radical, deep and second order change focuses on goals, roles, structures and culture for transformation. ‘Real, sustained change, however, does not occur unless basic beliefs and assumptions also change’ (Finnan and Levin, 2000, p 90). This differentiation of superficial and cosmetic change from real and deep change has special implications for educational change. Fullan (1991) argues that an account of the sources and purposes of change is necessary to understand educational change and asserts that educational change is usually ‘first order’ focusing or improving the existing rather than ‘second order’ changing the basics. Second order change however, should not be an end itself. Hopkins (1994) has suggested school improvement approaches covering not only educational outcomes but also educational processes as the basis for a strategy for meaningful educational change when enhanced student achievement is the aim. This is an important aspect because educational processes are the means to raise the outcomes and to bring about the second order change, which is deep, meaningful and results in effective and sustainable practice.

1.2.1 Perspectives on educational change management

Whatever the source of the initiation of change it, in any case, ‘requires effective management’ (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 77). Those holding different views on the purposes of education and how it should be managed to achieve these, see the concept of the management of change in education differently. These perspectives and their implications for the study of educational change can be analysed from different angles. The analysis of theory on schools as organizations can be one approach for such an investigation. When seen from the organizational point of view, which emphasizes simple rationalistic models of management and organizations, change is like working towards a known end in a predictable
environment. So from the rational or classic perspective, schools are seen to function as structuralist, functional bureaucratic establishments, termed the standard model of schooling by Sawyer (2008, p 47), which is ‘structured, scheduled and regimented’. Bennett et al (1992) have also discussed this approach as scientific or model A where organizations work on rationality, control and segmentation of the work. When they applied this concept of organizational models to the education system, they came up with two approaches: the structural approach and the interpersonal approach. The structural approach uses the ideas of model ‘A’ and the interpersonal approach works on the political/micro-political model wherein organizations are seen as a web of conflict and power struggles and negotiation. The scientific or ‘A’ model of schooling assumes education as transmission of facts and procedures to students by teachers so that they can be prepared to play their role in the industrialized economy, and this was especially true in the early 20th century. From this perspective, educational change can be very linear, planned, documented and a controllable process which can be completed with strategic planning. Law and Glover (2000) also incorporate the same ideas when they write about the organizational models in relation to perspectives on the change process. They argue that organisations comprise structures and culture in which people do tasks with the help of technology and control. They discuss two organizational models: the systems (also described as scientific or structural or classical or bureaucratic) model and the cultural model. The systems approach is based on bureaucratic, hierarchical and rigid organizational structures, is considered logical, rational and is complemented by the use of quantifiable data in the course of the input/output linear process of operation.

This approach has been criticized for its linear, ‘tidy’ and inflexible nature as it ‘assumes tidiness in organizational relations, goals and structures which does not necessarily exist’ (Law and Glover, 2000, p 114). In addition, the increased understanding of the importance of the specific organizational context has also put this approach in question and criticism comes from those who see change management as a complex and dynamic process like Pettigrew (1985) who generated a context sensitive ‘processual’ model of change. Collins (1998) has also criticised schematic change models which present ‘rational analysis of organizational change, a sequential approach to the planning and management of change and a generally up-beat and prescriptive tone’ (p 84) and has termed these models as ‘under-socialized ones’. According to Collins (1998, p 90)
In the real world where social factors such as control, emotion, politicking and human interpretation are allowed to intrude, we must acknowledge that, even with careful planning we could not hope to control the aims, ideas, needs, drives and attitudes of others with regard to our cherished plan for the future. The processes of change, therefore, are more complex and far less manageable than the rationalist approaches to change management.

The cultural approach is more humanistic and subjective in the perspective adopted to examine organizations. Here the attitudes and perceptions of those involved are the focus of organizational structure and culture. As every school is a distinctive organization with its own workforce determining its particular culture, so flexible structures are needed to accommodate this cultural picture. This cultural change model was focused on by the early theorists like Bennis (1969) who stressed that the ‘only viable way to change organizations is to change their culture’ (p. v) through the ‘socio-technical’ (p 80) approach to change. Chin and Benne’s (1969, p47) normative-re-educative model of change also encompasses ‘sociotechnical’ (p 47) aspects of changing systems. Bennett et al (1992) propagated the same perspective while presenting ‘collegialism’ as a comparable model of educational organizations. A collegial model stresses shared decision-making, co-operation and holism. Hargreaves (1992) produced a critique of this model; there is risk of contrived collegiality, which can be used as a tool in the structural-political perspective.

To this point, we have considered change as a technical process and change as a socio-political process. However, wider influences have added complexity to the idea of educational change. The late 20th century saw a social transformation of industrial economy into knowledge economy. In the last decade of the century, a realisation of the need to align schooling with social change became evident in the literature on schooling and change (Hargreaves, 2003; Breiter, 2002 and Sawyer, 2006 as quoted in Sawyer, 2008). Post modernists see schools working within the framework of chaos or complexity theory in which truths or realities are always changing in an unpredictable way. From this perspective, linear or planned change with a predictable course is not feasible. ‘Educational change is technically simple and socially complex’ and ‘educational change is a learning experience for the adults involved….as well as children’ (Fullan, 1992 p109 italics in the original). This
social complexity affects and alters any set prescription of change (Hopkins, 1994). So post modernists who view schools as open systems conceptualise change as an unpredictable and chaotic process (Fullan, 1993) which cannot be guided by pre-planned and well-prepared techniques. Hopkins et al (1994, p 14) call this ‘unpredictable and all pervasive’ change, systemic change. In this way, no single change theory model, policy or practice can fit all the schools with their particular organizational set ups and situations. From this perspective, the implementation of educational change cannot be a transmission instead it needs to be constructed as a transformation (McLaughlin, 1987) as it involves the behaviours and beliefs of people about what they do and what they think about the change (Fullan, 1992). Thus, ‘change is about altering both practice and organization and individuals’ perceptions about their roles and responsibilities’ (Bennett et al, 1992, p 10). Sergiovanni (2001) terms these norms and perceptions of values, purposes and commitments the ‘cultural cement’ (p 6) needed to tie parts together for harmonious functioning. Therefore, deep, true and sustainable change can only be ensured through a cultural transformation of attitudes, behaviours and beliefs.

Change is not just about the creation of new policies and procedures to implement external mandates. It is also about the development of personal strategies by individuals to respond to, and seek to influence the impact of, structural and cultural change: personal change as well as organisational change (Bennett et al, 1992, p 2).

House (1981) has categorized these perspectives on educational change differently and his categories are comparable with the organizational framework to be used in the process of reframing by Bolman and Deal (2008). House gave three perspectives namely: technological perspective; political perspective; cultural perspective and Bolman and Deal (2008) gave comparable frames as structural, political and symbolic with the addition of the human resource frame, which have also been elaborated on by Dalin (1993) as perspectives on the management of educational change. Bolman and Deal (2008) describe these frames as:

**The Structural Frame:** The structural frame emphasizes the importance of formal roles and relationships in the framework of structures, rules, roles and responsibilities. In the organizations, there are rules, policies, and management hierarchies to coordinate diverse activities. From this perspective, any change disturbs the clarity and stability of roles and relationships necessitating realignment and renegotiation of formal patterns and policies.
Problems may arise when the new structure does not fit the situation. At that point, some form of further reorganization is needed to remedy the mismatch.

**The Human Resource Frame:** The human resource frame focuses on people and assumes that individuals who work in organizations have needs, feelings, and prejudices. They have both strengths and limitations. They have a great capacity to learn, as well as to defend old attitudes and beliefs. The change causes people to feel incompetent, needy, and powerless. Therefore, developing new skills, creating opportunities for involvement, and providing psychological support are essential during a change process so that people are mobilised to achieve the objectives of the particular change project and feel good about what they are doing.

**The political frame:** The political frame views organizations as rife with competition for power and scarce resources and conflict due to the differences in needs, perspectives, and lifestyles among various individuals and interest groups. Bargaining, negotiation, oppression, and compromise are all part of everyday organizational life. Change generates conflict and creates the need for the reallocation of resources and power shifts. Managing change requires the creation of forums where issues can be negotiated. The concentration of power in appropriate places or the wide dispersion of power may cause problems. In such cases, solutions should also be developed through political skills and acumen.

**The symbolic frame:** The symbolic frame treats organizational cultures as driven more by rituals, ceremonies, stories, heroes, and myths than by rules, politics, and managerial authority. In the organizational theatre, drama is acted out by many actors inside the organization, while outside audiences form impressions based on what they see occurring onstage. The symbolic framework also brings home the issue that change can create a loss of meaning and purpose. People form attachments to specific symbols and symbolic activity. When the attachments are severed, they face trouble in letting go. Part of the change process is to create new meanings and new symbolic frameworks.

While giving an overview of theories of change Dalin (2005) declared Paulston’s (1976) work entitled *Conflicting Theories of Social and Educational Change* as a further step in discussion of theoretical frameworks after Chin and Benne’s (1969) theorization on change. Paulston has grouped a number of theories of change into two broad philosophical
perspectives, namely the equilibrium paradigm and conflict paradigm. Under the umbrella of equilibrium paradigm, he grouped the evolutionary, neo-evolutionary, structural-functional and system theories based on the commonality of views related to social and educational development. From these perspectives, development is a gradual process, education and social development go together, and a state of equilibrium is to be maintained in the process. Therefore, change in education is linked with and dependent on change in society. The conflict paradigm includes Marxist, cultural reform, conflict and anarchy theories. There are differences between these as Marxists stress upon the economic conflict while cultural reformers focus on the values conflict. Conflict theorists emphasize power struggles in society and anarchists highlight the conflict due to oppressed institutions. All these schools of thought see schools as arena of conflicts, manipulations, exploitations and power struggles so educational change is a tool used by the powerful and influential to align society with their interests.

Other theories of change have focussed on the extent of change. Hopkins et al (1994) have categorized different approaches to educational change as adoptive and adaptive. Adoptive approaches are top down and assume change to be linear and externally motivated. Therefore, it requires the adoption of certain practices, ways and devices. Fullan (1992) has used the term ‘adoptive’ for the educational reforms introduced in 1960 when changes were introduced and adopted without considering ‘why’ it was necessary to change. The adaptive approaches are responsive to the context, culture and environment in which change is introduced. With this approach to change management, there is a structural flexibility in the reform to adapt according to the situation and requirements of the context.

Hoban (2002) proposed another way of categorizing models of change: as the mechanistic approach and systems thinking approach based on the complexity view. According to him, the mechanistic approach takes a fragmented view of the independent segments of the education process. It perceives teaching as a repertoire of skills and techniques, takes teacher learning as the addition to the existing repertoire and knowledge, and assumes the change process a scientific one based on presentation of new ideas and their implementation supported with money and materials. On the other hand, the complexity theory of change encompasses the multidimensionality and non-linearity of educational change and perceives teaching as an art and a dynamic process sensitive to context and environment. It takes
teaching as part of the complexity and endeavours to create a fit among various elements such as curriculum, teaching, assessment, students, parents and societal expectations and the available resources. All these elements work as a system so educational change has to be based on systems thinking and strive to integrate and synergize all elements of the system. This approach shares features of cultural and adaptive approaches but has an added dimension of being holistic.

Though theorists have used different terms to describe perspectives and models of change management, there are some common points of reference to place them into two broader categories. The following table summarizes the ideas presented by different scholars and researchers by placing their models into these two broad categories.

Table 1.1 The categorization of approaches to educational change management in relation to theoretical perspectives on schools as organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Scientific/structuralist/classic</th>
<th>Humanist/cultural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paulston (1976 as cited in Dalin, 2005)</td>
<td>Equilibrium paradigm</td>
<td>Conflict paradigm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Glover (2000)</td>
<td>Scientific/structuralist/classical or bureaucratic approach</td>
<td>Cultural approach</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After reading through this plethora of perspectives on organizations in general and their impact on educational change in particular, there is the question that which is the best perspective to conceptualise change and particularly educational change. Some researchers suggest a mix and match policy. Bolman and Deal (2008) do not make their four frameworks
mutually exclusive; they assert rather the matching or even mixing the frames with change in the situation because different frames can provide different lenses to examine different dimensions of the change. Engeström (2008) has also asserted ‘we need more lenses than one to look at and design change’ (p 380). While discussing the ideas of different theorists in relation to technical, political and cultural theories of educational change, Hopkins et al (1994) emphasize that, ‘the important point is that no one perspective has a monopoly of the truth’ (p 35) and instead stress ‘a holistic overview’ of all the perspectives. Law and Glover (2000) assert that, ‘In effect, both scientific and human approaches can be found in most organizations, reflected through organizational structure (i.e. roles and responsibilities) as well as organizational culture (i.e. the level of interaction and collaboration’ (p 115). When both these approaches co-exist in schools as organizations then addressing only one side of organizational reality in the management of change through only a scientific and structural perspective or an interpersonal and collegial perspective will be an imbalanced design. Here the point of caution urged by various theorists is again to adopt a wider point of view avoiding any prescription, which concentrates on one or two aspects of the organization. The approach can be decided from case to case basis for every organization in relation to the day-to-day circumstances of the particular organization.

In summary: the approaches and theories of educational change management are grounded in the conception of educational systems and institutions as one form of an organizational establishment or another. There are two broader perspectives on the organizational set up which cover different approaches to educational change management, either the scientific or classical approach or humanistic or cultural approach. The former paradigm inclines towards structuralist and mechanistic approaches envisioning change as a transmission process comprising instructions to be followed for the achievement of predetermined objectives while the former leans towards cultural and incremental dimensions of change, which is sensitive to the values, feelings, aspirations and contexts involved in the process.

This theoretical framework of the change in general and educational change in particular provides the backdrop for the research against which the specific contours of the study can be presented. In the following sections, these specific features of the investigation have been
presented including the overview of the research with its objectives, limitations and significance and a discussion of the Pakistani education system, specifically its historical and structural contexts.

1.3 Overview of the study

This research is an exploration of the phenomenon of the management of an externally mandated educational change in Pakistan through the experiences and views of educators in the institutions. To provide participants of the research project a specific point of reference to reflect upon their practice and opinions, a specific reform initiative has been selected for the investigation. This specific initiative is the change in the curriculum and assessment system in the subject areas of English language, Urdu language and Pakistan Studies at higher secondary level, which is called Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) in Pakistan. The focus on this initiative has provided an opportunity to explore: the reception of change by the educators in the institutions; change processes deployed in the institutions; the impact of these processes on teacher practice and pupil learning; the implementation of change at the institutional and classroom level noting potential challenges and areas for support; and the suggestions for improvement in the process of change management. An important aspect is the exploration of views of firstly, school leaders and secondly, teachers regarding the factors related to the implementation process of this change in their respective institutions. The issues examined in the study were:

- the perception of head teachers and teachers as regards to their attitudes towards change
- the strategies used to take the change programme forward from the policy to the practice at the classroom level
- the current provision for teacher training, teachers’ preparedness to take the change forward, the availability and effectiveness of resources including the access and availability of teaching materials and other relevant resources for teachers
- the challenges and problems faced by the institutions, teachers and students and support available in the process of taking the change forward
- suggestions for improvement in the process of change implementation based on the perceptions and experiences of firstly, institution heads and secondly, teachers in the course of the specific reform under study and also on reforms of a similar nature possible in future
1.3.1 Objectives of the study

- To study the implementation of educational change in Pakistan
- To explore and analyze the views of institution heads and teachers involved in the implementation regarding the management of educational change
- To pinpoint the problem areas and available strengths in the implementation process of the educational change
- To create a contextualized emergent model for educational change management for Pakistan derived from the experiences and views of educators involved in the reform implementation process
- To situate the specific Pakistani model in the wider global research and theory context while highlighting its particular facets

1.3.2 Limitations of the study

The research has been limited to

- The curriculum change (syllabus and assessment) since 2002 in three subject areas of English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies at HSSC level
- The educational institutions affiliated with the public examination authority of Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (FBISE)
- The educational institutions located in Rawalpindi and Islamabad

1.3.3 Significance of the study

This research was initiated not only to satisfy personal inquisitiveness of the researcher about the recent change initiative in Pakistan, but also to provide much-needed research to fill in the gaps in the research from the Pakistani context. The development of an emergent contextualized model of educational change management emanating from the experiences and opinions of those who are responsible for implementing the reforms in schools and classrooms is a purposeful and well grounded research project, which will not only contribute to the process of change management in Pakistani education but also contribute an additional perspective to the existing knowledge in the field. Though the scale of the research is
relatively small, it is hoped to provide a basis for further investigations in the field especially for researchers interested in working in the Pakistani context or for comparative studies.

1.4 An introduction to the Pakistani education system

As this research study explores the implementation process of educational change into a particular segment of the Pakistani education system, it would be pertinent to introduce the broader historical and structural context of the system to situate the parameters of the research.

Pakistan came into existence in 1947 when liberated from the British colonial rule of the Sub Continent of India. Initially it was a large country comprising two wings East and West. The East wing sought separation in 1971 and became the independent country of Bangladesh. Present day Pakistan comprises four provinces; Baluchistan, Punjab, Sindh and Khyber Pukhtunkha (Old North West Frontier Province, NWFP) and two federally administered territories namely FATA (Federally Administered Tribal Areas) and FANA (Federally Administered Northern Areas). It is situated between India on its East and South, China on northeast, Afghanistan on northwest and Iran on its West. Urdu is the national language but English as the official language of the government is used in all written official work. Along with these two languages, four main provincial languages with a number of further dialects are spoken and used in day-to-day communications. 97% of its population of 177 million is Muslim by religion and mainly Hindus, Christians, and Parsis represent rest of the 3%. The constitutional political system is parliamentary democracy but for the major part of its existence, Pakistan has been ruled by unconstitutional army dictators. The resilience of its democratic minded people has succeeded in restoring the democracy many times, but the military of Pakistan is so well entrenched in the corridors of powers that elected democratic governments have never been allowed to complete their tenure and have been rolled back by army coups. This situation has affected the consistency and continuity of civil society friendly public services in all sectors including education, which in turn has hampered the pace of development in the country.

The education sector has been adversely affected by the dictatorial manipulations (Ahmed, 2004; Esposito, 1987; Kennedy and Lee, 2008) and frequent policy changes because democratic governments are frequently overturned. As Nayyar and Salim (2002, p i) argue,
'In the educational sphere, this amounted to a distorted narration of history, factual inaccuracies, inclusion of hate material, a disproportionate inclusion of Islamic studies in other disciplines, glorification of war and the military, gender bias, etc’. The toll of this state of affairs has resulted in poor development of education evident through one of the lowest educational achievement statistics in the world and the growth of conservative and rigid worldview of a large segment of the society in the absence of environments that could nurture free thought and critical minds. Despite these problems, the educational system in Pakistan has sustained itself on its long historical strengths built upon centuries of learning and wisdom.

1.4.1 Historical context

‘Confucian academies, Buddhist viharas, Hindu asramas, Islamic maktabs and madrasahs, all provide evidence of the importance of learning and education in the history of Asian societies’ (Kennedy and Lee, 2008, p 9). In this background enriched with learning, Pakistan is situated on the land of one the earliest civilizations of the world i.e. Indus Valley Civilization and the great Gandhara civilization. The present Pakistani territory was the passageway for invaders from different directions and different nations including Greeks, Afghans, Mongols and Arabs. Cultural imprints of all these nations left a mark in the political, cultural as well as social systems of the region including the education system (Ali and Farah, 2007). Ancient Aryan caste structures restricted learning systems but more open and inclusive Buddhist educational traditions can be traced down into the annals of history. With the arrival of Islam ‘Islam’s unique emphasis on the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, coupled with the Muslim rulers’ keen personal interest toward education and with liberal state patronage of learning, led to a rapid expansion of education in practically all parts of the subcontinent’ (Rauf, 1960, p 14; Khalid and Khan,2006). This democratic Muslim education system remained active with official patronage in the form of ‘Maktab’ (mosque schools) and ‘Madrassas’, till the Colonial takeover of the Sub Continent by the British. The British Imperialistic Raj tried to give an alternative modern English education system. As a result the state support for madrassa was withdrawn notwithstanding that this was a well developed education system in a variety of subjects areas like ‘rhetoric, grammar, logic, geometry, algebra, astronomy, natural philosophy, medicine, theology and poetry’ (Curle, 1966: p 65). The English education was initially viewed as a foreign design to distort the local identity but was later on adopted vastly by the urban population though madrassa education remained a popular stream of education in rural areas. Watson (1982) has referred
to the many researchers and historians who have criticized the imperialistic British Raj for ignoring the educational needs of the masses under its rule by providing quantitatively insufficient and qualitatively lower educational facilities. Ali and Farah (2007, p 153) have supported the argument about the neglect of educational needs of the population by the British rulers. In their view, the British had no intention ‘to establish mass education system’ the policy of educating the higher classes resulted in neglect of education of the masses (Baloch, 2003). However, the British government established a few elite educational institutions and some general education institutions for the wider public in urban areas and an urban/rural and elite/general divide of educated population resulted from this education system. Therefore, when the British left the sub-continent, a limited but established education system was in place with local variations to the system, structure, curriculum and methodologies in different parts of the country. Pakistan inherited this colonial tradition and structure of the education system at its inception in 1947, which has been carried through until very recent times.

In addition to the secular British education system, the traditional Islamic madrassas, which existed before the liberation of Pakistan, have continued to function throughout Pakistani history. These madrassas had a limited role of mainly producing local prayer leaders and preparing ambitious and devout individuals to aspire to renowned Islamic learning centres in Arab countries to pursue Islamic scholarship and become religious scholars. Historically the curricular tradition in madrassa education has been a curriculum restricted to religious subjects. The focus of studies was the reading, memorising, translating and later reading exegesis of the Holy Quran. Another main component of curriculum is the study of Sunnah (sayings and actions of Holy Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon Him)). A major transformation in this system came during the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 when these madrassas prepared the soldiers for guerrilla war in the neighbourhood against mighty Russia (Thomas, 2006; Andrabi et al, 2007). It was the time when the philosophy of Jihad (Holy war against non-believers) was infused heavily through the syllabus of these madrassas to motivate the students to join war against infidels (Khan, 1985; Yasmeen, 2003). This new and strong component of jihad in the curriculum was politically motivated. However, it was not diffused even after it had served its purpose and the war was over (Gardner, 2005). Initially the students, ‘Taliban’, continued their struggle for power in war torn Afghanistan against other warlords and succeeded in gaining power in 1996. They established a
government with a focus on a fundamentalist version of Islam under the patronage of Saudi Conservative Wahabism (Gardner, 2005; Thomas, 2006). After the 9/11 attacks and American War in Afghanistan, madrassa education has been a focus of discussions internationally (Kadi, 2007).

With a changed global scenario, an educational reform package has been initiated in Pakistan since 2001 and a component of this package is the revamping of madrassa education by curtailing the element of jihad from its curriculum (Gardner, 2005). Though other components of the educational reform package related to the public education system have been initiated, the challenge to revamp madrassa education has not reached even the initiation stage due to tough resistance put up by the religious right. However, the programmes of reform have had an impact on other sectors in the education system in Pakistan.

1.4.2 The current educational provision

The administrative structure in Pakistan like many countries of the developing world follows a ‘pyramid model’ (Chapman, 2008). In this layout, the education system is set up at national, provincial, district and local levels. Like many other Asian countries (Kennedy and Lee, 2008, p 91) with a ‘highly centralized approach to the determination of the school curriculum’, in Pakistan also, the Federal Government, at the national level is constitutionally bound to develop the infrastructure for education and to plan and set out national policies and national curriculum to be followed across the country. The Federal Government’s role is extended to the implementation of policies beyond four provinces in federal territory, Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), Northern Areas, Azad Jammu and Kashmir. These functions of the Federal Government are carried out through the administrative set up in the Ministry of Education. Geographically and politically Pakistan is divided into four administrative divisions called provinces, so at provincial level the administrative functions are carried out by the Education Department of each province. These departments function through education foundations, directorates, boards and bureaus for the different types and levels of education. These departments administer the human resource of educational institutions and provide the infrastructure. At the district level, the district government has the responsibility of education up to college level (State of Education in Pakistan 2003-2004,
District-level education directorates are only administrative units working under the policy control of provincial and national bodies.

**Educational streams.** There are mainly three streams in the education system in Pakistan—public, private and religious (Islamic Madrassas). Figure 1.1 maps out some of the key features of each.

**Public Education**
- Publically funded
- Nominal fee
- Enrolments mostly from low socio-economic backgrounds especially at lower levels of education
- Centralized curriculum
- Centralized public examination at different levels

**Private Education**
- Privately owned by individuals or organizations/trusts mostly as business concerns
- Fee usually much higher than public schools
- Enrolments from middle to high socio-economic classes for different institutions
- Decentralized curriculum except for students preparing for public examinations
- Public/external examinations from England

**Madrassa Education**
- Privately owned
- Privately funded through donations
- No fee and free food and boarding
- Enrolments from lowest socio-economic backgrounds
- No regulations for curriculum, teaching or examinations in general
- Some madrassa affiliation boards for examination and curriculum regulations

Figure 1.1 Educational streams in Pakistan

These three streams are distinct from one another based on curricula taught, teaching methodologies used, fee structure, enrolment clientele and sponsorship. The public schools are funded by the government with a nominal fee charged. The enrolment for these schools, especially in the rural area primary schools, comes predominantly from the poor and lower middle socio-economic classes of the society. The curriculum is centralized and prescribed by the government, which includes secular subjects as language learning, mathematics, science and religious education in the form of Islamic studies. The medium of instruction is Urdu with an exception of a very small number of English medium urban elite schools. The
quality of education is generally considered, and indeed has been assessed, to be very low by national and international organizations and researchers (Thomas, 2006). This situation has been described as ‘failure’ by Hoodbhoy, (1998, p 5). Retallick and Datoo (2006, p 3) have cited Bregman and Mohammad, (1998) to review factors contributing to this situation. According to them along with low governmental funding for education the other factors are:

- political and bureaucratic interference (e.g. staff transfers, lack of merit based appointments, corruption in contract awarding);
- lack of accountability and sound management practice;
- lack of internationally comparative learning outcome standards (i.e. curriculum and assessment);
- and lack of high quality teacher and staff training.

The private schools, with varying categories of quality, have mushroomed in both rural and urban areas and in general and are perceived to provide a comparatively better quality of education than the public schools. In reality, some of those charging a low fee are no better than the government schools as far as the quality of educational achievement is concerned, yet they certainly provide a better infrastructure and facilities to the students. The upper middle and the higher socio-economic classes of the society attend the high fee charging schools. Among them, those at the lower side of fees structure teach in English, follow the British school curriculum, and even conduct the external examinations of Cambridge University and London University. They have a more comprehensive, flexible and autonomous curriculum including secular subjects but also with the subject of Islamic studies, which has been made compulsory by the Pakistani educational authorities for the equivalence of the degree purposes. In this system, conceptual and critical thinking skills are encouraged through its provision. Within this class of schools is another group of international schools, which charge very high fees and are attended by the children of foreign diplomats and the elite of the society. The quality of education provided and the curriculum taught in these are comparable with the schools of Western developed English speaking countries.

The third stream of schools is Islamic madrassas, which provide education to millions of young people. According to an estimate by Ministry of Religious Affairs, there are around 12,500 madrassas in Pakistan providing religious education to around 1,685,000 students.
These are private institutions established by either an individual religious scholar or a group of such scholars from a particular Islamic sect funded ‘by politically and religiously motivated governments and groups’ (Kadi, 2007, p 15). The funding comes not through fees as almost all madrassas provide not only free education but also free food and boarding as well. The source of funding is donations from rich locals and some rich Islamic countries who patronize madrassas established to promote their sect in religion (they include oil rich Persian-Gulf states as quoted in Thomas, 2006). Most madrassas have a restricted curriculum based on religious studies. The ‘closed’ nature of the madrassa community isolates both students and teachers from knowledge of the wider world as ‘despite state intervention, the curricula is still based on traditional literature and teaching methods’ (The International Crisis Group, 2002, p 3). The curriculum offered there is undeveloped and pertains mostly to religious instruction. Some of the books taught, including Mathematics, date back hundreds of years. The result is the madrassa graduates simply cannot compete against others for employment in the job market.

There are some significant differences between these three streams in Pakistani education publically funded, private and madrassa provision. However, while there are strong parallels in private and publically funded streams in curriculum and assessment, there is a very different curriculum, as we have seen, in the madrassa provision. Therefore, the focus for this study is on the publically funded and private streams. We will now examine these in more detail along with an outline of higher education in Pakistan.

1.4.3 The structure of education system

The mainstream education system (public and private sectors) is divided into three main levels of education. The primary level at which seven years of schooling is given to the children of the age group 4-11 in primary schools. Secondary education for the age group 11-18 is completed in seven years in three cycles: the middle school for three years, secondary school for two years and higher secondary school education for two years. After secondary education higher education starts comprising two or four years for graduation and two years for master’s degree. This structure of the system has been inherited from the British education system in the colonial period and maintained since independence.
At the secondary level, students make their broader subject choices from three general groups i.e. Science group, Commerce and Arts/Humanities group. These choices become more career specific in higher secondary level because after completing this level, many students join professional colleges to study engineering, medical, business studies, accounting or fine arts for graduation. Some students continue in general education for graduation and post graduation in the subjects of their choice. The selection of the group of subjects and then the profession is decided mainly on the performance of students in public examinations, which are held at different levels. Figure 1.2 gives an overview of this structure:

**Examination system**: The external public examination system generally starts at secondary level with the examination called SSC (Secondary School Certificate) and the results become the criterion for admission in higher secondary schools and colleges. This impact is further enhanced as in these institutions the subject options, which affect career choices later are linked with the performance in the SSC examination. After two years of higher secondary education, students are presented for another public examination, which is called HSSC (Higher Secondary School Certificate). The achievement in this examination determines
which professional college or general education college or university students can join. Regional boards called BISE (Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education) arrange both of these examinations (SSC and HSSC). The private institutions also register with the local examination board in order to present their students in public examinations at different levels. Some elite private schools offer their student presentations in Cambridge or London university external examinations at school level and devise their own examination or assessment structures for higher education. In public sector higher education, a good level of achievement in the graduation examination is the prerequisite for continuation of education at postgraduate level. The National Bureau of Curriculum in the Ministry of Education administers the development and design of National Curriculum up to secondary school level, while textbooks are developed and published by provincial textbook boards in all four provinces and these textbooks are used for teaching as well as the setting of papers for the public examinations.

**Higher Education**: The universities, professional colleges, and general colleges either affiliated to or a part of the different universities, provide higher education. Universities are autonomous bodies chartered by central or provincial parliaments. They have their own governing bodies such as academic councils, syndicates and senates. The required control for quality assurance, training, professional development and support for research and development is provided through HEC (Higher Education Commission).

This overview of the Pakistani education system provides the broader historical, cultural and structural canvas not only to situate this research study but also to give an idea of the existing diversity within the country’s perspective. This consciousness is essential from the onset to admit that in the global context, this investigation hopes to provide a Pakistani perspective on the phenomenon of education change management, but within the country’s context. Thus, the focus of the study is on one particular context among a number of different educational settings in Pakistan.

**1.5 Structure of the thesis**

After this introductory part on the background, objectives and significance of the research study itself and the phenomena as well as the education system it aims to explore, the thesis
moves into the literature review on educational change, its management and role of educational leadership and teachers in the process. The organization of the literature review in chapter 2 has been ordered thus: starting with the theoretical perspectives on educational change with reference to the conception of the activity of teaching and the role of teachers, leading the discussion into frameworks, stages and strategies in the process of change management, the agendas for educational change to differentiate internal and external reforms and some pitfalls for large-scale reforms, the presentation of peculiar challenges for educational change management in the Pakistani education system in general and the Education Sector Reforms (ESR) programme in particular. The next part, chapter 3 in the thesis, reviews literature on the role of educational leadership in the management of change by presenting the concept and models of leadership and then specifically leadership and strategic leadership for educational change management. Chapter 4 presents the methodology of the research by covering the research design, methods, instruments, population, sampling and the process of the research. The next three chapters present the analyses of data generated from three phases of the research. Chapter 5 deals with the analysis of data from semi-structured interviews with institution leaders leading the discussion into the concept of strategic management of educational change. Chapter 6 puts forward the analysis of data from exploratory questionnaires with teachers and chapter 7 presents analysis of data from the structured questionnaires with teachers with a concluding summary of issues emerging across three sets of data. The three chapters (5, 6, and 7) on the presentation and analysis of data start with the plan for data analysis leading into the analysis and then concluding with a summary and the prominent emergent themes. Chapter 8 synthesizes this analysis of data in order to identify the emerging themes by first comparing the data from teachers and school leaders and then developing an emergent model of educational change management. From this then the argument is developed to situate the emergent model within the existing research literature but also highlighting the specificity of the Pakistani contexts and the way in which this model of change is appropriate. The thesis ends with recommendations for the future research.
Chapter 2  Educational Change

This chapter links the theoretical framework of change and change management presented in section 1.2 in the previous chapter to a more focused construction of the implementation process of change, its dynamics with a particular reference to the conception of teaching and the significance of teacher’s role in the management of change. The chapter starts with the implications of varying conceptions of teaching for the choice of educational change management strategy. The subsequent part of the chapter describes the significance of teacher’s role in the management and especially the implementation of the educational change with specific reference to their involvement and learning and development in the process and implications for their professionalism. The chapter also considers a number of issues related to the management of educational change. The discussion is then focused on those aspects of educational change management that are relevant to this research study. To start with, the stages in the process of change have been elaborated on through the research literature and then a number of different discussions about the reaction to change have been presented. Throughout these sections, change has been examined firstly, as a general concept and then has been linked to educational change in particular. This extensive discussion of different theories and models of educational change and strategies for the implementation process reflects how it can inform the practice of educational reform. As the change initiative under study is an externally mandated large-scale reform effort, the discussion then touches on some pitfalls of such reform programmes highlighted by renowned theorists in the field of educational change. This in then followed by a more focused discussion of the issues related to educational change in the Pakistani context. The last section of this chapter describes the multiplicity of agendas for educational change in different parts of the world in order to situate the issues related to the Pakistani education system and the ESR programme.

2.1 Educational Change and Teaching

Bascia and Hargreaves (2000) have used different constructions of teaching to analyze the underpinnings of educational change management. They identify four conceptions of teaching namely: technical, intellectual, socio-emotional and socio-political, which are touched in different educational change initiatives. A technical perspective on teaching assumes teachers as technicians who can be trained on best practices for their job. Therefore, the pedagogy can be prescribed through policy so that students experience a uniform
approach based on the most effective strategies. These assumptions result in reforms where teaching practice is to be changed by compulsion and regulated through in-service training, supervision and evaluations. The criticism on this perspective is that mandated pedagogies are limited in their effectiveness in bringing improvement to the higher order and complex aspects of teaching though this approach to change might be useful in developing some basic skills. Overall, however this is a limited approach because these mandated pedagogies tend to focus only on the technical dimensions of teaching and are unable to touch on the vast and indeed major part of teaching, that is, the interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions. Therefore, the technical approach to educational reform has serious limitations if pursued alone, but mixing it appropriately with other approaches can create a comprehensive vision for reform.

The intellectual conception of teaching assumes teachers’ work is based on ‘intellectual sources of knowledge, expertise, reflection, research and continuous learning’ (Bascia and Hargreaves, 2000, p 7). Therefore, any reform initiative focusing on the intellectual practices of teaching seeks to bring about teacher professional development by involving them in the process of curriculum development. Bascia and Hargreaves point out that intellectual development is usually not supported in educational reform efforts, as it consumes more time and resource even when evidence indicates its utmost importance. The socioemotional conception of teaching includes the technical and intellectual aspects of teaching but goes beyond this to include the emotional aspects as well. Teaching is seen as an emotional practice infused with emotions, which can create commitment and enthusiasm on the part of the teachers, but can create stress and tension in others. Political reform agendas usually ignore the emotional side of teaching. Nevertheless, policies, structures and practices put teachers at the ‘sharp end of change’ (Bascia and Hargreaves, 2000, p 20). It happens when teachers are pushed into the high demands of change agenda with no room for their personal purposes, inclusion and sufficient support, time and resources. Such reform strategies influence the attitudes of teachers, leading them to focus on the negative aspects of the change rather than see the new possibilities. This situation results in pressure on teachers to manage their emotions and relationships along with implementing a compulsory, imposed change. Sociopolitical conceptions of teaching envision teaching as a political activity with the interaction of people in classrooms, schools and communities within the decision-making processes. The change agenda that acknowledges the political aspect of teaching engage
teachers in collaborative decision making at school and system level. Nevertheless, most of the governmental educational reforms are not designed to empower teachers ‘never mind students’; rather they create powerlessness among teachers.

When teaching is conceptualised as a technical, intellectual, socioemotional or sociotechnical activity, the role of teacher and the activity of teaching assume different interpretations, which in turn have different implications for the process of educational change initiation and implementation. In the field of practice, these categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive but they contain very significant meanings for the model or perspective on the management of educational change. The following table illustrates how these four standpoints on the conception of teaching affect the perception of the role of the teacher, the activity of teaching and the process of educational change.

**Table 2.1Framing educational change in the backdrop of different theories on teaching**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective of teaching</th>
<th>Technical</th>
<th>Intellectual</th>
<th>Socioemotional</th>
<th>Sociopolitical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher is</td>
<td>a technician</td>
<td>reflective, expert professional</td>
<td>having emotions and affecting emotions in others</td>
<td>political actor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching is</td>
<td>transmission of knowledge in one best way</td>
<td>highly complex and intellectually challenging activity</td>
<td>emotional labour</td>
<td>sociopolitical work in classrooms, negotiated with schools, communities, and in decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Reform/ change</td>
<td>should be mandated and regulated on teachers</td>
<td>should involve teachers for their intellectual development</td>
<td>should support positive emotional labour of teachers</td>
<td>should include teachers in decision making about educational issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When seen from the purely educational point of view, these perspectives on change management are shaped by the conception of teaching and the role of teacher. When teaching is perceived as a technical activity and the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge, the classic
and structuralist approach for change management comes in the play. On the other hand, when teaching is seen as intellectually complex, emotionally laden or a politically sensitive activity with the teacher playing the role of a professional, emotional and political negotiator, the humanistic and cultural approaches are more suitable for the management of change.

This discussion of varying strategies of educational change management in relation to different conceptions of teaching does not imply mutual exclusiveness or preference for a particular approach. Bascia and Hargreaves (2000) argue that teaching is at the same time technical, intellectual, socioemotional and sociopolitical activity and if reform addresses just one perspective, it does not mean that other aspects lie dormant rather these dynamics intervene in the process.

The next section of the chapter elaborates on the role of teachers, as the practitioners in the field and the implementers of the change at the classroom level. This extensive discussion has added significance because teachers are the key implementers of educational reforms focused on in this study and so they are also key participants in the research. Therefore, the discussion, though emanating from the theoretical perspectives presented in the foregoing argument developed in sections 1.2 and 2.1 as well as substantiated with empirical evidence, will be developed with special reference to the research study. Accordingly, it is appropriate to state from the onset, the following section on the role of teachers in the management and implementation of educational change has been designed not only to add to the theoretical framework of the study but also to include ideas on the role of teachers in the educational change programme under study and to provide a justification for teachers’ inclusion in the investigation and its implications for the data.

2.2 Educational change and the role of teachers

The critical role of teachers in the teaching and learning process makes them one of the most important stakeholders in the education system. As any change in education ultimately aims to affect the process of teaching and learning it will, therefore, directly affect teachers. They then become the key implementers of change in the classrooms, the ‘centrepiece of educational change’ as Schmidt and Datnow, (2005, p 949) describe this. It is through the
agency of teachers that a policy of change is translated into practice as ‘where educational change is concerned, if a teacher can’t or won’t do it, it simply can’t be done’ (Hargreaves and Evans, 1997 p 3) because ‘after all, they do the work’ (Lumby, 1998, p 193). Vongalis-Macrow (2007, p 436) also asserts the importance of the role of teachers in the educational reform process: ‘what teachers do and how they react to educational change is significant in determining the outcomes of change’. Teachers will be included in this research on the national curriculum change initiative in Pakistan because ‘understanding how teachers experience and respond to educational change is essential if reform and improvement efforts are to be more successful and sustainable’ (Hargreaves, 2005, p 981).

Concerning any large-scale educational reform, Wendell, (2009, p 2) has pointed out the strong likelihood of variation in the outcomes and the pace of their achievement in all classrooms and institutions due to the human factors, which ‘influence the rate and route of a change process’. He outlines the consistent scenario of national educational policy and planning across the world in which the change process is viewed ‘as a purely linear, rational-technical planning and legislative matter’. In this mind set the assumption is that the decision to initiate change supported by legislation and funding is enough to proceed into implementation, which is again assumed as ‘a matter of issuing clear instructions to those lower down the administrative hierarchy to introduce changes in the classroom from a given date’ (p 2). This approach ignores the human factors particularly relating to what people believe, how they will be affected, and how they understand the proposed change. It also overlooks how they will react emotionally (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005,) and intellectually (termed ‘sense making’ by Spillane et al, 2002) and behave. Therefore, it is crucial that ‘we need to look at the full context in which teachers’ practice is negotiated, not just at the technical implementation of certain phenomenon within the classroom’ (Goodson, 1997, p 40). Further, as elaborated in chapter 1 section 1.2, ‘educational change, is inevitably a deeply emotional sense-making experience for teachers’ (Zembylas, 2010, p 231) and for the achievement of the desired outcomes of educational change, sensitivity to these aspects of the human factors of the change process has been widely recommended in research (Day, 2002; Hargreaves, 1997; Hargreaves and Evans, 1997; Hargreaves,2004; Goodson, 1997; Fullan, 2001; Kirk and Macdonald, 2010; Fullan and Levin, 2009; Wendell, 2009). Wendell (2009, p 32) has claimed the centrality of the teachers’ role in the achievement of change goals and so emphasises the exploration ‘of the actual daily working realities’ of teachers in the
implementation of the change process. Given the centrality of teachers to the implementation of educational change, teachers will be included in this research project in order to explore, analyse and understand the change process from the perspectives of teachers’ experiences and opinions.

The focus of this research on the change in curriculum in the Pakistani system has implications for teachers’ work. Teachers’ work is organized around the school curriculum and so any change in curriculum has implications for them. Guro and Weber (2010) have identified teachers as the chief implementers of any change in curriculum and Helsby (1999) has discussed four aspects of curriculum that have a high relevance for teachers’ work namely: curriculum content (what they teach); curriculum design (the organization of what they teach); curriculum method (how they teach); and curriculum assessment (how the learning resulting from their teaching is tested). These aspects of the curriculum are interrelated and change in one aspect of the curriculum affects others as well, and so change in one aspect of teachers’ work in relation to the curriculum affects other aspects of their work. For example, the organization of fixed content of curriculum into separately assessed subjects promotes didactic pedagogy and a traditional pen and paper assessment testing factual memorization, it also promotes pedagogy focusing ‘content coverage and repetitive drill’ (Helsby, 1999, p 67). Helsby (1999) has given the example of the National Curriculum initiative of 1988 in England and Wales that gave detailed specifications about the content and assessment of the curriculum but little word on curriculum organization and pedagogy. Nevertheless, the pedagogy was affected as a result. This particular case of the National Curriculum and the analysis by Helsby has special relevance to this thesis on a curriculum change initiative in Pakistan.

The curriculum reform programme in Pakistan is also an experience of change in the curriculum content and assessment without any change in the organization of curriculum. There is also the assumption in the reform programme in Pakistan that pedagogy will adapt to the changed requirements of the content and assessment. Helsby’s schema on the inseparability of four aspects of curriculum namely: content, pedagogy, organization and testing is a useful mean of analysis for the study in general and as a tool to explore the impact of curriculum change on teachers in particular. Hoban (2002) has discussed this concept of
the interdependence of different elements in the system from a slightly different standpoint. He has constructed teaching as a system in which there is the balancing of different elements such as, curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, students, parents, available resources and social environment. Change in any one element has an effect on others. Therefore, we need to consider what the impact of changes to the content and assessment of the curriculum has on the role and practice of teachers. A key element of this research is the impact of curriculum change on teachers.

In the backdrop of this broader construction of the significance of teacher’s role in the process of educational change management in general and in the reform implementation under investigation in particular, there are some specific dimensions highlighted throughout the relevant research literature. These dimensions including the nuances of teacher participation at different phases in the process of educational reform, their support especially through professional development and capacity building for the implementation of the change and the implications of educational reform for teacher professionalism have been presented in the following part of this section.

2.2.1 Teacher involvement in the change process

The research literature has identified some issues for teachers in the context of large-scale reform initiatives, which reach institutions as an externally mandated change. One main issue is the participation of teachers in the initiation, planning and implementation processes of a change initiative at the policy and design stage. Bush, (2008, p 14) has quoted Savery, (1992) to assert that if people have participated in a decision especially when it is related to their work, they would implement it with more acceptance. Bush also warns (p 12) that ‘If teachers do not ‘own’ innovations but are simply required to implement externally imposed changes, they are likely to do so without enthusiasm, leading to possible failure (Bush, 2003, p 46)’. This situation may lead to ‘false clarity’ as described by Fullan (2007) to be a state when people think or pretend they have changed but without really changing their practice. Day (2002) has also cautioned against a limited commitment and involvement of teachers when they have to follow the commands of others. Thus, Helsby (1999) argues that structural and cultural changes to schooling should take into account the agency of teachers as a vital factor.
for the translation into practice and similarly Busher (2006) argues that teachers need to be empowered to take a proactive part in bringing change. If teachers gain ownership of change, they are encouraged ‘to engage with it because it allows them to implement some of their values for constructing successful learning and teaching to benefit their students’ (Busher, 2006, p 151). Hargreaves and Evans (1997, p 13) see the involvement of teachers as a matter of urgency in educational reform efforts: ‘it is time for teachers to be included in the vanguard of reform, and not be made its marginalized victims. It is time for a change of direction and time for a change of heart’. Teacher involvement in the educational change process is utterly central but it has special significance in the case of curriculum change. Kirk and Macdonald (2010, p 552) have stressed the participation of teachers in the curriculum reform process as they can make significant contributions ‘based on their intimate knowledge of their students, their colleagues, their school structures and the resources available to them’. Further, ‘to change education it is necessary to work with teachers and not against them and behind their backs, accepting them not only as agents of reform but also as allies and subjects of change’ (Torres, 2000, p 255), as teachers’ real involvement can bring real change in educational practice. With this widespread advice for teacher involvement in the educational reform process, there is then the question of the nature of this involvement.

Oliver (1996, p 122) proposes that ‘change is only likely to be brought about through active discussion and the opportunity for professional development and ownership of change by all parties involved within the process’. According to Carl (2005, p 228) teachers wish to be included in the decision making from the very initial stages of a change initiative and they do not wish to be as mere recipients of something they have to implement, and this participation according to Swanepoel, (2009) makes them positive about and engaged with the change. Therefore, this dimension of teachers’ involvement and participation in the process of reform planning and implementation has been widely recommended as the means to create among the teachers a sense of ownership, commitment, motivation and a positive reception, which are so vital for the effective implementation of the change. Within this consensus on the need for teacher involvement and participation in educational reform, there are some cautionary notes particularly concerning the issue of a ‘sham’ participation of teachers. Kirk and MacDonald, (2010, p 564) have identified the issues of limited participation of teachers even in the programmes proclaiming a participation based approach where teachers are positioned
as ‘receivers and deliverers of the curriculum, and the specialist writers and their line managers as the producers of instructional discourse’.

The non-involvement of teachers in ‘decision making and responsibility taking’ for reform initiatives has been quoted as a common reason in studies regarding the wide spread failure of educational reforms (Swanepoel, 2009, p 462). Wendell (2009) has presented the case that policy makers usually make change policies with little regard for firstly, the existing ‘on the ground realities’ of local culture and classrooms and secondly, to the reaction of people affected by the change, especially the teachers. In Wendell’s (2009) view there is no consideration given to making any resources or space available for the engagement of teachers, which could help in developing a common understanding of the reasons and need for change. This lack of engagement leads to the failure in achievement of the desired outcomes from the change. More concerning though is the lack of consideration of why large-scale reforms have failed. The failure of a particular initiative is not seriously investigated to inform policy makers for the future and often with the failure of one change effort, policy makers move on to another. As Wendell (2009) notes, policy makers rarely make public statements about unsuccessful initiatives and:

It is even more rare to hear them admit that reasons for failure have anything to do with their own policy making. Instead it is customary to blame teachers for their inability to understand and/or implement new practices. (p 46)

Wendell calls this situation the ‘self-delusion’ of policy makers, which not only bars them from learning but also adds cynicism among the implementers about the change initiatives and dampens their enthusiasm for any future change. Swanepoel (2008, p 49) also confirms that:

Education systems worldwide apparently do not make full use of teachers as a professional resource in initiating, planning, and implementing school change. It appears that the role of teachers as key agents in the facilitation of such change is, for the most part, overlooked or plainly ignored.
There seems to be a paradox. On one hand, there is a concerted stress on the need to involve teachers in the decision and policy making process for educational change and yet, on the other hand, there has been reported a wide-spread neglect of this advice.

Ensuring a wide inclusion in the policy making stage may be impractical for a national level educational change initiative. This issue has been taken up by scholars to suggest viable solutions. Wendell (2009) has recommended structured discussions at regional level and inclusion of the conclusions of these deliberations in discussions at the national level. According to Wendell, this process can also prove helpful at the next stage when awareness about the change initiative needs to be created through wide communication with all concerned. An indication of how regional discussions have contributed to the change programme can strengthen the engagement of teachers.

Lumby (1998, p 198) proposes another strategy beyond communication and puts forward a middle way called the ‘adaptive approach’. She notes that the insufficient involvement of teachers is a basic cause of the failure of change initiatives but also comments on the impracticality of achieving universal ownership especially when the need is ‘to introduce change quickly in response to external mandate or the need to survive’ (p 199). Therefore, the desirability of creating collegiality and ownership across the board loses its appeal particularly ‘when the incrementalist, slow but-steady approach cannot maintain or increase the quality of the learning experience, or threatens the survival of the organization’ (p 199). The other option is a top down approach, which is very risky and prone to be resisted by the professionalism of the teachers. Therefore, Lumby suggests a third option of the adaptive approach, which is sensitive to the impossibility of total consensus but also recognises the need to reduce resistance and build support: the ‘adaptive approach aims for coalition, not consensus, and moves by incremental steps in the general direction required’. This approach is closer to what Fullan (1994, p 19) describes as the change process itself: ‘productive educational change roams somewhere between over control and chaos’.
The other important aspect of the role of teachers in the educational change process is teacher development or training and support to prepare them for playing their role in the change. Support relates partly to the emotional aspects of change and partly to the provision of development opportunities. Hargreaves (2004, p 288) has emphasized the emotional dimension of the impact of educational change on teachers and has stressed for ‘support systems of training, mentoring, time and dialogue’ as essentials for successful change management. Whether it is a small-scale classroom or school level change or a large-scale regional or national level change, support for teacher development is a central dimension and one of the deciding factors in its successful and effective implementation. There is also a need to consider teachers’ capacity whether teachers have the prerequisite knowledge and skills to be able to take forward the changes in their classrooms.

2.2.2 Teacher development for change

Levin and Fullan, (2008, p 295) argue that ‘although every successful strategy must have multiple elements, the most important single item on our list is ‘capacity building with a focus on results’. Further, Fullan and Levin (2009) have termed this aspect of educational change the development of the ‘entire teaching profession’ and have counted it among the six fundamental strategies for a successful large-scale education reform. Hopkins et al (1994, p 113) argue that

Staff development is inextricably linked to school development. In the quest for school improvement powerful strategies are required which integrate these two areas in a way that is mutually supportive.

Harris and Lambert (2003, p 14) also argue that the importance of teacher development in school level change is validated through research and they have referred to the possibility of organizational growth by putting ‘people at the centre of change and development’ and by building capacity through ‘extending the potential and capabilities of individuals’ (p 47). Oliver (1996, p 61) has also termed this individual learning as ‘the primary source of change’ and basis for institutional transformation while Muhammad (2004, p 113) has stressed preparation of teachers for change in their practices by addressing their developmental needs and providing them an ‘ongoing support at their school’ to bridge theory and practice of
educational change. This support for teachers in the process of change has a positive impact on their reception of change, which in turn stimulates their commitment and motivation for the change.

The reception of change by teachers is affected by their perception of the benefits of change for them and for student learning (Waugh and Ketsiri, 2009). Levin and Fullan (2008, p 293) propose that ‘Changing practices across many, many schools will only happen when teachers, principals and support staff see the need and commit to making the effort to improve their daily practice (Danielson and Hochschild, 1998)’. Kimonen and Nevalainen (2005, p 630) are of the opinion that ‘reforms in curricula or equipment only do not necessarily change the teachers’ ways of teaching’. For change to genuinely take place there must be: ‘changes in the beliefs, values, expectations, habits, roles, and power structures of the teachers’. Therefore, given that change has to be taken forward in this fundamental way, any reform programme needs to focus on a well-thought and well-planned intervention. Changed ways of teaching are built upon second order change in relation to the values and habits of teachers along with structural changes in their roles and in the power dynamics in school, surrounding the process of teaching and learning (as the three domains of the conception of change in critical realism described by Priestly, 2011 b). Key (2007) has also emphasised the need to focus the beliefs of individual teachers especially in the case of curriculum reforms as teachers may go about ‘modifying the curriculum change simply because their beliefs are being imposed upon’ (p 43). Thus, it is around questions of values and beliefs that the issues of teacher involvement in the whole change process and teacher development converge as this deep change can be planned through teacher engagement and development, which augment teachers’ commitment for the change.

These processes lay the basis for engendering a willing and committed adoption of the change. Oliver (1996, p 60) has linked teachers’ commitment with their ability to implement change. In this extended view of commitment, it is not only enthusiasm that is crucial but it is ‘the possession of the concepts, procedures and dispositions necessary for the successful implementation of the innovation’ (Oliver, 1996, p 60-61) which can be developed and sustained through training, support and planned interventions. According to Northfield (1992) change in itself is an important driver for teachers’ commitment and there are four related
requirements to foster teacher commitment that ‘the change must be perceived as intelligible, beneficial, plausible and feasible’ (p 90). Thus, teacher commitment is essential for classroom level change and it can be fostered by enabling teachers to see the proposals as worthwhile and by developing their necessary capabilities to take change forward. Therefore, teacher training and support are necessary to enable them to understand, adopt and implement change in order to translate the policy into the practice.

The process of support for teachers through training, guidance, and communication has been recognized as a learning process in the research literature. Hoban (2002, p 2) asserts that most of the educational change initiatives involve doing something different in classrooms, so teachers’ long term learning framework becomes a crucial dimension in realizing this objective: ‘Improvement in teaching and learning requires teacher change and this in turn can be equated with teacher learning’ (p 90). He has extended this argument further by examining the concept of teacher learning in the change process and has criticized the technical and mechanistic approach to educational change for promoting a ‘top down or workshop model to introduce to teachers as a one step approach for teacher learning’ (p 13). In this case, not only the teaching and learning process is assumed to be linear and context free, but also that it can be changed with the help of comprehensive teaching materials with clear instructions on how to use these. To counter this approach, Hoban (2002) has stressed for the need for transformation of institutions into continuous learning environments where long-term teacher learning takes place. This condition is a prerequisite support for educational change given that it is a complex phenomenon. Indeed Dalin (2005) has also described change as a learning process and stressed the need for the provision of professional and personal support for teachers so that the:

Individual gets the breathing room he needs to grasp what the innovation actually means to him personally, and to his class. Only then can the new situation be mastered and employed to increase the job satisfaction of pupil and teacher alike. (Dalin, 2005, p 151)

Changes in classroom practice are, therefore, difficult to achieve. However, the complexity of the issue is often underestimated and a simplistic view of teaching and teacher learning is
adopted. This simplistic approach results in the arrangement of a one or two day workshop for teachers to acquaint them with the change in policy or curriculum and instruction. This strategy for teacher training and orientation is very limited in impact as it fails to promote real change because, as Dalin (2005, p 151) argues, ‘it does not take into account the existing complexity of a classroom context or have a framework to support teacher learning through the non-linear process of change’. Therefore, a different approach to teacher learning is necessary. For Hopkins et al. (1994, p 113) teacher learning is an ongoing and long-term activity not limited to the immediate solutions only but ‘also transcends them in order to achieve longer-term purpose’. If this concept of teacher learning is structured into the very fabric of the education system, the initiation and implementation of change is then facilitated in institutions as teachers grasp change as an opportunity for their ongoing learning. This perspective promotes a concept of teacher development and preparation for change as an inherent part of their day-to-day work, which contrasts with the strategy based on a special training programme accompanying an innovation or a change initiative. This approach can create a view that the reform programme is not a separate activity from teachers’ routine practice targeted for a specific intervention. With this comprehensive learning environment in place, change initiators can invest their focus and resources in creating a broader teacher orientation and development plan. Schmidt and Datnow (2005, p 962) advise that the educational reform designers, policy makers and leaders at different levels of the education system ‘to invest considerable energy and resources into making sure that teachers are knowledgeable about the reform; have the tools to implement reform in their classrooms; and understand how the reform differs from their current practice’. It can be done through ‘informed dialogue’ (p 962) providing teachers support in the ‘sense making’ process of the policy (Spillane et al 2002) so that teacher agency for the effective implementation of the change is enhanced particularly ‘in terms of its enactment in practice’ (Priestley, 2011a). If we draw upon the issues of teacher training and support for the change, change as a learning process for teachers and embedding teacher learning into an environment of continuous learning, we can suggest a two-pronged strategy here. This strategy can include the establishment of a system of continuous learning in educational institutions and then the use of this system to provide targeted support and training for the intended reform.

While there seems much to commend the strategy of creating a learning environment in the school, we have to consider how this can relate to an externally mandated reform. Lovat and
Smith, (1995, p 219) have noted that when change is externally imposed ‘time frames for implementation have often precluded the possibility of the ‘normative/re-educative strategies’ that seek to develop ‘explicit and shared perceptions of the problem, and/or clearly identified and shared reason for the change’. Consequently, not only timeframe is important but also the focus of the development opportunities which have to deal with the issues of purposes, values and beliefs as well as practice. In this situation, Oliver (1996, p122) has warned about the circumstances where the change in behaviours and change in values and commitment are not aligned, creating a situation where ‘useful innovation may be grudgingly adopted without proper investigation within specific context, or poorly conceived ideas may be instigated regardless of consequences’. This is what has been reported in the narrative of reform efforts and the possible causes of their failure (Harris, 2011). These issues of change as a learning process for teachers have specific implications for the construction of their professionalism.

2.2.3 Teacher professionalism

The research literature refers to the issues of real and meaningful teacher involvement and participation in the change planning and implementation process, teacher training and capacity building especially for change through a culture of continuous learning and the collaborative culture. All these issues converge on the concept of ‘teacher professionalism’. Most of the large-scale educational reforms seek improvement in student learning through prescribed curriculum and standardized testing, which have implications for the professionalism of teachers and the environment of collaboration and collegiality to support this professionalism. In centralized bureaucratic systems, the culture of collaboration cannot flourish even when focused, which can result in contrived collegiality (Hargreaves, 1994, p 195) at best. Datnow (2011) has linked the collaboration and collegiality among teachers with their collective professional autonomy when the enactment of the outcomes of collaboration is possible. Therefore, it seems that a collaborative culture is linked with the promotion and nurturing of a form of professionalism of teachers, which is contrary to overly prescriptive reforms. This tension has led to a consideration of alternative approaches to change including ‘the fourth way’ by Hargreaves and Shirley (2009).
The ‘fourth way’ of effective educational reform proposed by Hargreaves and Shirley (2009) is based on three interlinked elements of professionalism, public engagement and governmental vision, guidance and support. In this framework, effective educational reform builds upon professionalism of educators but is interdependent on governmental flexibility and support as well as a positive public engagement. To make teachers real contributors to the success of educational reform, these three elements need to be carefully thought through. For both teachers and other stakeholders, there are issues related to the motivation to engage with the reform and its processes. This motivation for change needs to be built on many drivers and one potentially powerful driver is the moral purpose of education, which the reform process must align with. However, according to Levin and Fullan (2008, p 294) making claims for a reform process solely on the underpinning values is not enough. Instead they argue ‘that is why large-scale reform must also pay attention to other key aspects of motivation— capacity, resources, peer and leadership support and identity and so on. It is the combination that makes the motivational difference’. Therefore, the professionalism of the teachers is a crucial building block of successful educational change processes and it is developed on and around a host of interlinked issues of internal capacity along with social and institutional support as well as official respect, support and engagement of teachers. Helsby (1999) has discussed the professional confidence of teachers as a key factor in their response to change and this confidence is built when teachers are trusted and respected. Day (2002) has also identified an influential role of teachers’ professional identities in both emotional and intellectual terms for long term success of educational reforms to develop these identities ‘through sustained, critical dialogue, mutual trust and respect’ (p 689).

This link between teacher professionalism and effective change in education is significant not only for small scale educational change but it has also emerged as the cornerstone for system wide reforms from the research and theorization of leading scholars in the field of educational change. Fullan (2009a, p 107) argues that for system reforms ‘high quality teachers are critical, and that leaders and teachers working together’ is also essential. He has delineated the three elements of effective educational reforms in Ontario as: ‘respect for staff and for professional knowledge, comprehensiveness, and coherence and alignment through partnership between the government and the field’ (p 108). Barber (2009) has also outlined three elements of effective educational reforms, which are a ‘thorough professionalism’ of the teaching profession, strategic leadership from the government and citizenship.
empowerment. There is a comparable construction in Hargreaves and Shirley’s (2009) ‘fourth way’ with the three elements of educational reform being governmental steering and support, public engagement and professional involvement. These also overlap with Fullan’s (2009a, p 110-111) four elements of teacher quality, capacity building for ‘deep instructional practice and corresponding assessment of student learning’, transparency of results and practices, and leadership as the leading developments in the system reform efforts along with ‘widening and deepening’ of system wide reform.

The thrust of these recommendations regarding the professionalism of teachers for a successful and sustained educational reform has come mainly from the literature originating from the English-speaking world. The viability of these ideas needs to be tested in different contexts to create a common and widely shared body of knowledge. This then underlines the importance for the inclusion of teachers in the research for this thesis and the exploration of their views and experiences. This inclusion and exploration brings the reality and practice of the reform initiative in focus, which will not only add a contextual and grounded perspective in the process of developing an emergent model of educational change management in Pakistan but will also situate the study in the wider research context. The substantial themes regarding the role of teachers in educational change emerging from the literature are

- teachers’ emotional response, (Schmidt and Datnow, 2005; Vongalis-Macrow, 2007; Hargreaves, 2005; Swanepoel, 2009)
- their cognitive response and sense making process, (Spillane et al, 2002, Zembylas, 2010)
- their professional response in the form of their location and involvement in the change process from planning to implementation (Bush, 2008; Day, 2002; Busher, 2006; Hargreaves and Evans, 1997; Carl, 2005; Kirk and MacDonald, 2010)
- their professional development needs and support in the process of change (Oliver, 1996; Hargreaves, 2004; Levin and Fullan, 2008, Harris and Lambert, 2003; Schmidt and Datnow, 2005; Fullan, 2009a)

These themes have highlighted the issues related to teachers in the process of educational change management, which will provide the focus and topics for the questionnaire for the
teachers in this research. The exploratory questionnaire for teachers will be based on the issues emerging from the interview data from institution heads and this literature survey. Therefore, the review of the existing literature has not only provided the justification for the inclusion of teachers in this study but has also provided the issues and themes to be explored through this inclusion. The inclusion of teachers is an attempt to explore the issues around the actual and experienced reality of the change initiative under investigation. The findings from the data generated through the contact with teachers will be significant to understand the educational change process in general and in the Pakistani context in particular. This contextualization of the change process is a vital dimension of the study and it will help to draw the outline of a contextualized model of educational change in Pakistan.

This elaboration of educational change (discussed in sections 1.2, 2.2 and 2.2) with reference to the construction of schools as organizations set in structural, political, human and cultural frameworks and of teaching as a combination of technical, intellectual, socioemotional and socio-political activity and the significance of teacher’s role in the process of educational change has implications for the change implementation strategies. These dimensions include not only the theoretical groundings to the management of educational change but also lay foundations for different strategies to be adopted in the field of the practice and the following section elaborates on this link.

2.3 Strategies and models for change management

The perspectives on how the organization itself is perceived with reference to its structures, roles and functions affect the strategy or model adopted to bring in change into the organization. The various strategies for change management relate to and reflect the different constructions of the concept of change examined earlier. Bennis (1969) provided a typology for change management, which was later built on by Chin and Benne (1969). They gave three models or approaches to change management with a common focal point whether the change is sought in ‘thing technologies’ or ‘people technologies’; human aspects of deliberate change have to be taken along the material aspects for successful implementation of the initiative. These three models are bureaucratic, collegial and political.

**Empirical-rational or bureaucratic model:** This model assumes that people are influenced by rationality and they follow their rational self-interest. Therefore, if change is rationally
explained and justified to them, linked to their self-interest and they are trained to adopt it, change will work. Wendell (2009) has criticised this model on two grounds. Firstly, human beings are not purely rational beings and secondly rationality is a subjective term. This subjectivity of the perception of rationality and the involvement of a number of people, with varying and often conflicting self-interests in educational change, fails to create a consensual perception of what is rational and in the self-interest of a variety of stakeholders.

**Normative-re educative or collegial model:** This model does not reject the concept of rationality but assumes that change in knowledge or intellectual orientations should be accompanied by a change in relationships, attitudes, skills and values (‘normative orientations’ Chin and Benne, 1969, p34) for an effective implementation. Therefore, the ‘clarification and reconstruction of values is of pivotal importance in changing’ (Chin and Benne, 1969, p 45). Wendell (2009) has explained this model as being based on the notion that people are influenced by the behaviour and attitude of their peers. Therefore, if some people change their attitudes and values others will follow. However, Wendell (2009, p 20) has commented upon the difficulty of finding a ‘critical mass’ of people to change their normative orientations so that others can follow the suit.

**Power-coercive or political model:** This model brings in the interplay of political, legal and financial resources in mandating change. The focus is on compliance from those with less power ‘to the plans, directions, and leadership’ Chin and Benne, 1969, p 34) in a top down approach.

Like theories and perspectives on the concept of educational change management, these strategies have also been regarded as interchangeable with relation to the context and the situation. Law and Glover (2000) state that rational models of change management may be suitable for a stable situation but uncertain and complex situations demand collegial models, which need the flatter management structures. The strategies for change have been constructed in a variety of ways by different researchers, as Law and Glover (2000) have identified two such early sources, Schon (1971) and Havelock (1971) and have linked these works specifically with the reference to the management of educational change. For the models for change described by Schon (1971), the example of some curriculum development initiative has been used. These are models are:
*The centre-periphery model:* In this model or approach, the change initiative is developed at the centre and then dispersed to the whole system. This model is usually used in education through the production of standardised curriculum packages.

*Proliferation of centres model:* In this model, ideas are generated at dispersed locations in the organization in response to emerging situations. This model is used in education when different professional development strategies are developed at different locations to enable teachers to generate approaches appropriate for their immediate context in the delivery of the curriculum.

*The learning system network model:* In this model, ideas are not only generated at various locations in the organizations, but are modified and then shared with a wider community within the organization. In education, this model is used when action research becomes the basis for sharing delivery strategies of a given curriculum.

Law and Glover also discuss Havelock’s (1971) models for educational change management as being closely linked with Schon’s work. Havelock’s three models are:

*The research, development and diffusion model:* This model can be explained with the help of the example of a government assigning the task of developing a package of reform to research centres or agencies. In this model, ideas or models for change and innovation are evaluated, modified and then shaped in a way that eases adoption.

*The social interaction model:* This model shares the features of Schon’s proliferation of centres model as the ideas for change are developed by groups working in the field who have a collective motivation for change.

*The problem-solving model:* In this model, the need for change is felt by the individuals working in the field who then initiate and control the change process.

These models by Schon and Havelock focus not only on the generation of ideas and strategies for change either at centralised locations or in the field through action research or social interaction, but also on their implementation. Other writers have suggested strategies for educational change management as Oliver (1996) suggests strategies for participative planning and policy development to create ownership of proposed change by teachers and
other enactors of change in the field. Stoll and Fink (1996) recommend a mix of pressure and support for training in new skills and follow up as suitable strategies.

Hopkins (2007) offers another insight into the strategic models of change where he looks to systems-wide change as a possible model. According to his analysis, a focus on the wrong variables (ignoring students and teachers) and the wrong perspectives (on the organisation of schools and teaching practice) along with the absence of a systematic perspective may hinder the successful implementation of educational reform. He has suggested a systematic approach for reform efforts, which is system wide (across the system), as well as system deep (integrating different levels from policy to practice). He has delineated four drivers of a successful systematic reform namely personalised learning, professional teaching, networks and collaborations and intelligent accountability. At the heart of developing and moulding these drivers to the context and the different stages of the change management process is the exercise of responsible system leadership. Now we can come back to Dawson (1994) who emphasised the importance of context. His determinants of change are substance, politics and the context of change, which can help to create a peculiar and contextualized perspective for every change initiative in different educational organizations or schools. This combination of cultural change along with the structural change is evident in the arguments put forth by a number of researchers and change gurus (Bennis, 1969; Bennett et al, 1992; Finnan and Levin, 2000; Fullan, 1991; McLaughlin, 1987).

The above discussion leads to the conclusion that no strategy is better than the others, but these can provide the means to achieve an effective, meaningful and sustainable change. The utility and effectiveness of each model/strategy is linked with the nature of the change programme, demands of the situation and the purpose of the change as well as the sensitivity and adeptness with which it is manipulated. These models can provide guidelines, but cannot simply be borrowed from one organization or context to another because what works in one place may not work in another. The theories, models and strategies are useful in understanding and analysing a situation and to get a sense of what may work, but this survey has also provided a broader picture of a complex and vast terrain and tools needed to shape a contextualised path diligently and creatively. The creative selection of appropriate tools depends on the nature and purpose of the change, the context and environment as well as the
requirements of the change process itself at different stages of its development. In the next section, the ‘stages’ of a change process will be considered to bring this added dimension of the change management process in the ongoing argument. The elaboration of this dimension is essential to situate the focus of the research at the implementation phase of the change management process and to set a broader milieu for the data analysis where the issues related to different stages of the change process are expected to emerge.

2.4 Stages in the process of change management

Whereas the writers who set out the models of strategic change emphasised different strategies to bring about change, some of them notably have constructed change as a process with different phases, which need different approaches. Thus, educational reform or change is not an event but an ongoing process (Wendell, 2009) evolving in many stages spanning over a stretch of time in accordance with the scale and complexity of the initiative.

Fullan (1991) conceives the change process as comprising three stages and calls them initiation, implementation and institutionalization or abandonment. Kinsler and Gamble (2001) have built on Fullan’s topology by elaborating on these stages noting many associated factors. Fullan says that the three Rs of relevance, readiness and resources are compulsory requisites for the initiation of a change initiative. Kinsler and Gamble characterize the initiation stage as the decision making stage about what change is required, how it would be implemented and by whom. This decision-making can be top down or bottom up. However, Wendell (2009, p 23) asserts that most of the large scale change initiatives in education are top down where decision making remains limited to policy makers in consultation with educationists particularly those perceived to be at the top of the hierarchy of the education system who are working in universities. This practice reduces the sensitivity to and inclusion of a ‘people’s reality’ or ‘a practitioner’s reality’ in the content and process of change, which has serious implications for the next stages of the change initiative especially the institutionalization of practices/processes. However, there is an increasing realization that without the ownership of the change by the people who will be responsible for implementation, it cannot progress to achieve the desired results.
The implementation stage is the ‘reality encounter’ when thinking needs to be converted into practice. This phase is especially complex due to the addition of many more people in the process (Law and Glover, 2000). It begins as start up phase when the resources of time, money, materials and people are committed and develops into a consolidation phase. The technical expertise is developed in the implementers, sometimes in a broader context but mostly through trainers who hold specific short training sessions. Kinsler and Gamble (2001, p 143) are critical of these training events which can create ‘a faulty and fractured understanding of the innovation’, over simplifications of complex issues, and deal largely with mechanical skills for the implementation without promoting any in-depth understanding of the change. Successful implementation of change is difficult and complex due to particular circumstances, complexity of factors involved as well as the inevitable dilemmas in the process (Fullan, 1992, p 110). Change is also time consuming, as it ‘often requires ‘mind set’, culture and value change (Carnall, 1999, p3). Carnall (1999) suggests that change can begin with change in behaviour:

Put people in new settings within which they have to behave differently, if properly trained, supported and rewarded, their behaviour will change. If successful this will lead to mind-set change and ultimately will impact upon the culture of the organization. (p 3)

Once change starts working on the ground, then comes the consolidation stage and a ‘fit’ is generated between the requirements of change initiative and the existing circumstances. At this stage, the innovation is either adopted and adapted into the system or abandoned. If it is adopted, then as Miles (1986) suggests for long-term success, the change should be embedded in the culture and structures of the school, the hindering factors for change should be controlled. Change should be consolidated by reinforcing the strengthening factors and by facilitating and encouraging the spread of the good practice.

There are numerous models identifying different phases in the change process, which indicate a change in the focus, priorities and processes involved as well as the scope and level of participation and the role of different stakeholders. Lewin (1947) in his early model suggested three stages for the change process: unfreezing the present, implementation of the new situation and refreezing the changed situation. From this early model, there have been
numerous attempts to conceptualise the different stages. Morrison (1998) expanded the three
stages of change process into seven:

- invention/awareness,
- development, diffusion/dissemination,
- adoption/rejection,
- implementation,
- institutionalization
- and recommendation.

Everard and Morris (1990) have mentioned six sequential stages for the process of change
management namely diagnosis/reconnaissance, determining the future or desirable situation,
assessing the present situation, identifying the gaps between the desired and present and the
target, transition and evaluation. Aguerrondo (2008) provides a more complex model
conceptualizing four phases in the process of innovation in education as genesis, setting in
motion, development and evolution, effects and sustainability and situates this process in a
new paradigm of ‘dual re-conceptualisation’(p 197) of both the classic model of education
and the process of change as well. There is a convergence of views on the dynamics of
educational change between Aguerrondo (2008) and Fullan (1993) as an evolutionary process
of transformation shaped with flexibility and unpredictability. Dawson’s (1994) views on the
three timeframes for change management can also be applied in the field of education which
are: conception of the need to change; process of organizational transition; operation of new
work practices and procedures. Carnall (1999) has outlined three stages of change:
beginnings when problems are recognized, awareness created and feasibility assessed;
focusing when actions are taken to train people, to experiment pilot tests, and to refine the
initiative; inclusion now change is implemented at broader level along with communication
plans. Pettit and Hind (1992) discuss four stages in the process of educational change with
reference to ‘dynamic conservatism’, when social systems resist change and enter in a ‘zone
of disruption’ (p121) from a relatively stable state. Their four stages are: first stage which has
a high degree of confusion and tension; the second or political stage when negotiations for
adopting change are initiated; the third stage when legitimacy to the outcomes of the
negotiations is given and the fourth stage is the implementation stage. The outcome may be
cosmetic change if dynamic conservatism wins or transformation of the system and
achievement of a new relatively stable and improved state. The survey of these models of ‘stages’ of the change process has special implications for this research because this study would explore the experiences of school leaders and teachers during the implementation of a reform programme while taking into account different stages of the change process.

From the account of these entire models, we can summarise that although the theorists diverge on the perception of the phases of the change process and the details within these phases, their ideas converge on an overall framework of three broader stages namely: pre-implementation, implementation and post implementation. The ideas of researchers on the phases of change management process can be categorized into these three broad phases as illustrated in the table 2.2 below:

**Table 2.2 The stages of change management as described by different writers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Pre-implementation</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
<th>Post-implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lewin (1947) 3 stages</td>
<td>unfreezing the present</td>
<td>implementation of the new situation</td>
<td>refreezing the changed situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everard and Morris (1990) 6 stages</td>
<td>diagnosis/reconnaissance+ determining the future or desirable situation+ assessing the present situation+ identifying the gaps between the desired and present</td>
<td>Transition</td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullan (1991) 3 stages</td>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Institutionalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pettit and Hind (1992) 4 stages</td>
<td>First, second and third stages in initiation of change</td>
<td>Fourth/implementation stage</td>
<td>Cosmetic change or new, transformed state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dawson (1994) 3 stages</td>
<td>Conception of the need to change</td>
<td>Organizational transition</td>
<td>Operation of new practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morrison (1998) 7 stages</td>
<td>Invention/awareness+ development+ diffusion/dissemination+ adoption/rejection,</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Institutionalization and recommendation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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This account of different models of the change process as it passes through the stages of development presents change as a vibrant process. There is a broad framework evident across all models, which is the importance of pre-implementation, implementation and post implementation stages, though specific theorists may characterize these differently and provide more or less detail. This framework is like the life cycle of a complex species and what happens in and between every phase is specific for every single organism. The variation of phases among all these models points to something beyond the linearity of the process. It reinforces the conception of the change process with different aspects developing in different contexts, which demand different approaches to manage it. A specific approach or a mixture of different approaches is not created and settled once in the change process, it rather is an evolutionary phenomenon. At every stage of the change process appropriate strategies need to be generated and reflected on and so there is a constant process of rethinking, redesigning and repositioning the approach and strategy of change management. Along with the specific demands of the nature of the change, the situation and context, and the stage in the process alongside the reception and reaction to change all influence the change management process.

Implicit in this discussion on the models, strategies and stages of the change management is the argument that change is a complex social, cultural, political activity. As evident from the discussion on the stages in change management, change creates reaction. This aspect is significant in the analysis of educational change management process in general and specifically integral to this research, which aims to explore the views and experiences of the implementers of educational reform. Therefore, the next section brings the reaction to change into the ongoing discussion.

### 2.5 Reaction to the change
The approach to the management of change process is or has to be influenced by the situation and context in which change is perceived and implemented. The elements of culture, structures and the people and their interactions determine the reality of the situation (Priestly, 2011a). In this section, the element of people is elaborated on with reference to their reaction to change as their reaction has implications for the success and effectiveness of the change process.

Change creates stress and strain both for those who support change (through overwork, the challenge of leading change in an uncertain world, the pressure of dealing with other, often anxious people, the inherent uncertainties all are subject to in some degree and so on) and for those who are either indifferent, opposed or fearful of change. (Carnall, 1999, p 13)

Reaction to educational change varies from distrust and resistance to acceptance and adjustment. ‘Resistance is natural’ (Lumby, 1998, p 195) and initially people are apprehensive of change because they want to retain the present circumstances as ‘there is something very attractive and reassuring about stability and continuity’ (Oliver, 1996, p 3). Deal (2007) has also supported some of these propositions about the reaction to change: that routine work is comfortable for people, they prefer the status quo, change may affect the culture to create stress and change may result in changes in power structures as well to create conflict. These explicit and implicit barriers to the adoption of change originate from various sources. Dalin (1993) mentions four such barriers to change: value barriers, power barriers, psychological barriers and practical barriers while Leigh (1988) has used different categories for the sources of resistance to change namely cultural, social, organisational and psychological factors. These factors or barriers can be grouped into two broader categories: the technical and attitudinal/behavioural. The technical factors are comparatively easy to handle as appropriate training and practice can address them while change in values, beliefs and behaviours is hard to realise and becomes a sensitive issue. Unfortunately, seemingly quickly achieved results of equipping people with required skills and technical expertise to go along the process of change create a false impression of a successful change initiative, but these outcomes are only transient and superficial.
Carnall (2007, p 210) suggests ‘the change equation’ which shows the generation of shared vision, knowledge for strategies of change and a dissatisfaction with the present situation combine to create commitment and energy for change. Carnall’s (2007) model illustrates how people experience change and what stages they pass through when confronted with change. The first stage is denial when people try to deny the need for change and defend their present situation. The length and severity of feelings, which can border on immobilization depends upon the suddenness, scope and effect of a change initiative. Here control of the immediate impact of change to give people time to encounter a changed reality can prove a good strategy. The second stage is the ‘defence stage’, when people see the inevitability of change they go into defensive behaviour and try to convince themselves and others that change is not suitable for them. The third stage is ‘the discarding’, which is the discarding of the past and the beginning of optimism about the future. People start recognizing the new reality and begin adapting accordingly. The fourth stage is ‘the adaptation’ stage. People start experimenting on a new pattern of structures, processes and behaviours. They seek approaches to make the new system work, which needs a lot of energy and sometimes results in frustration or anger when difficulties in coping emerge. Here support and training can help to make people develop ‘skills, understanding and attachments’ (p 243) for the new system. Then the fifth stage of ‘internalization’ emerges, when people have generated a new set of structures, processes, roles and relationships. Thus, the change becomes the norm and part of the routine. Carnall argues that these stages of the coping process for change do not always come as neatly and sequentially for all people involved and are also affected by the nature of change. Some people may get stuck at any stage, even the first stage of denial, and some may take longer to pass through different stages, which suggests the need for well thought out external support in the form of practical interventions to help people go through these stages and arrive at the internalization stage. The intensity and persistence of resistance to change is linked with the level of disturbance in the culture and power structures (Lumby, 1998).

These theoretical models on the reaction and resistance to change point out a two way process that not only the different reactions to change create demand for a specific approach to the change management process but the nature, intensity and scope of this process also creates different reactions. The knowledge of the possible reactions to change, sources of resistance and conflict, and especially the stages of reaction along with the possible strategies to control resistance as identified in Carnall’s model can add to the understanding of the
situation in perceiving and designing the change management process. This awareness can help support approaches to foresee possible sources of resistance and build in the strategies to handle and mitigate them and to build in support.

From this overview of the wide and varying body of research, much attention has been focused on change management with detailed advice on the appropriate models and strategies taking into account various factors and stages involved in the process. Notwithstanding this substantial body of knowledge, the history of large-scale reform is littered with the tales of wide spread failures for a variety of reasons such as: top-down, market driven, approaches which are detached from the practice, are insensitive to the capacity and seek superficial level of change (Levin and Fullan 2008; Lumby 1998; Hargreaves 1997; Harris 2011; Wendell 2009). Therefore, it is necessary to look into this aspect of educational reform more closely.

### 2.6 Some pitfalls of large scale change in education

Fullan (1991, p 4) counts the ‘neglect of the phenomenology of change’ that is the difference between how the change actually happens and how it was intended as the main cause for the failure of a social reform. Wendell (2009) sees the issue as being one of over emphasis on the measurable and easy to change aspects of reform at the expense of the underestimation of change in how people think and behave. Educational change must be linked with what the people involved actually do. Goodlad, as quoted in Hoban (2002), termed this phenomenon of change as ‘ecological thinking’ with the importance of a holistic view of all aspects and areas of education system and process. He counted the mechanistic approach to educational change, which tries to change components of the system separately as the main cause of the failure of educational change efforts as indicated in the review of the mechanistic or structuralist models earlier. Hargreaves (1997, p 114) has blamed ‘bureaucratic management, burdens of imposed content and assessments, and market orientations that divide schools and teachers from one another’ for failure of effective educational change. While Levin and Fullan (2008, p 300) have also raised their concern about the practice ‘relying on top-down, policy-driven approaches to change that cannot, in our view, deliver real and lasting improvement in students’ learning’. Commenting upon this typical top down process of
change called the modal process of change by Sarason (1971), Sevier (2008, p 125) writes that ‘the fact that teachers, students, parents, and other educational players are typically given no choice with respect to their participation in an externally derived, top-down change effort is a significant contributing factor to its failure’. Lumby (1998) has also quoted some examples of top down processes of planning and implementing change and has expressed doubt on the stability of the change over the long term noting its remoteness from pedagogic practice. Harris (2011, p 160) has also highlighted some dimensions of this top down imposed reform which are proposed ‘without any attention to building adequate capacity for change or given any thought about the process of implementation’ with the importing of ideas from different contexts. She sees these as the main causes of failure of most of the reform programmes across the world.

As it is evident from the review of literature on change and educational change, various aspects of the change process, models or theories of change management and reasons for the ineffectiveness of large-scale reform movements, most of the research and theory has come from the Anglo-phonic world. This research study for this thesis examines an educational reform initiative aimed at the improvement in the quality of educational provision in Pakistan, which has a different cultural and educational background and is at a different level of educational development. Therefore, it seems pertinent to look into the background of the school improvement movement as a global phenomenon and then situate it into the context of underdeveloped parts of the world.

2.7 Diversity of reform agendas

Although an inherent part of any education system, change and reform gained a concerted focus in the latter half of the 20th century. The need was felt to formalize and regulate the change agenda in different education systems internationally and it culminated in different movements in the education system such as the school effectiveness, school improvement and school reculturing movements. Out of these reform movements, the school improvement movement has special relevance for this study. It was in late 1970s and early 1980s when school improvement initiatives emerged as a distinct body of knowledge (Potter et. al, 2002), but it remained a free-floating approach to school change concentrating largely on the
concepts of organizational change and school self-evaluation without any reference to the specific cultural contexts. The 1990s saw an integration of the concepts of school improvement and school effectiveness (Purkey and Smith, 1985; Riddell, 1997). In this decade, standards-based reform and concern for student achievement culminated into widespread and sustained improvement efforts in Western democratic systems (Sullivan and Shulman, 2005: Halsal, 2001). More recent emphasis on school improvement has been through improvement in students’ outcomes, teachers’ behaviours, and school culture (Potter, et al. 2002: Patchen, 1991). The prevailing reform agenda with full political backing in US, Canada and UK is about tackling underachievement in difficult and disadvantageous circumstances as a matter of social justice (Harris, 2006) as well as also seeking to raise overall achievement to ensure a highly skilled population for a globalized economy.

This school improvement reform agenda has been characterised by Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) as comprising three distinct but not mutually exclusive phases. The early phase starting in the 1980s was a bottom up approach to school improvement and focused on people practising in the field, self-evaluations of schools and site based improvement councils in some countries. The power of the school was enhanced at the expense of the power of local education bodies in almost all English speaking developed countries like Australia, New Zealand, Canada, USA and UK except Scotland. Though organizational change, self-evaluation by schools and the ownership of change were the hallmarks of this phase, yet it was ‘loosely conceptualised, under theorized’ and was not a ‘systematic, programmatic and coherent approach to school change’ (Hopkins and Reynolds, 2001, p 459) as the link between the students’ learning outcomes and reform initiatives was missing. The second phase began in early 1990s and the organizational change and classroom level change emerged as a predominant focus. Students’ learning outcomes were at the heart of all reform initiatives and culminated in the form of a focus on curriculum, instruction and the management of these two. Accountability and standards appeared as rigorously pursued targets in the educational landscape, though with no link to improved school performance. The third phase emerged out of growing evidence that ‘the relationship between school improvement and increased student achievement remains weak and contestable’ so now it was felt there was a need ‘to draw upon its most robust evidence and to produce interventions that were solidly based on tried and tested practices’ (Harris and Chrispeels, 2006, p 67).
Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) identified five key features of these third wave school improvement initiatives. These are:

- a focus on classroom level change and students’ learning outcomes
- a focus on change in skills, attitude and behaviours of teachers to bring in classroom change
- the provision of infrastructure and creation of suitable environments as mechanism for change
- capacity building of not only individuals but schools as learning developing organisations as well
- attention to process and outcome combined with cultural change to be sensitive to the influence of improvement programs on practitioners and their practices

Harris and Chrispeels (2006) have added another feature to this phase of educational improvement, which they say has evolved, that is the ‘deepening awareness of the critical nature of context and political influence on school improvement’ (p 9).

In the wake of this development, now more differentiated and ‘finely grained’ approaches to educational change have been developed to account for different socio-economic backgrounds and the variable change capacity of different schools. According to Harris and Chrispeels (2006) the fourth phase of school improvement evolving in many countries, is an effort to balance top down and bottom up approaches to reform for the attainment of national educational goals. Now there is an increased recognition of ‘the nested nature of schools in systems’ and politicians are specially concerned to ‘scale up’ the success of individual schools in reforms and both these factors have resulted in system changes at the national level and renewal of the role of local education bodies. Chrispeels and Harris (2006) see the possibility of the fifth phase of school improvement evolving from the research literature, which is the creation of networked learning communities (schools) generating and sharing knowledge in collaboration, innovating collectively and striving to plan improvement in the teaching learning process.
Hargreaves (2009, p 185) has reviewed these phases of educational reforms as three ages namely the ‘age of optimism and innovation’ (until mid to late 1970s), ‘age of contradiction and complexity’ (1980s to early 1990s) and ‘age of globalization and standardization’ (from mid to late 1990s). There is an interesting dimension to this chronological development of educational change. All these phases of educational improvement and reform have neither been universal nor assessed successful. Further, there is a scarcity of resources and this has kept a large part of the world struggling to provide mass education.

While many developing countries are still fighting to attain universal basic and secondary education, industrialised societies have concentrated their reform efforts and resources in increasing quality, efficiency and accountability. Accurate evaluation mechanisms have been developed at national and international levels to measure this progress. However, many of these efforts are reinforcing an existing education paradigm that does not necessarily meet the demands of the knowledge society of the 21st century. (Benavides et al, 2008, p 38-39)

It is crucial to be aware that the models for change and improvement may not be universal and further there are differences in the diversity of the educational reform focus and agenda, therefore, it is necessary to initiate research in different contexts. The concepts and standards of educational improvement, quality, achievement, performance and provision and access are relative to the reality of the context. Part of the focus of this study is to examine the meaning of these concepts and their associated strategies in a particular context. The impact of the differentiated phases and focus of school improvement efforts across different parts of the world and the influence of the peculiarities of different contexts forms the basis of this research study, which endeavours to explore the contextualized model of educational change management for an under developed country, Pakistan.

This argument for the diversity of the educational reform agenda and the development of the foci of these agenda in different parts of the world provides the setting to present the particular case of the educational reform initiative (the ESR programme) in the Pakistani education system within a broader picture of the challenges faced by the system to take forward this agenda of reform.
2.8 The present challenges for Pakistani education system

Pakistani educational provision is complex and diverse. There has also been a history of a volatile political situation, which has had an impact on education. Therefore, there are a number of challenges in Pakistani education.

Providing education for all and, especially removing the gender disparity in education are the biggest challenges faced by the education sector in Pakistan.

Education remains inequitably distributed among various income groups and regions in the country. Literacy and participation rates are below those in South Asian countries with similar level of economic development. Access of education to children of relevant age group is still inadequate. (Education Sector Reforms: Action Plan 2001-02-2005-06, 2004, P 1)

The literacy rate in Pakistan is officially claimed as 60% for 2010. Independent sources and educational experts, however, are sceptical, contending that the higher figures include people who can handle little more than a signature. According to United Nations Development Programme (2006), Pakistan has the lowest education index of .46 in Asia. This index is calculated on the basis of adult literacy and gross enrolments at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. In the World Bank (2011) data report on country profile, the gross enrolment for primary education in Pakistan is 92% and 33% for secondary education in 2009, which again is the lowest in the region. The governmental expenditure in the education sector is also quite low, as ranked among the five lowest spending nations in the world on education (HRCP, 2004).

Girls’ educational attainment in Pakistan continues to lag behind the level of education attained by boys. This is evident in literacy levels and school enrolment figures, which reveal that a large number of girls have limited access to even basic schooling. According to Pakistan Education Statistics 2007-08, out of the whole primary school enrolment, girls’ enrolment constituted 43.7% and at middle school level it was 42%. The literacy rate for women is 45%, which is much lower than men’s literacy rate of 69.5%. There are also significant provincial and rural disparities. For example, women’s literacy rates are lowest in the rural Sindh and Baluchistan with literacy figures for 2009-10 show that only 20% and
22.5% of rural women in these two provinces respectively are literate, compared to over 70% and 69% of men in these provinces (Economic Survey of Pakistan 2011).

The quality of educational provision is another issue to be tackled as

It is widely recognized that the quality aspects of education have been compromised because of the widespread teacher absenteeism, lack of essential facilities in public schools, an absence of an environment conducive to learning aggravated by the non-transparent manner in which teachers are recruited. Education is said to have lost its relevance to social needs. This is a major factor contributing to the high dropout rate especially in the case of girls. (State of Education in Pakistan 2003-2004, 2005)

In summary, as Khalid and Khan (2006) have identified the issues of access, equity and relevance in the quality of education provision in Pakistan are the major challenges.

One very important dimension in the quality of educational provision is curriculum and curriculum development, which, according to Nayyar and Salim (2002), has serious problems across each of the elements from curriculum policy, documents through to the content of the associated textbooks. In their report, Nayyar and Salim have identified a number of significant problems through content analysis of curriculum documents and textbooks of primary and secondary levels. These include omission of concepts, events in history and materials that limit the critical self-awareness among students; outdated and incoherent pedagogical practices that result in de-motivation of learning. Khalid and Khan (2006, p 316) have termed the syllabi in the Pakistani education system as ‘static and frozen or changing very slowly’. Many people have expressed their misgivings about the process of curriculum development by the Curriculum Wing such as Isani and Virk (2005) who write that ‘Curriculum is usually developed without visualizing the real situation and without keeping in view the future needs’ (p 273). Even the policy document of the latest Education Policy 2009 admits that the construction of curriculum has been limited to what is presented through textbooks, which are used as the sole resource in the classrooms and consequently assessments are based on these textbooks.
Another challenge faced by the Pakistani education system is the isolation of madrassa education. Although, the tradition of madrassa education has thrived in Pakistan, but there is a limited scope for the madrassa graduates to be assimilated in the job market or to join other streams of education especially after primary school level. This isolation of madrassa education from the rest of the education system limits the future prospects of its graduates. It has created a division in the work force with no horizontal mobility between the religious and secular streams of education. This division is a critical source of disparity, exclusion and finally resentment of a sizable proportion of the public in the country.

The availability of required teachers is another challenge faced by the Pakistani education system: ‘Educational institutions face a shortage of qualified and motivated teachers, especially female teachers’ (Education Sector Reforms: Action Plan 2001-02-2005-06, 2004. P 1). Rizvi and Elliot, (2005, p 35) argue that with regard to public education there is a ‘large number of uneducated, undertrained, underpaid and, most important of all, undervalued government primary school teachers’. In-service teacher development in Pakistan is designed using the pattern of a short workshop or a few lectures and workshops (Abbusson and Watson, 1999) called the ‘workshop syndrome’ by Siddiqui (2007) and research has found this practice less effective to change teachers’ practice (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1991).

Another challenge for the education system of Pakistan is the leadership in education at both system and institutional levels and the circumstances leaders at these levels have to work in. Similar to the situation of other developing countries ‘leaders often work in poorly equipped schools with inadequately trained staff’ and there is ‘rarely any formal leadership training’ and further leadership appointments are made ‘on the basis of their teaching record rather than their leadership potential’ (Bush, 2008, p 89). The study by Rizvi (2008) suggests the leadership training for Pakistani institutional heads should be beyond the technical aspects of leadership to dealing with the distributive, emotional and values sensitive aspects as well. Simkins et al. (1998) also suggest the need for management training and development for head teachers in Pakistan to improve their role effectiveness.
Given these range of challenges relating to the quality of provision and level of achievement as well as issues posed by the skill levels of teachers and leaders, there have been a series of reforms in Pakistan, especially in the last decade of the 20th century.

2.9 Education Sector Reforms (ESR) programme

Halai (2006) recounts the need for ‘restructuring and reconceptualisation’ of education in Pakistan by not just developing infrastructure but more fundamentally by reconstructing the concept of education. The task of devising a comprehensive and inclusive reform programme and then implementing this in a context of low performance and a geographically vast and culturally diverse system is therefore, another major challenge but is the only way to address those other challenges explored previously. Khalid and Khan (2006, p 310) have argued that past reform efforts in the system have been instrumental mainly in promoting short-sightedness, confusion, mismanagement and anarchy. Pakistan’s education system, therefore, remains unable to address the problems that have derailed the realization of its goals and objectives relative to education.

Therefore, there is evidence that previous reform efforts have been impeded in realising their objectives. Therefore, it is essential that the processes of change in Pakistani education are more fully understood. It is one of the key issues focused in this research study, as this research is an attempt to look into this challenge faced by Pakistani education system through the exploration of the experience of implementing curriculum reforms at the higher secondary school level. This curriculum reform was part of a comprehensive education reform package ‘ESR (Education Sector Reform)’ programme initiated in 2001. This programme was planned in 2001 with ten policy areas:

- school access,
- school improvement,
- gender inequalities,
- governance and capacity for decentralization,
- public private partnership,
- diversification of general education,
- quality education,
- early childhood care and education,
- resource
- literacy

The quality of education aspect of the programme has been further divided into a five-fold strategy and ‘provision of improved curriculum and teaching learning material’ is one on these. In the ESR Action Plan 2001-2005 continuous improvement in curricula appears as one of the strategies to improve the quality of education.

The emphasis on curriculum, textbooks and examination system reforms is evident from the statement of objectives of the ESR programme. Among the seven objectives of this programme one is concerned specifically with the curriculum Improvement in the quality of education at all levels through better teachers, upgraded training options, curriculum, and textbook reforms and competency based examination system for promoting Pakistan as a knowledge-based society.

The curriculum development programme encompassed primary and secondary education and all subject areas. The aim was twofold, to bring national curriculum at par with the developed world in content and approach and to develop critical thinking in the background of the specifically Pakistani context. One of the early initiatives in this programme was the revision of national curriculum in languages and social sciences for classes I through XII. Through the Federal Supervision of Curricula, Textbooks and Maintenance of Standard of Education Act 1976, Curriculum Wing in the Ministry of Education (MOE) was made responsible for development or revision of national curriculum up to the higher secondary level of education. A comprehensive exercise of curriculum revision was initiated in 2005 with the deadline of December 2009 to revise curricula of all subjects for classes/levels I-XII. In the latest policy document of 2009, it has been pledged that as a policy objective, this process of curriculum development will be continued with the wider participation of people in the field. The National Curriculum Council (NCC) has been created in the Curriculum Wing of the MOE to revise the curriculum of all subjects form class I to XII.

The present study has focused on curriculum reform in the languages (Urdu and English) and the Pakistan Studies for higher secondary level comprising classes XI and XII. This study has
focused on reforms to both the syllabus and the assessment system in the selected subject areas for this level. The assessment system reforms have been part of the curriculum reform but have gained a singular focus due to the significance of the examination in the system in general and of the examinations at higher secondary level in particular. At this level, external examinations have a crucial bearing on the assessment of the achievement and any future academic and professional options of students. The performance of students in these examinations is considered as the reflection of the efficiency and effectiveness of teachers as well as of the institutions. Against this background, assessment through external examination has become the key concern for teachers, students and institutions alike. The alignment of curriculum and instruction is mediated through examinations. Therefore, examination focused learning and teaching is the practice and only those aspects of curriculum are focused on in the classrooms, which are tested through external examinations. Thus, Isani and Virk (2005) demonstrate that ‘Teachers pay particular attention to the trends of past papers and coach students and prepare them accordingly, discarding what is in the syllabus and the curriculum which is not tested is ignored’ (p 277).

Students enter the institutions of higher education after Higher Secondary Education level and the results of public examinations at this level have a special significance. The right of admission to different institutions is determined either solely or largely based on these results with the exception of a very few elite institutions. The choice of profession and future success in a student’s career in terms of earnings and social status are heavily dependent upon the institutions students enrol in, so examinations at this level bring a lot of pressure on students, parents, teachers and the institutions. These examinations have an added complication that these are conducted through a number of examination boards, which have different marking schemes. Therefore, there is no standardization possible to make comparisons except through the achievement of students in the form of numerical marks awarded. Thus, attainment of certain level of marks is the only proof of the academic achievements, which students have attained in their secondary education level and even this proof is skewed due to the lack of standardization among the awards of the various examination boards. To overcome this credibility crisis some institutions of higher education have devised their own system of entrance tests. However, this practice is very limited in scope and has failed to diffuse the examination mania in the Pakistani education system. The need for reform in the examination system has been expressed repeatedly. The foundation of the current reforms through ESR
was laid in the Education Policy 1998 when one of the objectives of the quality of education section emphasized the need to reform the education system in order to discourage rote learning and to encourage the acquisition of real knowledge. The modus of such reform was delineated as the inclusion of multiple choice (objective type) questions in the examinations to assess the depth of student knowledge. This concept and need of examination system reform has found continuation in ESR and it was part of the curriculum reform segment of the programme.

ESR programme is a comprehensive programme to address the challenges faced by the Pakistani education sector. However, identifying the problems and designing a reform programme to address those is just the initial work. Though necessary, it remains just the rhetoric of the policy, until it is reflected through change in the practice. The multiple challenges of access, gender and geographical disparity in access, low literacy levels, low quality of provision regarding physical facilities, teachers and curriculum in the Pakistani education system are set in a peculiar country context. The issues like low governmental spending on education and a deteriorating publically funded education system, isolation of madrassa education, centralized bureaucratic structure of the system and dearth of leadership and leadership development opportunities add to the complexity of the context of the Pakistani education system.

These particular challenges are grounded in the structural and cultural background of the Pakistani education system; therefore, solutions for the problems faced by the system have to be contextualised in the peculiarities of the society and the situation. This research is grounded in this argument for the contextualization of educational reform in the social, cultural and structural realities of the system it aims to reform. As indicated in section 2.2 of this chapter and elaborated in the chapter 4 on research design, educators in the institutions have been included in the research to get a closer look at the contextual reality of the educational reform in Pakistan at the practice level with particular reference to the curriculum reform programme initiated under ESR programme in 2001.
2.10 Conclusions

Change and especially educational change are multifaceted phenomena and so there are a range of perspectives on the concepts, a multiplicity of elements affecting them and affected by them. The intricacy of the phenomenon is enhanced due to the complexity of the management of change where there is a diversity of reactions to it and different conceptualisations of the stages of the process of change. Technical, political and cultural dimensions of the drivers and processes of change, which are sensitive not only to the nature and purpose of the change initiative but also to the context of each situation, add to the complexity of the initiation as well as the implementation of educational change. The predominant human aspect of educational change makes it a very sensitive issue. Theoretical and empirical evidence has rejected the purely mechanistic handling of educational change. There are technical and structural aspects of the process of educational change, but as evidence indicates, it primarily is a human phenomenon. This human perspective of educational change warrants sensitivity to the social dimensions of the change process. Consideration and inclusion of the perspectives of different stakeholders in this process is a vital ingredient for success and teachers are among the highly significant stakeholders. It has also been noted that it is this human dimension of educational change, where there is the risk of being ignored or not being assessed and incorporated sensitively in large-scale reform efforts particularly those initiated from the central offices and implemented at varied sites of action. This theoretical and empirical background to the complexity of the concept and the process of change will shape the theoretical framework of this research study. This research study will be grounded in the phenomenology of change to gain an insight into the process of change management through the lived experiences of those involved in the implementation of the change. This research will be designed from the position that the actuality of educational reform is shaped as it encounters the realities of the ‘on the ground’ situation of people and the context. These contextual dimensions set the parameters of a thoughtful, sensitive and realistic educational reform, which seems to be the critical aspects if educational reform has to prove different this time, especially in Pakistan. No country can afford to waste the always-scarce financial and invaluable human resources on an ineffective reform programme, but this is perhaps even more important in the case of an economically underdeveloped country like Pakistan facing particular and critical internal and external challenges. This investigation is an endeavour to gather the views, reactions, experiences and opinions of those who are in the process of implementing an externally mandated reform initiative in
order to bring forth a contextualised perspective on the process of educational change management. Among these implementers of the educational reform at the grassroots level, institution heads/head teachers have a significant role of providing the link between the policy and the practice. The next chapter looks into the role of leaders in the management of change in general and of educational leaders in the management of educational change in particular.
Chapter 3  Leadership and Educational Change Management

In the previous chapter, the focus of the discussion was on the concept of educational change with regard to the construction of teaching and the role of teachers with some consideration of the process and reaction to change, multiplicity of educational change agenda and the situation of the Pakistani education system and ESR programme in the wider global context. Implicit in these discussions about change is the question of the leadership of change, which is the focus of this chapter. The significance of leadership in the management of change has been validated through a huge body of research literature on the topic. Leadership is at the heart of initiation, implementation and institutionalization of change and becomes more crucial if the change sought is a large-scale reform effort particularly in vital public service areas. The change initiative under study is a large-scale reform effort in the education sector in Pakistan; therefore, leadership has been taken as a key dimension of the investigation. Leadership at the institutional level involved in the implementation of this externally mandated change will be focused on in part of this research. Therefore, the chapter presents both a wider theorization on leadership and its specific link with change management. The chapter charts the historical development of the concept of ‘leadership’ and then examines different models/frames or theories of leadership. In the later part of the chapter, leadership is then discussed as a catalyst for change indeed illustrating the inherent link between the concepts of ‘leadership’ and of ‘change’ and the centrality of leadership in the management of change through the review of literature. This discussion is then focused on the concept of strategic management. This model of leadership has been extensively deliberated with a focus on its elements and the specific relevance of strategic leadership for the management of change.

3.1 The concept of leadership

Though many scholars and practitioners have tried to define leadership from a range of different perspectives, still we cannot take any one definition to be comprehensive and precise. ‘Leadership as a concept has always been widely written about’ yet it remains ‘elusive’ (Earley and Weindling, 2004, p 4) and ‘there is no agreed definition of the concept’ (Bush and Middlewood, 2005, p 4). Firestone and Martinez (2009) also see leadership as
‘notoriously difficult to define’ (p 62). This quagmire is the result of the complexity of the concept and because of the fact that the practice of leadership largely is contextual: ‘leadership is exquisitely sensitive to the context in which it is exercised’ (Leithwood et al, 1999, p 4) and ‘leadership never operates in a vacuum’ (Wallace and Pocklington, 2002, p 213). Further, ‘Notions of leadership are profoundly value-laden. They relate to national purposes, local context, as well as the skills and attributes of individuals’ (Riley and MacBeath, 2003, p 174). Despite all these difficulties of definition, nevertheless the debate about the concept of leadership has attained a great level of depth and breadth. A huge amount of both academic and non-academic literature has been produced around ‘leadership as concept and a set of practices’, and learning on leadership has been enormous ‘over the last century’ (Leithwood et al, 1999, p 5). Leadership is a very vibrant topic for research in all fields of enquiry and it has expanded beyond any disciplinary borders.

Leadership is a key topic in education ‘because of the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes’ (Bush, 2008, p 1). Thus, ‘numerous research studies and reports from school inspectors and others claim that leadership, especially headship, is a crucial factor in school effectiveness and the key to organisational success and improvement’ (Earley and Weindling, 2004, p 3) while Gronn (2003) indicates that for current reformers ‘the key ingredient in the success of structured schools is leadership’ (p 7).

In keeping with the widely acknowledged significance of leadership in education, many theorists have tried to describe leadership by reviewing the literature and highlighting particular aspects of leadership. Bush (2008) has reviewed a sizable literature on educational leadership and has identified influence, vision, shared vision, personal and professional values as repeatedly mentioned dimensions of leadership. On the other hand, Cheng (1996) in his review of many definitions of leadership has found two general elements, which are the element of influence and of development and achievement of goals. In a later piece Cheng (2002) states that these two general elements of leadership that is, the development of goals and the process of influence, gain added significance in times of continuous change. These two dimensions have been focused on by other theorists as well. Firestone and Martinez (2009) also validate the dimension of influence because leadership ‘usually involves the
exercise of social influence, often in the service of some collective end’ (p 62). Bennett (2000) has described leadership as being about ‘ideas, dreams and vision, aspirations and hopes’ (p 30) and the leader communicating these to others while creating the inspiration for their realization. The process needs an appropriate style at different points in time, which is ‘fit for the purpose, fit for the personnel involved and fit for the context’ (p 30). Harris and Lambert (2003) separate the individual from the concept of leadership describing it as ‘a broad-based participation on the part of a community or society’ (p 16) and assert that school leadership is about ‘learning together and constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively’ (p 17).

Therefore, despite the centrality of leadership in education, there is no single definition or description of leadership in the field. Some descriptions of leadership focus on the attributes of the person exercising leadership, others concentrate on the elements of the position of leadership or style of leading. Others detach leadership from the person or position and see it as a process and still others see it as a group activity. Leadership as a concept has evolved over a period, passing through different phases and foci, which will be dealt in detail in the following section.

3.2 Historical development of the concept

In the absence of a specific definition or description, the concept of leadership can be approached from different angles. Beyond finding a precise definition, many researchers have attempted to elaborate upon the concept of leadership through its historical development. The process of conceptualization and theorization of leadership have been enriched over time as Hopkins et al (1994) have traced the chronological shift in thinking about leadership from trait theories to behavioural theories to situational approaches and then to the transformational style of leadership but they term this shift a non-linear process. They see this evolution of the concept as the addition of ‘layers of understanding rather than alternatives’ (p 154) when an added perspective does not reject the validity of previous perspectives. Cheng (2002) categorizes this evolution of leadership theories into two broader listings of traditional concepts including trait, behavioural and contingency theories and transformational perspectives. According to him the traditional concept of leadership is
transactional in nature when the leader transacts with followers to determine their performance while transformative perspectives, which emerged since the 1970s, conceptualize a leader as proactive, transforming the situation to create new culture and opportunities. Mayrowetz et al (2009, p 178) have summarized this chronological development of the concept of leadership as:

Over the past several decades, the definition of leadership in our field has evolved from individual traits, to an organizational quality (Ogawa and Bossert, 1995), to the descriptive version of distributed leadership – an idea so conceptually vast that it is difficult to separate what does and does not constitute leadership.

Earley and Weindling (2004) have also theorized about the nature of leadership from the standpoint of a historical re-visitation of the concept and its categorization into six theoretical frameworks over time namely: trait theory, style theory, contingency theory, power/influence theory, personal trait theory and learning-centred theory (p 9). These theories can be further elaborated to gain an insight into the general concept of leadership.

The earliest studies of leadership focused on qualities, or traits of leaders (Cole, 2002) so in the early part of the twentieth century, researchers developed the trait theory (or great man theory) of leadership based on personality, skills and physical attributes. Leithwood et al (2009) have called this location of leadership in individuals with ‘heroic capabilities and charismatic qualities’ as ‘focused leadership’ (p 223) which according to Gronn (2003) has continued to present times as ‘a solo or stand-alone leader’ (p 27). Style theory is another early conceptualisation of leadership as Bass (1981) argues that in the 1930s style theory was popularized after the work of Lewin, Lippitt and White at Iowa University. These early thinkers identified three styles: democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire. This emphasis on the style of leadership ran through many decades with notable additions made by Blake and Mouton’s managerial grid in 1960, McGregor’s theory X and theory Y in 1960, Rensis Likert’s fourfold models (1967).

From the 1970s, other constructions of leadership were generated. In the 1970s and 80s, there was a change of direction, as the factors of context and situation were examined (as cited by
Bass, 1981) by theorists like Fiedler (1967) and Hersey and Blanchard (1977) from which contingency or situational theory of leadership emerged. In 1990s, power and influence theories focused on the function and exercise of power/influence, as explained in the work of Leithwood et al (1999).

Within current discussions, there are a number of different ideas that draw from the theory of personal traits where leadership is aligned with the ability to bring about change. Earley and Weindling (2004) in their discussion of the evolution of theory on leadership, argue that more recently the idea of personal trait (competence and capability) theory is gaining popularity. They have included the ideas of emotional intelligence popularized by Goleman (1996) as part of leadership competence to recognise and capitalise on the emotions of self and others. Leithwood et al (2008) have also alluded to ‘a small handful of personal traits’ which ‘explain a high proportion of the variation in leadership effectiveness’ (p 28). Gronn (2003) has used the term of ‘designer-leadership’ in which sets of ‘standards and competences’ are determined for the preparation and development of leaders. Part of this construction of leadership highlights the importance of learning. The learning-centred theory is based on the conception of leadership involved in self-learning and nurturing learning of others. It also includes the ideas of transformational leadership, instructional leadership and distributed leadership, which fosters leadership in others.

Distributed leadership in particular is ‘much in vogue’ (Leithwood et al, 2009, p 1) and it ‘moves away from individual-and role-based views of leadership to those that focus on the organization and on leadership tasks’ (Firestone and Martinez, 2009, p 62). These ideas about distributed leadership were touched on by writers (Bryman, 1996 and Miller, 1998) in the 1990s but were extensively conceptualised by Gronn (2000). Leithwood et al (2004, p 60) has used Gronn’s concept of distributed leadership to further theorize on two streams of distributed leadership ‘additive and holistic’. Additive is the distribution of leadership tasks among members but without any interaction while the holistic type of distributed leadership is not only dispersed among members but there is interaction and interdependence of members making it a dynamic social process. Sergiovanni (2001) has also termed leadership a type of social capital, which increases in value when shared. The concept of distributed leadership has been further refined by theorists such as Dalin (2005) examines the concept as
‘leadership teams’ (p 84) and brings in the issue of delegation for distributed leadership with the argument whether just the tasks are delegated or the authority and responsibility as well. For the creation of leadership teams, Dalin notes that trust (on motivation and competence of others), the skill to delegate and awareness of what motivates others are the essential requisites. Leithwood et al (2008) have included the influence of distributed leadership as one of the seven strong claims of successful school leadership, which have emerged from the research literature.

This enthusiasm for distributed leadership has been criticized later by Gronn himself (2009) as ‘this discrediting of previously dominant approaches to leadership as heroic and replacement of them by distributed leadership has accorded it a kind of counter-hegemonic status’ (p 19). He has advocated for ‘hybrid leadership’ when focused and distributed leadership forms co-exist which is ‘a more realistic, organic understanding of leadership’ (18).

A further criticism comes from Sergiovanni (2001) who refutes the idea of considering educational leadership with reference to leadership theories and practices for their being ‘too rational and too scripted to fit the messy world in which school leaders must work’ and terms schooling ‘too complex, disconnected, and even chaotic for direct leadership to work’ (p 1). Therefore, ‘no single strategy, style, list or formula fits all situations’ (p 20) and leadership has to be adaptive to different theories. The situation is further complicated by top down reforms due to which people working in schools are constrained by distant authorities, which robs ‘leaders and schools of discretion. And without discretion it becomes difficult and often impossible to lead’ (p 1). In these circumstances, he advocates for cognitive leadership which ‘has more to do with purposes, values, and frameworks that obligate us morally’ (p x) than it does with psychological needs or practicalities. Gronn’s concept of hybrid leadership is a pragmatic model based on creativity in the exercise of the leadership by mixing and matching the opposite concepts of leadership. Sergiovanni’s cognitive leadership is a moral position more focused on the purpose and values than on the practical demands. However, the concept of hybrid leadership does not indicate any laxity on moral position and therefore, it is possible to have a cognitive leadership to create a vision and then create the most suitable mix of focused and distributed leadership style to realise that vision. These conceptualisations
of leadership have a significant relevance to the leadership of change as it needs leading creatively but also with a sense of purpose. This brings the discussion to consider other models of leadership, before the specificity of leadership of change is considered.

3.3 Models of Leadership

Another attempt to create a comprehensive conceptualization of leadership by encompassing its different dimensions has been made by Bush (2008) who has developed a topology of nine leadership models. Bush and Glover (2003) first generated a typology of eight models based on the six-model conception developed by Leithwood et al (1999) who had drawn from the scrutiny of 121 articles in four research journals in the field. Bush (2008) has reviewed his earlier work on models of leadership and presented his findings in the form of nine models of leadership. These nine models are:-

- managerial leadership focusing on the management of existing activities;
- transformation leadership which delineates the leadership function as securing commitment and capacities of followers;
- participative leadership when decision making is participative among the whole group;
- interpersonal leadership focusing on collaboration and interpersonal relationships;
- transactional leadership as a political model based on the exchange of benefits for some ‘valued resources’ (p 15);
- postmodern leadership with a focus on inclusion and participation and a sensitivity to diversity and democracy;
- moral leadership deriving authority and influence from shared values, beliefs and ethics;
- instructional leadership focusing on the teaching and learning process and the targeted influence of leaders on the learning of students through teachers
- contingent leadership with no single leadership emphasis instead a stress on adaptation in leadership practice according to the situation

All these leadership models are not mutually exclusive as many of them can be utilised by one person in different situations. MacBeath and Myers (1999, p 80) term this ability ‘multi-
framing’ and when discussing Bolman and Deal’s (2008) framework for leadership write that, ‘The school leader who has acquired the ability to view things through many frames is in possession of the tool of ‘multi-framing’. Here advantage is in seeing the situation simultaneously through a number of different lenses’ (p 80). Cheng (2002) has linked the conceptualization of models of educational leadership with educational reforms. For him the five dimensions of leadership namely structural, human, political, cultural and educational make a comprehensive model of educational leadership to strategize for ongoing worldwide reforms.

The multi-dimensional model presented by Cheng (2002) and the nine models delineated by Bush (2008) have a special relevance in the times of crisis or change. This argument can be supported by referring to a similar study on the frames of leadership by Bolman and Deal (2008) who have presented four frameworks namely structural, human resource, cultural and political. According to Bolman and Deal, leaders can plan and tackle change while looking through these lenses (frames/dimensions/models). When Bolman and Deal (2008) see the scenario from a human resource perspective, they realize that change causes people to feel stressed so they need psychological support, the development of new skills and access to opportunities for involvement. The structural perspective makes leaders aware that change can create confusion due to revision in roles and relationships. This requires attention to formal guidelines and policies for adjustments. The political frame focuses the notion that change generates conflict, which needs to be faced and negotiated. While the symbolic framework brings home the issue that change creates loss of meaning and purpose when the attachments are detached, people experience difficulty in letting go so symbolic healing is needed to create ownership of the new and different symbolic frameworks. In a similar way, the nine models of leadership can be linked to the process of educational change as nine perspectives to see, analyze and experience the process.

The four (Boelman and Deal, 2008) and five models (Cheng, 2002) overlap in the nine model typology (Bush, 2008) for leadership. However, the real significance of these characterizations lies in considering these models as lenses to get a better and clearer picture of the situation and in applying framing and multiple framing techniques for creating new frameworks for leadership in action. The concept of Gronn’s (2009) hybridization of
leadership models is relevant here in generating new frameworks by combining any or all of these models for more grounded and creative leadership forms. This process is more relevant in the situation of change management, when new situations and changed demands require new styles of leadership. At this point, we can take this argument further into the concept of leadership for change.

3.4 Leadership as catalyst for change

While some theorists have explored the concept of leadership as a theoretical construct or typology of forms, other discussions deal specifically with leadership and change. Cuban (1988, as quoted in Bush and Middlewood, 2005) makes a link between leadership and change and differentiates it from management as a maintenance activity. Educational change is ‘a dynamic process involving interacting variables over time’ (Fullan, 2003, p 71) and educational leadership is a vital variable in the process of educational change. A number of theorists and researchers have highlighted the significance of leadership in the process of educational change. Harris and Lambert (2003) write that school leaders ‘can provide the much needed energy for change’ (p 38) and they are ‘catalysts for change’ and ‘enthuse’ and ‘engage’ others for change which helps in creating the ‘emotional climate’ for change (p 38). Wallace and Pocklington (2002) also endorse these ideas by declaring leadership as integral to the management of change by inspiring and directing change, creating acceptance for it and monitoring its progress. It is also evident in discussion where Fullan (2003, p 83) has described the principal’s role as a key factor in ‘blocking or promoting’ educational change as they legitimate ‘whether a change is to be taken seriously’ and by ‘supporting teachers both psychologically and with resources’. In his ten guidelines of action for school reform or improvement (Fullan, 1992, p 87-88), and in this conception of the role of the principal, an important dimension is ‘leading changes in the school as an organization’ (p 84).

Lewis and Murphy (2008) in their review of literature on educational leadership claim the ‘wider literature does support the idea that, in times of great change, effective leadership is crucial and can make all the difference’ (p 130-131). Lewis and Murphy (2008) have also pointed that this literature ‘is still integrating a variety of ways of describing what leaders
may need to do to bring about change’ (p 129). In this regard, Bush and Coleman’s views may be a representative quote,

Leaders need to establish the climate, the structures and the processes to enable new ideas to be forged, tested and implemented for the benefit of pupils and students. They also need to be able to adjudicate between competing priorities and to determine whether and how to resource new initiatives. (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 77)

The role of the principal as the leader for change, which is externally initiated, has an added set of the implications. According to Northfield (1992), the leader helps participants to develop personal understandings and meanings of change, ensures opportunities for participants to work collaboratively and encourages them to reflect on practice. Here the first challenge for the leader is ‘to help teachers explore the implications it (change) has for themselves’ and to consider its implications for the school (p 89). In this process Pettit and Hind (1992) term the role of institutional leaders in the situation of change as ‘the trinity of roles’ when they acts as individuals, as representatives of the institutions and representatives of the system (p 127). Wendell, (2009) names their role as the most difficult of all others involved at the implementation stage, as they have to strive for the reculturing of teachers through leading and supporting them while at the same time reculturing their own role to be able to do so. There are differences in the way individual leaders may deal with changes especially externally imposed change. Hall (1998) argues that some leaders make a strategic withdrawal to cope, while some leaders ‘stand their grounds and fight’ (p 136). Hall has further differentiated those leaders who fight into two categories: ‘leader-resistors’ and ‘leader-managers’. The former challenge the reform, while latter adopt the reform to transform their institutions which may serve the immediate student educational requirements. This makes the role of school leader challenging and complex, which may seem intimidating for some of the aspiring leaders. This view has been supported in the work of Hargreaves (2009) who has attributed the crisis of non availability of quality leaders in schools to top down reforms and has quoted the report of NASSP (National Association of Secondary School Principals) report (2001) and his own research (Hargreaves, 2003) to support this stance. In his study 85% of secondary school teachers in Ontario expressed hesitation in taking a leadership position due to imposed and standardized reforms.
In summary, leadership is a vital ingredient in the recipe for educational change. The leadership role is one of providing inspiration, motivation, enthusiasm, facilitation, monitoring and direction in the case of an internally initiated change. When change is externally mandated, the leadership role needs some additional dimensions such as mediation, negotiation, and reculturing. Here the leader must consider their own personal, professional and moral position and that of teachers, students and the educational authority administrators. There is no one set of skills and practices for a leadership role in the management of educational change and leaders devise their own plans and strategies to deliver change, which can prove a daunting task for some. After exploring the significance of leadership in educational change and outlining a broader conception of the leadership role, we can further review the literature on the leadership role for the management of change.

3.5 Leadership for change management

Everard and Morris (1990) stress the need for a different style and structure of management to manage change from those approaches needed to manage the status quo. The requisites for the management of change include ‘a distinctive mix of knowledge, skills, personal attitudes and values, and the capacity to orchestrate them’ (p 242). They have developed a list of knowledge, skills and personality characteristics required for managing change (p 244-245) but have stressed the need for creating the right synthesis of these qualities instead of treating them as a checklist. Therefore, the focus is on a systematic approach by investigating the need, goals, complexity, feasibility and context of change, envisioning the future, studying the present by taking into account the readiness, capability and driving and restraining forces for the change.

However, there are differences in what is seen as important for leaders taking the change forward. Busher (2006) emphasizes technical knowledge for leaders to bring about change and characterizes change management as involving leaders and their colleagues in ‘creating, organizing, managing, monitoring and resolving the value conflicts inherent in the change process’ (p 148). This process has to be ‘culturally relevant to the sites’ (p 149) of change. Kinsler and Gamble (2001, p 308) also stress that leaders need to appreciate the social and
cultural context of change for their institutions and ‘should be prepared to mediate’ it for them. These proposals are also evident in the six-point plan of strategies for successful change by Leithwood et al (1999). They argue that leaders in schools play the major role in change implementation through the capacity building of teachers and their schools by fostering learning individuals and learning organizations respectively. All these research studies place school leaders at the centre of educational change management.

The research literature refers to different dimensions of leadership when it is oriented to the management of change. One dimension in this context is the attributes or styles of leaders and the other is the strategies required or adopted by the leaders to lead change. Wallace and Pocklington (2002) suggest a mix of transactional and transformational leadership for the management of educational change as ‘transformational leadership generates enhanced commitment to a group-wide interest and the consequent extra effort necessary to bring about change; transactional leadership fosters ongoing work by meeting followers’ basic needs linked with their sectional self-interests’ (p 214-215). For them along with the coherence and organization of strategies for change management, tolerance to ambiguity is equally important. A blend of these dimensions is referred to by Law and Glover (2000) who have quoted Bennis’s (1969) model of change strategies along with leadership models to highlight the diffusion of the concepts: how different strategies of change management fit into different frames of leadership in education. According to them, a bureaucratic model of leadership may use empirical-rational strategies for change on the assumption that people are responsive to rational explanations. In this context education, training and publicity become useful tools to bring change. A collegial model of leadership can use a normative-re-educative model of change with the assumption that change needs change in attitudes, relationships, values and skills. Typically, this strategy involves using consultants/change agents. A political model of leadership is likely to use a power-coercive model of change. Top down changes driven by legislation and directive emerge because of this combination. This leads to access to political, legal, administrative and economic resources.

Busher (2006) has also used two models to describe change management, one of which emphasises the political aspect and the other is a modernist or systems model. In contrast to Bennis’s (1969) model, Busher’s political model is not about coercion but about negotiation
in transformational and transactional ways to reconcile the internal demands and external pressures. Nevertheless, he also suggests a ‘subtle or manipulative use of power to construct a supportive arena’ (p 156) to discuss and get support for change. His modernistic or system model of leadership for change also emphasises support and is an action learning approach ‘carried out by groups of people where leadership is genuinely collegial rather than hierarchic’ (p 156). In this construction, those leading change simply match their managerial strategy with an appropriate change perspective to provide a suitable and effective leadership role and many researchers have tackled this argument.

The real world realities for educational leaders, however, are not as neat and clear, where they can design their own leadership role and match their strategy with the situation. The ‘social and material environment of the situations’ (Priestly, 2011a, p 16) restrict their agency and contain their choices. A similar argument has been supported by Wallace and Pocklington (2002) that ‘much practical guidance on managing educational change overplays the extent of managers’ agency and underplays its limits’ (p 209) and they are of the view that the agency of managers is conditioned by the agency of other change agents, stakeholders and structural issue.

These issues are evident in McNay’s (1995) model where he has used the degree of tightness or looseness on the two dimensions of policy definition and control on implementation to present a model for change management in universities. This model takes into account the nuances of control in policy and implementation and the interplay of different propositions, which emerge. In this model Type A is collegiate style with freedom to pursue personal and university goals, consensual decision making and permissive leadership style. Type B is managerialism in the university with a focus on regulation, consistency and rules and management style is formal-rational and decision-making is rule-based. Type C is the corporate university where policy definition and implementation control are tight and the management style in commanding, decision-making is tactical, and students are customers. Type D is the enterprise university with a focus on competence and has a devolved management style, flexible decision-making while maintaining professional accountability.
The significance of McNay’s model lies in its indication of the structural bounds and cultural definitions of the milieu for the enactment of the leadership role. On the other hand, some theorists have referred to the models of leadership, which indicate agency in the leadership role. For Foster (1989) leadership has critical, educative, moral and transformative dimensions and ‘leadership is at its heart a critical practice’ (p 52) which implies the need for educational leaders to be involved in reflective and critical thinking about their practices and structures and culture of their particular institutions. As leadership is transformative, so it has to be critical about the ways in which these practices, structures and culture may need to change. Built on critical and transformative dimensions are the educative and moral dimensions of leadership so educational leaders, like social mobilisers, bring about transformation as a shared endeavour of the teachers, the pupils and the community. Drawing upon the work of Fay (1987), Foster (1989) argues that existing educational leaders have a responsibility to use education as a means of empowerment for all. Closely related to this four dimensional concept of leadership by Foster is Smyth’s (1989) view on educative leadership for schools which is empowering others to get involved in ‘an active and inclusive process of questioning, challenging and theorizing about the social, political and cultural nature of the work of schools’ (p 190). This theorizing can be particularly appropriate for professionals in education, since education as a process involves reflection as well as learning and activity. These elements of educational leadership endow the leaders with supportive strategizing for educational change in critical, educative and transformative perspectives and create caveat for their agency.
About the proactive leadership role for educational leadership, Fullan (2003) asserts that it can be realized by developing leadership in others so that the combined forces can make a difference as ‘school leadership is a collective enterprise’ (p xv). Fullan (2003) calls upon leaders to change the context by introducing ‘new elements into the situation that are bound to influence behavior for the better’ (p 1). He has advocated for ‘level five leadership’ (borrowing the term from Collins, 2001, who described this level to be exercised by disciplined people, with disciplined thoughts and disciplined actions). This type of leadership displays ‘informed professional judgment’ (p 27) for future educational leadership in leading complex learning organizations and ‘helping to establish new cultures in schools’ with ‘capacities to engage in continuous problem solving and improvement’ (p 28). This transformation of culture is possible with morally purposeful leaders who establish a ‘climate of relationship of trust’ (p 63) and the culture of discipline. These concepts overlap with Leithwood et al (1999) who suggested three sets of values for leaders of future incremental change and these sets include ‘carefulness and a constructively critical perspective’ to adopt only purposeful change, ‘continuous improvement’ and ‘respect for the capacities and commitments of the past and current educators’ (p 222).

In the five-dimensional leadership role envisioned by Foster (1989), educative leadership by Smyth (1989), and level five leadership by Fullan (2003) there are elements of criticality, agency, collaboration and moral imperative to develop leadership in others (teachers). One way of developing the elements of collaboration and teacher leadership is through distributed leadership. Mayrowetz et al (2009) have suggested customisation of the Job Characteristic Model of Hackman and Oldham (1980) for school reform by incorporating distributed leadership as Work Redesign. They have discussed that how distributed leadership can influence the core job characteristics (task variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) to create transition mechanisms (motivation, sense making and learning) and lead to school improvement. Timperley (2009) has also linked distributed leadership with change by pointing out its relation to instructional aspects of leadership, which influences ‘programmatic changes and instructional improvement’ (p 198).
On the other hand Pettit and Hind (1992) suggest a different view of educative leadership as a strategy to lead educational change by appraising ‘personal skills, strengths and style of leadership’ as well as ‘knowledge and understanding of colleagues and their possible reaction to change’ which needs objectivity supported by keeping ‘an emotional distance’ from change (p 128). They provide an elaborate agenda for educative leaders to adopt change (‘zone of disruption’) at the institutional level. At the first stage of change initiation, educative leaders will deal with confusion and tension ‘by defining the problems within the parameters of system policy’ and will identify those people who have interest and have the ‘capacity to contribute’ in the change. At the second stage when political processes of negotiations start, an educative leader will mediate to clarify roles, responsibilities, structures, perceptions and goals, to agree bargains and compromises and will assess resource needs. At the third stage of the change process as the negotiations are legitimized, an educative leader helps to obtain consensus and creates trust for ‘the agreed frameworks’. Educative leaders at the fourth/implementation stage of change process will determine the ‘phases and time scale for implementation’, goals and achievement indicators for every phase and role of ‘implementation group’ (p124). This systematic elaboration of the leadership role in the management of change, though characterized as educative leadership, has much in common with the systematic approach of synthesising the element of personal attributes, needs, capabilities and motivation of others and the complexity of the context by Everard and Morris (1990). It aligns with Busher’s (2006) concept of balancing the technical, political, cultural and human aspects of the change process and Leithwood et al’s (1999) proposition of the leadership role for change as the opportunity for capacity building of teachers and the institutions. This convergence of views on identifying a strategy for the management of change and enlisting the required support and energy for it brings the discussion to strategic management. The following sections of this chapter will review the concept of strategic management further elaborating the element of the strategic management and strategic leadership for educational change.

3.6 Strategic management

The references from the research literature verify the centrality and viability of strategic approach in the management of the reform programme especially a system wide change. The strategic management of educational change has been referred by many writers and researchers as: ‘if change is to be beneficial it needs to be coherent, purposeful and make a
difference in the long term’ (Davies, 2009, p 11). When the aim is a coherent and long-term difference then strategic management of change emerges as a suitable choice. It provides a comprehensive picture as ‘strategic management involves taking view of the whole organization, its key purpose, its direction and its place in the environment’ (Middlewood and Lumby, 1998, p ix-x). Davies and Davies (2009, p 4) term these components of strategic management as ‘strategic educational processes and approaches’ necessary ‘to build sustainability into schools’. Leithwood et al (2004, p 57) recommend the ‘strategic imperative for the leadership of educational systems’ for large scale reform efforts as ‘a promising response’ and Barber (2009) also recommends strategic leadership among the three elements of effective educational reforms.

Within the broader term of strategic management there are many approaches and frameworks which Alford (2001, p 2) has categorised as content and process theories. According to him, content theories are ‘prescriptive’ as these map out what has to be done in the form of ‘long term direction’, ‘positing’, ‘scope’, ‘securing a fit’ while process theories focus on how ‘strategies are formulated and implemented.’ All these ideas are the derivatives of a rational planning model, which seeks to identify definite and rational goals. Some other models are not so rationally oriented which Alford (2001, p 2-3) describes as ‘logical incrementalism, chaos theory, institutional theory and population ecology.’ According to Alford all these models and frameworks, whether based on rational or not so rational planning, are based on the knowledge or assumptions about three elements namely:

- ‘the value produced or purpose pursued by the organization’
- the environment
- and resources

Alford (2001) argues that all theories of strategic management focus any one or more of these three elements. In content theories when strategic direction or positioning of the organisation is planned, the focus is the value or purpose of the organization. However, when creating fit with the environment or when the extension of the competences of organization is planned all three elements are involved. Process theories consider the amenability of these elements to the structural control as rational planning assumes full managerial control on purpose pursued
by the organisation. On the other hand, population ecology considers permanence of organizational culture. Logical incrementalism falls in between as it assumes incremental adaptability of strategy with the changing environment. Alford has presented models of strategic management for public and private sectors in the light of the interplay of these three elements. This theorization about the centrality of three basic elements in the strategic management frameworks can provide the frame to design an educational reform by identifying the need:

(1) to identify the purpose of the reform,

(2) to consider the environment in the shape of ‘on the ground realities’

(3) to mobilise the required (human, material, procedural, financial) resources for an effective implementation of the reform.

All these models and theories are relevant to strategic management at both institution level and large-scale change in education. When an externally initiated change reaches institutions, it has to be internalised. In this process, the change initiative is received, resisted and then worked on to be incorporated in the internal systems or rejected. This process interplays with the internal processes of school development and a harmonisation between them is required for the successful institutionalization of the external change otherwise it remains as an appendage to be kept as long as it is mandated by the authorities and forgotten as soon as this mandate eases. The strategic management of a large-scale reform has to create an interface with the strategic and operational designs of institutions for their institutional development. This interplay of internal processes and the implementation of an externally mandated change can be understood with reference to the models of school development.

3.6.1 The elements of strategic management

Davies and Ellison (1999) have given a model for school development incorporating the idea of strategic direction and management. Their model is a three-stage model of future thinking, strategic planning (further refined into strategic planning and strategic intent) and operational planning. For future thinking, they advise on the need to involve a range of both internal and external stakeholders to develop a futuristic perspective of the school for 5-15 years by studying current international, national and local trends and by building scenarios of possible
futures. The task of future thinking in the case of an externally imposed change does not necessarily become redundant as institutions endeavour to find alignment between their future scenarios and the incoming change and negotiate it for adjustment with the external initiators. Strategic planning covers 3-5 years and involves matching the school’s activity with the emerging environment and planning for feasible and acceptable key strategic objectives as West-Burnham (1994, p 82) calls it a bridging ‘or mapping the route between the perceived present situation and desired future situation.’ This phase of institutional development can be open to the externally mandated change and if this change finds acceptance and ownership within the institution then it can become part of the ‘desired future situation’ for the stakeholders inside the school. The strategic plan is based on two processes: strategic analysis and choice of strategy. West-Burnham (1994) has given a planning cycle for strategic planning as:

Figure 3.2 Strategic planning adopted from West-Burnham (1994, p 95)

This cycle of strategic planning for institutional development can be adopted for the externally initiated change if the values, vision, and mission segment is aligned with the change mandated from outside and rest of the phases are utilised for developing strategies for its implementation. The evaluation provides feedback to the initiators not only on the process of the change but also for the re-visitation of a change initiative to enhance understanding and adaptation to the institutional context. It does not necessarily mean that the institution has to compromise internal values, its vision and mission; rather these can provide the backdrop to identify contextual issues and so lead to the adaptation of the change programme in the local
situation. This cannot be taken as a simplistic solution especially in the case of a conflict between the internal values and vision and purpose of the mandated reform. Here the sensitivity of the policy of reform to local adaptations and sensibility of the institution management are vital, as it needs to display the elements of critical and educative leadership as discussed in the section 3.5. If this fit is achieved successfully, the result can be a deep meaningful and sustainable change. Davies and Ellison’s model, therefore, includes strategic intent along with strategic planning.

Strategic planning is a rational and incremental process of planning but it may not be suitable for rapidly changing scenarios in the present world. Therefore, Davies and Ellison have included strategic intent as part of the strategic planning. It represents the key focused priorities and core activities of the school (values, vision and mission) that maintain a direction and coherence for the people in the confusion and uncertainty of the change and turbulence especially when it is externally motivated. They call it a link between broad vision of future thinking and the specific strategy to achieve that vision while accommodating changes generated externally. Bush and Coleman (2000) refer to a wider participation in strategic planning as ‘the involvement and understanding of all is desirable’ (p 69). This broader involvement can bring flexibility and adaptability in the strategic plan and people in the field have a comprehensive understanding of the plan to exploit this flexibility. ‘Implementation of the strategic plan needs continual monitoring and evaluation by those with the creative ability to understand where diversions may be appropriate and how obstacles can be surmounted. Strategic plans should be, after all, liberating and not constraining’ (Hall, 1998, p 145). All these ideas can be applied to the strategic planning for the implementation of an externally originated change.

Operational planning or development planning is for 1-3 years and it is the process of translating the options or strategies identified in strategic planning into achievable targets. Hargreaves and Hopkins (2005) give the rationale for development planning being that many of the changes in schools are externally imposed which schools have to integrate with internal organization and culture. Therefore, development planning is the means to interpret ‘external policy requirements’ (p 7). So ‘development planning is about the management of change’ and also about how to create management arrangements so that ‘capacity to manage the
change is increased’ (p 14). Davies and Ellison emphasise the deeper involvement of staff and pupils in formulating and implementing operational plans to make them realistic, appropriate and acceptable. This involvement can lessen the resistance to change ‘as Capra (2002, p 100) points out, people do not resist change, but they do resist having change imposed on them’ (Mitchell and Sackney, 2009, p 183).

Bush and Coleman (2000, p 71) discuss a set of four questions to provide focus for operational planning which they term development planning. Hargreaves and Hopkins (2005, p 4) have similar ideas and have identified four processes for development planning. Hargreaves and Hopkins (2005) have adopted Miles (1986) to describe development planning as an innovation in its own right and to analyse it by drawing upon the knowledge of the phases of change process namely: initiation, implementation and institutionalization. If these four questions, four processes and three phases are mapped together, these appear to be parallel in conception as illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bush and Coleman’s questions</th>
<th>Hargreaves and Hopkins’ processes</th>
<th>Miles’ phases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Where are we?</td>
<td>Audit: review of strengths and weaknesses</td>
<td>Initiation: setting purposes, processes, responsibilities, and key persons for advocacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What changes do we need to make?</td>
<td>Construction: setting priorities and targets</td>
<td>Implementation: Acquiring skills and understanding, delegating responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How shall we manage these changes over time?</td>
<td>Implementation: implementing priorities and targets</td>
<td>Institutionalization: development planning does/does not become part of usual patterns, behaviours and classroom practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How shall we know whether our management of change has been successful?</td>
<td>Evaluation: verifying success of implementation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1   Perspectives on development planning
As development planning ‘is a means of managing change’ (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 75; Hopkins, 1994), but it is not the sole means of managing change because having a plan is not a guarantee for the success of change management (Hutchinson, 1993) and it has to evolve in the current situations and contexts. This is where leadership can play its role to ensure that operational planning is evolving from the context while maintaining the sense of direction set out in the strategic planning and it is ultimately aligned with the strategic intent of the organisation.

### 3.6.2 Strategic leadership for educational reform

Institutional development and its adaptation for the implementation of an externally mandated change is the function of strategic management. Regarding the attributes of strategic management, Bush (1998, p vii) writes that strategic management involves taking a holistic view of the organisation and planning for the long term within a framework of clearly articulated values and objectives. Strategic management requires the ability to integrate different aspects of the school to ensure the best possible educational outcomes.

According to Middlewood (1998) strategic management is a proactive approach as it needs a forward-looking focus requiring creativity, scrutiny of the external environment and a holistic overview and it also needs some type of accountability to stakeholders. While Sergiovanni (1984, p 105) has added the angle of ‘enlisting support for broader policies and purposes’ to longer term planning in the strategic leadership approach.

Bush and Coleman (2000) highlight close interdependence of strategic management and organizational culture especially in the management of change. This dimension of change management highlights the challenges involved in the management of external reforms. As strategy operates in the context of the culture, the interplay of strategy and organisational culture has implications for the change management process. Bush and Coleman advocate conceptual pluralism in the use of an appropriate model for strategic change management by presenting six theoretical frameworks to be utilised in different situations and stages of
change management. ‘There is little doubt that strategic management is based on rational assumptions’ (p 44) so the choice of any model or use of multiple models according to the situation can be part of the strategy. All six frameworks can be used as:

- formal models provide a basis for the change
- collegial models are suited to create ownership of change
- political models can help to negotiate change with subunits and implementers
- subjective models help to understand the perspectives of stakeholders
- ambiguity models help in turbulence
- cultural frameworks ground change into the beliefs and values of stakeholders

These frameworks constitute the ‘conceptual tool-kit’ (Bush and Coleman, 2000, p 45) for problem solving and strategy development in the process of change management. ‘This combination of theory and practice enables leaders to acquire the overview required for strategic management’ (p 45) especially in the complex situations of modern educational institutions.

One critical aspect of strategic management is the sensitivity to the environment as Bush and Coleman (2000, p 54) also bring in the issue of ‘ownership of change, allowing time for implementation and relationship of the change to the culture of the institution’ which have vital implications for attaining the aim of improvement. They quote Hopkins (1994, p 75) who argues that ‘Many externally and some internally imposed changes do not improve student outcomes, and most appear to neglect the importance of the culture and organization of the school as key factors in sustaining teacher and curriculum development’. Hopkins (1994) has presented ten principles for securing improvement through change, which encompass the issues of

- teaching and learning in the classroom as a focus through continuous and comprehensive staff development
- shared vision
- setting priorities
- collaboration
- adaptation of change in the context of the implementers
• the need for monitoring, feedback and reflection by all concerned in the process of improvement

This shared, collaborative, adaptable and reflective strategy of educational change is also emphasised by Earley (1998): ‘For strategy to be successfully implemented, staff at all levels in an organization increasingly need to be involved in decision making and policy formulation –albeit to varying degrees- and be encouraged to develop a sense of ownership and share the organisation’s mission’ (p 150). This is what Davies and Davies (2009, p 29) call ‘people wisdom’ in a three dimensional model of strategic leadership.

Davies and Davies’s (2009, p 28-34) model of strategic leadership presents a comprehensive picture of the processes involved in the exercise of a successful leadership role and the rudiments on which these processes are based. This construction of strategic leadership role has special relevance for leading education change.

The three dimensions of this model and the elements of each dimension are presented in the following table:

Table 3.2 Davies and Davies’s (2009) model of strategic leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People wisdom</th>
<th>Contextual wisdom</th>
<th>Procedural wisdom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• wider involvement and participation of people in creating ideas and in</td>
<td>• understanding of the culture within the organization and its relationship with</td>
<td>Multiple frames of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision-making,</td>
<td>the wider community,</td>
<td>• strategic learning cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the flow of information,</td>
<td>• generating strategy from the context and from shared beliefs and values,</td>
<td>• strategic approaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the motivation and empowerment of people through building their capabilities</td>
<td>• creating a network for the generation of ideas</td>
<td>• strategic processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and competencies</td>
<td>• borrowings from what examples exist in order to adapt them to the ‘on the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ground reality’ and context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As evident from the table, the dimension ‘procedural wisdom’ of this model is based on multiple frameworks. These frameworks are the strategic learning cycle, strategic approaches and strategic processes. We can elaborate these three elements in detail to see how these are interlinked. The strategic learning cycle prepares a strategic leader to make an appropriate choice from strategic approaches and strategic processes. This learning cycle is ‘learning from experiences’ to make decisions, ‘aligning the people with the decisions,’ ‘choosing right time to’ act and ‘taking action’ (p 32).

![Learning Cycle Diagram]

The decisions made in this cycle are about the choice of the strategic approach and the processes. The model further delineates four strategic approaches to develop a contextualized strategy, which are strategic planning, strategic intent, emergent strategy and decentralized strategy. These approaches can be integrated in accordance with the requirements of the circumstances. Here the strategic planning and strategic intent are the same approaches as mentioned by Davies and Ellison (1999) in their model for school development, as discussed earlier in this chapter, with an addition of the decentralized strategy and emergent strategy. In decentralized strategy the capability of people is built and they are given time to develop their intentions, while emergent strategy is ‘learning by doing’. All these approaches are important frameworks to be mixed and matched in keeping with the requirements of the context. The third element of the procedural wisdom relates the strategic processes, which are ‘reflection, creating a common language, conversation, developing mental models, analysis and articulation’ (p 33). These processes are based on ‘people involvement and understanding of the context’ as common language, conversation and creation of mental models that necessitate involvement of people. Analysis also involves people and understanding of the context and articulation of strategy is again with others to share and converse with them, which in turn boosts motivation, ownership and commitment and builds capability among people.

This whole discussion on the concept and elements of strategic management and especially Davies and Davies’s model of strategic leadership with its three dimensions is not only a
relevant framework for the management of educational reform in general but it has special significance for this research. The views and ideas of the school leaders have been explored in this research study to get a sense of a broader picture of the milieu in which educational change management can be situated in the Pakistani context. The implementation of externally mandated change is directly related to the way it is approached, understood and experienced by the implementers in the field who translate policy into practice that is school leaders and teachers implementing the reform in their institutions and classrooms respectively. Institutional heads are the crucial link between the policy makers and practitioners as they translate policy into practice (Bush, 1995; Fullan, 1992; Fullan, 2003). The exploration of the experiences of institutional heads can provide significant insight to understand the sense making process of the educational reform in the field. Mitchell and Sackney (2009: p 183) have pointed out the possibility of ‘reshaping’ of the externally originated reform initiatives when these are worked on in the local situation of the institutions. They have raised the issue of sustainability of these reforms in terms of not only the success of the initiative and required changes in structures and culture but also ‘the ways in which people notice disturbances in their school, see compelling reasons to act, and move forward in meaningful ways to make something new’. In their view, reform comes only when ‘educators and students transform and translate new ideas into patterns that make sense for their lives’. Therefore, the experiences and views of institutional heads have been explored in the study to understand how the change initiative in Pakistani education system has been received, comprehended and translated into practice by these very significant stakeholders in the process of the management of this change. This understanding can be utilised to build on the argument for the sustainability of this change as ‘the difference does not lie in formulas, reforms, or recipes; the real difference comes from people making sense of the challenges and disturbances in their own world and responding in ways that are meaningful for their particular context, culture, and conditions’ (Capra, 2002 cited by Mitchell and Sackney, 2009, p 190).

A detailed discussion of the relevance of this theoretical framework for leadership, educational leadership, leadership of change and strategic leadership of change will be discussed in chapter 5 in relation to the analysis of data from interviews with institution leaders.
3.7 Conclusions

Diversity as well as divergence of perspectives on the concept of leadership makes it an inconclusive and indefinite phenomenon. This multiplicity of conceptualizations has limited the scope of a generalized and comprehensive definition or description of the concept, though it has supported an enhanced understanding of leadership’s inherent variance in different contexts and situations. Therefore, one can find sound foundations and theoretical frameworks for the attributes, role, functions and effect and effectiveness of leadership in general and for the management of educational change in particular even though not a clear and exclusive model. One point that has emerged from the research literature is the undeniable importance of leadership, on the institutional as well as on the system level, in the process of educational change as it means leading in a new direction or developing a new route in the established direction in a strategically sound manner informed by people, context and procedural wisdom.

The leadership for the educational change process, at both systems and institutional levels, needs to appreciate and manage the technical, structural, cultural, political and human elements of the change creatively and critically. The leadership role in the management of educational change is very complex and challenging. The level of this complexity is raised in the case of a large-scale educational reform as the factors of external policy, expectations and accountability for the implementation need skilful handling, mediation and negotiation. This process is not just a transaction of policy guidelines and implementation, but the critical, moral, educative and transformative dimensions of leadership role make this a complex and fundamental role in bringing about change. In case of a successful educational reform, learning takes place at every level of the system.

Just like the concept of general leadership, the features of the leadership role for educational change are also not clearly defined. The knowledge of theories and their historical development, models and strategies of leadership in general and the elaboration on the leadership of change in particular can provide a general framework. This repertoire of theory and research can provide educational leaders with a stock of possible tools. As reiterated by Hopkins et al (1994), Bolman and Deal (2008), and Engeström (2008) leaders have to use the
available frames creatively by mixing and matching these according to the demands of the situation and the context. This creativity is needed to match, select and adapt from the existing array of leadership models, theories, strategies and frames of reference to the peculiar context and situations in the arena of action in a thoughtful, strategically sensible and morally defendable manner. People need to be developed and supported to exercise this creativity through thoroughly planned leadership development programmes within the process of change. In the case of large-scale educational reforms targeting the teaching and learning process, as the one focused in this research, leadership is provided at different levels and the centre of the leadership role may change with the specific stages of the reform process. At the initiation stage of the reform, it is the planners and policy makers who have to provide core though not exclusive leadership, which in the initial phase of the implementation stage shifts to the regional offices. As the implementation activity reaches institutions, institutional leaders have to and should be allowed to take up the core leadership role. This leadership role finally shifts to the teachers when the implementation process enters the classrooms. Therefore, the leadership role in the management of a large-scale reform is dispersed throughout the system and needs development at all levels. As referred into research literature the practice of distributed leadership can be an effective strategy. One such plan can be evolving a strategy by involving people and making them participants and stakeholders in the change. This argument has implications for other agents and implementers of educational change, especially the teachers who play significant roles in the process of educational change management.
Chapter 4  Research Design

4.1 Methodology

A systematic approach to research links an individual project with the wider research community making it more accessible and rigorous in terms of shared epistemology and common terminology. This premise forms the purpose of the present chapter. This chapter presents and critically evaluates the research paradigm, methodology, and methods used for the present research. The chapter starts with the philosophical underpinnings of the study drawing upon the ideas from the epistemological debates in the field of research on educational leadership and management. After grounding the study in a relevant paradigm, the chapter moves on to the methodology and methods used in the research with a discussion of the reasons for using particular methodology and methods and the issues of reliability and validity of these methods. This section discusses the parameters of the study, population and the recruitment of the sample initially and then for each phase of the research, and the process of designing, administering and analysing the data of the three instruments used in this research.

Starting with the research paradigm of the study, the four categories of the educational research paradigm set out by Scott and Morrison (in Morrison, 2007, p 19-20) can be discussed to conceptualise the approach used in the present research. Scott and Morrison have given

(1) positivism/empiricism
(2) phenomenology as a form of interpretivism,
(3) critical theory and
(4) post modernism

as the four paradigms for educational research.

The present research fits into the phenomenological interpretive philosophy. As ‘all educational research needs to be grounded in people’s experience’ and interpretivists ‘explore the meanings of events and phenomena from the subjects’ perspectives’ (Morrison, 2007, p 26), therefore, the focus for this research is on the experiences of those in schools charged with the task of implementing the reforms, that is, principals and teachers in the schools.
Cohen et al’s (2007) description of the interpretive paradigm also supports this claim where they see the interpretive approach as an effort to understand the interpretations of the world by individuals. Theory then emerges from data as a set of meanings thereby giving insight to people’s behaviour. Accordingly, the study will explore the phenomenon of educational change management in Pakistan through the experiences of practitioners in the field. The phenomenological position of the research is established on the basis of Layder’s (2006) views on phenomenology that ‘meaning arises from the world of daily experiences as it is lived by the different individuals who try to make sense of it and come to terms with it’ (p 93). The research is intended to explore the experiences of institution heads and teachers in the process of curriculum change implementation, therefore it is based on the sense-making process but goes beyond into the exploration of how participant understood and experienced the reform and the process of its implementation. The study endeavours to capture different aspects of the participants’ experience and their response to it through evaluative, critical, and speculative comments. Layder (2006) has elaborated on these dimensions of the study in his explanation of phenomenology:

Social analysis must take into account the meaning that the social world has for the individual based on how the person understands and responds to their lived experience. The way people construe their social existence helps them formulate their plans and intentions. They make choices about the direction in which their lives should go on the basis of their experience. As such, persons are ‘intentional’, self-reflective and capable of making some difference in their world. (Layder, 2006, p 95)

Under the umbrella of phenomenological interpretive philosophy, this research is a case study of educational change management in Pakistani educational institutions. A case study methodology has been adopted to present and interpret the reality of educational reform at the level of the institutions through the in-depth study and portrayal analysis of the individual experiences of those implementing the reform. The case study methodology is best suited for the purpose and focus of this research; Cohen et al, (2007, p 254) have outlined the characteristics of case study to be portrayal of participants’ ‘lived experiences of, thoughts about and feelings for a situation. They involve looking at a case or phenomenon in its real-life context’.
At the level of methods, this study has used triangulation by mixing methods. In the first phase of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with institution heads, and in the intermediate phase, an exploratory questionnaire was used with a limited number of teachers to generate the issues and topics for the structured questionnaire to be used in the third phase with a larger number of teachers. This triangulation is not only at the level of methods used but also in terms of the type of data collected with the mixing of the qualitative and quantitative data. This concept of design triangulation has been described by Creswell (1994, cited by Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003, p 443-4) as three categories of mixed method designs.

- design triangulation when quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to validate the findings
- explanatory design when first quantitative data is first collected and analysed, and then followed up and refined through qualitative data
- and exploratory design when qualitative data is collected in the first phase and its findings used to give direction to quantitative data which is used to extend and validate the qualitative data.

Using these categories, an exploratory design can best describe the mixed methods approach used in the present study: in the first phase, semi-structured interviews were used to generate qualitative data through the experiences of institution heads and then in the second phase open-ended questionnaires were used to explore the views of teachers. The data generated through the open-ended questionnaires guided the quantitative phase of data collection from teachers. Morrison (2007, p 31) notes that there are strengths in a mixed methods approach as these methods can help each other to create a fuller research picture, generalisability for qualitative research is facilitated, better links between micro and macro levels of analysis can be achieved and a suitable emphasis for different stages of the research can be supported.

There is another dimension of the study, which can be taken into consideration while trying to situate the methodological positioning of this research. This research study aims to explore the phenomenon of educational change management; therefore, it brings in the epistemological domain of research in educational leadership and management. This association is further strengthened by the first phase of the research study, which focuses on
the experiences of institution heads in bringing about the mandated curriculum change. The research base in educational leadership and management is an area of scholarship built up over the past 50 years (Bush, 1999) and draws from the research underpinnings in pure management and other social sciences. Baron’s (1980) work on the position of research can be used as a starting point to place the present research in the field of educational leadership. Baron has presented four positions ‘research for understanding’, ‘policy related research’, ‘research into administrative structures and processes’, and ‘evaluative research’. (p 18-19) This study engages in ‘research into administrative structures and processes’ alongside research for understanding and even evaluative research which aims to understand roles and functions in the management of educational change and through extending this understanding to compare and contrast with existing conceptualizations of the educational change processes.

The work of Gunter (2005) can be brought in for an extended elaboration of the methodological positioning of this research study. Gunter (2005, p 166) has identified five approaches to the knowledge base in educational leadership on which research in the field is based. These approaches are

- Technical: when the actuality of the practice (activity and actions) is recorded
- Illuminative: when field members interpret the meanings of practice
- Critical: when field members raise questions about the power relations within and external to practice
- Practical: when field members devise strategies to bring improvement
- Positional: when field members align their research with particular knowledge claims

Gunter has framed this topology into four wider areas of research focus namely: (1) understanding meanings, (2) understanding experiences, (3) working for change and (4) delivering change. Using Gunter, the present research study has focused on understanding experiences, though the other three frames are touched on as well, and shares the features of the technical and illuminative approach to knowledge.

The focus of the study finds a good fit in the frame of ‘understanding experiences’ as an effort has been made to have the experiences of institution heads and teachers as the core of
the research. However, the understanding of experiences needs to be based upon and leads to the understanding of meanings. As the experiences of institution heads and teachers will be focused on in relation to the management of curriculum change, so the other two frames of Gunter (working for change and delivering change) emerge in the background. However, these two frames remain confined to the interpretive philosophy of the study to explore the lived reality of the participants and do not take a critical stance. The understanding of these experiences lends itself to create meanings for the emerging themes. This development of themes brings us further into Gunter’s topology.

The purpose of the research leads to its position being aligned with technical and illuminative approaches. The premise for a technical approach has been built upon the fact that one purpose of the research is to understand the actuality of processes and actions involved in the management of curriculum change through the experiences of institutional heads and classroom teachers. Nevertheless, the purpose of research extends beyond reaching the actuality of practice to its interpretation in the light of existing knowledge. This study attempts to create the meanings of this practice through the experiences and perceptions of the practitioners. In this process of sense-making, the boundaries of illuminative and critical approaches merge at certain points when practitioners make critical and evaluative remarks on the activity they are involved in and even extend into the practical domain when suggestions for improvement are given. Therefore, in the reality of the research process there are many grey areas where the boundaries between different approaches blur, though the research can be categorized into a particular approach based on the focus and purpose of the research. Based on this theorization, this study can be categorized into the technical and illuminative approaches. Figure 4.1 presents an illustrative summary of the overall methodological position of this research study as delineated in the discussion above.
Fig 4.1 Position of the research study in the existing conceptual frameworks

4.2 Parameters of the study

- The study has been limited to the curriculum change at Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) level in three subject areas: English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies.
- The study has been limited to the institutions affiliated with the Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (FBISE).
- The study has been limited to the institutions geographically situated in the cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

4.3 Population of the study

The setting of the study was educational institutions and the purpose of the investigation was to obtain the perspectives of educators in the institutions on the change initiative and generate and explore a desired model of educational change management grounded in the experiences, reflections and opinions of those who implement the change in schools—leaders and teachers.
Therefore, the population had to be defined at two levels, at the level of institutions and then at the level of the educators in those institutions. For the first level, the institutions that formed the population of the study were affiliated with FBISE for HSSC examinations and were located in the cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. At the second level, the population was the heads of all the institutions in the population and all teachers teaching English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies in these institutions.

The institutions affiliated with FBISE were included because this examination board was the first to implement the assessment system reforms as part of the curriculum reform at HSSC level. Islamabad, the capital city and Rawalpindi, geographically adjacent to the capital and housing the military headquarters, is where there is a concentration of institutions affiliated with the FBISE, therefore the population was limited to these two cities.

In Pakistani educational institutions, there are mainly two categories of educators who are directly involved in the implementation of educational policies. They are the institutional heads and teachers who have a significant role in translating policies into the teaching and learning process at the classroom level. Institutional heads provide direction, guidance, information, coordination, facilitation, and accountability in order to carry out the policies in the educational processes; and teachers actually translate these policies into practice. If we want to gain insight into the process of change management at the institutional level, we can do so through the multiple lenses of heads and teachers. The inclusion of head teachers and teachers in the study is to enable the development of a model of educational change in Pakistan. This model will be generated from the views and reports of the experiences of institution heads and the views and experience of teachers. A comparative element between the two sets of data will help to point out aspects where there is a divergence of views between school leaders and teachers and will help to gain a deeper insight into the change process from different perspectives.
4.4 Sample: The institutions

From among the population of the study, twenty institutions were included from the cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. Beyond affiliation with FBISE, the selection of institutions was made in order to balance a number of factors such as the ownership, attraction for admissions, gender representation and administrative structures. Institutions included in the study were balanced to represent institutions for girls and boys and further representation was made for private institutions run by organizations, public institutions under the control of central directorates and public institutions under the control of the Ministry of Education. Admissions to institutions run by private or public central boards are highly competitive and are granted on the merit determined by the marks achieved in the examinations. In the sample, a representation of the girls and boys institutions from the three types of institutions was ensured.

4.5 Research Methods

The research methods used in this study were interviews and both exploratory and structured questionnaires. The interviews were semi-structured and were used to generate data from institution heads while exploratory questionnaires were used with a limited number of teachers to generate the issues relevant to teachers within the themes identified by institution heads in the interviews and research literature; but there was scope in these exploratory questionnaires for other aspects pertinent to teachers to emerge. Based on the data from the exploratory questionnaires, more structured questionnaires were used to gather the required data from a larger sample of teachers. The issues of suitability, validity and reliability as well as the process of sampling, administration and analysis of these instruments of data collection are discussed in the following sections.

4.6 Interviews

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were used to collect qualitative data from the institution heads for the first phase of the research. This tool has been deemed suitable, being in keeping with the interpretive philosophy of the study as: ‘unstructured or semi-structured interviews are often used by interpretive researchers and assume greater diversity in both the
design and the use of the research instrument and in the nature of responses from participants’ (Bush, 2007, p 94) and in interviewing people we can ‘find out what is in somebody else’s mind’. Especially through qualitative interviewing, a framework is created for participants to share their views as they best see fit (Ribbins, 2007, p 208-209). Ribbins (2007, p 215) has further guidance about four aspects to be managed effectively to produce ‘rich and reliable data’ from interviews. These are:

- what is asked and how
- the interviewer and interviewing,
- recording
- transcribing

In keeping with these four key elements, the first task was to plan and finalize the interview schedule. In the planning process firstly, all the objectives of the interviews were clarified that the interviews were intended to explore the experience of institution heads in the implementation of externally mandated reform in their institutions with reference to the curriculum reform through ESR programme in three subject areas. To achieve this objective, the next step was to identify major themes and issues to be explored in the interviews in order to generate the required data. Through the review of the literature and discussions with the researcher’s supervisor, some major themes were delineated as follows:

- perception of the experience of the change programme and extended views on its impact on students and teachers
- problems faced in the process, strategies to solve them and suggestions to resolve the issues
- strengths and supportive factors experienced in the process of implementation of the change programme and the utilisation of these strengths
- suggestions for improvement in the current as well as future situation

To probe these issues, the questions were designed in keeping with the guiding principle to put the questions which enable interviewees to tell ‘what is in (or on) their minds and avoid those that put things there’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 354). Therefore, open questions were planned with some follow up questions, like probes, designed to gather details and to recapitulate, to clarify or to confirm. Simple, short and open-ended questions were prepared
to keep interviewees at ease to speak about their experiences and the research was ‘responsive to participants’ own frame of reference and response’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 354). These open-ended questions required unstructured responses and put no restrictions on the content or manner of the response but just provided the frame of reference or subject to respond to. There were in addition two questions which were asked in order to obtain information about the length of participant’s experience in education and experience as head of the institution (as illustrated in appendix 3).

The reliability of a research tool for data collection is judged by the extent to which the same results or findings arise in its repeated administration. Thus, it is possible only ‘if the interview schedule is tightly structured, with the properties of a questionnaire’, so in a ‘semi-structured approach, reliability may be compromised’ (Bush, 2007, p 93). However, Bush justifies this lapse of reliability for the sake of the increased validity which is better achieved when respondents can give a free expression of their feelings and thoughts without any restriction ‘by the artificiality of a standard instrument’ (p 94) and there is ‘a deliberate strategy of treating each participant as a potentially unique respondent’. Therefore, reliability may be limited but here it ‘may have not been desirable’ (p 95). The balance had to lie between generating valid data, on the one hand, that genuinely reflected the standpoint of each respondent, on the other. However, we need to consider what we mean by ‘validity’ in this type of study.

The validity of a research tool is the measure of judging if it measures or describes what it claims to do. Validity of semi-structured interviews is again a problem due to the element of bias, the content of the questions and the characteristics of both interviewer and interviewee. Bush (2007), however, suggests that the notion of validity is associated with positivist research and quotes Kincheloe and McLaren (1998) and Bassey (1999) for their advocacy of ‘trustworthiness’ as a criterion instead of the validity for paradigms other than positivism. A number of experts (Bush, 2007: Silverman, 2000) have suggested triangulation of methods to address the issue of validity. In keeping with these suggestions, the triangulation of methods has been used as a viable solution to the validity issue in this instrument of the research as discussed earlier on when situating the research in mixed methods design.
**Recruitment of the sample:** The researcher contacted the heads of the identified 20 institutions with invitations to participate in the research, which was verbally explained in this first contact through either telephone or a personal visit. Participation was voluntary. Two principals declined the invitation, which necessitated identifying two more matching institutions with similar characteristics as those identified in the initial selection procedure. The appointments for the interviews were made with the willing participants. As the consent of the principals was sought directly without the mediation of any office or authority those who participated did so because of their personal motivation to share their experiences.

**The interviewing:** The process of interviewing was an enjoyable but challenging task. The summer vacation period was chosen as an appropriate time to interview the institution heads as the students and most of the teachers would be on vacation but principals still attend their offices. It was a good time as heads were more relaxed, away from the urgency of day-to-day managerial tasks related to students and teachers, though they were busy in compiling and reporting the results of their students in public examinations of SSC and HSSC to their respective central offices and planning the new admissions. Nineteen interviews were conducted in the offices of the participating principals; only one participant chose to meet in a room separate from his/her office. The plain language statement (appendix 1) was given to them at the start of the interview meetings, which contained information about the research, its purpose, the purpose of including the head teachers in the research and the commitment to confidentiality and anonymity along with the right of the participants to withdraw at any point. Though explained in the statement, the matters of confidentially and anonymity were verbally elaborated on with the participants with reference to the ethical procedures regulating the research concerning the elements of confidentiality and data protection. It was deemed necessary to gain the trust of the participants and make them comfortable, especially when the interviews were being audio taped. Then participants were invited to ask any questions about the research or the interview itself. The participants were given the consent form (appendix 2), which further indicated the voluntary nature of interviewees’ participation and the right to withdraw at any point along with seeking their permission to audiotape the interview. One participant did not wish to be audio taped, which was respected and so the researcher took notes during the interview and then wrote detailed notes soon after the
interview. The interviews lasted between 25-55 minutes. In five interviews, there were short disruptions, as interviewees had to reply to some urgent official queries, but the flow of the conversation was regained with prompts from the researcher.

In keeping with the ‘social interaction’ (Cohen et al, 2007) dimension of the interview, seventeen interviews started with a number of queries, not only about the nature or purpose of the research, but also about a range of issues like the university of the researcher and personal details of the researcher, which were quite normal enquiries in the cultural context. The researcher has been part of this culture for a long time, and so was not surprised by this, and interviews started in a comfortable environment.

Two participants used mostly English throughout their conversation while others also moved between English and Urdu languages. This trend of mixing English language while using Urdu language in conversation is due to a number of reasons. Firstly, the language of official correspondence in the Pakistani schools is English and principals frequently use this language. Secondly, English is the medium of instruction in many of the schools, especially in urban areas, which were part of the study. Thirdly, English is a compulsory subject up to the graduate level, and therefore, every person who is educated to graduate or higher level has the exposure of the language (all the principals heading the HSSC level institutions have a Master’s or higher degree). Fourthly, in urban areas use of English words, phrases and even sentences in Urdu is quite in vogue and the participating institutions were located in two major cities, one being the capital city.

**Topics in the interviews:** Some overarching topics to be explored in the interviews were identified to develop an interviewing schedule. These topics were:

- Description of the experience of implementing the change
- Description of the problems faced in the process and strategies to overcome these issues
- Description of the strengths experienced in the process of implementation of change and utilisation of these strength
Explorations regarding the impact of change on teachers and students

Suggestions to make this particular reform work better and speculative suggestions for the effectiveness of a similar reform in the system in future

These topics were focused and conversation was kept on topic through queries, probes and prompts.

**Transcription and data analysis:** The interviews were transcribed verbatim and then fully translated into English not word by word but for ‘the sense’. A Microsoft Word document for every interview was developed. Therefore, transcription of the interviews was a two-phase process of transcription and translation. The translation was done by the researcher with 16 years experience of English language teaching in Pakistan, where translation from and into English is one core part of the practice. Additional help and feedback on translated scripts was sought from a bilingual colleague in Pakistan, who has proficiency in both Urdu and English languages and experience in translation. Some translated scripts were shared to get the feedback on the quality of the translation and a contact was made for assistance in the case of any doubt during the process of translation.

The analysis of the interview data was done on the pattern of ‘conventional content analysis’ (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, p 1279) on the tradition of a grounded theory approach (Bryman, 2008) and the researcher read the interview data many times to identify the codes or issues within each theme explored in the interviews. The issues emerged from the data itself, which were identified and then merged for relevance. The raw interview data was divided into responses to questions, probes and prompts, which represented the themes, but for the analysis these divisions were not exclusive to allow for the identification of issues emerging across the interviews: thus, issues within each theme were identified looking at the interviews as a whole. For the next stage, a separate document for each theme was developed comprising the issues and illustrative quotes from the interview data while retaining an allocated identity number for every respondent (R1... R20) to map out the spread of responses and representation of the views of different participants. Finally, text was developed to be presented in chapter 5, which sets out the summary of issues related to each theme along with some of the representative quotes.
4.7 Questionnaires

After the completion of interviewing of institution heads and the analysis of data, the second major segment of the research started to explore the experiences, views and perceptions of teachers involved in the implementation of the reform programme under study. The representative sample of teachers was going to be considerably larger, making obtaining qualitative data more labour-intensive (or in some other way difficult); but at the same time, the insights into the issues related to Pakistani teachers engaged in the implementation of an externally mandated reform was also essential. To create the best possible data it was decided that a combination would be created by extracting qualitative data from a smaller number of teachers as a preliminary step to get an in-depth view of the teachers’ experiences and opinions and then use this data to devise a questionnaire to be circulated to a larger sample. The choice of methods for the generation of qualitative data was between focus group and semi-structured questionnaire with open-ended questions. The latter was selected due to peculiar contextual circumstances and physical access limitations: there was insufficient time and space to arrange focus groups, and such methods of research are not normal practice in Pakistan.

4.7.1 Exploratory questionnaire

For the development of this first questionnaire for teachers, the interview data of institutional heads was revisited to pick up some themes and issues within. The criterion for selection of issues was their relevance to teachers. The whole analysis of the interview data was considered thoroughly and a set of broader themes was identified initially. These themes were then further refined into sub-themes or issues in the light of research literature on teachers’ role in the management of educational change. The themes, which emerged from the analysis of interview data in the backdrop of relevant research literature, were:

1. The process of initiation of change especially within the institutions and teachers’ reaction to it
2. The barriers and supporting factors for teachers to take the change forward in their classrooms and their strategies for it
3. Teachers’ perceptions and ideas on issues related to the impact of change on students
4. Suggestions for improvement and speculations on a better reform endeavour in the future from teachers’ perspectives

These issues provided the focus and sequence in the questionnaire items, but the instrument remained semi-structured, as questions were open-ended to provide the flexibility of response ‘enabling respondents to reply in their own terms’. While it was important to draw from both previous data collected and the research literature, it was equally important to ensure this did not limit the responses of teachers and so open-ended questions were included. This design of the questionnaire was in keeping with the purpose of this instrument: ‘open questions may be useful for generating items that will subsequently become the stuff of closed questions in a subsequent questionnaire’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 321). It was intended that open-ended questions would generate extended data and give the participants the space and freedom to articulate their real experience without any fixed structure to frame their responses into. The data would then be used to frame the second questionnaire.

The main themes and sequence of these in the exploratory questionnaire were:

- Teachers’ initial reaction to the reform and change in their attitude later as they implemented the reform in their classrooms
- Their experience of implementing the change reflected through the implementation strategies employed by the institutions and teachers and the provision of support in the process
- Benefits and challenges in the reform for the students and difficulties for the teachers in its implementation
- Suggestions for improvement in the current reform initiative and for any similar future endeavour

Exploratory questions were developed to cover these themes. The layout of the questionnaire provided a space of between 4-7 lines for responses depending upon the number of questions in a theme and the type of response expected. At the end, a space of seven lines was given to add any comments in order to generate other issues that would be pertinent to teachers’ experiences including any aspect of the change management, which might have not been
included but was relevant for the context of the participants (see appendix 8). This proved to be a very useful space as participants used it to not only emphasize, confirm and elaborate some of the points raised in their responses to other questions but also make some worthwhile additions. These additions and validations were very helpful, as this questionnaire had aimed to generate items for a subsequent questionnaire. The table below gives an idea of the contents of the instrument, though appendix 8 can be seen for details on its layout.

Table 4.1  **The contents of the exploratory questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ information about the reform and</td>
<td>1. When did you first hear about this change and what was your first reaction?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their initial reaction and later attitude to it</td>
<td>2. Did your views alter as the change progressed? In what ways, if any?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. What steps were taken in your institution to introduce this change in the classrooms?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What steps did you take initially to take this change into your classroom?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. What steps did you take subsequently to take this change further?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to take the change forward</td>
<td>6. What kinds of support did you receive from your institution in the process? Do you think this support was enough?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Were there any difficulties in adopting this change in your classroom and what was the nature of these?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in the implementation of the change and the available support in the process for teachers</td>
<td>8. What benefits do you think this change has brought for the students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. What are some of the challenges for students in the new system?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of the change on students</td>
<td>10. What can be done now to make this change work in a better way?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. What do you suggest should be done for the introduction of any change in the institutions in future by the higher authorities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions for immediate and future improvements</td>
<td>12. Any other comments relating to this initiative that you would like to add?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional comments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire along with the plain language statement and consent form was translated into Urdu language with the help of the same colleague who had assisted in the translation.
process of the interview scripts. Feedback on the clarity and layout of the questionnaire and its translation was sought from colleagues from Pakistan working on PhD projects in the University of Glasgow’s School of Education, where the researcher is based. A set of bilingual questionnaires, plain language statements and consent forms was posted to two colleagues working in an institution similar to the ones included in the study, who were also teaching one of the target subjects at the target level. They filled the questionnaire and gave feedback and some minor changes were made to enhance the clarity of the questions.

They filled the questionnaire and gave feedback and some minor changes were made to enhance the clarity of the questions.

**Recruitment of the sample:** From the already identified 20 institutions, 10 institutions were selected to involve 20 teachers in the study. Ten institutions were selected to represent five types of institutions identified for the selection of institutions at the first phase and to balance boys and girls institutions. The head of the institutions had already been asked to allow the school staff to participate in the next phase of data collection and the next step was to ask them to identify six teachers, three more experienced (ten years or more) and three less experienced (less than five years). These broad parameters were partly to limit the influence of the head teachers on the selection of what they saw as ‘suitable’ candidates from their respective institutions and partly to balance the representation of both more experienced and less experienced teachers. A personal contact with the heads was made to get this list and then from every list, two teachers were randomly selected: one from each category.

**Administration:** The selected teachers were sent the plain language statement and consent form to seek their willingness to participate. A local proxy (an ex-student of the researcher) delivered and collected the consent forms. When teachers agreed to participate, they were delivered individually packed packs containing the questionnaires in both languages and a sealable envelope. One of the initially identified teachers declined to participate and so another participant was selected from the list of teachers from the respective institution.
The participants were requested to fill in the questionnaire in either of the languages of their choice and seal it in a provided envelope, which was picked up again by the same local proxy. She collected all the envelopes from participants and mailed them as a collection to the researcher in Glasgow. The local proxy had a limited role of facilitation only, with no involvement in data collection and no access to completed forms.

**The analysis of the data from the exploratory questionnaire:** The analysis of the questionnaire started with the translation of those questionnaires, which were answered in Urdu. There were only two such questionnaires as the majority of the participants themselves chose to respond in English language. It could have been that some of the participants were teachers of English language and some were teaching Pakistan Studies, in which students may opt for either Urdu or English as the medium of instruction and assessment. Even some Urdu language teachers chose to respond in English, which was not unexpected given that firstly, teachers have studied English language as a compulsory subject up to graduate level and secondly, the participating institutions were located in urban areas where exposure to English language in social and academic settings is quite frequent and extensive. At the next stage, question-by-question content analysis was carried out. The views of every participant were analysed and then clustered around the common ideas. These emerging issues were used to present data in chapter 6 along with illustrative quotes from responses with an allocated identity number for every respondent (T). These codes presented the issues generated within each theme explored in the questionnaire.

**4.7.2 Structured Questionnaire**

For the third phase of the research, a more structured questionnaire was developed to gather data to validate and extend the data generated in the previous two phases. This data was from a larger number of teachers involved in the educational change initiative to validate the issues raised in earlier data.

The starting point in the design of this questionnaire was the outcome of the second phase of the study. Themes in this structured questionnaire were the same as identified for the
exploratory questionnaire and the content of items within these themes was developed from the data from the same preceding questionnaire. In keeping with the exploratory design of mixing methods, this phase of the research was mainly for extension of qualitative data from a smaller number of participants by gathering data from a larger sample. The data generated from this questionnaire was significant as it was considered representative of the population of teachers and was used for the comparative analysis of the views and experiences of institution heads and teachers.

The types of items used in the structured questionnaire were varied, including demographic, factual, dichotomous, multiple choice, rank order, rating scales and a concluding open-ended item (see appendix 14). The type of the item was decided with relation to not only the required data but also the available data generated through the preceding questionnaire. The responses to the factual questions, like the time and source of information about the change for teachers, were sought in the given boxes to limit the length of the response. The multiple choice questions were designed to give a range of choices generated on a specific issue in the previous data and get the range of responses such as to identify the teacher’s reaction to change and to classify the level of satisfaction with the support for the change. The categories were made ‘comprehensive, exhaustive and representative’ (Cohen et al, 2007; p 324) based on previous exploratory data and the category of ‘don’t know’ was also added where appropriate. Dichotomous questions with yes/no categories were adopted in two items. In one item on change in attitude to the change, it was a ‘funnelling or sorting device’ for the next response and in the other item regarding if a certain type of support was available to teachers in their schools, it was used to get a ‘clear, unequivocal response’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 322).

The likert scales were used in four sections because the use of scales can ‘afford the researcher the freedom to fuse measurement with opinion, quality and quantity’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 327). The scale items were included to explore the level of differentiation on the level of agreement with statements describing (1) the nature of change (2) and benefits of change for the students. In some cases, like (1) the level of difficulty in the implementation of change in relation to certain issues (2) and level of importance attached with different suggestions for improvement, intensity for the choice of response was sought through the use of the scale. For former type of two sections mentioned above, these scales were even numbered 4-point
scales to get a clear and differentiated position of participants on the issues. It was deemed suitable to avoid the neutral responses due to the strength of the data, which had emerged from the preceding exploratory questionnaires. For the latter type of two sections mentioned above, scales were related to seek the intensity for the choice of response (as indicated in the previous paragraph) and were designed on 5-points but did not provide a neutral point in the middle. These scales were on the continuum pattern (1=very difficult, 2=difficult, 3=moderately difficult, 4=not difficult, 5 not at all difficult and 1=very important, 2=important, 3=not very important, 4=not important, 5= not at all important) and weighted on one side, which was reflected through the previous data. The strength on one side of the continuum found in the previous data was checked and validated on these scales while, still providing some room for the disagreement with the trend by extending the continuum to the opposite side. Instead of using dichotomous questions to get a clear response on issues clearly stated in the previous data, a rating scale was used to show sensitivity to make data ‘more sensitive and responsive to respondents’ (Cohen et al, 2007, p 328). The layout of the scales was a matrix design where statements on one theme were designed to fit the scale and explanation of the scale points, with instructions for the use of the scale and the main statement stated in the beginning (see appendix 14). Then a series of statements exploring different dimensions of the issue were given where respondents choose one level on the scale. As noted by Cohen et al, (2007, p331) this design can create a tendency for respondents to start choosing one column for all statements. To avoid this tendency, the meanings of some of the statements on the scale were reversed so that respondents had to read all statements and consider their responses carefully.

One open-ended question was included at the end of the questionnaire to provide a space of three to four lines in which the respondents could include comments. It was provided to get any additional dimensions of the themes and issues of the questionnaire, particularly where respondents might have felt constrained by the closed structure from expressing their views.

There were two parts of the questionnaire, which required rank ordering for the priority attached to each of a given set of strategies used at (1) the institution (2) and individual level to implement the change. It became complex as it was made part of the question for which respondents had to firstly choose some items from a list and then rank order those choices.
This question was discarded after the data collection at the data analysis stage, because respondents did not handle it uniformly and their responses were not comparable. The complexity of the part did not come up in the feedback from the colleagues and piloting stages, but it was not handled according to the instructions by 104 (84%) respondents. Therefore, both these parts were not included in the analysis.

The questionnaire, the plain language statement and the consent form were translated into Urdu by the same colleague who had translated the previous set of documents for exploratory questionnaires. The translations and the three documents in English were given to colleagues doing PhD in Glasgow for feedback and some minor adjustments were made. A set of these documents in both languages was posted to a colleague working in a local college in Rawalpindi to be piloted for feedback on the clarity. Some discrepancies were identified in the process, which were removed. The table 4.2 summarizes the type of questions and the purpose of using the particular type in each theme of the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 *The nature and purpose of different types of questions in the structured questionnaire*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Type of question</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of experience, subject</td>
<td>demographic</td>
<td>To gather information on variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ participation in planning change</td>
<td>factual</td>
<td>To certify the source and time of information about the change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinions on the nature of change, problems in implementation, benefits for students and suggestions and their implications for teacher professionalism</td>
<td>rating scales</td>
<td>To measure the level of differentiation on the level of agreement/ the intensity for the choice of response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaction to change and satisfaction with the available support</td>
<td>multiple choice</td>
<td>To get responses from a range of choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to implement the change at institutional and individual levels</td>
<td>rank order</td>
<td>To identify the priority rank for responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance of change and facilitation of teachers in the implementation</td>
<td>dichotomous</td>
<td>To funnel responses for the next question/ to get a categorical response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>open-ended</td>
<td>To provide space for filling gaps or/and elaboration of ideas/opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recruitment of the sample: The complete lists of teachers teaching in the three subject areas in the 20 institutions included in the previous two phases of the research were obtained. The size of the sample was decided to be 1/3 of the number of teachers in every department. A random selection was made by including every $K^{th}$ ($K= \text{total number of teachers in a department}/3$) teacher and where the number of teachers was not the multiple of three in any department, then the fraction was rounded off to the next number. Where teachers were unwilling to participate or were not available, the next teacher on the list was selected. It was aimed to get a balance of more experienced (with more than 10 years of teaching experience) and less experienced (with less than 10 years of teaching experience) teachers in the sample. As is common practice, the lists of teachers were in the order of seniority, which helped to balance the factor of the teaching experience. A total of 130 teachers were identified as the sample.

Administration: The researcher hand delivered the plain language statement along with the consent form and the questionnaire in both languages to the selected teachers. The plain language statement explained the research, the purpose of including the participants, the right of the participants to decline or withdraw their consent to participate at any point and the strict protocol of anonymity and confidentiality to be followed for the data. The consent form again included the statement on the voluntary nature of the participation. The participants were given the opportunity to ask any questions relating to research and the contact of the researcher was included in the plain language statement. A mutual date for the collection of the completed questionnaire was agreed with the participants and a plain envelope was provided to every respondent to seal their questionnaires and hand over to the administration office, from where these were collected by the researcher.

Analysis of data: The analysis of data started with the translation of responses to three questions in questionnaires that were completed in Urdu languages. Two questions were factual questions with responses of one or at the most three words; the other question was the open-ended question. Then the data of all the questionnaires was entered in the SPSS programme and analysed for descriptive statistics as it provided the required data. The impact of the teaching experience was analysed with one sample $t$ test on every item of the questionnaire.
The subsequent chapters present the analysis of data generated through the three research instruments at three phases of the research. Chapter 5 presents analysis of the data from the interviews with the institution heads; chapter 6 presents data and its analysis from teachers through the exploratory questionnaires and chapter 7 deals with the presentation and exploration of the data from teachers gathered through structured questionnaires.
Chapter 5  Analysis of the interview data

This chapter presents the data and its analysis gathered through semi-structured interviews conducted with twenty (20) Principals/heads of under study educational institutions. Focus of the interviews was an exploration of the views and experiences of the principals regarding the implementation of the change initiative. To explore these views and experiences, a number of major themes were identified from the literature review and set out in the interview schedule (see appendix 3). These themes included:

- the conception of the initiative
- the impact of the change initiative especially on teachers and students
- challenges faced in the implementation process
- strategies evolved to implement the change initiative and to overcome the challenges
- suggestions to make this particular reform work better and
- proposals about how a similar reform in the system could be taken forward in the future

The interviews were semi-structured, therefore, these themes were sometimes explicit in the questions asked during the interviews, but in some cases these themes emerged as part of the narratives across the responses. Each interview was taped, transcribed and translated into English with the exception of one when the interviewee did not want to be recorded. In this case, written notes were taken. In keeping with the interpretive design of the research and the qualitative nature of the data, mode of data analysis inferred through the views of the participants was also qualitative to understand the process of educational change management in Pakistan. This analysis would also shape the next phase of data collection. In accordance with these purposes of the data analysis, the process of analysis was built upon the techniques of traditional content analysis and the grounded theory approach.

The analysis started with the repeated readings of the transcripts to get an overall sense of the data, to be categorized subsequently into different themes. The categorization of data was carried out as proposed by Charmaz (2006 as cited by Bryman, 2008, p 543) in two phases of ‘open coding’ and ‘selective or focused coding’. Firstly, the transcripts were read and every part of the text was coded by the concept being engaged with and so there were no
predetermined categories. The next step was to list the codes and to scrutinize on the meanings of these codes and their relevance for the research. As a result, some of the codes, which were similar in meaning, were combined and some codes not relevant to the research for example, comments on madrassa education and the element of extremism in the society, were discarded. The selected codes became the categories to organize the data. It was ‘reassembling the data by searching for connections between the categories that have emerged out of the coding’ (Bryman, 2008, p 543). The emergent categories were then grouped around the themes explored through the interviews.

In practice, this process of coding, re-coding, categorizing and grouping the categories into themes was inductive as codes and categories had emerged from the data. This was an iterative process especially at the focused coding stage when data was read and re-read through which codes emerged and these codes were categorized. Then data was organized from across the whole set of scripts under these broader categories. The allocated identity of the respondent in the form of a specific number for every respondent (denoted as R1, R2...R20) was retained. There was a challenge to organise similar issues, which had emerged across the categories. To retain a true representation of the data as it emerged, similar issues have been included in different categories. There is some repetition but it is important to give a clear representation of the emerging categories as well as an indication of the core issues, which were reflected throughout the interviews. After the data was organised under categories within the overarching themes, the substance of every respondent’s view was further analysed to present the evolving issues from every category. A comprehensive and representative summary of all evolving issues was developed for each category.

This chapter presents the data analysis in the form of these summaries along with illustrative quotes with allocated identifier from the data. The structure of this presentation is sequenced thus: the statement of the overarching theme, the emergent categories in every theme and then summary of issues within each category. Within the summaries for different categories, relevant research literature has also been drawn on to further the analysis. This is partly to examine critically the analysis and partly because it is intended that the next instrument of the research (an exploratory questionnaire for teachers) will be developed from findings of this first phase of the study and from the relevant research literature. Some issues have already
been identified in the literature review chapters, especially in chapter 2 regarding educational change management and the role of teachers. Without seeking comprehensive support from the literature to support every category and issue emerging in the interview data, the relevant research literature has been referred to extensively for the categories identified from the earlier literature survey. The following sections of the chapter discuss these themes and the related data in detail.

5.1 The conception of the initiative to change

Respondents talked about their conception of change when they were asked about their experience of the change initiative but they also kept coming back to it in their responses to other questions as well. Although every respondent had an individualised experience of the change initiative through the interplay of their personal experience with this particular change, previous experiences in the system, and their thoughts and beliefs about education in general and issues related to pedagogy, achievement and improvement in particular, they had some common ideas. This is partly because their experiences were rooted in the same system, context and the reform process. A strong indication emerged in most of the responses that the initiative was a good idea and within this, there were some associated clusters of ideas. The table below illustrates the categories of issues and their strength in the data:

Table 5.1 Categories in the conception of the change initiative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception that initiative was good</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensions related to implementation and resistance</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues around pedagogy and examination</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public profile</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents mostly expressed positive attitudes towards the change initiative as 16 out of 20 respondents used words like ‘good’ ‘positive’ ‘healthy’ ‘better’ to describe the reform and they further substantiated this optimistic view in their explanations. They touched on a wide range of ideas encompassing the need and positive reception of this change and the anticipated improvement in pedagogy and student learning, or the indication of progress. The reasons given included:
there was ‘need for this change’ (R1)
- it was ‘welcomed by the teachers’ (R11)
- its ‘content and material is good’ (R4)
- it has ‘improved student learning’ (R8)
- it has ‘supported good students’ (R7)
- it has boosted student achievement (R12)
- it is ‘positive and right system to encourage independent study’ (R20)
- it has ‘enhanced vision’ and ‘brought clarity’ (R17)
- it is an indication of progress (R19)

Some respondents commented on the significance of the change. However, for some respondents, not withstanding these claims, there were some associated problems as well. In elaborating on these problems, the issues of poor implementation and capacity to manage the change were discussed. Therefore, even if change is received well, there is no guarantee that it would be implemented successfully and result in the intended outcomes being achieved because of the gaps between policy and practice (Hopkins, 1994). When respondents mentioned the problems, the most commonly cited ones were related to:

- Poor implementation process
- Understanding and capacity for change among the implementers
- Significance of the change
- Practicality of the change in terms of its feasibility
- Persistence in use of obsolete teaching methods
- Disadvantages for schools in far flung areas
- Disadvantageous position of weaker students in comparison to more able students
- Disadvantageous position of institutions with no experience of teaching and learning for O and A levels in comparison to institutions with this experience

Poor implementation of the reforms was thought to be a major issue undermining the possible impact of the change initiative and seven of the respondents were quite explicit in stating that: ‘The entire problem has occurred due to ‘wrong implementation’ (a faulty implementation process) otherwise it is a good initiative’ (R 4). Hopkins (1994, p 74) has
termed this situation as ‘the reality of change’ as opposed to ‘the rhetoric of change’. This is
the case with many of the educational change initiatives which according to Hargreaves and
Hopkins (2005, p 9)

are rarely thought through in advance, systematically planned, and
implemented, then tested and evaluated before wider dissemination.
Commonly, what seem to be good ideas are adopted, partially implemented
and poorly evaluated, until interest dwindles and another idea comes along.

Four respondents also aired another concern, which was about the understanding of the
reform and capacity of change managers, who would be required to implement the reforms.
Although it was acknowledged by the principals that the proposed reforms had focused on the
enhancement of student understanding, there was a perceived lack of understanding about the
real aims and objectives, procedures and tasks to be undertaken to bring about the required
change. Those whose task was to implement the reforms and here this included those in
teaching roles and those concerned with the examination: teachers and especially paper
setters and paper markers were focused and their lack of understanding was seen as limiting
the benefits of the change programme. This lack of understanding tempered the capacity to
manage the change on the part of head teachers ‘The will was not stronger and capacity to
manage the change was missing’ (R5).

Two of the interviewees were negative about the significance of the change though they
thought the reformed system better and more positive. One of them was of the view that the
change that had been introduced was quite insignificant and did not address areas where
change was actually needed. These ideas compare with the conception of first order change
by Cuban, (1990), when the change initiatives aim to affect practices and activities but do not
deal with aspects that are more fundamental. While the other respondent expressed that
change in the syllabus was not significant but change in the examination system was an
important step: ‘From our stand point whenever changes are introduced, these are quite
insignificant’ (R7) ‘there is not much change in the syllabus’ (R15).
Some respondents were concerned about the practicality of the change programme. They expressed their misgivings about the situation on the ground and their concerns included the lack of skills/understanding on the part of teachers and students as well as more organisational issues: extra large class size, limited term time and the scarcity of resources all of which made the change hard to achieve. This situation illustrates neglect at the pre-implementation stage of the change process (Fullan, 1991) or the ‘beginnings’ stage (Carnall, 1999) to carry out a thorough and effective account or ‘strategic analysis’ about the crucial components of environment, internal resources and culture and values of the schools (Fidler, 2004).

Five respondents also raised the issue of the continued usage of old methods in teaching, the syllabus design and in the examination system (paper setting and marking), which may be part of the ‘denial stage’ of the reaction to change when people try to maintain their present situation (Carnall, 2007). They were of the view that the change programme cannot be successful if teaching and assessment are not changed accordingly. Without the adoption of new and suitable methods, the change programme remains only partially implemented: ‘The pattern of examination which we have adopted is apparently good, as we are going for objective type questions but we have old methods and we still use them. When this pattern is based on cramming, it is not beneficial for students’ (R12).

Six respondents mentioned the issue of disadvantageous position of academically weaker students in comparison to the position of more able students in the new system. Some of them just stated it as a fact of the situation while others picked it up as a source of tension, which will limit the potential of this change initiative. According to the respondents, as the difficulty level of the syllabus and examination papers has increased and the conceptual and analytical approach is encouraged, so only academically better students can excel. Therefore, the disadvantage for weaker students has become more pronounced: ‘We have new system which is positive for good students’ (R7).

The disadvantageous position of institutions with no previous experience of teaching and learning for O and A levels in comparison to institutions with this experience also came up in
the interviews with two heads of the institutions. According to them and many other respondents, the model of O and A levels has been adopted as part of the change in curriculum and examination system. Some of the institutions in Pakistan have affiliation with Cambridge and London universities for external examination along with the local examination boards, and so they give the option to students to study in either of the two systems and then take the respective external examination. These institutions have a system already in place where they have teachers who are trained to teach according to the requirements of the A levels system and they can work with their students accordingly especially in relation to more progressive teaching learning processes. It is easier for these schools to adapt to the present change programme because they have a preparation and understanding: ‘In this change those institutions which were already teaching O levels are at advantage. But the institutions without this system are facing difficulties as the managers as well as teachers are not trained for this system’ (R19).

Some of the respondents articulated their conception of change in terms of its relation to pedagogical issues. These issues were mainly divided into two categories, one relating to student learning and the other to the change in the examination system, which has been seen as a highly significant influence on the teaching and learning process. Student learning was discussed from two standpoints, firstly what was required in the reformed curriculum and secondly, what was necessitated by the changes in the examination system. Teachers’ reaction to a change initiative is linked with their perception about the beneficial impact of the reform for them and for student learning (Waugh and Ketusiri, 2009). The respondents perceived that the change programme had promoted conceptual development and reduced rote learning among students: ‘it is conceptual and the rote learning has been checked’ (R9) and ‘prior to this, students used to cram but now they study’ (R8). This conceptual development is supported by thorough study and development of the critical and analytical perspectives. Rote learning is perceived by the interviewees to be an attribute of the old system, which constricted the conceptual development of the students:

- ‘It is a transition from rote learning to innovative and creative learning which is a very healthy change’ (R10).
- ‘Now the approach is analytical and critical and conceptual studies have been encouraged’ (R20).
‘Now one cannot do selective study and one has to go through each and every thing’ (R11).

The examination and assessment system was also a recurring theme with some respondents emphasizing the fundamental changes to the examination system, which had in turn necessitated changes in the approach to teaching and learning. The reasons cited for the profound influence of the examination system were the significance of examination results for the future studies and careers of students and for the accountability of teachers and institutions. ‘As we are examination oriented and we are aiming at good examination results so we do as best as we can’ (R7) and ‘Our curriculum, teaching and learning all are examination oriented. When teachers are teaching, they have examination questions at the back of their minds so they teach accordingly’ (R20). One respondent went to the length of suggesting that improvement in the quality of education has been planned to take effect through an improvement of the quality of assessment in the examination. ‘The thrust of the change was to improve the quality of education by improving the quality of assessment and evaluation.’ (R5). Thus, the change in the examination was the leverage for change in other aspects particularly teaching and learning: ‘while assessment may well steer learning, this can have positive consequences in terms of enhanced meaningful learning’ (Norman et al 2010, pp 496).

The issue of the public profile of the change initiative was raised with some concerns about the over emphasis of its significance and politicization. This was a minor theme referred by one respondent ‘Actually there is much fanfare about change and actual change was quite insignificant’ (R5).

In short, the emergent ideas in this section are the overall positivity about the reform initiative, the impact of reform on promoting conceptual learning and teaching and assessment. There were issues related to faulty implementation, feasibility, lack of understanding and capacity among the implementers regarding this change programme and the issue of a continued use of previous methods in teaching and assessment. There were concerns about the structural disadvantages in the reformed system for academically weak
students, geographically far off institutions and for the institutions with no system in place for O/A level teaching. Those seen to be in advantageous position were the able students, centrally located urban institutions and institutions with an already functional O/A level system respectively. This gives us a sense that school heads have positive image of the purpose, content and intentions of the reform initiative especially with relation to its impact on the development of conceptual and analytical learning and teaching and on the assessment to drive the change in pedagogy. At the same time, there have been identified some structural and practical problems, which have been considered serious and damaging for the real potential of the reform by the principals.

5.2 Impact on teachers

Teachers are the real enactors of educational change at the grass root level in the classroom in teaching and learning process. Change happens through this role of the teachers: the formulation of policy alone cannot regulate what happens at the classroom level (Dalin, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994; Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). Thus, the impact of a particular programme of change on teachers is an important aspect of the management of educational change. This impact can be seen from different dimensions relating to how teachers react to the change and what challenges they face in accepting, internalising and implementing the changes set out in the programme. Given the significance of the role of teachers (Day, 2002; Hargreaves, 1997; Hargreaves and Evans, 1997; Hargreaves, 2004; Goodson, 1997; Fullan, 2001; Kirk and Macdonald, 2010; Fullan and Levin, 2009; Wendell, 2009), the perceptions of institutional heads were sought on the impact of the change on teachers. This enquiry led to a range of responses, which converged around the following categories:

Table 5.2 Categories indicating the impact of the change initiative on teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial reaction of teachers</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands on teachers in the new system</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints for teachers</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits or positive aspects for teachers</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The initial reaction to change is usually confusion and strain as ‘change creates stress and strain’ (Carnall, 1999, p 13) partly because people are reluctant to part with the known and familiar (Deal, 2007) which is ‘attractive and reassuring’ for its ‘stability and continuity’ (Oliver, 1996, p 3), therefore, ‘resistance is natural’ (Lumby, 1998, p 195). The principals described the initial reaction of teachers to the change programme as ‘not happy’, ‘apprehensive’, ‘confused’, ‘reluctant’, ‘not clear’, ‘disturbed’ and ‘grieved’. This though, was the initial reaction, the subsequent acceptance and involvement of the teachers was confirmed by the respondents. The perceptions of the principals seem to indicate that teachers moved from the initial denial and defence stage of Carnall’s (2007) model of how people experience change and had entered into the phase of setting aside the past and entering into the adaption stage. This focuses on the initial reaction. Other aspects of the impact on teachers related to issues concerning new expectations, possible constraints and then perceived benefits to teachers.

Change refocuses and alters goals, roles, structures, processes and the institutional culture (all or many of these) so it creates a different set of demands on the people working in a changing system. Therefore, when principals elaborated on the impact of change on teachers, the new demands created by the system on teachers evidently emerged as a focal issue. These accounts alluded to the demand to adopt a new approach to teaching principles and practices, which were essentially different from the existing principles and practices. This new approach included the dimensions of concept teaching, the development of critical perspectives and examination focused teaching. This changed practice demanded more preparation and reliance on supportive resources like library or internet resources, which in turn added to the workload of teachers. The most commonly stated demand on teachers was the added workload ‘the workload of teachers has increased’ (R9). Teaching, paper setting and marking had become more time consuming and required new practices from teachers: ‘Teachers have to clarify the concept, give critical perspective and focus on objective type examination questions’ (R20).

The description of the demands created by the change extended to the constraints, which hampered teachers in meeting these demands. Respondents identified different factors, which posed challenge to the teachers in the process of adopting the spirit of the change and seeking
to achieve the objectives of the reform. These constraints included organizational issues as well as issues related to the position of the teachers.

Time surfaced as the main constraint including both the teaching time available in the session and the time available for teachers to prepare themselves for the change programme. Respondents thought that the time was not sufficient partly because the conceptual teaching needed to be supported by a variety of resources and it was not possible to organize and become familiar with these in the session time especially when class size was extra large. The other constraining factors identified by the principals in relation to teachers included:

- The significance of examination results: Teachers were constrained because their evaluation was based on the performance of their students in the examination: ‘teachers are also bound by the fact that they are evaluated on the performance of their students’ (R7). Therefore, examination regulated/directed teaching was seen by the principals as taking priority.

- Non-availability of clear instructions about changes in the curriculum was a challenge, which added to the confusion of teachers ‘They are in a state of confusion. There are no clear-cut instructions’ (R11). The lack of clear instructions also resulted in the continued use of old methods of teaching: ‘So some teachers are using the same old methods and the expected results are not being achieved and there is disappointment’ (R11).

- Lack of compatibility between teachers’ existing understanding and skills and the new syllabus: The fact that teachers themselves had studied in a different system and they had been trained for and had worked in that system. For the new approaches in teaching, they not only feel deskilled but their contribution in the traditional teaching is also destabilized. ‘If the teacher studied thirty teachers ago and has never been trained or oriented and you bring in a high level syllabus, then you incapacitate the teacher for traditional teaching he had been doing’ (R12).

- Another constraining factor is the compulsion on teachers to accept change without any flexibility to adapt the imposed practices in accordance with situation on the ground. Therefore, if the context in the classroom conflicts with the agenda of change, teachers cannot adapt it to create a fit. The system is centralised and
works on the top down approach, which requires institutions and teachers to comply with the orders and change coming down on them ‘We are not asked to comment rather we are not supposed to do so. We have to follow the change programme and tell teachers how to do it’ (R9).

During the discussion on the demands and constraints on teachers, some ideas on providing support for teachers also emerged including decreased workload, training, peer support, resources, increased incentives and motivation boosting strategies. These views on demands, constraints and the required support were, however, still interspersed with some of the benefits of the initiative for teachers. These positive signs matched with other comments of the principals made about the change being welcomed by teachers or their acceptance of change after initial confusion and disturbance and the adoption of the change agenda. Principals saw that this change had brought many benefits for the teachers’ personal and professional development. On the personal side, the change has accrued the benefits of satisfaction derived from the new experiences, the prospects of remaining mentally alert, focused, inquisitive and of ongoing development. On the professional front, principals felt that teachers had been updated and there was an improvement in skills and knowledge along with an enhanced experience of teaching: Thus, one head teacher summed it up as follows

_The new system is an opportunity for the teachers that they can upgrade themselves by teaching new things. They can overcome the boredom of teaching the same things over a number of years. That is why this new system is very good for the personal development of the teachers. Teacher remains mentally alert, tries to find out and prepares the lecture_ (R14).

The views of principals about the impact of the change programme on teachers referred to the issues of teachers’ initial confusion and apprehensions but later acceptance of the reform. Principals also indicated that the reform had increased the workload for teachers and they were required to adopt a more progressive approach in teaching. This issue was linked to the time pressure on teachers. Lack of information and communication were also quoted as challenges for teachers, which added to their confusion and inability to change their methods of teaching especially in the situation where there was a gap in their existing training and skills and those required in the reformed system. The issue of the denied professional agency
of teachers to adapt the curriculum to their local needs was also raised. Along with these challenges, there were balancing views about the opportunities for teachers to update their knowledge and pedagogical skill and for professional development with enhanced scope for new teaching approaches. This section of data has added significance in the research as it will be used to generate possible themes and ideas for the exploratory questionnaire for teachers.

5.3 Impact on students

Given the pivotal position of students, their learning and achievement in the whole education system, the impact of the change programme on students was also probed with the institutional heads. Change initiatives in education ultimately focus on students and seek to secure an improvement in their learning and attainment. When respondents were invited to reflect upon the impact of the change initiative on the learning and achievement of students, they dealt with this from different standpoints. A number of themes emerged and these varied perspectives were grouped into clusters of ideas. These categories and the number of responses that emerged from data are given below:

Table 5.3 Categories indicating the impact of the change initiative on students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reaction of students</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands on students</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits for students</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensions</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic factors</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In describing the reaction of the students, the respondents mentioned their initial difficulty in adjusting to the new system. This is a commonly observed phenomenon with any change initiative (Carnall, 1999; Lumby, 1998) and can cause difficulty for students to perform. Some responses linked the reaction of students to the attitude of teachers towards the change initiative. ‘Students take the new thing as the teachers take it. It is mainly teachers’ attitude and how they implement and convey a thing that matters’ (R14). One respondent noted the
non-acceptance of change by students: ‘Students have not accepted this change and reason is that they are not ready to understand’ (R9) while some others stated that students were comfortable with the new system and had adjusted well: ‘Students are comfortable with the changed system’ (R18). There was no consensual point of convergence on the issue of students’ reaction to change. A number of respondents linked this issue of the students’ reaction with the ability level, geographic and demographic location of the students. Thus in their view, change was received well by pupils with high ability level and further, the initiative did not pose much problem for students in major cities, in elite institutions and belonging to educated, well-off families: ‘Good students were very happy with this as there were more prospects for them. They had better chances and they could excel the students of lesser ability’ (R5).

In analysing the impact of change on the students, respondents described quite clearly, what the new demands on the students were now. The main impact for students was seen as their changed role as a learner related to the change in pedagogy. Different pedagogic issues made demands on pupils particularly:

- Achieving a comprehensive understanding of the content
- Achieving clarity of concepts
- Developing critical and analytical perspectives
- Developing greater creativity

As one principal commented: ‘Now the concepts and thinking of students are to be better developed and they have to see things critically’ (R20). These new learning targets and outcomes demanded a different learning style or approach from the students going: ‘from a limited approach, they have been taken to a deeper approach’ (R10). Here there was a vast increase in content of learning and the application of this material in the examination. The establishment of the initiative required certain adjustments and a new habit formation on the part of pupils.
Principals also described what they saw as some ensuing benefits of this initiative for students. The changed pedagogical demands and the new learning approaches were perceived to offer some benefits to students including:

- Improved concept development
- Intelligence testing and higher attainment
- Critical understanding
- Improved thinking ability
- Better opportunities for good students to excel

These benefits were summed up typically as follows: ‘It has a positive effect as the thinking ability and concepts of students have improved. Now students have a critical understanding of the topics’ (R20).

The view that there had been benefits to students was not universal as a number of factors were noted by the respondents as sources of tension, which limited the potential benefits of the change programme for students. Tensions were related to gaps in the existing ability level of students and the ability level demanded in the new system. Some principals also saw a gap between the training provided to students in the junior levels and skills needed now at the higher secondary level because of these reforms. These gaps were mentioned by a majority of respondents and they were concerned about the abrupt introduction of change at the secondary and higher secondary level of education without considering the gaps in the orientation, training, skills and ability level of the students. The principals were of the view that the reform programme should have been introduced at the junior levels and gradually brought through to the senior levels so that students would be better prepared for the new demands at this level.

Another source of tension pointed out by the interviewees was the grades oriented system and examination focused learning which had not changed in the new system but was, in their view, strengthened by it. The principals were concerned about the over emphasis on the grades of the public examination, which had limited the learning of students: ‘our system is not talent oriented rather it is grades oriented. Therefore, the focus of students as well as
teachers is to gain good marks and grades’ R (13). A reduced chance of improvement and achievement for weaker students was also a concern of some respondents. Specific demographics were cited by four principals as a source of tension. These demographic factors are what students bring with them and so are beyond the control of the institutions but they have an effect on the learning and achievement of the students. The factors mentioned by participants were low socio-economic background, rural background and uneducated parents. The impact of these factors particularly where there was the missing familial and background support, could make it difficult for some students to adjust to, adopt and perform in the new system: ‘Most of the parents are not educated as we have children from villages and lower socio economic groups so their support is missing’ (R9).

The views of the principals related to the impact of the change programme on students covered the issues of demands, challenges and benefits for student. There were differing views on the acceptance of the change initiative by students and it was noted positively for students with better academic and socioeconomic backgrounds and also for those studying in major cities. It was stated that the change demanded a conceptual and analytical approach to learning, which was considered beneficial for students. At the same time, this new approach was challenging for students due to of the gaps in their present ability level, the training from the junior levels of education and the examination focused learning.

5.4 Institutional strategy to implement the change

Institutional heads were also asked to outline their strategy to implement the change initiative in their respective institutions and how they had taken the change forward was then explored. This was an important aspect to cover because the management of change at the institutional level has to be beyond the development of policies and procedures and has to evolve personal strategies as: ‘to respond to, and seek to influence the impact of, structural and cultural change: personal change as well as organisational change’ (Bennett et al, 1992, p 2) is part of the role of leader in managing change.
The study of the personal strategies of the head of institutions reflected their conception of change, their personal leadership style and also reflected the priorities in the system. Every respondent described their individual strategy and these covered a variety of practices but there were common elements across different respondents. These can be grouped into three major categories relating to the main common focus as given in the table 5.4 along with the number of responses indicating them:

Table 5.4 Categories indicating the institutional Strategy to implement the change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy focusing on teachers</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy focusing on students</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy focusing on resource and support</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The basic focus of all strategies was better preparation for and adoption of change and for steering the institutional processes and the people to achieve a better performance in the new system. Therefore, these three categories relate to the same end but through different means. Within each category, there are a host of ideas and a number of practices, which had been adopted in different institutions. It is important to make clear that these categories were not mutually exclusive but were ‘mixed and matched’ by different heads as the means of taking the change forward in their respective institutions.

Responses relating to a teacher focused approach referred to a number of practices through which teachers were supported and trained to cope with the change. These respondents saw teachers as being of pivotal significance in the process of change management and tried to ensure improvement in student learning by nurturing and capturing the potential of teachers as a key issue identified in the research literature as well (Oliver, 1996; Bush, 2008; Busher, 2006; Torres, 2000). The heads, who were inclined towards a teacher focused strategy, referred to a number of practices relating to training, guidance, mentoring, peer support, the provision of resource, and coordination of progress among colleagues and enhanced communication with the teachers. ‘Frequent meetings among the staff were organized so that
they could share their ideas and coordinate the implementation’ (R1). Some of these commonly cited practices were:

- Frequent meetings with and among the staff to share ideas and to coordinate progress
- Internal training and workshops
- Peer support
- Group activities
- Model lectures by senior members of staff
- Observation of classes by experienced teachers and then the provision of feedback
- Consultation of A levels books
- Preparation of notes
- Informal meetings among the teachers along with formal meetings
- Increased departmental coordination
- Advance preparation with head of the departments to predict possible problems and develop their solutions
- Promotion of reflection among teachers
- Strategies to improve motivation and morale
- Enhanced and targeted communication with teachers about the positive aspects of the change in order to create acceptance for the change
- Communication with teachers on their role in achieving the success of the change and expectations on them

Thus typical responses were: ‘So through observation and model lectures we arranged internal training for our teachers’ (R11) and ‘Our strategy is that we first of all involve the teachers’ (R14). These practices were used across different institutions with varying degrees of emphasis on different practices but the focus was on teacher development and the strategy revolved around equipping them through better preparation and development of understanding, knowledge and skills so they can address and take forward the change initiative.

As the whole education system converges on the learning of the students, they obviously are affected by any initiative to bring change in the education system. In the change initiative
under study, students were directly targeted through changes in the curriculum and the examination system so some of the heads of institutions outlined a course of action in their strategy, which focused on students as well. Here, the emphasis was on those practices to involve students and to prepare them to adopt the changes introduced and to develop the understanding and skills required in the change programme.

Some common patterns in the approaches used with students, which emerged in discussions related to more practice on new tasks, targeted training, frequent testing and feedback, extra support for studies, enhancing motivation and seeking holistic development: ‘More tests have to be prepared for the students’ practice. Students should solve the papers and then teachers can judge what they had asked in the question and what the student has replied’ (R9). Some of the practices focusing on students cited by heads included:

- Involvement in notes making
- Motivational strategies to encourage students to read more
- Practice through internal examinations
- Training on specific aspects of curriculum
- Exchange of question papers with other institutions to give more practice to students
- Frequent tests
- Increased feedback
- Extra coaching after school time
- Identification and working with students needing extra support
- Promotion and encouragement for independent learning
- Development of critical thinking and conceptual learning
- Development of personal skills

The third category in the responses of the head teachers related to strategies focused on resourcing and provision of additional support for the implementation of the change initiative. The support in the form of resource materials, resource persons, guidance, information and improved communication among staff and between staff and management can prove to be facilitative in times of transition and implementation of change. Indeed Obara and Sloan (2009, p 363) stressed that, ‘without considerable attention to resources and
training, the greater the change, the more likely it is that there will be conflicts and failure in the implementation of new policies’. The ideas found in this cluster referred to different practices of the heads of the institutions, which were in keeping with their personal preferences and priorities as well as the culture and requirements of their respective institutions. Some heads concentrated on upgrading the libraries with relevant books and materials to be used by teachers and students to improve their understanding and performance in the new system. ‘We devised the strategy that we have to have more books in the library.’ (R3). A few respondents provided resources in the shape of the collection of question papers from other institutions so that they could provide their students with more practice on the examination questions. Some other respondents mentioned preparing some teachers as resource persons for other teachers through seminars and workshops arranged by the Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education in order that ‘When these teachers came back from training they trained their colleagues’ (R19). Two respondents referred to arranging expert professional help to guide teachers in paper setting and some reported help from paper markers to provide guidance to teachers in marking and students in solving question on their examination papers. Another source of support sought by five respondents was from either their respective central board or the Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education with which they increased their communication to get guidance, clarifications of specific issues or training for their staff. Thus, one respondent indicated that: ‘We sought help and guidance from the Federal Board.’ (R10).

In short, principals indicated a number of strategies to prepare and develop the understanding and skills among the teachers and students. The strategies for teachers included focused training, consultation, increased communication among the staff, motivation building, support with teaching through peer support, teaching notes, model lectures, feedback and group activities. The students were supported with focused teaching to prepare them for assessment and to develop critical thinking, frequent testing with feedback, motivation enhancement, extra support and more involvement in discussions and notes making. The resource enhancement strategies focused provision of books, teaching notes, question papers for student practice, resource persons training and seeking more resource and training from central offices.
5.5 Problems faced when implementing the change initiative

A number of issues emerged around the theme relating to the problems faced by institutions in the process of implementation of the change initiative as school principals have a strategic position to influence and reflect on the change management process (Pettit and Hind, 1992; Kinsler and Gamble, 2001; Harris and Lambert, 2003). This theme concerning the problems faced in the implementation within and beyond institutions recurred across a number of questions. A wide range of problems were reiterated by the respondents in their responses relating to questions about their experiences, the impact of the change initiative on teachers and students, their suggestions for improvement and the problems they faced at the institutional level. Here the scope of this theme widened beyond the institutions to include problems related to planning and policymaking process as well as questions of political will and the sustainability of change. These various problems have been grouped in their relation to the major emergent issues, as set out below:

Table 5.5 Categories indicating problems faced to implement the change initiative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gaps in the change process</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School leaders</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy and examinations</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and policy making</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political unpredictability</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources and support</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The issue of gaps in relation to a number of dimensions was quite pronounced in the responses of interviewees and it was identified as a substantial factor hindering the successful implementation of this change initiative. These gaps were perceived to be found in curriculum with reference to the materials, time, requirements, level, teaching methods, examination system and presentation of curriculum; in planning and policy with reference to inclusion, consistency, communication and implementation strategy; and in implementation with reference to its consistency, pace of change, physical facilities and coordination.
With regard to the curriculum, respondents identified a mismatch between the requirements of curriculum at different levels of education such as Primary, Secondary and Higher Education levels and felt that one level was not preparing students for the next. The change in curriculum at secondary and higher secondary level was neither in keeping with the curriculum at the junior classes nor it was preparing students for the academic requirements of the higher levels. These gaps can be illustrated by the following example: ‘There is a problem at the graduation level as students are not in practice to write answers of such long questions’ (R3). There was also the question related to the level of the curriculum with some principals indicating that the curriculum did not match the age level of the students sometimes it was too advanced and sometimes not advanced enough to match the students’ needs. In the view of two principals, this happened because the curriculum was not designed by teachers. There were, in the principals’ views discontinuities between the examination paper model and the content of the syllabus. Other problems seen by the respondents in relation to the curriculum indicated the mismatch between teaching methods, the content and the level of curriculum: ‘Our problem is that syllabus is changed but the teaching methods remain the same. If methods in use are obsolete then there is a mismatch’ (R11). It was also mentioned that the content of the new curriculum was extensive and could not be covered in the time available in the session and there was a lack of coherence in presentation and application of the concepts: ‘The change is imposed without giving any thought to the level of students. The syllabus designers give the quantity without considering that how much time is available for that subject every week and how much time will be required to cover that content’ (R9).

The planning and policy making process of the change programme under study was also perceived to have some issues especially with regard to the inclusion of stakeholders. The various stakeholders in the system (principals and teachers) were not involved in planning and designing of the reformed curriculum or the examination system. This, in the view of the principals, was carried out by non-experts and people not working in the field. Another issue related to the stability of the change was its pace: the pace of change was quite rapid which caused confusion and the loss of trust among the stakeholders. There were flaws in communication processes. There was no timely information given to institutions to enable
them prepare for the change nor were the changes and the implications of these conveyed to different people who had a major role to play in the full implementation of this change such as paper setters and markers: ‘When some change is planned full information is not conveyed. We are not involved in the planning of a change. We just get written orders that this change has been made’ (R17). There were issues then, in the view of the principals, in the planning process for the change initiative and in its implementation strategy, which resulted in a divergence between the intentions of planners and actions of implementers.

The principals made some observations concerning issues in the implementation of the change programme. They thought that implementation was interrupted due to the inconsistency and the mismatch between the policy parameters and the physical facilities on the ground. They also felt there was a mismatch between the planning and policy processes and the context of the schools. Implementation was further impeded on the account of the fragmented coordination among different bodies involved in the process of the implementation. ‘The vision of the policy makers is not correct because it is based on borrowed work. They are confused people with no vision. There is no proper communication rather there is a gap’ (R2).

The issues related to teachers were the main concerns coming up in number of places in the interviews with the principals including discussions on the impact of change on teachers, the problems in implementation and particularly in suggestions for improvement. The heads of institutions stated that absence of training for teachers was a main hurdle in taking the change programme forward at the institutional level: ‘The teacher training was not enough or rather very insignificant’ (R9). As teachers were not involved in the planning or designing of the new system, this training was essential in order that teachers understood this initiative. However, the absence of any planned training created not only a communication gap, but scepticism and lack of enthusiasm among teachers:

Teachers were not properly trained although they did make a slight effort to put together some teachers and train them about the new policy and new change they were trying to bring about. But that was inadequate. As there was no training for teachers, so that is why their response was sceptical. (R5)
Even the opinion of teachers was not taken before initiating the change or afterwards in the form of feedback. The training could have covered some of these issues. The teaching of concepts was required in the new system, which was a new practice for teachers who were previously teaching in a system based on rote learning but no training was planned or organised for teachers: ‘Teachers also faced many problems because they were not used to the teaching of concepts. Our teachers were not accustomed to this neither they were given any training for it’ (R3).

Besides training, the other main factor hindering the successful implementation of the change programme identified by interviewees was the non-involvement of teachers in the process of planning and policy formulation for the change. This issue emerged as a major source of concern for the heads of the institutions and this omission came under repeated criticism in the interviews: ‘Actually when change is planned, teachers are not consulted. Things are decided on higher levels and then brought down. Obviously, in the field it is the teachers who have to implement the change. It cannot be implemented if teachers are not informed and their feedback is not taken’ (R13). Another problem identified for teachers was the fact that their accountability rested largely on the examination results of their students, which had shaped their teaching with a concentration on preparing their students to develop techniques to perform well in the examination. As the system was textbook based so teachers were also driven to finish the syllabus and again focused on preparing students to answer typical questions in order to enable their students get through the examinations well: ‘The new system is marks and examination oriented so teachers guide students on the tricks to get marks. Only exams are important so the focus is to prepare for exams. The accountability of teachers is also for the GPA of their students’ (R13).

Beyond training and pedagogic issues head teachers identified, another problem was the lack of any increase in pay despite the increase in the workload of teachers.

So workload of teachers has increased but neither remunerations for paper setting nor payments for paper marking have been raised. This is a discouraging point for teachers and they now do not opt for paper setting or marking duties. (R20)
The respondents identified three main problems for their role as school leaders: firstly, they were not involved in devising the new system; secondly, they were not made part of the planning process for the implementation policy/strategy though it was directly related to them; thirdly, there was no communication of vital information, which could help them provide guidance for staff in their institutions.

They have not involved any of our teachers or principals in the change. When you are planning, you need to involve all concerned and spend time on it. Involvement is crucial. A teacher can understand the classroom situation and an administrator can handle it in a proper way as they face the real situation. (R4)

and ‘Heads of the institutions were not part of the policy making or planning the implementation. Their role in the implementation process is very important but they were not consulted and change was not properly communicated to them.’ (R5)

The respondents quite extensively deliberated upon issues relating to pedagogy and examination. They thought that cramming was still part of the system because examination questions were still textbook based with an additional drawback that in the new system students had to cram books for fewer marks. ‘Now it is more problematic. In the past student knew that if he would cram the whole book, he will get 75 marks but now it is for just 25 marks. In my opinion it has worsened the situation’ (R13). The incapacity of students to express their conceptual understanding and the lack of activity based teaching and learning was a concern. ‘The new examination system by the board was planned on this notion of concept building but the problem is that in our colleges 90% students are those who cannot express themselves in English’ (R6).

The other problem noted by interviewees was the overarching importance given to examination results and grades, which had restricted teaching and learning process based on textbooks which in turn concertedly focussed on the examination: ‘We have no time to focus on the curriculum as we are preparing students for the examination’ (R7). There were also
problems with the examination system as well because underpinning principles of the change initiative were not communicated to the paper setters and they were not trained in the new requirements. In addition, sufficient time was not given for paper setting to meet the changes. There was no coordination between paper setting and marking. ‘When it went to paper setters there was gap in the implementation. So there was no body or mechanism to transfer this change to the actual paper setters’ (R5).

Problems related to planning and policymaking were particularly intensive in the implementation process. Many respondents thought that there was confusion in the policymaking process and there were no clear objectives or vision. Instead, there were contradictions between the objectives:

*Our policy is not consistent. First, we should be clear about the objectives what we want to achieve. There are dichotomies in our basic objectives. Objectives are something else and we demand something else. The changes, which have been introduced, are abrupt.* (R16)

In the views of the interviewees, the policy was not far sighted; it was adopted in a fragmented way and with no follow up or strong commitment by the policy makers. Another aspect of policy of deep concern to the principals was the inconsistency in approach and frequent changes in direction because of changes in the political sphere. Principals also pointed out that no thorough planning was done to anticipate possible resistance and to develop strategy to overcome any resistance. Therefore, the whole implementation strategy was ill planned with no time scheduling or staged approach. Wendell (2009) describes this as a disregard of the possible reaction of people affected by change and the existing cultural and classroom realities. In the view of the principals, the situation was worsened because of a lack of communication with all stakeholders, problematic procedures, slow bureaucratic processes and the partial implementation by only one examination board even though it was planned to be adopted all over the country. The capacity to manage the change was not given serious thought in the planning process so the development of required capacity was not proposed in the policy. There was a lack of a sense of responsibility in the policy makers and planners of the change programme and they had also created a misplaced focus on grades and
marks. The annual evaluation system was also criticised and cited as a problem for the implementation of change. The exclusion of educational institutions from the Ministry of Education Curriculum Wing and lack of coordination and communication between them was mentioned by a respondent as a flaw, which hampered the implementation. Many respondents thought that overall the changed system was an imported work not grounded in the local reality and not suitable to existing processes, requirements and culture. The process, in the view of the respondents, needed more grounding in the local context. These ideas came from the connection of the change in curriculum along with examination system borrowed from ‘A’ levels system of studies and examination.

So they do not consider physical facilities, context and ground realities and give the policies. Unfortunately, change is politically motivated to oblige a group of people like writers or publishers. We make extra effort to teach according to one pattern throughout the year. We develop a mind frame of students to follow the pattern but it is changed the next year. Therefore, students need to be trained on a new thing for the next year. If a system is imported it cannot work without adaptation to the local environment and situation as processes, requirements and culture are different for different places. (R17)

These comments resonate with Wendell’s (2009) scenario of employing the simplistic approach by politicians who try to find quick fixes to the educational issues by borrowing ‘change solutions, ‘off the shelf’ from education systems of other countries’ (p 44). They do not regard the differences between the contexts of different institutions. This mismatch between the local realities and the change effort results in confusion in the institutions where heads pass on the orders to teachers who in turn try to implement these changed practices in the classrooms. This communication of change is neither sensitive to the need to be flexible in order to adjust to the local contexts nor is it supported by the understanding of the goals and aims of the change, so the implementation is also unlikely to make headway into most classrooms.
Overlapping with problems in the planning and policy process was the issue of the ‘fickleness of change’, the lack of consistency: ‘In short changes are sudden. There should be a constant policy’ (R13). It was a deep concern and kept recurring throughout the interviews. Respondents had problems with frequent shifts in policy, ad hoc and midsession change, abrupt change at senior levels of education and sudden imposition of change without giving enough preparation time or creating a match with on the ground reality: ‘In the beginning this change was brought in suddenly. People were not given enough time as time should have been given for preparation’ (R15).

Along with the issues of planning and policy, the problems related to resources and support was also a focused concern of respondents. The resources like guidance books, internet or extra material were perceived as being insufficient. The topics in the new curriculum were extensive and time was a scarce resource to prepare for this. The support or facilitation from the higher offices in education was not available.

Related to the issues mentioned above, a few students related problems were also mentioned such as concerns that the changed curriculum was not relevant to the mental level or requirements of the students. Students’ confusion was also perceived by the interviewees as a problem and it was partly because teachers themselves were not clear and partly because the students themselves were not prepared for this new curriculum in the junior stages of their education. There were no co-curricular or extracurricular activities for students to support their learning and it was felt that ultimately they had to rely on memory based learning as well as memory-based evaluation.

Principals elaborated on the problems in the implementation of the change programme quite extensively and identified multiple issues. The issue related to gaps within the curriculum between the content and teaching time as well as assessment criteria, between curriculum requirements and the training of students from junior level of education and the teaching methods of teachers. There were also gaps in communication between the policy makers and educators in the institutions and between curriculum developers and examination paper setters and markers. There were gaps in the implementation caused by fragmented
coordination among different offices, lack of follow up, unstable policies and neglect of the context. Lack of teacher training and teacher participation in curriculum development were identified as major problems for teachers along with the issue of students’ grade based accountability for teachers. The issue of competitive salaries for teachers was also raised, especially when their workload in the reformed system has increased. For students textbook based learning and assessment, the overriding importance of examination results in their academic life and career choices and non-availability of comprehensive education were identified as main issues by the interviewees. The principals were also concerned about the abruptness, suddenness and arbitrariness of the change programmes and about the volatility in the political strata, which affected the change programmes and resulted in change or even abandonment of the reform programmes. The school leaders also identified problems related to themselves as well, which included lack of participation in the change programme policy, implementation strategy and communication of information about the change programme. The principals related these problems with their suggestions for improvement, as it is evident in the next section.

5.6 Suggestions to improve the process of change management

Leadership is a very significant dimension of educational change (Retallick and Fink, 2002) with educational leaders mediating the change between the policy makers and teachers (Bush, 1995). Therefore, they are in a strong position to evaluate the situation in order to build on the available strengths and improve on areas of weaknesses. Accordingly, the interviews were concluded by seeking suggestions from the institutional heads about how to improve the process of educational change management. In the responses though the proposals were speculative these could be clearly linked and grounded in the ideas explored in the previous themes particularly in the theme related to the conception of change and its impact on teachers and students and in the theme concerning the problems encountered or identified by heads of the institutions. Ideas generated through prior questions converged in these suggestions for improvement which helped to confirm, validate, extend and finally act in some ways as a summary for the standpoint taken by the respondents. Almost all respondents focused on teacher training and the involvement of teachers in planning and designing the educational change programme recommending different steps related to these improvements. Proposals on policy and planning were also prominent while a few principals also
recommended upgrading the examination system. Further deliberation on this section can be clustered around three main categories, which are illustrated in table 5.6 below:

Table 5.6 Categories indicating suggestions to improve the process of change management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No of scripts evident in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions related to the examination system and textbooks</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions related to teachers</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions for managerial issues like planning, policy making, organisation and implementation of change</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The examination system was part of the discussion of the theme concerning the overall conception of change and emerged as a prominent theme in discussion on problems faced by the institutions, teachers and students in the process of change. However, in comparison to these it was less prominent in suggestions for improvement. The few suggestions related to the examination system were an extension of the ideas already touched upon at different points in the conversations. These proposals included improvements in the whole examination system and especially examination paper setting and assessment. Here it was suggested by two principals that the assessment system should be the focus of improvement endeavours, which then can leverage improvements in curriculum and teaching and assessment should not be shaped by textbooks ‘*the examination system should not be based on textbooks*’ (R18). Instead, it was also pointed out that examination system can be improved by linking it to the curriculum and teaching with the time for students to adapt themselves to the new system of examination should be sufficient to bring about change in practice and learning. The rest of the suggestions focused the improvement in the examination papers particularly changing the stance and understanding of those setting the examination papers. Here the importance of understanding the purpose of the reforms is highlighted as ‘a change in our practice requires a change in our thinking’ (Sergiovanni, 2001, p 38). Thus, ‘*The mindset of the paper setters needs to be changed through training and there should be training for those who evaluate and assess the papers*’ (R1). It was also
suggested that an analysis of the last five years’ examination papers should be carried out to find out good practice for paper setting to plan for future. Two respondents made suggestions related to the content of the change in relation to the revision of textbooks in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice: ‘Books need revision to be specific about the application of the theory’ (R 2).

Suggestions related to teachers and the management of change were extensive and were a consistent focus of respondents. Proposals for teachers revolved around two issues, namely teacher training and their involvement in educational change from the beginning of the planning stage to implementation and feedback. Theorists and researchers have identified the importance of teacher involvement in the whole process of educational change as an established requisite for the success of the initiative. As ‘for strategy to be successfully implemented, staff at all levels in an organization increasingly need to be involved in decision making and policy formulation –albeit to varying degrees- and be encouraged to develop a sense of ownership and share the organisation’s mission’ (Earley, 1998, p 150).

The significance of teacher training cannot be underestimated in the light of the research literature where it is deemed an immensely important factor. The implementation of educational change is influenced by sustained staff development (Stoll and Fink, 1996) and educational change and particularly curriculum change should be in accordance with teacher competence (Cheng, 1996). The setting of a policy in itself cannot regulate what happens at the classroom level (Dalin, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994). This training not only prepares the real implementers for change but also reduces the resistance. If cultural, social, organizational and psychological sources of resistance (Leigh, 1988) along with professional competence are addressed through proper training, the implementation of change can become relatively smooth. The capacity building of people individually and collectively in the domains of their ‘knowledge, skills and disposition’ (Fullan, 2009b) is an essential dimension of putting a meaningful change process in motion, which can lead to the ‘fourth way’ of achieving effective educational reform (Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009). Training provides required support, help and back up in new skills when ‘re-learning is at stake’ (Stoll and Fink, 1996). Therefore, the consistent emphasis of respondents on the training of teachers does not come as a surprise: ‘Teachers should be trained for the change. Objectives of the change can be achieved when teachers are trained otherwise the whole plan may fail’ (R15).
The suggestions for teacher training not only highlighted why it was important but also covered how this might be provided. The ideas put forward give a comprehensive view of training needs assessment and provision. It covers training provision through not only the updating and extending of knowledge and skills of teachers but also the provision of support and guidance in preparation for the change initiative. In addition, training could be a means of motivating and communicating with staff thus increasing their acceptance for the change. How to train teachers included the practical issues about the focus, providers, methods, contents, and timings of the training. These suggestions can be summarised as in the table 5.7 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why train teachers</th>
<th>How to train</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➢ To support them</td>
<td>➢ Training should be organised by the planners of this change to get across the objectives for the change and to make it more relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To prepare and update them</td>
<td>➢ Training should be according to the requirements of teachers in the field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To motivate them</td>
<td>➢ Workshops, in-service training, refreshers courses and seminars can be arranged to make the system work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To refresh their knowledge</td>
<td>➢ Training should include detailed instructions on how to make the system work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To convey necessary information</td>
<td>➢ It should be well in time, one session ahead of the implementation of change to give preparation time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To guide them on conceptual teaching</td>
<td>➢ Training should be inclusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To make them cope with increased difficulty level of the syllabus</td>
<td>➢ One teacher from every institution can be trained to prepare as a resource person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To make them adapt to the changed requirements</td>
<td>➢ Training should be locally devised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To give orientation to the change</td>
<td>➢ Be refreshed on additions in the syllabus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Be refreshed on additions in the syllabus</td>
<td>➢ Teachers are tools to implement so they need preparation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ To improve the quality of teaching</td>
<td>➢ To make them cope with increased difficulty level of the syllabus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.7 **Summary of institution heads’ views on teacher training**
In the interviews, training was referred as a comprehensive process beyond mere acquisition of knowledge moving into the development of enhanced understanding of the new concepts of content and pedagogy as well as new roles to be assumed in the changed settings (McLaughlin, 1987). Billet (1996) declares that teacher learning and development is the focus in the change process and underpins the successful adoption of change. Fullan (1992) also calls staff development and successful change as closely related phenomena. There is no organizational change without individuals changing (Land and Jarman, 1992). Support systems of training and mentoring reduce anxiety of change (Heifetz and Linskey, 2002). The process of change depends on acquiring new skills and behaviours through not only work focused professional development but through work based learning as well (Reeves, et al, 2002). The professional development of teachers continues to be a key initiative in educational reform (Emihovich and Battaglia, 2000) which builds ‘the intellectual capital’ by enhancing their pedagogical as well as discipline knowledge for effective teaching (Sergiovanni, 2001, p 48). In the light of these established views, the importance of teacher training and development as identified by the respondents is crucial. Therefore, the concept of focussed training can be highlighted as a major issue in the process of educational change.

Another strong recommendation came for involvement of the teachers in the reform programme especially in designing the curriculum. Teacher involvement is an important aspect especially in order to create ‘mind set, culture and value change’ (Carnall, 1999, p3). Oliver (1996) has also suggested inclusive planning and policy development to ensure that teachers and other enactors of change in the field feel a sense of ownership of the proposed change initiative. If this vital aspect of the reform planning and policy making is ignored, Sergiovanni (2001) describes this situation as the dominance of technocracy over democracy when experts decide for everyone ‘what our standards are, what the outcomes of school should be, how these outcomes should be assessed, who the winners and losers are, and what the consequences of this winning and losing will be’ (p 45). In this way, participation and democratic politics are set against technical expertise. Hargreaves and Hopkins (2005, p 8) convey the same message when they write about the disillusionment of teachers with ownership and commitment for externally imposed changes ‘which sometimes arrive or involve change in unpredictable ways.’ According to the respondents, participation in bringing the reform was dominated by a technocracy (Sergiovani, 2001) which they wanted to change and have instead a balance in the representation of different stakeholders.
Respondents gave many reasons for this recommendation including teachers’ potential to give feedback about ability and attainment of the students, their learning needs and on the criterion of their assessment. Thus, they can also assist in determining the level of the curriculum in order that students can access this in a meaningful way. They can also provide advice relating to on the ground realities and problems in the field. Therefore, this feedback from teachers can help contextualise the change initiative, which has to be a key determinant in any change programme (Dawson, 1994). In the principals’ view, this recommendation would have ensuing benefits: teachers would feel committed and motivated to the change initiative; they would feel part of the process; they would be aware of the objectives as well as the desired outcomes of the change programme; and in this way change initiative would fulfil the requirements of teachers and students. Thus, the reform initiative would be inclusive and would be implementable: ‘When they change the syllabus, teachers should be invited as only a teacher can tell about the average mental level of the students and can recommend the syllabus accordingly’ (R18). Therefore, the broader involvement of the implementers of change into the whole process of educational change would make the process ‘adaptive’ (Hopkins et al, 1994) - responsive to context, culture and environment.

It was clearly stated that those teachers should be involved, who are teaching at the level for which curriculum is being devised and they should be part of the process at all stages. Improvement in the service conditions of teachers and incentives was also mentioned in the suggestions. ‘The service conditions for the teachers should be improved and incentives should be given to make the profession attractive. If the role of teachers is ignored then no change can occur in education’ (R6).

The subject of the management of the change process and the way it should be approached was the most concentrated on issue in the suggestions for improvement. Various proposals were given with reference to both the different aspects of the reform programme as well as different stages of this change process. While discussing the planning and policymaking stage, respondents’ proposed different approaches to be used in this phase. There were a number of proposals made by the respondents, which can be identified and grouped according to the common ideas. Two aspects in particular were identified- a research based approach and an inclusive approach. A research-based approach would enable ideas to be
shared at different stages of the change process so they can be tested and validated. An inclusive approach looked to the participation of people in the field. Both these approaches have a similarity with Schon’s (1971) ‘proliferation of centres’ model and Havelock’s (1971) ‘social interaction model’ for the management of change (cited by Law and Glover 2000). Thus as the interviewees indicated:

a) Research based approach: ideas to be taken from the field and then tested or validated by other people at the grass roots level: ‘Change should be research based’ (R12), and ‘Information should be sent to institution for feedback’ (R15).

b) Inclusive approach: all stakeholders to be part of the planning and policy making from the inception of ideas: ‘Change at any level in education should be organised with the participation of people working at that level’ (R19).

Another approach noted by a number of respondents was the use of a comprehensive approach in which all segments of the education system should be engaged and prepared simultaneously: ‘A comprehensive approach to cover different aspects should be adopted’ (R1) for the change programme. Again, although particular principals noted specific aspects these cohere around three clusters:

⇒ curriculum, teaching, examinations and assessment: ‘So all these four segments (curriculum, teaching, examination and assessment) have to be improved simultaneously otherwise nothing can be achieved’ (R2).

⇒ syllabus, teaching and examination ‘Syllabus, teaching, examination and assessment are delinked now. Till the time all these segments are not improved at the same time, no improvement can take place’ (R6).

⇒ level of students, capacity of teachers and time available: ‘If curriculum is made without considering the level of the students, capacity of teachers and time available, then it will bring no good’ (R9).

This approach resonates with the ideas of system thinking in educational change when change is perceived as a dynamic process focusing and interacting with multiple elements in a complex system (Hoban, 2002).
In some suggestions, there was a combination of these ideas of the change programme being comprehensive and inclusive, which result in a well thought out and accepted direction to the change programme. Therefore, this approach can be called the ‘directional approach’ by bringing together a comprehensive and inclusive approach to the management of a change initiative, and a clear sense of direction for the initiative can be set out and owned by all stakeholders.

Some respondents mentioned a ‘step wise approach’ that is an incremental approach by organising the process of the management of change into sequential steps. This incremental approach would entail the devising of clear and acceptable objectives, setting the curriculum programme, training teachers, implementing this curriculum and then analysing the outcomes for further changes. A respondent extended this viewpoint to make this process strategic with long-term policy on clear objectives. This conception of change management can be termed a ‘strategic approach’, similar to the suggestions by the other respondents for the change process to be well worked out and handled with care, due importance given to the process and having patience for results or outcomes in the end. ‘The plan should be that first we are clear about the objectives, then we set curriculum, then we train teachers and then we see and analyse the results over the years’ (R16), and ‘When we bring a change we should wait for the system to settle down, get accepted and then we should expect results’ (R17).

Another dimension of the use of an incremental approach proposed by some respondents related to the need for the reform programme to move up gradually through the school system. Respondents extensively suggested that the change should have been started from the junior levels and gradually introduced at higher levels. Further, that change should have been introduced one session time ahead of its implementation so that people could spend time on deliberations on understanding it, preparing for it and making the necessary adaptations in order to ensure adoption:

*The start should have been made from the junior level and then gradually taken forward. My suggestion is that whenever any change is brought it should*
be very gradual. It should be implemented from the next year and it should not be introduced in the current year all of a sudden. (R4)

One approach to manage the process of educational change, grounded in the particular political situation in Pakistan, was the ‘consistent approach’, envisaging a consistency in the policy and policy direction: ‘Changes should not be very frequent rather should be consistent’ (R18) and ‘So I suggest that these inconsistent changes should be stopped. Issues should be decided once and then go for implementation because the students and their results are at the stake’ (R8). It was suggested that policy should not alter course or be overly affected by turbulent political events or ideologies and should not depend upon the personal stance of the ministers: ‘Education policy should not be used to propagate political ideologies. There should be no effect of the change in politics on the education system’ (R12).

Some other suggestions were more focused on the implementation stage. It was suggested that a well-planned and well thought out implementation policy should be in place. Hopkins (1994) calls this a systematic approach, which is thoroughly planned and well managed, developing over some time. This policy should take into account the provision of sufficient time for systems, people and processes to adopt and adapt the change. Respondents were quite vehement in their views about the improvement in coordination and communication between different bodies involved in the implementation of the change. They thought a monitoring system to ensure this coordination and communication could help. Participative decision making at different levels was also recommended during the implementation phase to bring commitment for the success. Decentralisation of decision-making and empowerment of institutional heads for an effective implementation was suggested so that they could be independent in order to make decisions to address their immediate situations:

_There is over centralization in our system and principals have no control on anything. It should be changed, principals should be empowered, and it will improve the working in the institutions. People will be motivated. If I am given an assignment, I can be held accountable for it if I am given the tools to do my work._ (R6)
5.7 Conclusions

From the suggestions as mapped out, it is evident that institutional heads were consistent in their views about teacher training and their involvement in the process of change management. This is evident in the ways in which the principals constructed the change process, which in their views should be: research based, inclusive and comprehensive. All these approaches could be characterized as the ‘strategic approach’ as these were required to give direction to the change programme shaping the objectives, content and targets which would lead to a well thought out and well planned change programme with a long term impact. However, according to the participants this strategic approach needed to be consistent, systematic and incremental in order to be sustained for a long term and to achieve strategic goals. The ideas generated by the principals during the discussions converge on the idea of a strategic approach to the management of educational change where it could be characterized as being research based, comprehensive, inclusive, incremental, consistent and well directed, which are the requisites of a strategic approach.

![Diagram showing the strategic approach]

Figure 5.1 Views of the institution heads on the management of educational change

This convergence of ideas can be found throughout the data as we can pull the various threads from across the themes together. The problems in the management of the change process, identified by the principals, can be handled through their suggested approaches for the management of the process as:
There were issues of gaps in planning and implementation, difficulties in monitoring and coordination and concerns of a top down approach to change. There were also ideas about making the planning process inclusive with the involvement of teachers, leaders and other stakeholders and about the need for training for teachers, paper setters and markers. These issues can be addressed through adopting an inclusive approach, which is systematic and comprehensive in covering all aspects, needs and phases in the process.

The problem of fickleness of change and inconsistency in the policy, the political motivation and its overbearing impact on change initiatives including midterm abrupt changes can be tackled by adopting a consistent approach to planning and implementing change in education.

In the same way, the incremental approach can redress the concern of lack of time to prepare and then carry forward the change as well as to fill the gaps in skills required by students at different academic levels. It can also guard against falling into the trap of superficial change in the procedures without the change in culture and mindsets.

Some of these ideas can be compared with the perspectives on educational change put forth by Fullan (2009b) in his concept of ‘motion leadership’, which moves the individuals, institutions and systems in the direction of a meaningful change by adhering to the simple aspects of understanding the change itself and its problems, motivating peers to collaborate and learn individually and collectively, sharing performance and results transparently, earning trust on the basis of competence and honesty and helping others develop into leaders. However, there are more comparable ideas put forth by Hopkins (1994, p 78-79) in his discussion of the International School Improvement Project. Hopkins proposes that:

- ‘The school as the centre of change’ means that realities of individual schools should be considered by external reformers.
- ‘The internal conditions of school are the key focus for change’ so consideration needs to be given to the teaching and learning process and its supporting roles, procedures and resources. It is an extension of the perspective on the school as a centre of change. Both these perspectives can be compared with the ideas generated during the interviews when respondents stressed the need for on the ground realities to be taken into consideration.
through a research-based approach in policy formulation and planning for change. The responses, which identified gaps in teacher training and stressed the need for filling these gaps also converge on this point with teachers as a crucial resource in the teaching and learning process.

- ‘Systematic approach to change’ necessitates comprehensive planning and implementation along with a long-term development process. This perspective was also echoed in the responses relating to the need for a comprehensive, step-wise, consistent and incremental approach as part of a viable model for change planning and management.

- ‘Accomplishing educational goals more effectively’ relates to the encompassing a broader spectrum of student attainment, general development needs of students and teachers as well as needs of the community. This perspective emerged when respondents expressed their concerns about over emphasis on examination scores and competitiveness, which drove the initiative towards a focus on gaining higher examination scores.

- ‘A multi-level perspective’ in which roles of all concerned stakeholders within the institutions and outside the institutions are utilised in the process of change. This idea is comparable with the recommendation of the respondents for a comprehensive approach. However, it is worth noting that they did not mention the role of stakeholders outside the institution in the Pakistani context where role of the external stakeholders is not explicitly defined.

- ‘Integrative implementation strategies’ make the change process inclusive in participation. The bottom up approach can help in ‘diagnosis, priority goal setting and implementation’ (p 79). This perspective emerged as a key issue in the responses when heads of institutions highlighted non-involvement of teachers and school leaders in the process of the planning and initiation of the change programme and when they recommended inclusive approach.

- ‘Drive towards institutionalization’, based on the target of implementation to the point where change becomes part of the practice. This perspective has not been specifically mentioned by the respondents but is the ultimate focal point in all the concerns and suggestions. When respondents talked about the wider participation of teachers and leaders in policy formulation and planning to create ownership of the change, this implied a move towards
institutionalisation. In the same way when the issues of improved implementation, coordination and monitoring were raised this was suggestive of a need to create a framework to facilitate the ‘drive towards institutionalization’.

In the analysis of the perspectives of school leaders, there is an extended exposition of the encounter with the change initiative under investigation, ranging from issues in its implementation to suggestions for improvement. These reflections, suggestions and recommendations are part of the sense making process of the participants involved in the implementation of the reform and have been based on their personal experiences and a critical review of those experiences. Based on this data, an emergent model for educational change management has been sketched out that has a number of elements, which lead to the possibility of strategic management of change at its core. This emergent approach to manage the educational change in Pakistan shares the meaning with the description of strategic management of reform by Hodgson et al (2010, p 966) ‘sustainable reform, guided by a strong and clearly articulated vision and direction, together with an explicit set of principles to which all social partners can contribute.’ Davies and Davies (2009) model of strategic leadership and its three dimensions (as discussed in section 3.6.3) are considerably relevant to the ideas and opinions of the institution heads included in this investigation.

Davies and Davies’s (2009) three-dimensional model of strategic leadership is grounded in the general issues of educational leadership. However, the ideas gathered through the interview data regarding the management of curriculum change in the Pakistani context have close relevance with this framework. When institutional heads talked about their experiences, perceptions and suggestions, they touched upon a number of issues, which seem to converge around the concepts of people wisdom, procedural wisdom and contextual wisdom of Davies and Davies’ model. An evident reference to people wisdom is found when heads discussed the problem of the non-involvement of teachers and school leaders in the process of planning the change initiative and further when they suggested a more inclusive approach to planning, organising and managing educational change. The link can be seen clearly, when heads raised the issue of inadequate communication between the policy makers and implementers of the policy in the field and talked at length about the importance of teacher training to build capacity and competencies for change and pointed up the non-availability of such training.
All aspects of people wisdom mentioned by Davies and Davies were focal issues in the data. The concept of contextual wisdom emerged as a very marked theme in the responses when heads repeatedly alluded to the gaps in planning, managing and monitoring the change and ‘on the ground’ realities of the culture, existing resources, and the capacity of institutions, teachers, students and examining bodies. The suggestions for a well researched and a contextually grounded approach to initiate educational change is explicitly linked with contextual wisdom.

The concept of procedural wisdom as presented by Davies and Davies seems more implicit in the data, which becomes manifest with the shift of lens from internal development to externally mandated reform. As the reform under study is externally initiated, the Ministry of Education becomes the field of action for policy formulation and schools are the arenas for the implementation of the policy. As the reform is a large-scale initiative, the tasks of organizing the management, monitoring and coordination of the reforms are also situated outside the institutions implementing the change. These external procedures initiate and accelerate the internal procedures; therefore, the reflections of institutional heads not only encompass the internal processes but also the externally located procedures. It was quite evident that the latter found an extensive and intensive focus in the conversations of the heads. In this context, respondents elaborated upon the issues of the approaches to develop a strategy and the processes involved in these approaches with reference to the policy makers and change initiators.

After coming to terms with these underlying assumptions, we can see the application of the frameworks associated with procedural wisdom in the data. The framework of four approaches to develop strategy reveals this divide between the internal and external procedures as strategic intent and strategic planning are associated with the external procedures of planning and policy formulation while decentralized and emergent approaches appear more relevant to the internal issues of implementation of change in the institutions. The relevance of strategic intent can be seen in the suggestion of school heads about the decisions on the basic policy objectives for the education system and then a consistent pursuance of these aims and objectives. Strategic planning is the core concept when heads suggest a comprehensive and well-researched approach considering the existing situation and
building on the mutually supportive elements in the system to aim for an improvement in the future.

The decentralized and emergent approaches concerning the change initiative are irrelevant in the centrally imposed change context but these ideas find a way into the discussion from a different angle. Both these approaches are referred to in relation to the internal procedures in the institutions. The decentralization of decision making in the implementation process was mentioned by the respondents as means of the empowerment of institutions for improved implementation. The respondents also elaborated on the situation of inadequate coordination, guidance and support from the initiators of change where the institutions were left to cope on their own. In this regard, it seems an emergent approach has been adopted by the institutions when the school management, teachers and students have joined hands to devise internal strategies to cope with the changed demands. The framework of processes involved in the strategic leadership for change can also be identified in this context of externally imposed change. The processes of creating shared ownership of change, two-way open communication (conversation), reflection, the analysis of the situation, coordination to find a common focus were highlighted in order to ensure a progress through an inclusive participation and understanding of the context to generate a viable approach to educational change management in Pakistan. In Davies and Davies’s model, the learning cycle helps in making the right choice for the appropriate approach and process, aligning people with the choice, deciding about the appropriate time for action and subsequently taking this action. This cycle clearly emerges from the interview data when school heads repeatedly stress the need for an appropriate approach for planning and implementing change, involving people in the process to create ownership, considering the timing of introducing the change more thoughtfully before launching the reform initiative in the field.

This comparison with Hopkins’ (1994) perspective on education change and Davies and Davies (2009) model of strategic leadership has highlighted some points of convergence, but in the backdrop of these similarities, the particular Pakistani context cannot be ignored. This context makes the whole process of educational reform distinct in Pakistan with its centralised education system, where the centres of decision making on policy and its implementation are located outside the schools. This brings in the issue of the status of the
head teachers and teachers, as indicated by the principals, they are not included in the planning and policy making process. More importantly, this positions the principals in planning the implementation strategy as just ‘implementers’ of the programmes designed by an external agency. Therefore, in the inclusive approach to the change management process, the frame of reference for the principals working in the context of the Pakistani education system are different from someone working in a comparatively more decentralised system. Linked to these issues of inclusion and the level of agency of different stakeholders in the process of educational reform process is the theme of teacher development. As it has been focused in the interviews, the teachers were not provided skills, information, guidance and teaching resources to implement the change programme effectively. Enabling teachers by developing their skills and understanding to play their role as active and effective agents of change may be a step further in their professional development. Therefore, the suggestion of making the change process more inclusive through the involvement of teachers and head teachers is set in the context of a centralised system and the limitations of teacher development provision in this system. Another aspect of the Pakistani context is political volatility and its impact on the education system especially the consistency and stability of reform policies and these issues were reflected in the views of the principals as well. In short, we can say that where principals suggest a comprehensive, incremental and consistent approach to the management of educational change, their suggestions are grounded in the particular Pakistani context and any comparisons with theoretical and research perspectives from a different context should be done with the sensitivity to the Pakistani context. This indication of the contextual realities along with the suggested approaches to the management of educational change can be integrated through a strategic approach to the management of the educational change process as reflected through the relevant research literature. In summary, we can infer that the reflections, views and opinions of the institution heads who participated in the research converge on an emergent model of educational change management, which has comparable elements with strategic management and leadership. The Pakistani education system has a centralized bureaucratic structure where reform is introduced through a top down approach. Therefore, the participants do not recommend a complete overthrow of the existing system. They have rather adopted an evolutionary approach of seeking strategic leadership of education reform initiatives from the centre with an enhanced and meaningful role for educators working in the institutions in shaping and providing the ‘people wisdom’, ‘procedural wisdom’ and ‘contextual wisdom’ for an effective initiation and implementation of the reform strategy.
Chapter 6  Analysis of Exploratory Questionnaire Data

This chapter presents the analysis of the qualitative data gathered from teachers through an open-ended questionnaire. This is the first stage in the data collection with teachers and open-ended questions have been used in the questionnaire to identify issues to be included in the next phase of data collection. The next phase will consist of larger sample of teachers using a more structured survey tool based on the findings of this first stage. The chapter starts with the analysis of the questionnaire itself highlighting the key areas for investigation. In the following part, responses for every question are then reviewed to map out the themes emerging from the data. This review of each item separately leads to the identification of overarching themes, which are presented in the concluding part of the chapter.

6.1 Design of the questionnaire

The design of the questionnaire for the first stage of the investigation into the views and experiences of teachers drew from the findings of the investigation of the views and experiences of head teachers as well as the research literature. The findings from the interviews with principals referred to some issues specifically relevant to the implications of the change initiative for teachers. These issues were:

- Teacher involvement and participation in the planning and initiation of the change initiative
- Teachers’ initial reaction and subsequent adjustment to the change programme and the challenges, demands and benefits for them in the process
- Availability of support in the form of training, information, guidance and resource in the initiation and implementation phases of the change for teachers

These issues have been elaborated upon in the light of existing research literature in chapter 5. With reference to these elaborations and literature review on the role of teachers in the management of educational change in chapter 2, the following main themes were identified to be explored through this questionnaire for teachers:
1. The process of initiation of change and issues relating to processes outside and then within the institutions
2. The role of teachers with regards to their feelings, perceptions, experiences and practices in relation to the change initiative and challenges faced during the implementation process
3. Perceptions and ideas on issues related to students
4. Speculations on future developments and suggestions for improvement

These themes were explored through different questions included in the questionnaire. Although the individual questions focused around a specific theme, the continuity and flow of the enquiry prevented these from being mutually exclusive, so there is some overlap between different questions. The themes of the initiation of change and role of teachers with their experiences, perceptions and opinions are evident in the first seven questions, which were:

1. When did you first hear about this change and what was your first reaction?
2. Did your views alter as the change progressed? In what ways, if any?
3. What steps were taken in your institution to introduce this change in the classrooms?
4. What steps did you take initially to take this change into your classroom?
5. What steps did you take subsequently to take this change further?
6. What kinds of support did you receive from your institution in the process? Do you think this support was enough?
7. Were there any difficulties in adopting this change in your classroom and what was the nature of these?

The role and experiences of teachers, however, cannot be separated from the issues related to students. It was expected that issues related to students would also appear across the questions. In addition, two specific questions were included in the questionnaire regarding the teachers’ perceptions and ideas on issues related to students. These questions were:

8. What benefits do you think this change has brought for the students?
9. What are some of the challenges for students in the new system?
The next two questions were to explore teachers’ views on the possible ways of improvement in this initiative and for any similar future endeavour. The last part of the questionnaire was designed not only to elicit the teachers’ speculations on the future and suggestions for improvement but also to provide an opportunity to let respondents summarize their views. These items were:

10. What can be done now to make this change work in a better way?
11. What do you suggest should be done for the introduction of any change in the institutions in future by the higher authorities?
12. Any other comments relating to this initiative that you would like to add?

In the end, participants were given the space to make any comments to extend their views or to add a new point that might have been ignored in the preceding sections. It was an open invitation to add any other comments, which proved a very useful addition. It was used by most of the respondents to end their response either as an emphatic note by extending some previously mentioned issues or by adding some new points they felt had not been covered in the preceding questions.

6.2 Analysis of data: individual items

The issues identified for the first two themes of the questionnaire included the initiation of change and the initial reaction of teachers, the process of their adjustments/acceptance of change, the implications of change for their professional and personal development and above all their experience of implementing the change. Here their personal experiences were explored along with the strategies used by respondents to cope with and take forward the change.

Item 1 When did you first hear about this change and what was your first reaction?

Item 1 is the opening question to begin the probe of the inner world of experiences of teachers by asking them to reflect on this specific change and their initial exposure to it. With regard to the first indication of the proposed change, the responses of teachers can be broadly categorized into two groups. In one category, responses indicated a year or a specific point in
the process and in the second category, responses focused on the source of the information. One respondent did not respond to this part of the question. The data from 19 teachers is presented in the following two tables:

Table 6.1  **Category 1: When teachers heard about the change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point in time when first heard about the change</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In 2002</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 2003</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 2006</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When implemented</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When it had already taken place</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well before the academic session started</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.2  **Category 2: Source of information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers, media, internet</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FBISE (Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These responses are interesting in that no teacher has mentioned the Ministry of Education or any orientation or participatory session as a source of information. Instead, information came from general media sources or the examination board. The earliest point for getting their information was 2002- when this change was implemented. This leads to the assumption that either these teachers were not included in the planning or pre-implementation information sessions or there were no such programmes of information and awareness raising sessions provided by the planners and policy makers setting out this change initiative.
The second part of the question probed into the first reaction of the respondents to the proposed change. If we categorize these reactions, three groups emerge: positive, negative and mixed reactions.

Table 6.3  **First reaction to Change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency table indicates that for a majority there was a positive reaction and negative reactions were very limited. In these responses, respondents used words like ‘positive’, ‘promising’, ‘welcomed’, ‘interested’, ‘good’ and ‘appreciated’.

Respondents explained this reaction in different ways. One dominant theme was its positive impact on student learning: ‘It seemed to liberate students from cramming and give them the opportunity to learn topics with concepts. It also provided students a chance to enhance their creative abilities’ (T 11). Other explanations here included improved evaluation of students’: ‘ability and performance’ (T 3) and it ‘led to make our teaching more effective’ (T 15). It was welcomed because ‘curriculum revision was long due’ (T 10).

The three respondents who indicated a negative reaction raised specific issues regarding the proposals: that ‘this change has benefitted neither the students nor the country’ (T 1), and that ‘the change was abrupt, teachers were not taken into confidence while changing curriculum and examination system’ (T 2), and further that ‘change is not generally so welcome. I thought the new pattern would not go well with languages’ (T18).

The respondents who reported a mixed reaction did not indicate a negative attitude towards the change programme but had some concerns. For example, one respondent wrote that ‘My first reaction was mixed. I welcomed the change in curriculum but I have many doubts
regarding exam system’. Another respondent had misgivings about the relevance of some new topics included in the respective subject curriculum and the third respondent indicated that ‘My reaction in the beginning was the same as it is at any sudden change about which one is not informed and ready. However, it was not disturbing’ (T12).

**Item 2 Did your views alter as the change progressed? In what ways, if any?**

This question was aimed at probing further the process of the initiation of the change programme in the institutions and the way it was received by the teachers when they started working on it. It was also intended as a way of exploring the feelings, perceptions, and experiences of teachers moving from their first reaction to a description of their experience as they entered the implementation phase.

The responses to item 2 were a continuation of responses to item 1, so the analysis of question 2 has been done against the backdrop of the previous responses. Five teachers denied any change in their views and 14 respondents affirmed a change in their views while one of them stated that there was no change in his/her views but a change in views could be inferred from his/her statement. Five who retained their previous views, two remained positive, two negative and one with mixed feelings and perceptions. For fifteen of those who experienced change, the situation emerges as under:

Table 6.4 **Change in the views of teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive to increased positivity</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive to negative</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative to neutral</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed to positive</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response to positive</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The change from positive to negative is illustrated by one respondent who reported that ‘my first reaction to it [change programme] was of appreciation’ but then indicated that ‘...but
largely it [change programme] met with failure in delivering what was expected of it. My views did not change as per theory is concerned, but the way it was implemented and managed was not encouraging.’ (T5). All three respondents who became disillusioned with the change as it was being implemented in schools, linked it with the view that the expectations raised at the outset were not met (T6, T11).

The one respondent whose initial reaction was not positive due to the abrupt way in which reforms were initiated: ‘My views altered with the introduction of the change. I became ready to conform to the change’ (T2). This change in views does not signify any clear position but it indicates a level of acceptance and readiness to implement the change. For some the change initiative became more acceptable as it was implemented and for the greater number of respondents there was a strong positive perception evident in item 2.

The two respondents who had not answered the element relating to the first reaction reported a positive stance ‘Absolutely, this altered my views. Previously, students were used to rote learning.’ and ‘teaching methodology was also changed.’ (T7) The other teacher expressed the view that ‘This change was optimistic and seemed encouraging, and positive for the future. It indicated the possibility of diversion from the outdated methods of teaching and learning’ (T14) indicating an improved pedagogy in the reformed system.

Those who expressed an enhanced positivity in item 2, affirmed their initial positive reaction to the change and further saw this as either a

- happy experience: ‘We felt happy with the new style of asking short questions, MCQs etc because it is a better way to assess student understanding and true potential’ (T13).
- or a new possibility: ‘My views changed in way that mental assessment of students should be done in a way that they learn each and every aspect of the lesson’ (T16). and ‘a change progressed in my point of view to update the knowledge of our students according to the challenges of modern and latest education’ (T17).
- or a new pedagogic experience: ‘I implemented it and found it quite practical in blessing my students with a more thorough understanding of the subject’ (T15) and ‘change promoted thorough study and rote learning was negated’ (T19) and further
‘With this change the rote learning can be stopped and students can understand, learn and understand their topics’ (T20).

The respondent who had a mixed first reaction, seeing some additions in the curriculum as relevant and others irrelevant, overall expressed positive views about the change in the assessment system by describing it as a ‘check on selective study. Thorough study has to be done by the student’ (T9). The other respondent who had called this change sudden but not disturbing agreed with the purposes of change: ‘When I adopted this method and worked hard, I met with better results’ (T12).

If we try to trace the overall pattern in the first two questions, though many respondents were positive about the change, this was not evident for all respondents. Fourteen out of twenty teachers affirmed their continued positive initial experience of change. Three teachers welcomed change but got disillusioned with it soon afterwards and two who had started with negative reaction, retained their feelings. One teacher remained in between the two positions with a mixed reaction.

**Item 3. What steps were taken in your institution to introduce this change in the classrooms?**

This item was aimed at providing a link between the previous questions about the process of initiation of the change and the initial reaction of teachers with the way change was introduced in their particular context. It was an attempt to gain insight into the actual experiences of teachers. This third question was an initial exploration of teachers’ lived experience of change and how it was launched in their immediate surroundings and then how it was taken forward in their context. This probe extended into the next two questions on the personal strategy adopted by the teachers to implement the change initiative. An overlap between these questions was anticipated, which is evident in the responses.

The responses to this question indicate that the overall strategy devised by the institutions was varied. Half the teachers mentioned certain steps taken in their respective institutions relating to the examination system indicating the preparation of ‘notes, pamphlets and MCQs’ (T 11) ‘objective questions and short questions, (T 12, 9, 20) ‘quizzes,(T 19) tests (T
9) and evaluations on the new pattern of examination papers (T3, T7, T10, T11, T16). Four teachers mentioned some form of strategy to raise awareness and acceptance of the change programme especially among students: ‘prepared the students mentally for implementing this new system and awareness was created among parents and students regarding the new curriculum and examination system’ (T17). Other activities included meetings of HODs to devise the strategy for taking this initiative forward, special meeting of teachers for discussion, some refresher courses or workshops for teachers or the provision of materials for teachers along with advice in order to plan their lessons according to the new requirements. Pedagogic issues also appeared in the description of steps taken at the institutional level to introduce change in the classrooms with focus mainly on the teaching with lesson planning and delivery (T6, T7, T16, T19). However, learning also appeared in descriptions by respondents: ‘Creative abilities of students were polished and they were encouraged to master the text’ (T11). Apart from the responses explaining some sort of strategy at the institutional level three responses were critical about the lack of external support from the government and lack of facilities and training for teachers internally.

From these responses, it seems that the changes in the examination system were focused from early on in the implementation process. The main strategy used in the institutions related to taking very specific steps was to prepare materials in order to enable students to perform well in the examinations. The pedagogic issues taken up from the very beginning were also very specific and targeted at lesson planning and teaching methodologies. Discussions and awareness raising strategies were not widely used and similar situation appeared concerning teacher training.

**Item 4 What steps did you take initially to take this change into your classroom?**

In keeping with the phenomenological nature of this research study to examine in-depth the experiences of the people (here teachers) involved in the implementation of the change, this question explored the site where change was enacted. The focus was on the strategies used by teachers to take this change programme into the classrooms, which can help to identify specific concerns of significance to the teachers. The steps taken initially by teachers can be divided into two broad categories. One category mentioned by 14 respondents relates to facilitative/awareness raising steps denoting advice, counselling, encouragement, creating
awareness, informing and discussing. The other category reported by 15 relates to specific practices including using different teaching methodologies and practices to implement change in the pedagogy.

If we look in more detail, we can see further patterns firstly teachers attach significance to preparing the learners mentally to accept the change programme by advising and informing them: ‘apprising my students of changes made’ (T2) and ‘initially students were informed about this change. ‘They were mentally prepared and were made aware about it’ (T19). The teachers then take the required changes into the class by introducing these through discussion or advice and then modifying their classroom practice. However, these modifications rested largely with practices associated with preparation for assessment. In the classroom practice tests, drills for the preparation for tests in the form of notes, questions and MCQs (multiple-choice questions) emerged as a dominant practice. Skill development, in both teachers and students, to broaden or update the subject knowledge remained comparatively undermined. In the responses relating to specific practices preparing teachers for their teaching included methods like: taking subjects beyond course of studies (T1), lesson and notes preparation (T2, T3, T17, T18, T20), skill development and use of mixed methods-direct and indirect (T6), use of charts (T7), and regular class tests and follow up exercises (T10, T11). The steps focusing on students mostly related to class tests, participation of students in test preparation and more practice of examination in the class.

**Item 5 What steps did you take subsequently to take this change further?**

This question was also intended to investigate the level of adaptation among the teachers in order to take the change initiative further. The trend of examination focused classroom practices was evident here also. Twelve teachers reported examination preparation, oral/written tests, assignment tests, class tests, short questions, MCQs, practice tests etc as the steps they took to take this change programme further. The over emphasis on examination focused practice indicates the priorities in the system. Less attention was reported in relation to broader and differentiated development of learners which can also be linked with the over emphasis on examination preparation at the cost of reshaping teaching practices. Only four responses referred to the wider development of learners: ‘students along with covering the syllabus, can become good and responsible citizens’ (T1) and ‘to attract students to new curriculum and to provide exercises to encourage their interest (T14). One response related
to the teachers preparing themselves: ‘I have studied the change in curriculum thoroughly and study more relevant books on it’ (T4). Three respondents have referred to having discussions with their colleagues to devise ‘collective and integrated strategies’ (T2), to prepare the ‘new scheme of studies’ (T8) and to debate ‘how to cover the lengthy syllabus’ (T5). These responses indicated that teachers tended to work independently in implementing the changes rather than work collectively with others.

**Item 6 What kinds of support did you receive from your institution in the process? Do you think this support was enough?**

This item enabled teachers to express their level of satisfaction with the support provided to them. This question was intended to explore the feelings of teachers both at the initial period of the implementation of change and then as they looked back on the experiences through the period of change. Therefore, the item was aimed to generate data regarding the adjustment of teachers to the changed requirements but it was mainly designed to explore the emotional side of the implementation process. Overall, there were differences in the level of satisfaction regarding support: four respondents reported full satisfaction, two respondents expressed partial satisfaction and twelve were not satisfied. The analysis points to a general feeling among teachers that there was insufficient support to take the change further into their classrooms. It is interesting to note that those not satisfied with the support were quite clear in expressing their views. Here they looked for provision of materials, training, practical guidance on implementation and sufficient time as well as additional funds. Those teachers who thought the support was enough did not refer to the kind of support available. Those respondents who mentioned that support was provided were divided in two types; those who were fully satisfied and those who thought that support was provided but it was not enough. It is evident from the responses ‘I feel I get enough support from the institution’ (T7) and ‘in my view this support was enough to enable the teachers to cope with the change’ (T10) while someone wrote that the principal ‘provided whole hearted support. But there were certain problems in managing outdoor educational activities’ (T2).

Teachers who thought that support provided from the institutions was not enough raised a number of issues.
1. Issues with the system: Received just advice to cover the syllabus ‘Educational institutions are run like repetitive drudgery and a good teacher is considered the one who make students cram the whole syllabus’ (T1).
2. Issues related to teachers’ work: No support, no training for teachers, environment in the classrooms remains unchanged, no facilities in the classrooms, budgetary problems (T5, T11, T4, T14, T16, T17) as ‘We had to go through a very tough time. The majority of teachers were not ready or properly trained for such a change’ (T11).
3. Issues related to funds: No funds to change the environment of the schools and provide basic infrastructure (T6, T19)

The time limitations, insufficient number of staff and insufficient knowledge to implement the change were also mentioned as issues indicating lack of support for teachers in their work.

Item 7 Were there any difficulties in adopting this change in your classroom and what was the nature of these?

This item in the questionnaire is linked with the previous question and looks at teachers’ experience of putting change into practice and asks them to reflect on the difficulties they might have faced. An overview of the responses can help us group the difficulties mentioned with respect to their relevance to different issues.

Table 6.5 Frequency of difficulties in adopting the change for relevance to different issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relevance to issues</th>
<th>frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Related to students</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to resource</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to teaching</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to existing system</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two respondents conveyed that they faced no difficulties.

The main difficulties for teachers in adopting this change programme for the classrooms were low initial acceptance and readiness of students for this change initiative, the barrier of
existing practices and insufficient resources especially time but also materials, funds, and AV aids.

Out of the eleven responses referring to difficulties related to students, seven indicated that students were not ready to accept the change. Some of these responses centred on the existing and well-established practices of rote learning as a reason for the lack of student readiness. One response was quite categorical in declaring the existing system as the main problem. ‘Yes, there were a lot of difficulties; the earlier system was the chief hurdle’ (T6). Two teachers referred to the large number of students in their classes, which made the adoption of the new system difficult and one response pointed out that curriculum did not match the intellectual level of students. One teacher (T11) referred to the varied social, regional, lingual and academic backgrounds of students and the situation where some students have very limited academic ability. Eight responses indicated that resources were found to be insufficient. Five out of these eight teachers cited time as insufficient to cope with changes in the curriculum and examination system and further that, there was not enough time to cover the syllabus. Three respondents stated that they faced difficulties in adopting this change due to lack of facilities, AV Aids and AL Aids for language teaching, and two teachers indicated that financial pressure hampered institutions in providing support to teachers in the form of materials and infrastructure. Three teachers declared difficulties related to teaching: irrelevant areas in curriculum (T1); pre-planning teaching strategies for new concepts was challenging (T10); and understanding new curriculum and conveying this understanding to students while also keeping them involved along with preparing tests on it was quite difficult (T20).

**Item 8 What benefits do you think this change has brought for the students?**

This item starts the next theme namely, teachers’ perceptions and ideas on issues related to students. As evident from the data gathered on previous items, issues related to students were not restricted to the specific questions but were referred to across questions especially in relation to steps taken by teachers introducing and taking forward the initiative in their classrooms. However, it was deemed important to include specific questions on teachers’ perceptions of issues relating to students. As students were not included into this research
study, the inclusion of items around this theme provide some insight –albeit indirectly- on to the experiences of students.

This question aimed to ascertain teachers’ perceptions of possible benefits of this change for the students. The main benefits for students reported by the teachers included limiting the necessity for cramming and rote learning, creating a habit of thorough study, conceptual development and improved performance in examinations and beyond. These three gains have a logical sequence in them. In the views of the respondents, when students stop cramming they start to study more thoroughly and develop deep understanding of concepts, which leads to a comprehensive better performance. Thus, ‘Rote learning was discouraged’ (T19) and ‘students started making their concepts clear instead of cramming’ (T6). There is greater coverage and depth: students ‘study the whole book’ (T4) do intensive study (T18) and are discouraged from being selective in what they study (T8, T9). Teachers are of the view that this change programme has brought the benefit of conceptual development, deep understanding and focus among the students: ‘Now they go for the conceptual study’ (T11) and ‘they developed a habit of probing deep down into the heart of the given topic’ (T15).

It is clear from the data that teachers are of the view that limiting the use of cramming and seeking improved understanding has accrued better performance. This improved performance is reflected in a number of aspects: hard work for good grades and marks (T3, T10), enhanced creative ability (T11, T12, T14), individual capacity (T14), precision (T18) concentration (T11, T16) mental capability (T16) and confidence (T12) on the part of the students. This improvement is evident in the upgraded knowledge and preparation for practical life (T17).

**Item 9 What are some of the challenges for students in the new system?**

This item was a further attempt to ascertain the teachers’ views on issues related to students by probing further and broadening the ideas generated in the previous item. Teachers identified the following major challenges for students in the new system:
1. Lack of readiness to adopt thorough, regular, concentrated, intensive and extensive study (T3, T4, T5, T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T15, T16, T20) and to avoid rote learning (T5, T11)

2. Lack of resource like books, internet and resourceful teachers (T7, T17)

3. Lack of proper training at the junior levels (T6, T8)

Overall, the challenge of deep and intensive study is among the most cited issue. Half of the respondents identified this concern. According to them, students have to ‘study thoroughly’ (T3), ‘pay more attention to concepts’ (T5) ‘study both grammar and literary text more intensively’ (T10) and undertake ‘complete and thorough study’ as they cannot succeed without ‘learning and understanding the whole lesson’ (T20) and being regular in studies (T13). For deep learning to occur, teachers again indicated that students need to change their learning approach and had ‘to avoid rote learning’ (T5) and ‘to discard cramming’ (T11). However, the lack of resources is also a challenge as is the continuation of established habits and training reinforced through the existing teaching methodologies (T6), examination system (T8) and practices used at junior levels. Other challenges for the students included the development of the habit of book reading (T19), skills in dealing with extensive text in the textbooks (T18), adjusting to high standard education and examination (T14) and time management in examination (T11).

**Item 10 What can be done now to make this change work in a better way?**

This item is related to the fourth main theme to be investigated in the questionnaire, suggestions for improvement and speculations on the future. Teachers can provide some insight into the issues relating to the implementation of the reform programme at the classroom level and improvement in the change process.

Suggestions generated through this question were quite varied. These suggestions covered areas such as: policy issues, the process of change itself, the specific curriculum development, teacher development, wider participation, processes of examination, provision of resources and support and class size.

Six participants identified the need for teacher development: ‘without training teachers in the existing institutions and orienting them to the importance of the new system, improvement
cannot be achieved’ (T12) so refresher courses and teacher training were suggested. Another set of suggestions revolves around the process of change policy, planning, monitoring and implementation especially through the participation of educators in the institutions. Four teachers proposed suggestions related to more generic issues about the management of a change process: ‘a new education policy should be prepared with the consultation of educationists’ (T1). While five teachers emphasized the participation of teachers: ‘better and consistent evaluation system, monitoring of change and re-planning in the light of feedback’ from teachers (T2) in order ‘to lessen the reservations of teaching staff’ (T7). Two suggestions brought in the issue of making change comprehensive by focusing different aspects like institutions, teachers and number of trained teachers ‘the achievement of better results is not possible without compensating these aspects’ (T12). Another aspect of ensuring that the change process was comprehensive was the proposed inclusion of different levels of the education system: thus, ‘to make this change work better, all stages i.e. primary, higher and tertiary are to be improved’ (T6). Proposed by nine teachers, suggestions referring to the improvement in resources available to teachers as well as students are also quite prominent including: facilities for teachers and students (T3, T5, T7), computerized libraries/libraries (T3, T19), Audio-visual Aids (T3, T4), teacher manuals (T11), internet/multi-media (T17), work sheets (T19), more information/online guidance for teachers (T15) and more support for teachers (T12). Four proposals were directly related to the curriculum. Three teachers suggested revision of the syllabus (T8, T13, T5) and one proposed a regular ‘change in curriculum after appropriate intervals’ (T14). Three suggestions touched upon the examination system with more practice for examination through tests (T16, T20) being highlighted and one teacher suggested that ‘the examination system should be reformed thoroughly’ (T5).

**Item 11 What do you suggest should be done for the introduction of any change in the institutions in future by the higher authorities?**

This item was designed to enable teachers to speculate about the process of educational change providing them with an opportunity to sum up and reflect on their views, feelings, and experiences concerning this particular experience of change. In addition, they had the opportunity to propose alternative approaches for initiating and achieving change in the educational system at the institutional level. After having recounted their experiences and suggested improvements, this question was an opportunity to bring some tentative provisions
for future attempts at similar change endeavours. In this section, participants again stressed the importance of teacher training, teacher participation in initiating change, and the provision of resources to facilitate the implementation of change. The suggestion relating to the improvement of the conditions of teachers and the discussion of the wider idea of the nature of change were new issues here. On the issue of what should be done to introduce any change initiative in the institutions in future, teacher development emerged as the most commonly suggested step. Seven respondents recommended that ‘Teacher training and refresher courses should be arranged’ (T19). The provision of required resources for the incoming change was the second most common suggestion with six teachers identifying the need for improved facilities in educational institutions, teaching materials and more guidance for institutions. This is followed by the need for the wider participation and involvement of stakeholders, especially teachers in the process of policy formulation, planning and implementation of any educational change: ‘Teachers should be involved in formulating change’ and ‘change should not be ‘dictated’ but through evolutionary process’ (T2). Four teachers recommended improvement in the conditions of service and professional standing: including respect for teachers (T4), their standard of living (T19) and the salary packages (T6). Insecurities related to job security of teachers, especially in public sector have also been mentioned (T7). Five teachers made very specific suggestions; two related to English language and Pakistan Studies syllabi. Other specific suggestions included an increase in objective type questions in the examination papers, use of a semester system of examination, a reduced syllabus and the use of easy vocabulary in the syllabus. Two teachers brought in the issue of smaller class size. Along with these specific steps for future change initiatives, four teachers mentioned a few generic steps for the overall nature and process of change. Change should not be sudden but rather, should be gradual and need oriented (T12); it should be sensitive to ‘socio-economic and geo-politic’ realities (T5); it should be worked in the positive direction (T1) and should always follow a pilot project (T2).

**Item 12 Any other comments relating to this initiative that you would like to add.**

This item was included in the questionnaire to enable the respondents to add any comments not included previously in responses to specific questions and/or to confirm some already expressed views or concerns.
Out of twenty participants, 18 gave further suggestions for improvement. The suggestions generated in this section follow the same trend found in the previous two items. Some of the suggestions included: wider participation and involvement of all stakeholders and especially of teachers in bringing change (T1, T6, T10, T18), teacher training (T4, T5, T6, T9), timely information of change, better pay, respect, incentives and selection process for teachers (T5, T7, T16), more funds and facilities for institutions (T3, T5), more co-curricular activities, study tours and seminars for students (T19, T20). Some other proposals put forward relate to the nature of the change: adopting a gradual approach, working up from the junior levels in school and making it relevant to the needs and socio-economic realities of society (T2, T11). Some suggestions specific to curriculum included: updating the syllabus, regular revisions in curriculum, making curriculum to match the level of students and to develop their creativity and capacity (T6, T13, T14, T16). Reforms to the examination system were included to make monthly tests compulsory in all institutions, more objectives oriented examinations and more objective type questions in the exercises given in books (T8, T16).

6.3 Overall themes emerging from the data

The purpose of this phase of data collection and analysis was to generate some overall themes and issues within these themes, which are relevant to teachers. These themes and issues were then used to construct a more structured questionnaire to collect data from a larger number of teachers. The emergent overarching themes and the issues have been presented in the following section.

6.3.1 Student learning

Issues related to students emerged as one of the major subjects across the questions. Teachers related their first reaction and initial acceptance of this initiative to its positive impact on student learning. They considered that this change could control the practice of rote learning and develop conceptual and deep learning among students, which in turn would improve their performance. When teachers identified the initial steps to take this change forward, they mentioned preparing the students for change through advice, encouragement, awareness raising, information and discussion. This aspect of students’ preparation for change was affirmed when teachers identified reluctance and non-acceptance of change from students as one of the major difficulties they faced in adopting the change in their classrooms. Therefore,
to offset this problem they started counselling the students to adopt the change initiative. The issue of limiting rote learning, promoting conceptual development and achieving improved performance of students were consolidated when teachers listed these aspects of student learning among the most likely benefits as well as the most challenging aspects of the new system for the students.

6.3.2 Assessment

The participating teachers have recognised change in the assessment system as a major influence on the teaching learning process. There was a clear and strong emphasis on preparing students to perform well in the new examination system. The limited reference to this aspect of the change initiative was made in the initial questions on the views of teachers towards the change. Later on, the emphasis became more pronounced when teachers mentioned the steps they had taken to adopt this change into their classrooms. They reported that they had transformed their teaching according to the new examination requirements and prepared more notes, practice tests, short questions, MCQs etc. Students were also guided to take as much practice as possible to prepare for exams and were encouraged to develop questions, MCQs and tests by themselves to enhance their preparation for the examination.

6.3.3 Teacher participation

The responding teachers also highlighted the issue of teacher participation in the initiation of the process of change. One participant mentioned this issue in the early part of the questionnaire but more teachers emphasized it in their suggestions for future similar change endeavours and in their remarks in the concluding section. The suggested level of participation varied from more comprehensive involvement in the formulation of change initiatives to the orientation of teachers and their being taken into confidence about the initiative, but the ‘dictated’ form of change has been criticized.

6.3.4 Resources and support

Availability of resources, support and facilitation in the change implementation process received a particular emphasis in teachers’ responses. Although there was a particular question about the support provided to teachers in the institutions to implement change, the
reference to the issue was made across the questions. Teachers complained about the non-availability of facilities like AV aids, internet and furniture, materials like teacher manuals and books and funds to provide these facilities, materials and infrastructure. They also mentioned lack of support in the form of information, guidance and communication. The other resource, which was focused on by teachers was time and teachers thought they did not have enough time to cope with the change and implement it successfully in their classrooms.

6.3.5 Teacher training

The theme of teacher training emerged in the question on the steps taken in the institution to introduce change in the classrooms and two teachers mentioned that training was provided to them as a preliminary step. The issue came up in the section related to support for teachers in the implementation of the change and one teacher mentioned that they were not supported with required training. However, teacher training was focused on in the section on suggestions for improvement when teachers emphasised the required training and development of teachers to prepare them for implementation of the change. This suggestion for teacher training was consolidated in the next section when teachers speculated on any future change endeavour and counted teacher training as a primary requisite. In this way, teacher training was considered important for improvement in the ongoing programme of change and also for any future initiative.

6.3.6 Nature of change, its planning and implementation process

The reference to the nature of change and its implementation process also came at different points in the responses. Change was identified as abrupt, sudden, non-inclusive, non-democratic and not according to the mental level and previous training at the junior levels of students. The suggestions for improvement included consultation with educationalists, the gradual introduction of change from junior levels and greater links with the socio-economic context of students.

6.3.7 Improvement in the working conditions for teachers

Many of teachers concluded their responses by suggesting improvement in the working conditions of teachers by enhancing respect for the profession, salary structure and incentive programmes.
These overarching themes and issues within these provided content as well as the structure of sections and subsections in the subsequent structured questionnaire for teachers. The items of this structured questionnaire have emerged from the data grouped under every theme listed above, as the next chapter will illustrate.
In this final phase of the research study issues related to the process of change were explored using a structured questionnaire with a larger sample of teachers and the data gathered through this questionnaire is presented and analysed in this chapter. This structured questionnaire was based on the outcomes of the exploratory survey presented in chapter 6. The overall themes of the study were the same as the ones explored in the preliminary survey of teachers, but the specific issues within those themes have been drawn from the qualitative data on teachers’ views from the earlier investigation (for questionnaire see appendix 14).

7.1 Demographic information

The questionnaire began with factual questions regarding (1) the subject taught by the respondents and (2) the length of their teaching experience. These two factors were deemed pertinent to this study. The three subject areas were focused in the research, so the sample included teachers teaching any of the three subjects at higher secondary level. These subjects were English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies. The following table illustrates the composition of the sample by subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject area</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urdu</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan Studies</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An attempt was made to include a third of the total numbers of teachers teaching each subject from the pre-selected institutions. The difference in the number of teachers in each of these
subjects indicates a usual difference in staff strength in the three departments. There are less Pakistan Studies teachers because this subject is taught in only class XII while English and Urdu are taught in both XI and XII. Within the three subject areas, the sample was also selected to balance the number of more experienced (more than ten years) and less experienced teachers (less than ten years). Here the sample was selected to attain a balance across two categories namely ten years or less and more than ten years, which are presented in Table 7.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than 10 years</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 10 years</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table indicates 59 (48%) teachers fall into the category of less experienced teachers (ten years or less). The curriculum reform process started in 2002 so those with less than 10 years of experience either started their careers in the period of transition or experienced it in their early careers. In the category of experienced teachers (more than ten years), there are 64 (52%) teachers. Those with more than ten years of experience have worked in both old and new system for a considerable time. This variation might have an effect on their response to the reform and the way they adjusted to it and took it forward.

The possibility of the varying length of teaching experience influencing the attitudes was also examined in the analysis of the whole data in this section. This aspect has been analysed for every item on the questionnaire through the application of Independent-Samples $t$ test on SPSS. The significance (p value) of Levene’s test was used to determine if the Equality of Variances for both groups can be assumed or not, which led to the use of an equal variances or unequal variance $t$ test from the inferential statistics. The application of $t$ test on responses
for every item of the questionnaire revealed that the difference in teaching experience was not significant for most of the items except for three elements. The analysis of the three elements, (1) the perception of this change programme being abrupt, (2) difficulties in the implementation of the change in the classrooms due to the class size and (3) suggestions made for more extensive examination reforms, indicated significance, and this analysis has been included in the relevant sections below. The analysis of the significance of teaching experience has been discarded for those parts, which did not reveal any significance.

After demographic and factual questions, the rest of the questionnaire had a composite design including dichotomous, multiple choice, rank ordering, rating scales and open-ended items. These designs were used in different sections of the questionnaire for different purposes as explained in chapter 4. Most sections of the questionnaire looked for structured responses but the questionnaire ended with a section in which participants could add comments. This space was enough to write 2-4 sentences. Out of 124 participants, 65 used this space to add comments. The contents and tone of the comments varied across the respondents. Most of the respondents made suggestions but some of them made statements on the benefits of the reform, pinpointed flaws in the process of change management, or added general comments on the content of the change especially the new syllabus. All these comments addressed some specific aspect of the reform initiative, which had already been included in the earlier sections of the questionnaire. Therefore, it is important to state at the outset that it has been deemed suitable to include and analyse these comments in the relevant section of the analysis of the rest of the questionnaire.

7.2 Initial information about the change

The first section of the questionnaire asked teachers when they first heard about the change and the source of this information. Of the 124 respondents, 110 gave a specific year while only 14 mentioned a period like 7 years ago which was converted to the relevant year. The following table shows the data obtained on this item.
Table 7.3  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before 2002</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 2005</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>124</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 60 teachers (48.38%) had heard about the change before or in 2002, which is the year when change was initiated. The other 44 teachers (35.48%) heard about it in the next three years and 17 (13.7%) heard after 2005. The results show that most of the teachers heard about the change as soon as it was initiated, but only five had heard about it before the initiation stage when the policy might have been in the making. The rest of the teachers heard about the change later in the process. Although a substantial number of teachers heard about the change at its earliest stages, there were some who did not hear about it until 2-3 or more years later. This can be linked with the length of teachers’ service and this proved to be the explanation for this variation on further analysis of the data. Most of the teachers who had heard about the change from its earlier years were those who were in service at that time. Those who heard about it later were those who had joined the profession in the last 5 years.

The next question was to determine how the change programme was communicated to teachers as well as to indicate if and to what extent the teachers had been included in the processes of planning and initiating the change programme. The data gathered is illustrated in the table below:
The data on the source of information is quite important given that the main source of information for teachers was the institutions, FBISE and the media. The institutions have emerged as the source of information for 38 (30.64%) teachers. However, as clear from the previous section, it was only after the reform programme had already been initiated. One explanation can be that the management in institutions had been directed to implement the change, and at that stage, the information was conveyed to the teachers. The other major source of information for teachers was FBISE, which is the examination board. An element of the curriculum reform programme was reform of the assessment system, which was initiated through FBISE. Therefore, when changes had been made, FBISE informed the institutions about these through letters, scheme of studies and model examination papers. These documents were given to teachers for the examination preparation of the students. The other source of information for teachers (25=20.16%) was the media. The remaining sources are also mainly secondary as colleagues, textbooks, or FDE (Federal directorate of Education). Six teachers got their information through government (official letters), which might be a direct communication from the Ministry of Education or Curriculum Wing. Even from this basic data there seems to be an issue about the place of those who would implement the reforms. Information was gained from various sources and situation appears haphazard. There seems to be no coherent strategy for briefing and providing information to teachers.
When seen in the light of the data on previous question, it is evident that teachers were not part of the planning and the policy formulation process. They were informed after the change had been initiated at the implementation stage mainly through the implementing bodies (institutions and FBISE). A significant majority of teachers had not heard about the change before 2002, they received the information at the point when the implementation stage was to begin rather than earlier at the planning or policy formulation stage.

### 7.3 First reaction and initial attitude towards the change

The next section describes respondents’ initial reaction to change. This section had three questions and first of these related to how teachers first reacted to the change initiative. The data shows the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of teachers (72=58.1%) received the change positively while only eight (6.5%) had a negative reaction. The other 44 (35.5%) had a mixed reaction - they did not start with a negative or positive reaction but were divided or not clear and this may be due to lack of information. Overall, this data indicates a substantial positive response to the reforms, which suggests that there might have not been much initial resistance. This data has been expanded in the comments section as four respondents made positive comments ‘generally change is good’ (P (participant) 51) and ‘this change is good’ (P12). This positive perception is in keeping with 58% of participants sharing a positive attitude towards the change.
The next two questions looked at changes to teachers’ initial reaction over time and the nature of this change if any. As the following table shows 82 teachers confirmed change in their initial reaction while 42 indicated no change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table illustrates the description of change in respondent’s attitudes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Became more positive</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed from negative to positive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed from positive to negative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed from mixed to positive</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed from mixed to negative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Became more negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This data shows that majority of teachers instantly reacted to change in a positive way and subsequently became more positive including those who had mixed reaction became more positive over time. Thus, 50% (41) of teachers became more positive, 32.9% (27) of teachers changed from mixed to positive while only two changed from negative to positive. Thus, the positive attitudes towards the change strengthened overtime, with 85% (70) of the teachers
who had experienced a change in their attitude became more positive or changed from mixed and negative to positive. The remaining 15% (12) experienced change towards negativity. Thus, there was generally a positive attitude, given that teachers were not part of the planning process of the reform.

7.4 The conception of change initiative

The next part of the questionnaire was designed to explore the respondents’ conception of the reform. Following from the previous questions about initial reactions and any changes in attitude, this section sought some explanation of these earlier responses. Items in this part were focused around the following main themes:

- Purpose of the change
- Process of the change
- Student learning
- The role of teachers

There were 13 statements on these issues, for which the responses were taken in the form of agreement or disagreement on a four-point Likert scale. These issue specific statements were randomly ordered in the section to control any possible response pattern on one issue (see appendix 14). For the purpose of analysis, the statements related to specific issues have been grouped and presented in the following section of the text.

7.4.1 The purpose and the process of change

The purpose and process of change had emerged as the main issue in the preliminary teacher survey from which a series of statements were constructed. Table 7.8 present the responses to each of these statements.
### Table 7.8  The conception of change: the purpose and the process of change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement: Change</th>
<th>strongly agree (1)</th>
<th>agree (2)</th>
<th>disagree (3)</th>
<th>strongly disagree (4)</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is a much-needed intervention</td>
<td>21 (16.9%)</td>
<td>71 (57.3%)</td>
<td>25 (20.2%)</td>
<td>7 (5.6%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is suitable for on the ground realities</td>
<td>14 (11.3%)</td>
<td>56 (45.2%)</td>
<td>42 (33.9%)</td>
<td>12 (9.7%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not meet the requirements of all stakeholders</td>
<td>10 (8.1%)</td>
<td>51 (41.1%)</td>
<td>52 (41.9%)</td>
<td>11 (8.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is not encouraging for the future (forward looking)</td>
<td>7 (5.6%)</td>
<td>25 (20.2%)</td>
<td>68 (54.8%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was abrupt</td>
<td>40 (32.3%)</td>
<td>51 (41.1%)</td>
<td>25 (20.2%)</td>
<td>8 (6.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was well planned</td>
<td>14 (11.3%)</td>
<td>45 (36.3%)</td>
<td>53 (42.7%)</td>
<td>12 (9.7%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was not implemented properly</td>
<td>13 (10.5%)</td>
<td>61 (49.2%)</td>
<td>42 (33.9%)</td>
<td>8 (6.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first four statements relate to the purpose of the change. The responses on the first statement show that 74% of teachers agreed to the change being a much-needed intervention, confirming the need for this change. On the issue of the change being suitable for on the ground realities, 56.5% agreed with the statement while 43.5% disagreed with it. The results for the third statement also show divided opinions with regard to meeting the requirements of all stakeholders: 49% teachers agreed with the statement thus perceiving the change as not meeting the requirements of all stakeholders and remaining 51% therefore saw the initiative as meeting these requirements. This divided opinion is evident in the mean score of 2.5, which lies exactly at the midpoint. The final statement that the change programme was not ‘encouraging for the future’, that is, would not help to address future demands and was not
forward looking and 26% participants agreed with the statement and 74% disagreed and so the majority of teachers thought that change was forward looking for the future.

The next three statements focused on the process of change and as the results show, 73% of respondents agreed with the first of these statements that the change was abrupt. On the second statement opinion was divided with 52% of respondents disagree with the idea that the change was well planned and 48% agreed with the statement. This division of opinion reflects in the mean score of 2.5 at the midpoint and it can be linked with the division of views related to change not meeting the requirements of all stakeholders. On the issue of implementation, 60% of teachers agreed that the change was not implemented properly and 40% disagreed with this view. This result follows some negativity about the process of change management: seeing change as abrupt, not implemented properly and not well planned. In the comments section, 5 respondents who pointed out flaws in the process of change management indicated that the planning of the reform was not inclusive, its implementation was flawed and it was not effective for subject teaching language and literature ‘The change was not properly implemented’ (P40). These comments confirm the reservations of the respondents on the change management process.

An equal variances $t$ test produced significant results for the statement that ‘change was abrupt’. The results indicated a statistically reliable difference between the degree of agreement of teachers with ten or less years of teaching experience ($M = 1.83$, $s = .77$) and those with more than ten years of teaching experience ($M = 2.17$, $s = .97$) $t (121) = 2.15$, $p = .033$, $\alpha = .05$. The further analysis reveals that the proportion of less experienced teachers agreeing to the conception of change being abrupt is higher (4.36) than that of more experienced teachers (1.9). In this way, more of the less experienced teachers find the change to be abrupt.

In summary, an overwhelming majority of participants view change as a much needed intervention and consider it to be forward looking, but they raised issues about the change management process. The pattern of teachers’ opinion can be linked to the response to the earlier questions. The high number of responses on the abruptness of this change can be linked to the implication in the first two questions where the majority of teachers indicated that they were not part of the policy and planning process of the reform. Further, they only heard about the reform through media or the examination and other bodies at the
implementation stage. The less experienced teachers particularly reported this and this might be due to the fact that they might have started their careers in the period of transition. A clear majority has misgivings with the implementation of the change but at the same time endorse the view that this change programme was suitable for the context in school. A small majority has reservations about the planning of the change programme and about the change not meeting the requirements of all stakeholders. Thus, this section indicates an overall agreement with the need and purpose of the change but reservations about the process of its management. In the comments section also the general trend of suggestions was to match the local context of Pakistan: at the ‘domestic level and basic needs of our society’ (P 24) and ‘the existing education, economic and political condition of the country’ (P25) and without ‘blind following of the West (P120). One respondent (P121) suggested a pilot testing of the change programme before implementation.

7.4.2 The conception of change: student learning
The next major issue in this section was student learning with a series of statements about how teachers judged its effect on the learning of students.

Table 7.9  The conception of change: student learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement: Change</th>
<th>strongly agree (1)</th>
<th>agree (2)</th>
<th>disagree (3)</th>
<th>strongly disagree (4)</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>improved the assessment of students</td>
<td>21 (16.9%)</td>
<td>74 (59.7%)</td>
<td>23 (18.5%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a happy experience for learners</td>
<td>16 (12.9%)</td>
<td>68 (54.8%)</td>
<td>29 (23.4%)</td>
<td>11 (8.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is not good for student learning</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>29 (23.4%)</td>
<td>74 (59.7%)</td>
<td>15 (12.1%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provided new pedagogic experience</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>68 (54.8%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>5 (4.0%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses to the statement that the change had improved the assessment of the students produced a significant rate of agreement (77%) as did the next item. With the statement, ‘this change is a happy experience for learners’ 68% of respondents agreed, 32% of participants
disagreed. The mean scores of 2 and 2.2 on these two statements respectively also confirm an overall trend of agreement among the respondents with these statements. The next statement presented the opposite view: ‘change is not good for student learning’ and the positive conception of change from the previous items carried over in the responses to this item as well with 28% of participants agreeing with the statement while 72% disagreed. The mean score of 2.7 also reflects overall response of participants towards disagreement with this statement. This also reflects that participants perceive this change programme ‘good for student learning. On the last dimension of student learning, 77% of teachers agreed (the mean score of 2 also confirms it) that change had provided a new pedagogic experience.

Despite some reservation about the management of the change process for this initiative, teachers agreed that it was worthwhile in terms of student learning. We can speculate that the purpose of the change programme in terms of the experiences and impact on learners was the basis not only of respondents’ positive initial reaction to the reform but also of their increased positivity over time.

7.4.3 The conception of change: teacher development

The next group of statements explored teachers’ perceptions of change in relation to their own role and development. The issues covered their professional development and the opportunity to discuss change with their colleagues, which can be conceived of as a means of providing support. The following table illustrates responses to these dimensions of teacher development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement: Change</th>
<th>strongly agree (1)</th>
<th>agree (2)</th>
<th>disagree (3)</th>
<th>strongly disagree (4)</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is an opportunity for self-development (Professional development) for teachers</td>
<td>30 (24.2%)</td>
<td>67 (54%)</td>
<td>21 (16.9%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provided time for teachers to discuss change among colleagues</td>
<td>13 (10.5%)</td>
<td>37 (29.8%)</td>
<td>53 (42.7%)</td>
<td>21 (16.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the issue of professional development, 78% teachers agreed as reflected through the mean score of 2 as well, it was an opportunity for their own development. Only 22% disagreed with the statement. However, on the second item, 40% teachers agreed that there was time provided for them to discuss change among colleagues while 60% did not perceive so. This trend towards disagreement with the statement also reflects in the mean score of 2.7. Thus, from these results an overwhelming majority of the respondents perceive this reform as an opportunity for self-development but they were not provided with the time to discuss change among colleagues, which might also have helped their development in order to understand and prepare for the change programme.

In summary, in all three sub-sections of this section there are some clear trends and some divided opinions. There are two clear trends first on the process of change management and second on the nature of change. Teachers generally hold negative views on different aspects of the change process including planning, initiation, implementation, and preparation time for teachers. On the other hand, they have a positive view of the change programme with regard to its purpose, the impact on student learning and assessment, the potential prospects for future, as an opportunity for teachers to develop themselves, a new pedagogic experience and suitable for on-the-ground realities. This divided opinion also emerged on the perception of change meeting the requirement of all stakeholders.

7.5 Support provided by the institutions and participants’ satisfaction with it

The issue of support was partly included in the issue of teachers working getting enough time to work with colleagues. This section of the questionnaire examined further the support teachers received from their institutions to take the change forward and their level of satisfaction with this support. This section had two parts, one asking them to choose from three levels of satisfaction (fully satisfied, partially satisfied, not satisfied) with the support provided by their institutions and the other seeking either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ responses to a listed number of items. These items related to taking the change initiative forward in their classrooms including: teacher training, guidance, teacher’s manuals, audio visual aids, and internet and library resource.

Table 7.11 illustrates responses on the level of satisfaction with the support participants get and table 7.12 presents the summary of responses whether or not participants received certain types of support from their institutions.
Table 7.11  Satisfaction with support provided by institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fully satisfied</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partially satisfied</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not satisfied</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.12  Support provided to teachers in their institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of support</th>
<th>yes</th>
<th>no</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training</td>
<td>58 (46.8%)</td>
<td>66 (53.2%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance</td>
<td>77 (62.1%)</td>
<td>47 (37.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's Manuals</td>
<td>64 (51.6%)</td>
<td>60 (48.4%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio Visual (AV)Aids</td>
<td>35 (28.2%)</td>
<td>89 (71.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet and library resource</td>
<td>75 (60.5%)</td>
<td>49 (39.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only 30% of teachers are fully satisfied with the support they got from their institutions. While 15% of them are not satisfied with the support and majority of them (55%) are partially satisfied. The greater proportion indicating partial satisfaction can be linked to the type of support provided to them or not, which was explored in the subsequent question. The results from table 7.12 show that support for teachers was very limited. 53% of teachers indicated that no training was provided for them. Some curricular support was provided in the form of guidance (62%), teacher’s manuals (52%), AV aids (28%) while internet and library resources were provided for 60.5%. These results show a general lack of support for teachers, which can explain 15% teachers with no satisfaction and 55% with partial satisfaction with the support they got from their institutions.

7.6  Difficulties in the implementation of change at the classroom level
The challenges faced by teachers in the implementation of the change were the focus of this section and were mainly grouped around three themes, where problems arose

1. related to students
2. related to curriculum
3. related to the implementation

In this section, the areas of difficulty were listed and teachers were asked to rate each in terms of degree of difficulty of coping with them in the course of implementing the change in their classrooms. The five points of the rating scale were 1=very difficult, 2=difficult, 3=moderately difficult, 4=not difficult, 5=not at all difficult. This scale is weighted towards difficulty because these issues had all been identified in the exploratory study as areas of challenge in adopting the change programme. The statements concerning different themes were in random order in this section but for the purpose of analysis, these have been grouped into three themes.

7.6.1 Difficulties: Issues related to students

One group of issues related to students, specifically their readiness for change. The previous data indicated that there were different facets of student readiness for the change: a broader general readiness, readiness for the changed level of academic requirements created by the reform initiative and readiness to adopt a new learning approach. Table 7. 13 presents these issues in this group and the distribution of responses by the degree of difficulty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>very difficult</th>
<th>difficult moderately difficult</th>
<th>not difficult</th>
<th>not at all difficult</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>students not ready to accept the change</td>
<td>9 (7.3%)</td>
<td>30 (24.2%)</td>
<td>33 (26.6%)</td>
<td>34 (27.4%)</td>
<td>18 (14.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard to bridge the gap between the preparation of students from junior levels and the changed requirements in knowledge and competency now</td>
<td>16 (12.9%)</td>
<td>43 (34.7%)</td>
<td>38 (30.6%)</td>
<td>21 (16.9%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard to change the students from old practice of learning</td>
<td>28 (22.6%)</td>
<td>23 (18.5%)</td>
<td>32 (25.8%)</td>
<td>35 (28.2%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the issue of students’ readiness for change, the majority of responses are distributed across the three middle points. If we analyse the numbers into two categories (1+2 and 3+4), which clearly divide the responses into two categories of the issue being considered difficult or not difficult, 31.5% find it either difficult or very difficult, while 42% find it not difficult or not at all difficult. Whereas in the middle category, 27% of respondents had difficulty with the issue at a moderate level. Therefore, if we count all responses with some degree of difficulty, this is 58% in total but the mean score of 3.1 reflects that overall difficulty level for this response has been reported at the moderate level.

The next part dealt with the issue of bridging the gap between the preparation of students from junior levels and the changed requirements in knowledge and competency. Here for only 22% of respondents this was not difficult or not at all difficult while 48% of teachers find it difficult or very difficult and another 31% find a moderate level of difficulty, and so the total sum of those finding some degree of difficulty was 78%. The mean score of 2.6 reflects the intensity of the difficulty between difficult and moderately difficult level. Thus, the gap between the preparation of students from junior levels and requirements of knowledge and competency in the new curriculum and assessment programme posed difficulty to a considerable number of teachers.

The subsequent item relates to students’ adoption of change by ‘de-learning’ the old approach of learning, this is, rote learning. The data shows that 23% of teachers found it very difficult to change the students approach to learning another 18.5% found it difficult, while 26% found it moderately difficult. This dispersion of the intensity of the difficulty level is evident in the mean score of 2.7 closer to the scenario with the previous response. In total then, 67% of teachers reported some degree of difficulty on the issue. Out of the remaining, 28% found it not difficult and 5% reported no difficulty at all. Changing students’ approach of learning posed difficulty to a considerable percentage of teachers as they implemented the new programme in their classrooms.

This part of the questionnaire probed how difficult it was for teachers to handle the issues of students’ readiness and adoption of change programme. This was an especially significant dimension when they had perceived the change programme as a positive learning experience for student learning. At the implementation in the classroom stage, however, teachers experienced some level of difficulty in issues related to students. On the three dimensions of
the theme probed in this section, the reported intensity of the difficulty level is comparatively less on students’ readiness to accept the change than on either bridging the gap between the preparation of students from the junior levels of education and the required skills and competence now or changing their old learning habits. The latter two issues pose difficulty at a comparatively higher level of intensity as it is evident from the mean scores as well.

7.6.2. Difficulties: Issues related to curriculum

The second group of problems related to the level, content and teaching of the curriculum. The issues in this group included the match between the level of curriculum and the mental level of the students (indicated in the earlier teacher survey as academic ability or attainment), irrelevant topics in the syllabus, and the provision of time to teach the content of the curriculum and of teaching materials.

Table 7.14  Problems: issues related to curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>very difficult</th>
<th>difficult</th>
<th>moderately difficult</th>
<th>not difficult</th>
<th>not at all difficult</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The level of curriculum above the mental level of students</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>31 (25%)</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>32 (25.8%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrelevant topics in the syllabus</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>28 (22.6%)</td>
<td>33 (26.6%)</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>16 (12.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less time to cover the curriculum content</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>28 (22.6%)</td>
<td>35 (28.2%)</td>
<td>22 (17.7%)</td>
<td>12 (9.7%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of teaching materials</td>
<td>12 (9.7%)</td>
<td>36 (29.0%)</td>
<td>41 (33.1%)</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>15 (12.1%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the first issue the content of the curriculum and its level of difficulty for the students in relation to their mental level/age, for 39% of participants this posed difficulty and 22%
thought it posed moderate difficulty for them to implement the change. Therefore, in total 61% respondents had some difficulty with the issue. As mentioned by 78% of respondents in the previous part, the gap between the demands of the new curriculum and the previous learning experiences and achievements of pupils during the junior stages could partly explain this difficulty to 61% of respondents in the change implementation process. On the issue of irrelevant topics in the syllabus, the responses are spread across the whole range: 39% rated the issue difficult, 27% rate it at the moderately difficult, while on the other side of the continuum, 35% found it not difficult. The issue of less time to cover the curriculum content brings the practicalities of classroom situation into focus: 44% respondents faced difficulty in the implementation of change in the classroom due to scarcity of time available to cover the curriculum content and another 28% reported that they faced difficulty at moderate level. The extent of the curriculum content was an issue with 73% considered it to be difficult at some levels and only 27% of teachers viewed this aspect as causing no difficulty. In the comments section, three participants indicated that they found the syllabus being lengthy an issue ‘Syllabus is lengthy and teachers have not enough time to implement teaching methodology’ (P30). The subsequent issue looked at practical issues and resource problems for teachers in the classrooms as being about the ‘lack of teaching material’ and its effect on the implementation of change. 33% rated the issue as causing moderate difficulty, 39% rated it difficult, thus 72% with some element of difficulty, and only 28% had no difficulty.

In this section, respondents reported that they had difficulty with the level, content and teaching of the new curriculum. The mean scores on the four items in this section reflect the intensity of the difficulty closer to the moderate level (3). Comparatively, the highest intensity of difficulty level reported in this group of issues relates to the problem of the availability of time to cover the curriculum content. However, there is a reported difficulty for matters related to teaching due to the scarcity of teaching materials as well as the irrelevant topics in curriculum and disparity in level of curriculum and mental level of students.

### 7.6.3 Difficulties: Issues related to the process of implementation

The third group of issues was clustered around the process of the implementation including the preparation and the implementation issues in the classroom. Issues related to preparation were the availability of time and resources to prepare for the change and to gain
understanding of the purpose of the change initiative, while communication of the purpose of the reform programme to students, class size and the design of practice tests for students related to the implementation stage. Table 7.15 maps out the responses on all these issues related to the process of the change implementation.

Table 7.15  **Problems: issues related to the process of implementation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>very difficult</th>
<th>difficult</th>
<th>moderately difficult</th>
<th>not difficult</th>
<th>not at all difficult</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time not enough to prepare yourself for the change</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>33 (26.6%)</td>
<td>38 (30.6%)</td>
<td>25 (20.2%)</td>
<td>8 (6.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of funding to provide required resources</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>45 (36.3%)</td>
<td>19 (15.3%)</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>13 (10.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General understanding of the change</td>
<td>14 (11.3%)</td>
<td>18 (14.5%)</td>
<td>47 (37.9%)</td>
<td>37 (29.8%)</td>
<td>8 (6.5%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conveying this understanding to students</td>
<td>12 (9.7%)</td>
<td>19 (15.3%)</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>47 (37.9%)</td>
<td>19 (15.3%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big class size</td>
<td>48 (38.7%)</td>
<td>31 (25%)</td>
<td>25 (20.2%)</td>
<td>14 (11.3%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preparing tests for students</td>
<td>8 (6.5%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>33 (26.6%)</td>
<td>44 (35.5%)</td>
<td>22 (17.7%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the issue of whether there was time to prepare for the change, there is a concentration of responses (57%) in difficult and moderately difficult range with 27% finding it difficult and 31% moderately difficult. If the 16% who found it very difficult are added to this, then the total percentage of participants having some degree of difficulty is 73%. However, the mean score (2.7) shows the intensity of difficulty for this issue closer to the moderate level (3). The second issue related to the funds to provide the required resources. The results replicate the overall division of responses from the previous item though there were more respondents who saw this at the ‘very difficult’ level (22%) and ‘difficult’ level (36%) with 15% putting it...
in moderately difficult level, which in total is 73%. The remaining 27% reported ‘not difficult’ or ‘not at all difficult’ in relation to the lack of funding for resources. The mean score of 2.5 places it as the second most difficult issue after the issue of class size.

The third item in the section explored the views of participants concerning their ‘general understanding of the change’ in the implementation of the change in the classrooms. Given there was a lack of teacher participation in the planning of the reform and teacher training for the change, the general understanding of the change could be a problem area faced by teachers. As the data shows a majority of participants (64%) found this issue posed some difficulty in the implementation of the change out of which 38% rated it at moderately difficult level. The other 35% viewed it as not difficult or not at all difficult. Thus, it was an issue with some level of difficulty with the concentration of responses converged on the moderate difficulty level as the mean score of 3 also reflects. The subsequent item was linked with the previous one and sought responses on ‘conveying this understanding to students’. The results on this item show that a large number of responses (38%) came in ‘not difficult’ category. With 16% in ‘not at all difficult’ category, the total comes to 53% for those who have no difficulty with the issue of conveying the general understanding of change to students. Out of 47% who have difficulty, 22% put their responses into moderately difficult level while it was a difficult or very difficult for 25% of respondents. This situation is evident through mean score of 3.3 as well. Therefore, the intensity of difficulty level is considerably low in comparison.

The next issue was ‘the big class size’. As the results reveal, 39% of teachers viewed this aspect ‘very difficult’, 25% thought it ‘difficult’ and another 20% perceived it ‘moderately difficult’ for them, which brings the total finding some level of difficulty to 84%, while the remaining 16% do not consider the matter of big class size as difficult to handle. In comparison, the intensity of the difficulty level is highest for this issue not only in this section but among all three sections on the problems faced by teachers in the implementation of change (see table 7.13 and 7.14). The problem of big class size is the second item in the questionnaire revealing the significance of difference in teaching experience of the respondents. An equal variances t test indicated a statistically reliable difference between the degree of agreement of teachers with up to ten years of teaching experience (M = 1.93, s = 1.14) and those with more than ten years of teaching experience (M = 2.42, s = 1.23) t (121) = 2.28, p = .024, α = .05. The further analysis reveals that the proportion of less experienced
teachers facing difficulty due to big class size is higher (7.42) than of more experienced teachers (3.92). In this way, more of the less experienced teachers find the issue of big class size more difficult to handle.

The changed assessment system in the curriculum reform meant that teachers had to prepare their students for new assessments through practice tests. Therefore, in last part of this section teachers were asked about the difficulty posed by preparing tests for students. As results reveal 53% of respondents have no difficulty in this aspect. Out of the 47% who had some difficulty, 27% term the level of difficulty moderate. So overall, preparing tests was not seen as a problem for the majority of teachers. In comparison, the intensity of the difficulty level is lowest for this issue not only in this section but among all three sections on the problems faced by teachers in the implementation of change (see table 7.13 and 7.14).

In summary, this section covered the possible problems for the teachers in the implementation of the change in their classrooms, the responses were analysed by regrouping some of the issues into specific aspects. The main issues were

- Student readiness posed difficulty to 58.1% teachers
- Bridging the gap between the preparation of students from junior levels and the changed requirements in knowledge and competency posed difficulty with 78% respondents.
- Changing students from traditional approaches of learning was problematic for 67% teachers.
- Delivering the level of curriculum above the mental level of students was difficult for 61% of participants and the issues of irrelevant topics in the syllabus for 65%.
- The large class size posed difficulty for 84% of teachers. Less experienced teachers found it harder to deal with, as they might be less adept to manage the new curriculum in a large class.
- Respondents found all three aspects of resources for classroom teaching, which included time, money and materials quite challenging - 73% of them had difficulties with the issues of less time to cover the curriculum content and the lack of funds for the provision of required resources and 72% with lack of teaching materials. The 73% of participants with difficulty on the issue of less teaching time can be linked with an earlier section when teachers were asked to agree or disagree with the statement that change provided teachers time to discuss change among colleagues and 60% of
respondents disagreed with it. Thus, the results on both the items suggest that teachers faced difficulty when time was not enough to prepare themselves for change and one aspect of this preparation could have been time for discussions with their colleagues.

- The general understanding of the change posed difficulty to 64% of participants.
- The two issues, relatively less difficult to handle were conveying the general understanding of the change to the students and preparing tests for the students as 53% of participants reported no difficulty in handling both these issues.

### 7.7 Benefits of change for the students

The next section of the questionnaire explored the views of participants regarding possible benefits for students brought by the change programme. Respondents were required to show their level of agreement or disagreement with the stated benefit of change for the students on a four-point scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree). Table 7.16 illustrates the data of responses on this list of benefits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit (change has)</th>
<th>strongly agree (1)</th>
<th>agree (2)</th>
<th>disagree (3)</th>
<th>strongly disagree (4)</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>limited the need for rote learning</td>
<td>37 (29.8%)</td>
<td>56 (45.2%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>7 (5.6%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed the habit of thorough study</td>
<td>29 (23.4%)</td>
<td>71 (57.3%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>7 (5.6%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helped conceptual development</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>69 (55.6%)</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>11 (8.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improved performance in examination</td>
<td>23 (18.5%)</td>
<td>68 (54.8%)</td>
<td>22 (17.7%)</td>
<td>11 (8.9%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enhanced creative ability</td>
<td>23 (18.5%)</td>
<td>54 (43.5%)</td>
<td>29 (23.4%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table, it is clear that the level of agreement on all the benefits of change is quite high. The highest level of agreement has come on the development of the habit of thorough study among the students as the results of the curriculum change with 81% of respondents agreeing. The benefits of change for limiting the need for rote learning and helping conceptual development in students also scored agreement from 75% of respondents, while 73% of respondents agreed that change had improved the performance of students in the examination. This figure validates the opinion of participants on an earlier question on the conception of change as improvement in the assessment of students as 77% of respondents had agreed with this idea. The lowest rate of agreement (63%) was achieved on the benefit that the change had enhanced students’ creative ability, as the mean score is also highest for this item in this section. Overall, there is agreement on the positive effects of the change on student learning, evident in percentages and mean scores (which are either 2 or close to 2). In the comments section also, four respondents have commented on the impact of change on student learning: as an improvement in conceptual learning of students (P9), need to make the context based learning focus of teaching, change as diminishing the creative abilities of students and that students pass exams by just guessing (P98).

7.8 Suggestions for improvement

The last section of the questionnaire moved the focus from the teachers’ view on what had happened to their views on what should have happened. This section sought to enable respondents to reflect on their role in the change process and put forward suggestions to improve the present initiative of change and any future endeavour of a similar nature. In this later aspect, the respondents were invited to be speculative and consider possible steps in the process of initiating any similar reform in the future. Two main themes emerged with one theme relating to the role of teachers in the process of change and the other relating to ‘resources’ including resources for teachers, funds and facilities in the institutions. Two further issues were included in this section based on the suggestions from the earlier teacher survey- one issue related to the need for more extensive reforms to the examination system and the other for a gradual introduction of change from the lower levels of education upwards. The participants were asked to indicate the degree of importance in relation to a list of suggestions for improving the current change initiative and also for any similar change in
future. A five-point scale was used (1=very important, 2=important, 3=not very important, 4=not important, 5=not at all important)

7.8.1 Suggestions: more extensive examination system reforms

Although the items were in random order in the questionnaire, for the purpose of analysis, the parts have been grouped around the themes. The first part related to the need of more extensive examination system reforms. Table 7.17 presents the breakdown of responses in the five categories of the scale.

Table 7.17 Suggestions: more extensive examination system reforms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion for improvement</th>
<th>very important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>not at all important</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More extensive examination reforms</td>
<td>70 (56.5%)</td>
<td>42 (33.9%)</td>
<td>9 (7.3%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 90% of respondents deemed extensive examination reforms important with 34% opting for ‘important’ and 56% ‘very important’. Although this recommendation is strong, comparatively it is less strong than the other suggestions in this section as it is reflected through the mean score of 1.5, which is between the two highest levels of importance but is lowest in this whole section (see tables 7.18, 7.19 and 7.20 also). However, in the comments section four participants did suggest more reforms, which chime with this recommendation.

The suggestion for more extensive examination reforms was the third item on the $t$ test, which revealed a significant difference based on the teaching experience of the respondents. An equal variances $t$ test for the suggestion for more extensive examination indicates a statistically reliable difference between the degree of agreement of teachers with up to ten years of teaching experience ($M = 1.69, s = .79$) and those with more than ten years of teaching experience ($M = 1.42, s = .66$) $t(121) = 2.07, p = .040, \alpha = .05$. The analysis reveals that the proportion of less experienced teachers agree to the suggestion of more extensive
reforms in the examination system is less (6.37) than of more experienced teachers (15). In this way, the greater number of more experienced teachers suggest further extensive examination system reforms and regard the existing extent of reform in the examination system not enough. The higher level of support from the experienced teachers makes this suggestion more significant.

7.8.2 Suggestions: gradual introduction of change from the lower levels of education

The gradual introduction of the change programme starting at the lower levels of education and building up through the levels was a persistent issue in research data from teachers. It was consistently recommended that curriculum change should have been introduced from the junior levels of education, so that students were ready for the new demands and there would be no gap in the training that students receive at lower levels and the changed requirements of new curriculum at the senior levels. The respondents’ opinion has been presented in table 7.18.

Table 7.18 Suggestions: gradual introduction of change from the lower levels of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion for improvement</th>
<th>very important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>not at all important</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gradual change from the lower levels of education</td>
<td>89 (71.8%)</td>
<td>30 (24.2%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The gradual introduction of change from the lower levels of education was viewed as being ‘very important’ by 72% and ‘important’ by 24% of respondents. In this way, a total of 96% (with the mean score of 1.3) considered it an important aspect for improvement in the change management process. In the comments section, one suggestion reflected this: ‘changes should be gradual’ (P65). Overall, this was a strong suggestion regarding gradual change from lower levels of education. In an earlier part of the questionnaire, respondents had reported difficulty in handling the issue of the gap between the training students receive from the junior levels of education and the changed requirement of knowledge and competency in
the reformed curriculum and in changing the learning approach of rote learning among the students. In this context, a strong recommendation for gradual change from the lower levels of education is quite significant.

7.8.3 Suggestions: related to teachers

There were a number of suggestions related to the role and work of teachers in the process of implementing this change programme. These suggestions related to issues of teacher training, teacher involvement and participation in the process of change and their working conditions. Table 7.19 illustrates the composition of responses by the degree of importance for suggestions related to teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion for improvement</th>
<th>very important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>not at all important</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training for the change</td>
<td>107 (86.3%)</td>
<td>15 (12.1%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of teachers in policy planning of change</td>
<td>97 (78.2%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement of teachers in designing the curriculum</td>
<td>96 (77.4%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in the working conditions of teachers</td>
<td>102 (82.3%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this section, the first suggestion for improving the change management process was teacher training and a very high number of participants (86%) deemed it very important while 12% considered it important, making a total of 98%. This suggestion has been reported at the highest level of importance as reflected through the mean score of 1.1, which is not only quite close to the highest level (1) but is the highest in this whole section (see tables 7.17, 7.18 and 7.20 also). For the suggestion to involve teachers in the process of policy planning of the change, 78% gave their response in the very important category and 19% in the important category. Thus 98% rated this either important or very important. The next suggestion related to teacher involvement specifically in designing the curriculum. Overall 97% participants considered involvement of teachers important in designing the curriculum out of which 77% rated it very important. This suggestion has also emerged as a strong recommendation. The next part suggested improvement in working conditions of teachers and responses came in all five categories, but it can be seen as a very strong recommendation with 82% seeing the improvement in working conditions of teachers as very important for improvement and another 14% viewing this factor as important.

The strong recommendations for teacher training, teacher involvement and improvement in their working conditions have been confirmed in the comments section as well. Out of total 15 comments related to teachers, 8 mentioned involvement of teachers in the policy and planning of change specifically in the designing of curriculum:

- ‘Teachers must be involved in policymaking. They must have a role in curriculum designing in the real sense’ (P60).
- so that they could ‘introduce interesting and conceptual topics’ (P52).
- and prepare ‘curriculum according to the mental level of students’ (P109).

One respondent (P60) extended the issue of teacher involvement by arguing that curriculum design should be the purview of teachers and professionals not the pressure groups: ‘No pressure groups of any kind be allowed to interfere in educational institutions’.

There were three comments on teacher training in which the need for subject-based training (P41), training across all disciplines (P50) absence of awareness and training at the introduction of change (P106) were mentioned. Two participants mentioned low payment to teachers (P40) and need to improve the financial and social status of teachers (P60).
In keeping with the results from the previous two phases of this research, teacher training has emerged as a strong recommendation from this phase of the study to improve this change initiative and any similar future endeavour. Another strong recommendation from the previous phases of the study was the involvement of teachers in the process of policy planning of the change and especially in designing the curriculum and this has been indicated also by a significant number of participants in this part of the research as well. Similarly, the suggestion to improve the working conditions of teachers as well has been strongly recommended. In short, the outcomes of the two elements were broadly similar.

7.8.4 Suggestions: related to resources

The suggestions related to the provision of resources for the effective implementation of the change was another major theme in this section of the questionnaire relating to the provision of resources to teachers and the provision of facilities and funds to the institutions to facilitate the implementation of the change effectively. Table 7.20 presents the composition of responses on these issues.

Table 7.20 Suggestions: related to resource

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion for improvement</th>
<th>very important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>not at all important</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provision of required resources for teachers (teaching materials, manuals, guidance notes)</td>
<td>92 (74.2%)</td>
<td>27 (21.8%)</td>
<td>4 (3.2%)</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of funds to the institutions</td>
<td>88 (71%)</td>
<td>32 (25.8%)</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of facilities (AV aids, internet, libraries)</td>
<td>95 (76.6%)</td>
<td>24 (19.4%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>2 (1.6%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the first suggestion about the provision of resources for teachers specifically, teaching materials, manuals and guidance notes, 74% of respondents viewed this provision as ‘a very important’ factor for improvement and 22% considered it ‘important’, thus 96% highlighted the importance of this suggestion. The subsequent suggestion concerning provision of funds to the institutions was validated by 97% of participants out of which 71% deemed it ‘very important’ and 26% viewed it ‘important’. Likewise, for the provision of facilities like AV aids, internet and libraries 96% viewed this provision important, with 77% counting it ‘very important’ and 19% recording it as ‘important’. Mean scores of 1.3 and 1.4 also indicate trend towards strong agreement with these suggestions among the participants.

In the comments as well, seven participants commented on these aspects: change ‘could have been more fruitful, provided better facilities and equipment to the teachers’ (P27) and ‘More facilities must be provided to the institutions and teachers’ (P37). This emphasis of the provision of resources is consonant with the suggestion for the provision of resources for teachers and institutions and 73% of them had difficulty in the implementation of change in their classrooms due to lack of funding. It also links to the fact that the majority of teachers indicated that they were partially satisfied or not satisfied with the facilities and support provided to them in their institutions and a general lack of support. The need to strengthen the support for teachers and institutions has been additionally indicated through the strong recommendations for the provision of resources for teachers and institutions.

7.9 Comments
Most of the comments given by respondents were related to the themes in the earlier sections of the questionnaire, thus these have already been discussed in the relevant part of analysis. Some respondents added a few more issues.

A set of comments related to the syllabus. The questionnaire was not designed to gather respondents’ opinion on general or subject specific contents of the curriculum. As teachers work closely on the content of the curriculum in their subject areas, a number of them (16) made comments on the contents of curriculum in their subject areas. Although these comments did not directly relate to the purpose of the research, these can be linked with the expressed difficulty of the respondents (65% reported it) with the irrelevant topics in the syllabus and can also be linked to the limited involvement of teachers in the planning and
designing the curriculum change. Some of these comments related to making the syllabus more relevant to the assessment needs and balanced for different topics.

One issue raised by three respondents was to make the education system uniform for all institutions ‘there is need of educational reforms in our country especially the uniform education system where poor and rich students should have equal opportunity of getting education’ (P118). This issue of social justice is outside the purview of this research, yet it indicates the aspirations of some teachers for the deliverance by educational reforms for all.

### 7.10 Summary and conclusions

Some common themes and trends within these themes were evident across all the sections of data from this questionnaire. There were six main sections of the questionnaire:

- the teachers’ first reaction to change and then any change and pattern of this change in their attitudes over time,
- the conception of change,
- support to facilitate teachers in the implementation of the change and their level of satisfaction with it,
- problems teachers faced in the implementation process,
- the benefits of the change for students
- suggestions for improvement in the present endeavour or for any future change initiative

Within these sections there have emerged three main themes

- student learning
- teacher involvement and support in the form of training, funding, facilities and teaching resource
- change management process

#### 7.10.1 Student learning

Student learning had been a concerted issue in the earlier phase of this research with teachers and so it was a key theme in this questionnaire. This issue was raised in the sections on the
respondents’ perception of change, problems in the implementation process and benefits of the change for the students. A trend emerged from all the three sections of the questionnaire:

- Respondents perceive this reform good for student learning, a new pedagogic and the effective experience for them and better for their assessment.
- This positive perception of change relates to its advantageous effects on student learning and is continued and validated when the majority of respondents agree to the propositions on beneficial effects of change on different aspects of student learning as conceptual development, thorough study, limiting rote learning and enhanced creative ability.
- Some problems related to student learning have been viewed as being difficult to handle by respondents.

1. They faced difficulty with students’ readiness for change.
2. Even more difficult in their view were the specific issues of student learning including the gaps in the knowledge and competency acquired by students at the junior levels of education and the changed demands in the new system and
3. Weaning students from the old learning approach of rote learning.

In short, it can be concluded that participants have a positive perception of change for its beneficial effects on student learning but the implementation of this new approach to student learning at the classroom level posed challenges to the teachers. At this point, the suggestion from the data is that teachers, as the core implementers of this reform, need support and facilitation to cope with this challenging task.

7.10.2 Teacher involvement and support in the form of training, funding, facilities and teaching resource

The role of teachers in the process of the change is a concerted theme throughout the questionnaire. This theme is built up through sections on the reception and conception of the change by teachers, the support they received in the implementation of the change and the problems they faced due to the lack of required support and their role in the improvement of the process. Some trends are evident:

- The respondents shared a positive first reaction to change and an increased positivity for the reform over time. They maintained this positive stance whenever the impact
of change on student learning was mentioned. They were also positive about the change as an opportunity for their self-development.

- There was a parallel trend of negativity, which was reflected in the parts related to teachers’ involvement in the planning and policymaking and the provision of support for teachers in the implementation process.

1. They found the change abrupt as most of them heard about it at the point of the implementation and they felt that they had not been given time to prepare themselves for the change especially by discussion with colleagues.

2. They were not satisfied with the support provided to them in their institutions and this situation of lacking resource was challenging for them in the course of implementation of the reform. This missing support covered a range of lost opportunities for training, teaching materials and manuals, funding, AV aids, internet and library resources.

- This feeling of dissatisfaction with all sorts of resources and support, and an unease with their non-involvement in the planning and designing the reform became the basis for their suggestions relating to teacher training, teacher participation in policy planning and provision of funds, facilities and teacher resources.

In short, respondents constructed the teachers’ role, particularly as being involved in the planning of the change and the implementation of the reform for which they should be well resourced and supported. They also suggested improvement in their working conditions to bring improvement in the management of the change.

7.10.3 Change management process
The process of change management is the third major theme across the questionnaire. The participants were positive about the need and purpose of the change initiative and viewed it as forward looking and encouraging for the future, but their opinion was divided with a significant number of them perceiving this change as not being suitable for the classroom context and not meeting the requirements of all stakeholders. The responses generally tended to express negativity about the change management process starting with:

1. The perception of change as sudden, not well planned and poorly implemented.
2. They had problems with the level and content of the changed curriculum, which they found above the mental and competency level of the students and they had to cope with this issue when they did not get enough teaching time. These issues can be linked with the lack of teacher participation in the planning process of this reform, which might have caused this dissociation with the ‘on the ground’ realities especially the competency level of students, available teaching time and class size.

3. There is another dimension of these issues, which has been indicated in the abrupt initiation of change and can be the reason for a strong recommendation by participants for the gradual introduction of change from the lower levels of education.

In summary, responses on the issues related to the change management process allude to a process of change management, which is well planned, participatory, resourced and sensitive to on the ground realities in the institutions.

If we take these three dimensions of teachers’ experiences and their views on the educational change process and the role of teachers, we can see the linkages. Teachers need to be ready for the change initiative and be resourced to cope with it. In addition, they need to be generally satisfied with the nature of change planning and implementation processes and also with their job and professional status in relation to their pay, social status and professional status. They are displaying sensitivity and an experienced approach to change seeing this as something to be involved in rather than just being the recipient of. Thus, change should to be seen as a transformation and not just a transmission (McLaughlin, 1987). Figure 7.1 illustrates this conception of the role of teachers in the educational change process.
The perspectives of teachers on the management of educational change and their role in this process of change have added to the depth and scope of the data gathered from the school leaders in the first phase of this research. The overlaps, comparisons, contrasts and gaps are quite evident from the data collected from both groups of the implementers of the reform at the institution level, which can help to get a better understanding of the change management process in the context of Pakistan. These nuances of this research study have been highlighted in the following table, but have been elaborated upon in the following chapter.
Table 7.21 **Issues across three sets of data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Interview (1)</th>
<th>Exploratory phase (2)</th>
<th>Survey (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Conception of change | Positive  
Beneficial for student learning  
Good for upgradation for teachers but rigid for adaptation | Positive  
Needed, suitable, good for student learning, assessment and teaching. | Positive  
same as 2 |
| 2. Disadvantages | For weak students, from rural areas, low socio-economic background and no experience of A/O levels system | not meeting the need of all stakeholders | same as 2 |
| 3. Teachers | Initial confusion but then acceptance  
Increased workload  
Time pressure  
Lack of information  
Lack of guidance  
Skills gap and no teacher participation  
Development opportunity | Positive first reaction  
Became more positive  
--  
Time pressure to prepare and implement  
Lack of information | same as 2  
same as 2  
--  
same as 2 |
| 4. Students | Change is good for student learning, their conceptual analytical development, improved performance  
Differentiated acceptance  
Demanding and challenging due to present ability and training, | Good for learning, creativity, concept learning and thorough study  
Lack of readiness  
Lack of resources and challenges of old learning habits, training | same as 2  
same as 2  
same as 2 |
| 5. Support | Lack of information from central offices |
| 6. Gaps | In curriculum content, term time, assessment, required skills by teachers and students, training of students from junior levels and communication |
| 7. Teaching and assessment | Textbook based examination, old trends in teaching and learning and need for examination reforms |
| 8. Policy and planning | Faulty, abrupt, not coordinated |
| 9. Implementation | Not implemented properly |
| 10. Strategy for implementation | Coordination, limited training, peer support, feedback for teachers and examination focused like more tests for students along with provision of materials, books and motivation enhancement |
| 11. Suggestions | Examination reforms |

| | and level of curriculum Not satisfied with support Training of students from junior level, level of curriculum, time |
| | Improved assessment of students, but need for examination reforms Abrupt, not planned |
| | Not implemented properly Examination focused at institution level Phased approach at personal level with first preparing students for change and then examination practice |
| | Examination reforms Teacher training and participation in the change initiative Improved teacher status Improved facilities and resources Small class size, Gradual change |

These issues have been discussed in detail in the following chapter.
Chapter 8    Conclusions and Recommendations

This research study has been undertaken to explore the views and experiences of school leaders and teachers concerning the management of a large-scale reform programme at the higher secondary level in Pakistan. As evident from the groups involved, this is a study of the perspectives of those who implement educational reform in the institutions and draws a sense of what happens when an externally mandated reform reaches the institutions. Gaining an insight into the views and experience of those in school is critical because schools and classrooms are the places where the policy and reform programme must be translated into practice.

From this exploration of the change process as received, perceived and experienced by those implementing the change initiative, we can map out a potential emergent model of educational change for Pakistan. There is a point of caution that this model represents the views of a limited sample associated with one segment of a diverse education system, working in a particular geographical location of a culturally, socially and economically diverse country and focuses on one reform programme. However, as evident from data, there is a strong theme in the reflections of the participants on the structural issues and these issues are common across the centralised education system of Pakistan. In addition, the reform programme under investigation involved schools across the range of provision in the public sector, which is the major part of the educational provision in the country, and schools across the range of provision in the private sector. Therefore, the consistent focus on structural issues in the management of educational reform aimed at the major segment of the education system suggests that this study has highlighted some core issues not only in the context limited by the parameters of the sample of the study but across the mainstream Pakistani education system. In the tradition of social sciences research, in order to scaffold the claims of the research, the findings of the study can be set against the backdrop of the existing research literature where there are comparable findings as well as to add some new perspectives through well-reasoned and justifiable points of divergence. The concluding part of this chapter will serve this purpose along with highlighting the importance of the contextualization of educational reform as developed throughout this research.

The plan of this chapter is to start with the comparison of data from institution heads and teachers. This comparison of data adds another dimension to the research allowing us to
explore the vital process of taking an externally mandated reform right through to classroom implementation. This comparison will highlight similarities and differences in experiences and opinions and get a comprehensive picture of the perspectives of both significant stakeholders of the reform process. The next part synthesizes the data from those implementing the reform in schools and uses this to generate a potential model of educational change in Pakistan. The subsequent part discusses this model in the context of the wider research literature coming mainly from the English speaking developed world. Through this discussion, the aspects that have emerged from this study of change management can help to point out any distinctive features evident in the context of a developing country. This contextualized perspective on the process of educational change management is important as the attention to the significance of contextual factors is crucial to bring a meaningful change in educational institutions (Herrmann, 2006). Harris (2011, p 160) has counted the simple adoption of successful programmes or strategies of educational reform, subsequently in different contexts, as a major reason for the failure of large-scale educational reforms, arguing that there is ‘a lack of attention to cultural, social, and political differences between different countries [which] has resulted in the abject failure of many well-intentioned, often adequately resourced, but wholly inappropriate borrowed interventions.’

8.1 Comparison of data

This first section of the chapter will present the comparison of data from institution heads and teachers to present similarities and differences. In addition, gaps where an area or issue is only mentioned by one and not the other group with reference to the overarching themes emerged from the data will also be considered. In the subsequent part, any issues, which have been mentioned in the data but are outside the purview of these themes will also be considered. There are a number of issues within these themes, which will be explored in the relevant sections.

These overarching themes are:

- Student learning and assessment
- Issues related to teachers
- The change management process
8.1.1 Student learning and assessment

There is a sense of positive perception of the change initiative regarding its influence on student learning among institution heads and teachers. Both head teachers and teachers recognised the change in the curriculum promoted conceptual and analytical learning as opposed to the former approach of rote learning. This was one of the strong reasons for teachers’ positive reception and early acceptance of the change initiative even when they had many reservations about the planning, initiation, implementation and elements of the content of the change. Their views also converged on the issues related to problems in the implementation particularly related to non-readiness of students, the well-established habit of rote learning and gap between the prerequisite knowledge and skills for the new programme and the areas currently covered in the junior levels of education. Besides these common points, school heads but not teachers mentioned the disadvantage of the reformed system for students with rural and low socio-economic and limited family education background.

The point of disagreement was concerning the assessment system. Teachers were of the view that the change had improved the assessment of the students and their performance in the examination. While school heads believed that examination was still textbook oriented and, due to the lack of training and orientation of paper setters and markers in relation to the new curriculum programme, the basic aim of promoting conceptual and analytical learning could not be translated into relevant assessment. Both leaders and teachers, especially more experienced teachers, recommended more extensive examination reforms. The leaders had the opportunity to elaborate on their recommendation. Here, they suggested a reduced significance for the examination results with regard to the career and institution choices of students and for the accountability of teachers. In addition, views were expressed regarding the need for the training of paper setters and checkers in accordance with the new requirements of the reformed curriculum and assessment system.
There were also proposals to make examinations non-textbook bound and to coordinate examination papers with the aims and objectives of the curriculum as important factors in extensive assessment system reforms. However, a point of difference emerged when principals and teachers shared their strategies to implement the change in the institutions and classrooms respectively. The strategies of heads, which concentrated on students, were mainly examination focused and some on provision of books and motivation enhancement. While teachers took a different approach as evident from the exploratory phase of the research as the majority of them first prepared their students to accept the change and then they concentrated on the preparation for examination. Teachers also affirmed the examination focused strategy at the institution level to implement the change in curriculum and assessment system. This difference might have arisen due to the proximity of teachers and their work with students. The initial non-readiness of students for the acceptance of the change initiative has been reported by both institution heads and teachers. For teachers, it might have been necessary to first prepare the students to accept change and then take the change forward.

8.1.2 Teachers

The issues related to teachers were many and varied covering their perception, conception and acceptance of change, the pros and cons of the new system, the support and resources available to them and their role in their suggested improvements to the reform process. The three issues related to teachers consistently raised by institution heads and validated by teachers were:

1. teacher involvement in planning and policy formulation of the change, specifically the curriculum design
2. teacher training
3. the provision of resource and support for them at the implementation stage

Institution heads elaborated on the issue of exclusion of teachers from planning and designing the curriculum and the implementation strategy of the reform programme, which resulted in multiple problems such as gaps in the mental level of learners and the level of curriculum, time available in a term and coverage of the content of the curriculum and demands of the new curriculum, and ‘on the ground realities’ like class size. Teachers also termed the change
‘abrupt’, especially the less experienced ones, and there is an indication that they were not involved in the process of the reform planning. Both leaders and teachers strongly recommended teacher involvement in the planning and designing any change programme and especially the curriculum.

The second issue, which emerged from the data, was teacher training/development for the change programme. Institution heads reiterated this issue when discussing different dimensions of the reform programme and shared a sense of dissatisfaction with the lack of teacher training in the implementation strategy. They strongly advocated the need and plan of teacher training by those agencies that initiate the change in order to prepare and support teachers for the effective implementation of the reform. Teachers also shared this dissatisfaction with the lack of training provided to them and made a forceful proposal for teacher training as central to ensure improvement in this change initiative and for any similar endeavour in the future.

The third dimension of the teachers’ role, quite concordedly reiterated by both institution heads and teachers, was the issue of support and resources for the teachers to implement the change in their classrooms. Capacity building was the required support for teachers to facilitate them in the implementation process. The institution heads mentioned funding, time, guidance, and information. In addition, flexibility in the reform was needed to allow adaption by teachers according to their situation. The head teachers reported that there was a general lack of all these elements of support and demanded the government and the central offices provide the institutions this needed support, which in turn would involve teachers and assist them in implementing the change initiative. Teachers also validated this general lack of support, the difficulties they faced due to the missing facilities and resources and strongly recommended that these be available for effective implementation of the reform. The elements of support delineated by teachers were more specific to their work such as teaching materials, teacher manuals, AV aids, internet and library resources, guidance notes, funding to provide the required resources and time to prepare themselves and discuss the reform programme among colleagues.
Some other issues, common among institution heads and teachers, highlighted that teachers had positively received the reform programme and the beneficial effect of the reform on the professional and personal development of the teachers. Some school leaders mentioned confusion and apprehension among teachers regarding the change, while still noting their early acceptance of the change. Wider issues including the demand for improvement in pay, social status and working conditions for teachers were also touched upon. There was one dimension of teachers’ work where only the institution heads raised the issue and it was related to the increased workload for teachers in the reformed system.

8.1.3 The change management process

The subject of management of the change process was evident throughout the interviews with the institution heads, it emerged in the exploratory questionnaire and was covered in most of the sections of the structured questionnaire for teachers. Thus across the data, the sense of discontent with the management process of the change programme was repeatedly referred to and elaborated on extensively. There is a positive dimension of this process noted by head teachers and teachers alike that it was a needed intervention and both groups supported its purpose. Teachers described the reform as ‘encouraging’ and ‘forward looking’. However, it was the management of the change process that raised concerns.

In every part of their interviews and in their overall argument the institution heads kept coming back to the issue of the planning of the change, which was neither inclusive especially of teachers and of the institution head nor was it comprehensive. The policy was removed from the ‘on ground realities’ of the system, the institutions, teachers and students. The change management process was not coordinated across different segments of the education system with a role in the implementation such as institutions, examination boards, textbook boards and teacher training institutions. There were gaps in communication, which was not timely as well. The implementation was abrupt, fragmented, seemingly arbitrary and lacked coherence. The implementation strategy was, therefore, poorly planned and communicated and excluded institution heads in planning despite their crucial role in the implementation. The process of management of this reform was detached from the context, was inconsistent and ill monitored. Given these deficits in the management of the change
process, the institution heads suggested an approach which was comprehensive, research-based, inclusive, consistent, incremental and used a stepwise approach. These points allude to the need for a strategic approach to change management to improve this initiative as well as in relation to any educational reform in the future. Teachers also perceived this reform as initiated very rapidly, was ill planned, poorly implemented, and poorly resourced. They recommended the gradual introduction of change from the junior levels of education and an inclusive approach to the process of planning and policymaking. They also recommended better appreciation of ‘on the ground’ realities and better provision of resources to support the change process. Both institution heads and teachers noted the problem with the general understanding of ‘the change’, which might have been the result of the lack of inclusion and information and poor communication. This suggests that those implementing an externally mandated change have created a mental model of change and that this concept of change has become an entity for them, which they refer to as ‘the change’.

In summary, participating institution heads and teachers

- are positive about the need and purpose of the reform
- consider it good for student learning and attainment
- have reservations about the top down approach in change management and poor resourcing

They demand

- well-resourced institutions and teachers
- capacity building for implementers
- their inclusion in the whole process

They suggest

- improved communication and coordination for effective implementation of the reform
- comprehensive, inclusive, consistent and research based approach in the policymaking, planning and implementation strategy of the reform, which needs to be incremental in nature
A systematic, well thought out and well-implemented approach can address all the issues, concerns and demands raised by the participants including student learning, the role of teachers and the change management process. Here we can explore how all these elements of the change management process could come together in a strategic approach, which is long term and incorporates all of these dimensions. Based on this analysis, we can generate a model of the management of change as recommended by the institution heads and teachers of Rawalpindi and Islamabad in Pakistan. This model has the strategic management of change as the core approach integrating interlinked approaches, which are consistent, incremental, inclusive, comprehensive and research based. The aspects of inclusivity, comprehensiveness and a research-based approach can address the issues related to the role of teachers such as their inclusion, training, resourcing and their general satisfaction with regard to the process of change management and the impact of change on student learning. This approach can deal with the issues related to student learning like ensuring relevant reforms related to what they learn, how they learn and how they are assessed, to ensure a curriculum relevant and appropriate for the realities of the students’ situation, the level of their development at different stages of education and their socio-economic background, one that takes account of large class sizes. Thus, this dimension of strategic management should incorporate and build on the issues raised in relation to the role of teachers in the change management process.
Figure 8.1  The potential model of educational change management in Pakistan
8.2 The contextual model of educational change management and the wider research context

This model of educational change management has evolved from the experiences and views of the head teachers and teachers charged with implementing educational reforms in the institutions in Rawalpindi and Islamabad in Pakistan. Although the scale of the investigation was small for generalization in the context of international application or even for the complex and diverse education system in Pakistan, we can set it in the backdrop of the existing research literature to identify some similarities and differences. This exercise will point out where this model fits in with the existing theory and research and what distinct features need to be considered in the management of change in the context of a developing country, especially Pakistan. The following section elaborates on how similarities emerge from the international research literature with reference to the elements of the inclusion of teachers and school leaders, capacity building for effective implementation of change initiatives especially of teachers, an appreciation of local and institutional contexts in the system, institutions and of the involvement of all stakeholders. In addition, the issue of the change process itself was an area with the issue of consistent and systemic approaches in the process of planning and implementation policy of educational reform. The subsequent section brings out the distinctive features of the Pakistani context focused on in this research, which may be comparable with that of other developing countries.

While those implementing the reforms in the institutions were positive about the need for the change and its impact on student learning, this was not sufficient to make the change a success. There are other aspects to be considered:

   Appealing to educators’ sense of moral purpose—their belief that education is about success for all students—is a great potential motivator but not enough by itself. That is why large scale reform must also pay attention to other key aspects of motivation—capacity, resources, peer and leadership support and identity and so on. It is the combination that makes the motivational difference.
   (Levin and Fullan, 2008, p 294)
Therefore, the implementers; both school leaders and teachers, raised other issues related to the teachers’ role and the change management process. They demanded an inclusive approach, where school leaders and teachers are part of planning the reform and the design of the implementation process. Important here is the involvement of teachers at all the different phases of the change management process. Oliver (1996), Hargreaves and Evans (1997), Levin (2010b), Kirk and Macdonald (2001), Busher (2006), Bush (2008), Swanepoel (2008) and Wendell (2009) have all stressed the need for teacher participation in the reform planning and designing process both to create an ownership among the teachers and to support the effective implementation of the reform. WaHo (2010, p 614) is more specific, presenting the case for teacher participation in ‘curriculum and pedagogical decisions allowing individual student needs to be met and promoting continuous improvement in practice’. Further there has to be a sense of purpose for teachers with Waugh and Ketusiri (2009) indicating the need for the positive perception of change by teachers regarding the benefits for themselves and for student learning in order to achieve a positive reception of the change. Hargreaves (2004, p 303) has also highlighted that change must create positive emotions in teachers if it is ‘implemented in a way that is professionally inclusive and supportive and demonstrably beneficial for students’.

The participatory and inclusive approach to large-scale change and improvement in education is therefore as important as ‘top-down, policy-driven approaches to change that cannot, in our view, deliver real and lasting improvement in students’ learning’ (Levin and Fullan, 2008, p 300). Lumby (1998, p 199), however, has warned against the impossibility of creating a universal ownership among the teachers and has suggested a middle way between top down and total consensus calling it an ‘adaptive approach’, which ‘aims for coalition, not consensus, and moves by incremental steps in the general direction required.’ Here also the need of involving teachers to reduce resistance, create ownership and increase readiness for the reform has not been denied. However, Lumby (1998) does highlight the practicalities that need to be considered to make change more effective because as Fullan (1994, p19) also argues change: ‘roams somewhere between over control and chaos’.

The other very significant issue, and related to the issue of inclusion, is the training of those directly involved in implementation, which has been counted as a pivotal factor for effective implementation of the change in the existing models of change. Levin and Fullan, (2008, p 295) term development as ‘the most important single item on our list’ of the elements of a
successful strategy for change, while Harris and Lambert (2003, p 14) count development as ‘an essential part of school improvement’ and Oliver (1996, p 61) also sees it as ‘the primary source of change’. Both these aspects of inclusion and development and training can create a sense of ownership and preparedness among those who have to enact the change. Thus, training can facilitate a level of readiness necessary for acceptance, and the subsequent effective adoption and implementation of change. Training and development can serve several purposes as Heifetz and Linsky (2002) see the support of training as an intervention to reduce the anxiety of change, while Obara and Sloan (2009, p 363) have included resourcing along with training as imperative to reduce conflicts and failure in the implementation. Likewise Noell and Gansle (2009, p 86) have also counted ‘appropriate supports such as training, provision of resources needed to implement the practice’ to ‘reduce barriers for the initiation of the new practice’ as important components of the implementation strategy.

This evidence from the research literature supports a process of educational change which is inclusive throughout its cycle, aims to create a positive reception as well as the necessary capability to implement the change, and which is well resourced. Therefore, this conceptualisation of a change process by the respondents is comprehensive and attention must be paid to resources and inclusion of stakeholders, coordination across different groups, levels and contexts to build an intervention that is accepted and enacted. To this point, the focus of the discussion has been to look at the process of externally mandated change within an institution. However, there is another dimension that has emerged as important, that of external support for changing schools- external support in issues related to gaps in the planning and implementation of the change and lack of coordination across and in different segments of the education system and among the various bodies involved in the implementation of the change initiative in Pakistan. This comprehensive approach shares features of the systemic approach as proposed by Fullan (2009a, p 112) and systematic approach delineated by Hopkins (1994, p 78). Thus, Pakistani educational practitioners have raised the issue of consistency for a sustained improvement, which has been a widely suggested approach in existing literature (Noell and Gansle, 2009; Levin, 2010 a: Levin, 2010 b).

Guhn, (2009, p 343) has presented the Comer perspective on large-scale reform with respect to successful School Development Programme. Thus, in order ‘to support children’s
development, it is crucial to focus on the relationships between the children and the people that interact with them’. This concept of the ‘Comer perspective’ underlines the need for those structures and processes in schools, which develop positive communication and school autonomy, ‘so that teachers and parents would have a chance to participate in the decision making processes of their children’s school’. Joyner (2005) has also elaborated the ‘Comer perspective’ and in these deliberations, many features comparable with the vision of Pakistani educators emerge. These points of convergence with Joyner (2005, p 194-5) are:

- The bottom up along with top down approach in initiating change efforts and the wider involvement in the identification of the issues and challenges for change efforts
- Support of ‘leadership, structure, organization, resources, and policy’ for the change
- Support for pedagogy and development at the institution level
- The strategy for change to be effective, morally defensible and multiple in accordance with the situation

Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) have also outlined the features of a successful reform programme and consider the issues of teaching and learning and capacity building at the level of schools must be accompanied by external support, otherwise the ‘aspirations of reform are unlikely to be realised’ (p 462). These three dimensions of successful reform are at the core of the emergent change model in this research study. These similarities become more clear when Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) further develop the practices of the ‘third age’ of school improvement (p 473-4) which are:

- Focused on improvement in student learning and ‘classroom oriented’
- Enhancing the capability of change agents across the system and ‘externally supported’
- ‘Research based’ for adoption of effective strategies and ‘data driven’
- Sensitive to context
- Capacity building for sustaining improvement
- ‘Implementation oriented’ and
- Systemic

Levin (2007, p 324) has also presented a comparable set of elements of a large-scale reform in Ontario. These are: ‘respectful of professional knowledge and practice’ ‘comprehensive with an emphasis on professional capacity-building, strong leadership, targeted resources, and effective engagement of parents and the broader community’ along with being ‘coherent
and aligned at the provincial, district and school level’. According to him, these elements made this Ontario strategy ‘effective and sustainable’.

8.3 The distinctive features: how the Pakistani context stands apart

There is a general sense that most of the educational reform programmes around the world have failed to achieve their objectives (Harris, 2011) and the leading researchers and theorists in the English-speaking world are now revisiting the field to suggest new ways to bring effective reforms in education. One significant feature of effective educational reform, which has been focused on across the change literature, especially in the more recent discussions, is the sensitivity to the context (Gordon and Patterson, 2008; Hargreaves and Goodson, 2006; Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009; Heckman and Montera, 2009; Harris, 2011). As Harris argues:

Another reason for the repeated failure of large-scale reform is the belief that successful programs or strategies in one country can simply be adapted and adopted in another. A lack of attention to cultural, social, and political differences between different countries has resulted in the abject failure of many well-intentioned, often adequately resourced, but wholly inappropriate borrowed interventions. The key message here is that context matters and that while interventions can be transported, the context in which such interventions work so effectively cannot be so easily replicated (Harris, 2011, p 160).

This adoption process can result in contradictory outcomes as highlighted by Liu and Dunne (2009, p 473) in the case of the Chinese experience when intended outcomes of the educational reforms were resisted by the local context and this created ‘contradictory pressures and an ironic impasse’. This situation can become disastrous if it is exercised at the policy level where policy is taken from the developed to developing world. Moreno (2009, p 246) warns that ‘policy recommendations and guiding principles on school change from the developed world would not just be irrelevant but most likely counterproductive and dangerous in the developing world’ because ‘the volume, size and depth of the problems of education in the developing world’ are quite on another scale. With regards to educational reforms in Mozambique, Guro and Weber (2010, p 246) argue that ‘the implementation process in developing countries takes place in a context of poverty, poor capacity and human resources, and financial constraints’. They have highlighted the contextual issues related to
teacher training, the provision of resources and large class sizes in the developing countries as the main challenges for adopting concepts and approaches developed and used in education systems of rich developed countries. This brings us to the point where we can consider how the context of the model of educational change in Pakistan is distinct from the strategies and model of change proposed in the research literature most of which originates in the perspectives of the developed world.

One ‘inspiring’ and captivating scenario for educational change is ‘the fourth way’ by Hargreaves and Shirley (2009, p 72) which ‘brings about change through democracy and professionalism rather than through bureaucracy and the market’. This scenario invests trust in ‘the expertise of highly trained and actively trusted professionals’. ‘At the same time, it reduces political bureaucracy while energizing public democracy’. The fourth way is built on six pillars of purpose and partnership, three principles of professionalism and four catalysts of coherence, which all converge on three elements of governmental guidance and support, professionalism of educators and public engagement.

Figure 8.2 Hargreaves and Shirley’s (2009) fourth way for educational change
The three elements of the fourth way emanate from strong foundations of professionalism, communal responsibility, engagement and partnerships, leadership and alliances. These elements reflect the current stage of the evolution of the processes of educational change in the developed world. Therefore, this theoretical construction of an effective model for educational reform provides a good backdrop to position the Pakistani context and to situate the emergent model for educational change in Pakistan coming from the data of this research. Drawing from the relevant outcomes of the data in this study, the following discussion presents an analysis of the situation of Pakistani education with the reference to three elements of the fourth way.

The World Bank Development Indicators Report 2008 has ranked Pakistan at 119 out of 127 countries in terms of public expenditure on education as the Economic Survey of Pakistan, (2011) shows 2.1% of GDP spending on education despite an adult literacy rate of 57.4% and further its Gender Parity Index as 0.65 (Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2011). The efforts to improve this bleak situation through any systemic reform are challenged by the staggering size and types of gaps in access and quality that need to be reduced, and the enormous size of the education system. In addition, this is against the backdrop of low socio-economic indicators even when matched against the countries with the lowest socio-economic indicators in the world. There are significant issues about the support and sustaining of any reform. Depending upon the target sector, this reform will have to reach, be implemented and monitored in 157,00 primary schools with 470,00 teachers or/and 70,400 middle, high, and higher secondary schools with 854,900 teachers (Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2011) in four provinces. The situation is more complex because within these four provinces there are substantial challenges relating to diverse cultures and education access, enrolment and completion rates and gender ratios. Michael Barber has summarized this challenge as:

> Across a country as large and diverse as Pakistan – from teeming cities to remote villages, from arid deserts to snow-capped peaks – successful, universal education reform is an immense challenge. It requires sustained political will and courage, a clear narrative of reform, a strategy, and a greatly enhanced capacity to implement reform at scale (Barber, 2010, p 6).
Pakistan as a country is large and diverse but the central government controls education policy, funding and even the content of the curriculum limiting opportunities for local adaptation. Therefore, bureaucratic control is strong and entrenched. This can be linked with the political history of the country where military rule has remained well entrenched in the short history of this country as an independent nation. To gain legitimacy and curb opposition from democratic forces, the regimes have used educational content along with other media to instil a value laden, limited and limiting national view (Khan, 1985, Hoodbhoy and Nayyar, 1985). The structure of the education system has been designed to limit the individuality, creativity, critical enquiry, free thought and free expression among the learners (Nayyar and Salim, 2002).

Another complexity in this situation is the colonial legacy, which has left its mark on the social systems and structures. Education systems in the colonial period served the purposes of the colonial masters to ensure mass population was in the position of compliance and servitude. Pakistan inherited this education system and its structure and processes were then retained and exploited by the rulers coming from both the elite feudal class and military elite, to gain and maintain positions of power and privilege.

The enabling and empowering governmental guidance and support envisioned by Hargreaves and Shirley (2009) may be a possibility for nations with established democratic values, but it is a long way for nations like Pakistan struggling to ensure basic human rights for the poor, marginalised, and deprived majority. The vision of the fourth way necessitates the loosening of governmental control and replacing it with the development of capacity at the government level to be able to steer and to know ‘how and when to let go’ and the capacity of the public to meaningfully engage in the education system and its processes. It means a very new social contract where there is governmental will and the capacity to provide caring guidance and an engaged public able to take a responsible and meaningful role need nurturing with care and caution. The element of public engagement is built on the democratic traditions of wider informed involvement in decision-making and community development. It is further nurtured and strengthened by the role of the government ‘steering from the top and knowing how and when to let go’ (Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009, p 111).

This paradigm requires a new mindset and a new system of operations at the level of the government, schools and communities, which focuses efforts on enabling by empowering
those working within schools to share the responsibility. It is about creating ‘new civic capacity’ with the mass mobilization for significant reforms (Hargreaves and Shirley, 2009, p 59). This approach also needs reorganization of a whole system based on bureaucratic models and technocratic expertise. Even in established democracies, this is challenging (Evans, 2011) and so is extremely challenging for a country like Pakistan, where a low literacy rate of 57% has variations across urban-rural, male-female and provincial divide (going as low as 23.8% for female in rural Baluchistan, Economic Survey of Pakistan, 2011). This reorganization demands wide and inclusive community mobilization with a motivated and equipped public to take the responsibility in initiating, galvanising and sustaining meaningful education reform. This precondition is interlinked with the guidance and support from the government and particularly open and supportive professionals with standing and status in the education system.

Here the third element of the professionalism of educators can facilitate this transition with their role in the creation of the possibilities of public engagement and enhanced student partnership in the change. This professionalism is based, as delineated by Hargreaves and Shirley (2009, p 88) on ‘high quality teachers, positive and powerful professional associations and lively learning communities’. The quality of educational provision is poor in Pakistan (Thomas, 2006; Hoodbhoy, 1998) and one major reason for this is the poor quality of teachers: ‘educational institutions face shortage of qualified and motivated teachers, especially female teachers’ (Education Sector Reforms: Action Plan 2001-02-2005-06, 2004, P 1). This absence of a crucial element of professionalism -the expertise and skills of professionals- is aggravated by some cultural and structural constraints limiting teachers’ capacity to change even their own practices. These constraints have been highlighted by Mohammad (2004) including the limited time for teaching with pressures to teach and revise the textbooks and to prepare students for the examination. Thus, there is security in maintaining the routine practice particularly given that there is no incentive and support for innovation and with a limited knowledge of pedagogy and content on the part of teachers. Therefore, any change in their practice will need to be compatible with ‘the reality of the school context and the provision of support’ (Mohammad, 2004, p 113).

The challenges to bring about improvement have been reflected in the views of institution heads where they reported on the dominance of the examination system and the drive to prepare students for these examinations in each institution and classroom, which impacted on
the implementation of reform in the classroom. Throughout the data and especially in interview data where the participants could frame their responses, reforms in the assessment system were a singular focus and sometimes the curriculum reform was equated with assessment system reform. This response reflects the structural issues, which constrain the focus and effort of the educators in the institutions. The issue of professional status of teachers and institution heads is also evident from the data where they discuss their exclusion from the policy and planning of the reform and their demands for improvement in their salary structures, social status and working conditions. The starting point for educational reform here is fundamentally different from the one available to the professionals in the developed world. In Pakistan, the situation of the profession is one where the profession is struggling to establish its standing and status.

There are structural inequalities of access and quality in the Pakistani public education system, which provides for the educational needs of 70% of the population:

The public school system's deteriorating infrastructure, falling educational standards and distorted educational content impact mostly, if not entirely, on Pakistan's poor, thus widening linguistic, social and economic divisions between the privileged and underprivileged and increasing ethnic and religious alienation. (International Crisis Group, 2004)

These contextual realities have been reflected in the data where issues relating to the context of the school and the circumstances of the students have been discussed. This need to take account of the specific social, cultural and economic context is used to reinforce the argument put forward by school leaders and teachers for an approach in the development of policy and the implementation of the change programme which is long term, consistent and clear in vision, objectives and has clearly delineated implementation strategies. The respondents laid stress on the need for an enhanced capacity building of educators in the institutions especially teachers and their increased engagement in planning the policy and implementation strategy of the reform. Interestingly they did not recommend public engagement or to build the capacity for this engagement.

The focus on the profession, particularly the development and engagement of teachers as well as some of the concerns about the status of the profession highlighted by some school leaders
and teachers, also reflect the structural issues of the education system in Pakistan where there is a centralized ideological stance and the administrative and operational structures for a hierarchical, bureaucratic model. Thus, given this context, the fourth way recommendation of democratization and public engagement did not emerge in the model of educational change management put forward by the participants. The strong recommendation for the engagement of teachers and institution heads in the planning and implementation of reform may seem a preliminary step or built into the system for many researchers, educators and policy makers of the education systems at the higher levels of development. However, in the Pakistani context it is a major leap and a breakthrough for those working in the system at the lowest level of educational development.

### 8.4 Possible areas for future research

As evident from the literature review presented earlier in this thesis, there is a gap in research focusing on education reforms in Pakistani education. Considering the size of the system along with the cultural and regional diversity and differences in the provision, access and quality within the system, the possibilities for research can be numerous. However, in the particular context of this research experience, a few specific areas for further research can be identified.

One possible area of research could be the exploration of the views and opinions of policy makers in the central education offices in Pakistan. In the context of the reform programme focused on in this investigation, officials from the Ministry of Education and The Curriculum Wing can be included in the research. Here an important investigation would be the exploration of the views and experiences of the decision makers in the initiation and policy planning process of the ESR programme. Alternatively, if those who were directly involved are no longer in these roles, it would be useful to explore the planning, policy making and initiation process of any educational reform or curriculum reform at the national level, given that the issue of structures arose consistently in the data in this study. Another possibility can be the presentation of the emergent model of change management for the Pakistani education system from this research to the policy makers to gather their views from a systems level
perspective in relation to the viability of following the model or/and make adjustments in the model.

Another area of interest can be the inclusion of students in the research and an analysis of students’ perspectives on the education reforms in general or ESR in particular. This possibility can extend the scope of the research from the implementation phase of educational reform to the institutionalization phase, where students emerge not as subjects or targets of the reform but as important stakeholders in the process.

Another option for further research is the extension of this investigation to different geographical locations or to a different level in the educational structure (such as secondary or primary level). Due to many specific cultural and religious factors, madrassa education is distinct from the mainstream education in Pakistan; notwithstanding this, the phenomenon of educational reform can be explored in this sector as well, though a theoretical and methodological framework redesign of the study will be required.

8.5 Conclusion

Though a long way from the realization of ‘the fourth way’, the elements of wide participation and capability building among educators at the lowest levels of administrative and decision-making hierarchy in Pakistani education system are very significant in order to establish their agency in challenging the established structures. Even this, however, is delicately balanced and does not seem to always be realisable. This aspiration and demand for the ‘professionalism’ along with ‘professionalization’ (Hargreaves, 2000, p 152) of the profession of educators in schools is an essential element of ‘the fourth way’, which may lead to the development of other crucial elements, but of course in small steps. Hargreaves (2000) has traced the history of teacher professionalism into four phases of pre-professional, autonomous, collegial, and postmodern stages into corresponding pre-1960s, 1960s-70s, 1980s-90s and post 2000 periods respectively. Teacher professionalism in the developed world has evolved and entered the post modernist era after passing through the stages of autonomy and then collegiality (Hargreaves, 2000). The developmental stage of the Pakistani
education system and the situation of the professionals working in it are comparable with the ‘pre-professional stage’, where according to Hargreaves (2000, p 153), ‘teachers struggled alone in their own classrooms to cover content with large groups of often reluctant learners, with few textbooks or resources to help them, and with little reward or recognition’. Therefore, the context of educational reform in Pakistan is set not only on a different geographical, cultural and massive scale, but on a different stage of development and evolution.

The impact of the context is also pronounced in the particular form of strategic management at the centre of the emergent model of change management in this research. The emergent model relates to the strategic management of educational reform at the systems level where teachers and institution heads can join to plan, shape and implement the change. The participants of the research did not refer to professional autonomy or collegiality or public engagement in the process of reform management. They have outlined a contained but realistic role for themselves as participants in the process. The respondents did not construct themselves as the agents of change but instead identify a role for themselves in a rigid, top down hierarchical system. They refer to the system leadership to take the lead and devise a strategically focused vision and implementation policy of the reform and they envision themselves as participants in this process, with the wisdom from the field to make the programme grounded, realistic, relevant, effective and acceptable. They have also emphasised the need of incrementalism and consistency in the reform, which relates to a coherent and gradual reform process that ‘matters, spreads and lasts’ (Hargreaves and Goodson, 2006, p 35) and is not introduced abruptly or rolled back prematurely.

One distinct feature of the Pakistani context is the element of positivity among the teachers and school leaders about need and purpose of the reform programme studied in this investigation. It indicates the level of acceptance and readiness by the implementers for a meaningful reform programme particularly when it is aimed at enhancing student learning. It also substantiates a great potential in the system with the receptivity of implementers to the reform, even when they have not been included in the initiation and designing and planning processes. This is not a resigned apathy to their status as mere implementers, but a sensitive and mature approach with full appreciation of the limitations of the existing structures and the
urgency to improve the learning experience for students. They have demanded a better implementation strategy with an underlying stress on support for their professionalism through their role in the planning and design of the policy and implementation strategy, training, materials as well as issues related to their professional standing such as increased pay and social status.

This is not a revolutionary but an evolutionary approach, which has long-term implications for the development of the education system in Pakistan. This desire and informed maturity to reform the system is a positive sign for the state of education in Pakistan, at least for the segment of the education system included in this research, which can be exploited by the policy and decision makers in the system. This indicates the strength and commitment needed to embark on the long and hard journey of reforming one of the largest, most diverse and under-developed education systems in the world. It is the time to learn from the wisdom from the field, capture the available opportunities and strengths, and look around the globe for other similar systems to augment this learning and to find desirable and feasible aspirations. Sharing the policy and practice for educational reform across different contexts can add to the understanding of the field, but each journey towards improved educational provision has to find its own maps, signposts and equipment located in and suitable for the local terrain.
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Appendices
Appendix 1

Plain Language Statement for Interview with Institution heads

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Project Title: Management of Educational Change in the Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Investigator: Jamila Razzaq
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Dear colleague,

You are being invited to participate in an academic research study through a questionnaire. Before you decide to take part in the study, it will be helpful to know about the purpose of the study. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Also please contact me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The present study aims to explore the management of educational change at the institutional level and see which model of educational change is in practice in Pakistani context. For the data collection institutional heads have been chosen in keeping with their important position in the educational processes in general and in the process of educational change management in particular. The well established institutions affiliated with Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education have been selected for the study. From the views and accounts of the institutional heads, themes for the Pakistani model of educational change management will be developed.

Participation in the study is purely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent any time and to withdraw any comment from the recording. All data collected will be handled with complete confidentiality and any reference to it will be made anonymously. After the completion of the research study the data will be destroyed according to the University of Glasgow ethics protocol.

Any queries relating to this research can be addressed to:

Dr Georgina Wardle
Faculty of Education Ethics Officer

Room 622

St Andrew’s Building

11 Eldon Street

Glasgow, G3 6NH

E mail: g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk

Tel: 0141-330-3426
Appendix 2

Consent Form for Interview with Institution heads

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Title of the Project: Management of Educational Change in the Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Researcher: Jamila Razzaq

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I agree/do not agree (delete as applicable) to the interview being audio taped.

4. I agree/do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_________________________   ________________   _____________
Name of the Participant   Date   Signature

____________________  ______________ ______________ __
Researcher     Date   Signature
Appendix 3

Interview Schedule

**Topic to be discussed:** The management of educational change in the curriculum of English, Urdu and Pakistan Studies at Higher Secondary School Certificate (HSSC) level

**Issues in the topic:**
- Description of the experience of implementing the change
- Description of the problems faced in the process, strategies to solve them and suggestions to resolve the issues
- Description of the strengths experienced in the process of implementation of change and utilisation of these strengths

**Type of questions:** Fill-in factual questions and open ended questions of descriptive and experiential nature

**Fill in questions:**
- For how long have you been working in education?
- For how long have you been in the position of the head of the institution?

**Open-ended questions**
- Can you please tell me about how you went about implementing the curriculum change in the subject areas of English, Urdu and Pakistan studies at HSSC level? (Probes to get a fuller description of the experiences of the interviewees in the process of initiating and implementing the afore mentioned change)
  - What was your starting point?
  - What did you do then?
  - What was your next step?
  - Where have you got to now?
  - What is your next step?
  - What were the main strategies you used to initiate change?
  - What did you do to implement this change?
  - What steps you have taken to make it work?
  - Have there been any problems – what are these?
  - How can these problems be overcome?
  - What do you see you have achieved?
  - What have been the strengths in the strategies you used to bring about change?
  - How can these strengths be built upon?
  - What has been accomplished in terms of establishing this curriculum programme?
  - How has this curriculum change influenced teachers?
  - How has it influenced pupil learning and achievement?

(With the appropriate prompts to clarify questions/responses and probes to ask for elaboration, details, clarification of response and to convey understanding and interest from the interviewer)
Appendix 4

Plain Language Statement for teachers (1)

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Project Title: Management of Educational Change in the Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Investigator: Jamila Razzaq

Ph D student
Department of Educational Studies
Faculty of Education
University of Glasgow
E mail: j.razzaq.1@research.gla.ac.uk
Ph: 00447551426814

Dear colleague,

You are being invited to participate in an academic research study by completing a questionnaire and this will take you about 25-30 minutes. Before you decide to take part in the study, it will be helpful to know about the purpose of the study. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Also please contact me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The present study aims to explore the management of educational change in the curriculum and examination system at HSSC level since 2002 at the institutional level and examine which model of educational change is in practice in the Pakistani context. For the data collection teachers have been chosen in keeping with their important position in the educational processes in general and in the process of educational change implementation in particular. The well-established institutions affiliated with Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education have been selected for the study. Teachers will be surveyed to explore the impact of this change, the response of teachers and the strategies used in schools and classrooms. From the views and accounts of teachers, themes for the Pakistani model of educational change management will be developed to provide a basis for the next stage of research with a larger number of participants.
Participation in the study is purely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent any time. You are requested to seal your filled questionnaire and consent form in the envelope provided in your pack. All data collected will be handled with complete confidentiality and any reference to it will be made anonymously. After the completion of the research study the data will be destroyed according to the University of Glasgow ethics protocol.

Any queries relating to this research can be addressed to:

Dr Georgina Wardle  
Faculty of Education Ethics Officer  
Room 622, St Andrew’s Building  
11 Eldon Street  
Glasgow, G3 6NH  
E mail: g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk  
Tel: 0141-330-3426
Appendix 5
Urdu Translation of Plain Language Statement for teacher 1

جامعہ گاگوک
کلیہ تعلیم
جامعہ گاگوک پیرلی ایئر

سالیس وسماواز

موضوع پڑھائی کا: پاکستان کے بنیادی ادارے پر لحاظ کرنے کے لئے ایک انتظامی و اقتصادی

نام: سلمان رضوان
طالب علم: لیلہ اقبال
جامعہ گاگوک کلیہ تعلیم

j.razzaq.1@research.gla.ac.uk
00447551426814

پروپوزل کارکردگار
میں آپ کا ویک کے تعلق میں شرکت کی لگتی ہوں۔ میں کہ آپ کا پیش نام کا
جوہر نے کہ کہ کہ نااہل ہے۔ میں 25-20 ویں رجب میں پرکھیں۔
ات سے پہلے، کہ آپ اس عمارت میں شرکت نہ کریں- اس عمارت کی خرابیوں تا بیان کا آپ کے لئے لوٹتے کہ آپ کو کسی اور عمارت میں شرکت کی نیاز ہے?

اگر آپ اس عمارت میں شارعہ فیصلہ کریں، فرمیں کہ آپ میرے شرکت کی ضرورت بھی آپ نے راہب کرکے نہیں۔

اس عمارت میں شرکت اور شرکت کے لئے جتنی آپ بھی ہیں،

مندرجہ بالا سطح کا مئائیہ 2002ء سے راہنما کا فیصلہ دو طرف کے نصاب فائرا اور ایم کی

نظام میں میڈیاویو کو متعلق اور اوہ کی تحقیق پر پناہ کا کام اور کافی معلومات کو دکھائی دی جانے کا

کون ساہکار باہی کرتا ہے تا کہ فیصلہ کریں کہ معلومات اور ایم کے سے

کہ واضح بھی نہیں کہ اور اس سے متعلق معلومات کو اور کوئی متعلقہ جمعیت کے

کی فائنا نہیں تا کہ ان کا نقصان کا کہاں ہے اور کس کے

کے چنہ بھی نہیں ہے اور کیا بھی اور کا کہاں ہے اور کس کے

کے چنہ بھی نہیں ہے اور کا کہاں ہے اور کس کے

پو لگ شریف بھی گے۔
اس مذکر ہوئے بین شرکت میں رجحانات جس کے ذرائع میں کسی بھی آپ سے سخت نظر دی جاتی ہے۔ آپ سے انسانیت کا کسی بھی کم ہو سکتا ہے۔ سماجی جوگی ہے۔ اس کے ذریعے برقرار رکھنے میں   سامنا ہوتا ہے اور   رابطہ ہے۔ اس کے ذریعے کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور نسیب میں تعلیم لیں۔ اس کے ذریعے سے رابطہ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ کی جانچ کی جاتی ہے اور   رابطہ кі
Appendix 6

Consent form for teachers (1)

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Consent Form

Title of the Project: Management of Educational Change in the Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Researcher: Jamila Razzaq

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I agree/do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_________________________ ________________ ________ _____________
Name of the Participant   Date   Signature

____________________  ______________ ______________ ______
Researcher     Date   Signature
Appendix 7

Urdu translation of the consent form for teachers (1)

نوانچ کی رضامندی

موضوع پروپیتی: پاکستان سے تعلیمی اداروں میں فنکار تین کی اپنی رہائی کا انتظام اور امر

حلف:

1- ممکن ہے کہ چکر دو ہوگا ہے، یعنی پاکستانی مطالعے کا مکمل کیا جا سکتا ہے اور ہاکی کے

2- ممکن ہے کہ چکر دو ہوگا ہے، یعنی پاکستانی مطالعے کا مکامل کیا جا سکتا ہے اور ہاکی کے

3- ممکن ہے کہ چکر دو ہوگا ہے، یعنی پاکستانی مطالعے کا مکامل کیا جا سکتا ہے اور ہاکی کے

کم مقرر ہے ہاکی کے

معنی تصویر کے واقع واقع

نام شرکت کنندہ

تاریخ

دستخط

کمی شرکت کنندہ

تاریخ

دستخط
Appendix 8

The exploratory questionnaire for teachers

Questionnaire (1) for Teachers

Research Title: Management of Educational Change in Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Your teaching experience: ____________________________

The subject you teach: _____________________________

(This questionnaire is with reference to the change in curriculum and examination system at HSSC (Higher Secondary School Certificate)/Intermediate level since 2002)

13. When did you first hear about this change and what was your first reaction?

14. Did your views alter as the change progressed? In what ways, if any?

15. What steps were taken in your institution to introduce this change in the classrooms?

16. What steps did you take initially to take this change into your classroom?
17. What steps did you take subsequently to take this change further?

18. What kinds of support did you receive from your institution in the process? Do you think this support was enough?

19. Were there any difficulties in adopting this change in your classroom and what was the nature of these?

20. What benefits do you think this change has brought for the students?

21. What are some of the challenges for students in the new system?
22. What can be done now to make this change work in a better way?

23. What do you suggest should be done for the introduction of any change in the institutions in future by the higher authorities?

24. Any other comments relating to this initiative that you would like to add?

Thanks for participation
Appendix 9

Urdu translation of exploratory questionnaire for teachers

سوالنامہ (ی) اساتذہ کے لئے

موضوع ا остаہنی: پاکستان کے مختلف دورناموں میں فہرست کی ایجاد کرنا اور اس کا انتظام

آپ کا پاسا کا نمبر جب?

مخصوص بہو پچاہتہ ہیں?

یہ وہ ااساتذہ کی معاشرت کے لئے ایک اہم اداکارہ ہے کہ وہ اس کے لئے پڑھا ہو؟

1- آپ کا پچاہتہ پاسا کا کب پہلی مرتبہ کیا تھا؟ آپ کا پچاہتہ کب کیا تھا?

2- اس پچاہتہ کا سبب بہت بڑہ ایہی ہے کہ آپ کے اوراق دیکھنے میں کوئی سختی ہیں؟ آپ کا اوراق کب تھے؟

3- آپ نے اس کا اوراق کچھ سالوں سے پڑھا ہوں؟ آپ کا اوراق کس کیے?

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4. ایرانی قبائل کی اسٹریٹ پفاکس کی روم شن سے جنہوں نے کیا آپ سے کیا آمد؟

5. اب فرار آپ نہیں کیا آمد؟

6. انس کی دنیا پر کوئی اپنی تربیت نہیں؟ آپ کے کسی دیکھ بھال کی؟

7. کبھی آپ کہ کیا کہ چھوڑتے ہیں اس سے تیار ہو رہے ہیں؟ اس میں کلیدی عناصر؟ اس میں کلیدی عناصر؟

8. آپ کے زندگی کی بہت جلد چھپنے کے لئے کا کچھ نہیں؟
اس نئے نظام میں پاڑ کے لئے یہ کیا بھی کام بنا ہوا ہے؟

10- پتھر کی صفر تو اس کے لئے یہ کیا کیما کا سبق بی؟

11- آپ کیلے عورت اور ایک کو شغل میں واپس آنے کے لئے کیا کیما کی دیکھی؟

12- کوئی مزید تجویز یا تجویز ایسے ہوتے ہیں جو اس کے لئے مطلوب ہو؟
Appendix 10

Plain Language Statement for teachers (2)

Dear colleague,

You are being invited to participate in an academic research study by completing a questionnaire and this will take you about 25-30 minutes. Before you decide to take part in the study, it will be helpful to know about the purpose of the study. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Also please contact me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

The present study aims to explore the management of educational change in the curriculum and examination system at HSSC level since 2002 at the institutional level and examine which model of educational change in use in the Pakistani context. For the data collection teachers have been chosen because of their important position in the educational processes in general and in the process of educational change implementation in particular. The well-established institutions affiliated with Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education have been selected for the study. Teachers will be surveyed to explore the impact of this change, the response of teachers, the strategies used in schools and classrooms and to gather suggestions for improvement in the process of educational change management. From the views and accounts of teachers, themes for the Pakistani model of educational change management will be developed.
Participation in the study is purely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent any time. You are requested to seal your completed questionnaire and consent form in the envelope provided in your pack. All data collected will be handled with complete confidentiality and any reference to it will be made anonymously. After the completion of the research study, the data will be destroyed according to the University of Glasgow ethics protocol.

Any queries relating to this research can be addressed to:

Dr Georgina Wardle
Faculty of Education Ethics Officer
Room 622, St Andrew’s Building
11 Eldon Street
Glasgow, G3 6NH
E mail: g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk
Tel: 0141-330-3426
Appendix 11

Urdu translation of plain language statement for teachers (2)
مندرجہ ذیل متن کا تاریخ سال 2002ء سے رنگ خاوتی دریچے کے نصاب افرادی اور اداری
ناظمی کی نگاہ تصورات کے اداروں کی سمجھ جا پانے سے تاکید کی ہے کہ جاہدیاں کے
دوستان میں پاکستان کی نفاذ اور انتظامیہ کا باہمی اثر اور ان کی خصوصی کور
سے دیکھنے کا رنگ خاوتی کے افرادی اور اداری کے نصاب میں ان کے خصوصی کور
کے ذریعہ اور اسی اثر کا ہو سکتا ہے۔ ان کے مستند کے اثرات اس کے
شکل اور شکل کے نصاب اور اسے انتظامیہ کا انتظام ہے۔ اس کے
ثری اور اس کے نصاب میں تجربیوں کی نتائج کے مطابق انتظامیہ کے
انتظام اور افرادی اور اداروں کی تنقید کے سفارشات انتظام کے
تعارف اور انتظام کے نصاب میں تجربہ کے
سلامت اور اس کے نصاب میں تجربات کی رونق بھی پاکستان میں مزید نہیں
cیکھے گئے۔
بچوک اس تحقیق میں شرکت کے حسین بھی وجا راشدا رانانے سے ان لمیں وقت کا ایسا نظر نہیں کیا اس سے دو جھڑا بھی رکتی ہیں۔ آپ سے اتفاق کیا کہ اس پر کام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔ وہ دوسرے بھی پا اور دوسرے پر علی آپ کے انتظام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔ اس سے دوسرے سے دوسرے اور دوسرے پر علی آپ کے انتظام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔

بچوک اس تحقیق میں شرکت کے حسین بھی وجا راشدا رانانے سے ان لمیں وقت کا ایسا نظر نہیں کیا اس سے دو جھڑا بھی رکتی ہیں۔ آپ سے اتفاق کیا کہ اس پر کام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔ وہ دوسرے بھی پا اور دوسرے پر علی آپ کے انتظام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔ اس سے دوسرے سے دوسرے اور دوسرے پر علی آپ کے انتظام کے لئے منصوبہ بنا سکتے ہیں۔

دکان جارحہ بازی کے لئے

پرازیار شاہد خان

کمبریئر فیکٹری

agrid 622 جنگل ایڈیشن بلڈنگ

11 ۔ ایجڑن مارشل

G3 6NH

email: g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk

ان کو 3426-330-0141-330-0141
Appendix 12

Consent form for teachers (2)

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Consent Form

Title of the Project: Management of Educational Change in the Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Researcher: Jamila Razzaq

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I agree/do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_________________________ ________________ ________ _____________
Name of the Participant   Date   Signature

____________________  ______________ ______________ ______
Researcher     Date   Signature
Appendix 13

Urdu translation of the consent form for teachers (2)

موضوع پروژہ: پاکستان سے تعلیمی داروسمنی نظام کے لئے میکی اسٹیٹس اور اخلاق

حکم: جیملہ ردا قریشی

1. میں تصدیق کرتا ہوں کہ میں نے مسلم وتنامیدکا مطالعہ کیا ہے اسے آچھا ہوا۔

2. میں کچھ نہیں دیکھا کہ اس پروجکٹ کا فوٹو یا ویڈیو ہے۔

3. میں اسے دیکھنے والوں کو اس پروجکٹ کا فوٹو یا ویڈیو ہے۔

اسم وعمر مذکور کے لئے: میں شرکت کرتا ہوں اور مذکور کے خاتمے کا تخلیق میں بھاپا چاہتا ہوں

بیمار کی ایپلیکیشن کا نام: میری ایپلیکیشن کا نام

شمار کنفرنٹ: ہر 1

تاریخ: 

حکم: 

تاریخ: 

شمار کنفرنٹ: ہر 2

285
Appendix 14

The structured questionnaire for teachers

Research Title: Management of Educational Change in Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Your teaching experience: ________________________

The subject you teach: __________________________

(This questionnaire is with reference to the change in curriculum and examination system at HSSC (Higher Secondary School Certificate)/Intermediate level since 2002. So whenever change is mentioned in the questionnaire, it refers to this particular change)

1. When did you first hear about the change? ________________________

2. Through which source did you receive this information? ________________________

3. What was your first reaction to this change?

   Positive          Negative   mixed      Don’t Know

4. Did your reaction change over time?

   Yes          No

5. If yes which of the following description suits the change in your attitude?

   5.1 Became more positive
   5.2 Became more negative
   5.3 Changed from negative to positive
   5.4 Changed from positive to negative
   5.5 Changed from mixed to positive
   5.6 Changed from mixed to negative
6. Tick the box that shows the degree of your agreement/disagreement with the following statements about the description of this change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>Statement: This change</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Was abrupt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Improved the assessment of students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Provided new pedagogic experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Was well planned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>Is a happy experience for learners</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Is not good for student learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Is an opportunity for self development for teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>Is a much needed intervention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Is not encouraging for the future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>Does not meet the requirements of all stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>Is suitable for on the ground realities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>Was not implemented properly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>Provided time for teachers to discuss change among colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. In the first box, tick if following initial strategies were adopted in your institution and in the second box rate the ticked ones according to the priority given to these steps. (1 for highest priority)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adopted strategy in your institution</th>
<th>Priority rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Awareness raising and orientation of teachers towards change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Awareness raising of students towards change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3 Workshops/courses to prepare teachers for the change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4 Guidance and advice on new teaching materials and methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 Information and preparation for new layout of examination papers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. In the first box, tick if following initial strategies were adopted by you in your classroom and in the second box rate the ticked ones according to the priority given. (1 for highest priority)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy you adopted in class</th>
<th>Priority rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.1 Advice and counseling for students regarding the change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2 Resource acquisition to equip yourself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3 more class tests for examination practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4 making students do more practice for examination</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5 Making students more involved in discussions and preparation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.6 Discussion with colleagues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Overall, how will you describe your satisfaction with the support provided by your institution?

Fully satisfied [ ] partially satisfied [ ] not satisfied [ ]
10. Indicate if the following were provided in your school to take the change forward in your classroom?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.1 Teacher training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.2 Guidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.3 Teacher’s Manuals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.4 Audio visual aids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.5.1 Internet and library resource</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Tick the relevant box to show the degree of difficulty of coping with the following issues concerning the implementation of change in your classrooms.

   (1=very difficult, 2=difficult, 3=moderately difficult, 4=not difficult, 5 not at all difficult)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>Difficulty</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>Time not enough to prepare yourself for the change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>Students not ready to accept the change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>Hard to bridge the gap between the preparation of students from junior levels and the changed requirements in knowledge and competency now</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>Hard to change the students from old practice of learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>The big class size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>The level of curriculum above the mental level of students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>Less time to cover curriculum content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>Lack of teaching materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>Lack of funding to provide the required resource</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.10</td>
<td>Irrelevant topics in the syllabus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>General understanding of change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.12</td>
<td>Conveying this understanding to students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.13</td>
<td>Preparing tests for students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. Tick the relevant box for you to show the degree of your agreement with the following benefits of the change for the students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>The benefit of change for students</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>Has limited the need for rote learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>Has developed the habit of thorough study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>Helps conceptual development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>Improves performance in examination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>Enhances creative ability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Tick the relevant box to indicate the degree of importance of the following suggestions in improving the management of change in the context of this initiative and also for any similar change in future.

(1=very important, 2=important, 3=not very important, 4=not important, 5=not at all important)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>Suggestion for improvement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>Teacher training for the change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>Involvement of teachers in policy planning of change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>Involvement of teachers in designing the curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>More extensive examination reforms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>Provision of required resource for teachers (teaching materials, manuals, guidance notes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>Provision of funds to the institutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>Provision of facilities (AV aids, Internet, libraries)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>Improvement in working conditions of teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>Gradual change from lower levels of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. If you would like to add any comments

Thank you
Appendix 15

Urdu translation of structured questionnaire for teachers

سوالات نمبر 2 برائے اس کاہن

موضوع تحقیق: پاکستانی انسانوں اور انسانوں کے بین تعلقات کی آبادی اور انتظام

آپ کا سلسلہ کا تجربہ?

مستندات نمبر ایک سے سے تعلق نہیں?

یہ ہے، انسانوں کے بین تعلقات کے کچھ دو تجربہ تعلیم و تعلیم انتظام دریافت ہے جس سے 2002 سے۔ اگر کسی ایک تجربے کے ساتھ تعلق نہیں تو؟

1. آپ کا سلسلہ کا تجربہ?

2. مستندات نمبر ایک سے سے تعلق نہیں?

3. آپ کا سلسلہ کا تجربہ?

شٹ، مسلسل، تعلق نہیں، لا ہوا، تعلق میں
کیا وقت کے ساتھ آپ کے رہنے میں تبدیل ہو گی؟

پان کی ماحول میں آنا ہے یا نہ ہے؟ کون سا آہم آپ کے ساتھ ساتھ تبدیل ہو گی؟

متلبانہ رکھیں?

51
52
53
54
55
56
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>شمارہ</th>
<th>عمل</th>
<th>عمليات</th>
<th>عمليات</th>
<th>عمليات</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>اپنا کیسی</td>
<td>اس سے خالی چیپ پٹے کی جاتی ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>اس سے خالی چیپ پٹے کی جاتی ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>نیا قائم کرنا</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>مہموٹی</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>لیٹ پینکی سیالی</td>
<td>طالب کے لئے مشکل ہے</td>
<td>طالب کے لئے مشکل ہے</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>طالب کے لئے مشکل ہے</td>
<td>لئے لئے مشکل ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>اس کی فرمول کو سائیکل کے لئے اپنی کیسی ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>اس کی فرمول کو سائیکل کے لئے اپنی کیسی ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>ملکی ایجاد کے لئے مواد فراہم</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>تیم مخصوص کیا ہے</td>
<td>بوراک ہے کیا ہے</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>بوراک ہے کیا ہے</td>
<td></td>
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<td>بوراک ہے کیا ہے</td>
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293
پہلی نمبر میں یہہ دو جملے میں ذکر نہیں ہوا ہے جو کہ لکھنے میں تنازعات کا ایک تنازعات کا جدول تنازعات کا ایک جدول تنازعات کا ایک

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<td>7.1</td>
<td>اپنی طرف بھی کے باتوں کی اہمیت اور مداخلت کا روشنی</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہے ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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دوسرا نمبر میں یہہ دو جملے میں ذکر نہیں ہوا ہے جو کہ لکھنے میں تنازعات کا ایک تنازعات کا ایک

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<td>اپنی طرف بھی کے باتوں کی اہمیت اور مداخلت کا روشنی</td>
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<td>8.2</td>
<td>اپنی طرف بھی کے باتوں کی اہمیت اور مداخلت کا روشنی</td>
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<td>8.3</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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<td>8.4</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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<td>8.5</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>اس کا کیسی بھی ہونے والی باتوں اور استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات کا استعمالات</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. جوہری طور پر یہ کے ذریعے سے نئے جمجمه کے بعد فراہم کی اسے ہم آہنا آخری طیاروں کے کیے کریں
کل طیاروں
حدی طیاروں
بہت طیاروں

10. واضح نہیں آنے تہیہ بنیکا کہ یہ تمہارے بچے ہیں؟ یہ کے کی کہل تھے مجددیلین

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<td>راتھنی</td>
<td>10.2</td>
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<td>تھرینکی بھیتات</td>
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<tr>
<td>کمی دھرنی آئیت</td>
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<td>اخترین اور ایمہرینی</td>
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<td>شمارہ</td>
<td>مطلب</td>
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<td>Column 2</td>
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<td>---------</td>
</tr>
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1. This is a table.
2. The first row is an example of data.
3. The table contains some descriptive information.
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<td>13.5</td>
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<td>استخدام كامل معملية</td>
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<td>13.7</td>
<td>استكشاف الجملة</td>
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<td>13.8</td>
<td>أسئلة وجواب</td>
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<td>13.9</td>
<td>تقديم مماثل</td>
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</tbody>
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الإجابة: 14