'MAT WEAVING'

Factors Influencing the Implementation of Te Whāriki

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the kinds of professional development delivery appropriate to the early childhood sector in New Zealand. The study centres around 15 educators from kindergarten, childcare, playcentre, and Barnardos family daycare who participated in a professional development programme to assist them to implement the national curriculum document *Te Whāriki: Draft Guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Programmes in Early Childhood Services* (Ministry of Education, 1993). The importance of such a study rests in the need for government funding for professional development to be used to benefit all stakeholders.

Three delivery models using a consultancy approach to professional development were compared in this study. The delivery models were particular to this study and originated from overseas research and a small amount of anecdotal information about past early childhood professional development methodology in New Zealand. The researcher's knowledge of the diverse needs within the early childhood sector also contributed to the development of the delivery models.

The delivery models used for this study were as follows:

1. An in-centre based delivery model consisting of representatives from the same-service-type. Participants were involved in a combination of in-service courses and external support opportunities;

2. An individual based delivery model consisting of representatives from mixed-service-types involving in-service courses only;

3. An individual based delivery model consisting of representatives from mixed-service-types involving participants in a combination of in-service courses and external support opportunities.

The study compares the effectiveness of the three delivery models as revealed through the journal recordings of 15 participants, and interviews involving three journal writers. Delivery models with external support were found to be effective however, the study's findings suggest that participant reflection did not always lead to implementation. A model was therefore developed to demonstrate the change

process for educators as a consequence of professional development. Particular note was taken regarding the influence of two variables (a) participant qualifications, and (b) service-type, on participants' ability to move through the model sequence and to produce outcomes. In addition to these variables, other variables were also found to have a strong influence. These were: (a) service support; (b) prior knowledge of Te Whāriki; (c) existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation; and (d) participant motivation.

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INTRODUCTION

This is an exploratory study to compare three professional development delivery models for assisting early childhood educators to implement the New Zealand early childhood curriculum document entitled *Te Whāriki: Draft Guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Programmes in Early Childhood Services* (Ministry of Education, 1993). Data were collected in 1995 and so the study is based on the draft curriculum document rather than the revised and official version *Te Whāriki. He Whāriki Mātauranga mō ngā Mokopuna o Aotearoa - Early Childhood Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 1996).

The study was carried out due to the researcher being awarded one of the initial contracts let by the Ministry Of Education in the South Taranaki region to assist educators to understand and put Te Whāriki into practice. The Ministry of Education supported research as a component of meeting contractual obligations, and the researcher viewed this context as an opportunity to use this as a topic for her Masters thesis.

Background To Professional Development In New Zealand

Prior to 1989, the provision of professional development could be described as inequitably distributed to early childhood services by the Department of Education (Allan & Critchlow, 1993). The education reforms in 1989 brought about major change and placed early childhood professional development provision in the hands of the newly formed Early Childhood Development Unit [ECDU]. The ECDU was designated as a fully funded, free-standing government body, working principally under contract to the Ministry of Education. Early childhood services without their own advisory personnel were required to use the services of the ECDU (Lange, 1988).

The 1991 budget brought about further change. Professional development was made contestable, and its delivery decentralised in accord with the government of the day's free market philosophy. New contractors [none of whom were guaranteed long term contracts] emerged, promoting differing approaches, delivery models, and content (Meade, 1993a). Allan and Critchlow (1993) in their evaluation of the new

environment, noted that contestability brought considerable disruption to contractors and recipients, and that a settling down period was required. This environment created a difficult climate for the introduction of Te Whāriki.

Te Whāriki

Over the two decades prior to 1991, there had been considerable debate at some levels of the early childhood sector about 'curriculum', and whether the concept would be appropriate for a non-compulsory sector (Carr & May, 1993a). Those advocating a formalised curriculum believed that it was important that the sector be directly responsible for its development (Carr & May, 1993b, 1993c, 1996). Approaching 1991, there was also an increase in interest and funding in curriculum matters by government due to the introduction of a 'seamless education' policy (Ministry of Education, 1994a). This led to an 18 month contract for the development of curriculum guidelines for early childhood education in 1991, between the University of Waikato and the Ministry of Education. The project directors Margaret Carr and Helen May were supported by a development team of academics, parents, and staff from the early childhood sector (Carr & May, 1993a; 1993d). After consultation within the sector, *Te Whāriki: Draft Guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Programmes in Early Childhood Services* (Ministry of Education, 1993), was released.

The concept of 'curriculum' was new to many educators. For that reason, an intensive lobby on the part of the sector was mounted to ensure that the Ministry of Education would financially support the implementation of the early childhood curriculum in the same way as it was doing for school curriculum documents (Carr & May, 1993a). It was announced in the July 1994 government budget that an additional $4.5 million would be allocated specifically for early childhood curriculum implementation over a two year period. Nine contracts were awarded in 1995 to institutions and individuals in various geographical areas to assist educators to learn about and implement Te Whāriki.

Issues Surrounding Professional Development Delivery

Prior to 1990, in-service courses, usually with little overall rationale, had been the most predominant delivery model used for professional development. However

within New Zealand, a study carried out by Ramsay, Hawk, Harold, Marriot, and Poskitt (1993) signalled that changes to professional development delivery were beginning to emerge. Ministry of Education proposal specifications for contracts outlined that successful contractors were required to gain information on effective delivery models and approaches for curriculum implementation to ensure that funding be directed in a cost effective manner (Ministry of Education, 1994b). Be that as it may, there was no accompanying definition provided by the Ministry of Education about what 'implementation' might involve, nor research to guide early childhood professional development delivery models and approaches. A lack of research meant that studies of this kind represented 'new ground'. Overseas and compulsory sector research on professional development delivery was therefore sought to determine what relevance it had for the early childhood sector. One of the difficulties that the early childhood sector faced in relation to Te Whāriki, was how it could best be implemented in the face of sector diversity.

Early Childhood Education Sector Diversity

May (1990) suggests that a diversity of programming styles and structures has resulted because of early childhood sector growth in response to community need. This diversity has made the early childhood education sector unique within the education system. While many see this diversity as a strength (Allan & Critchlow, 1993; Luxton, 1995; Meade & Dalli, 1991; Smith, 1993), problems have also been acknowledged by what Cullen (1996, p.114) describes as a result of the "do-it-yourself" attitude, where community and voluntary groups initiated an early childhood service to meet their needs at a local level.

The issues surrounding sector diversity however are more far reaching than the presentation of particular service-types. Those involved in early childhood education view their roles differently depending on whether they are volunteers or in paid employment. Educators hold a range of qualifications provided by a range of training providers. Nally (1995) highlights a number of problems for professional development particularly in relation to diversity of early childhood sector personnel:

> *[research] does not take into account the provision of professional development in a setting where staff may not have qualifications or early childhood training, where types of training may be diverse, where there may*

> *be considerable turnover of staff or where untrained staff may have been working in the setting for many years.* (p. 211)

One single method of professional development delivery is therefore unlikely to be successful within a sector with little homogeneity and for this reason, using a variety of models seemed a suitable way of conducting the research.

This Study

This study compared the outcomes of two provisions of professional development, an in-centre and an individual provision. The individual provision consisted of two delivery models, involving three delivery models in all. Comparisons were made between each of the three delivery models for their effectiveness in relation to participant reflection frequency, and implementation of Te Whāriki.

The influence of service-type and participant qualifications was apparent as participants attempted to move through a sequence of change beginning at the point of delivery of in-service or external support contact, through to implementation. Other variables were also instrumental in assisting participant progress. These were: (a) service support, (b) prior knowledge of Te Whāriki, (c) existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation, and (e) participant motivation.

Chapter Two
LITERATURE REVIEW

Dean (1991, p. 5) defines professional development [PD] as an activity "that can be applied to the development of individuals or groups if the purpose of the activity is the increase of professionalism." According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (1998), an activity may include personal study, reflection as well as attendance at formal courses. Be that as it may, while there have been a growing number of studies on early childhood PD in New Zealand and in particular, on the implementation of Te Whāriki since 1993, only three reports focussing on professional development delivery within the early childhood sector in New Zealand were found at the onset of this study. A paucity of research therefore meant that this study to some extent represented new ground. Studies of varied depth which feature PD delivery models as a result of the evaluation of Te Whāriki implementation programmes have become available since 1995. These are also acknowledged within this study.

This review of the literature attempts to describe the characteristics of professional development delivery and the delivery models which influence the outcomes gained through professional development, participant reflection and curriculum implementation. As this study is concerned with curriculum implementation, the review focuses firstly on the development of the curriculum document Te Whāriki (1993), and is followed by a sketch of early childhood sector diversity. A range of professional development delivery models, delivery approaches, and the conditions which support professional development effectiveness are then reviewed and discussed in relation to their relevance to the diverse early childhood context. Although the terms professional development, staff development and teacher development are used interchangeably in the literature, this study uses the term 'professional development' or 'PD' [other than within quotations where alternative terms are used].

Early Childhood Curriculum Development In New Zealand

The launch of the *Draft Guidelines for Developmentally Appropriate Programmes in Early Childhood Services* entitled *Te Whāriki,* in October 1993, is well recorded in the literature (Carr & May, 1993d, 1996; Ministry of Education, 1995a). Included in

the literature are commentaries about its framework, theoretical, and bicultural underpinnings (Rivers, 1994; Hamer, 1994). Research shows that Te Whāriki (1993) was believed by the sector to be a positive development as it demonstrated that knowledge was required to work with young children (Carr & May, 1993b; Dalli, 1993a; Haggerty & Hubbard, 1994; Murrow, 1995). Another reason for Te Whāriki's affirmation, was that despite the sector's diversity all service-types felt included and recognised within the document and that their practices were affirmed. Gleeson (1993) quotes Carr stating, "People who thought a curriculum was unnecessary were appeased when they saw a document which described what they already did." Carr and May (1996) describe how the content of the document was addressed so as to not interfere with the diversity of the sector:

> *The title Te Whāriki is a central metaphor. The early childhood curriculum is envisaged as a Whāriki, a mat for all to stand on. The Principles, Aims and Goals defined in the document provide the framework which allows for different programme perspectives to be woven into the fabric of the weaving. There are many possible 'patterns' for this.* (p. 102)

The Education Review Office (1995), provides a more specific explanation of the framework of Te Whāriki:

> *Te Whāriki offers a series of five aims each of which is broken down into more specific goals. Under each of the goals the document identifies a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes children should have the opportunity to develop. Adults in the early childhood services should be able to reflect upon their programme in the light of an agreed set of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are relevant to the particular learning tasks of early childhood.* (p. 9)

Many educators thought the introduction of Te Whāriki (1993) was a potential catalyst for improved quality practices in early childhood services (Rivers, 1994; Gleeson, 1993; May, 1999). At the time of the document's release, the essential issue of 'quality' early childhood programmes was becoming of interest to government and the question of 'quality' was being debated widely within the literature (Duncan, 1993; Farquhar, 1990a, 1990b, 1991; Gardiner, 1991; Meade, 1993b; Mitchell, 1993; Podmore, 1993; Smith, 1993). One view, [that of Dahlberg

and Asen (1994)], is that 'quality' early childhood education is dependent on educator 'reflection'. 'Quality' as proposed by Dahlberg and Asen, is in evidence when educators reflect on (a) their work with children, (b) the development of pedagogical practice, and (c) increased interaction with parents and families.

During the development phase of Te Whāriki, the curriculum writers maintained that any curriculum document which over-simplified the teaching and learning process, such as High Scope, or imposed limits on sector diversity, would be unacceptable to the sector (Carr & May, 1993c; Carr & May, 1996). According to Carr and May (1993a, p. 143), in recognising that many different curriculum models existed, curriculum development in New Zealand involved "accessing current knowledge about child development, about learning, and about education and early childhood practice." Developing national curriculum guidelines also gave the possibility of: (a) dissolving the barriers between theory and practice; (b) accommodating cultural differences with 'developmental appropriateness'; and (c) setting parameters while also encouraging the diversity of programme that is characteristic of early childhood in New Zealand.

In establishing their curriculum model, Carr and May (1993e) investigated four available models: (a) the American 'developmentally appropriate practice' approach of Bredekamp (1987); (b) 'learning areas' as found in the United Kingdom [Rumbold, 1990]; (c) an approach used within Victoria in Australia which reaffirmed developmentally appropriate teaching strategies and appropriate organisation of the learning environment; and (d) a model which focused on 'aims for children'. The fourth model was chosen for New Zealand because of diversity within the sector and to support and address the development of 'the whole child' within a social and cultural context. In addition to the 'whole child' concept, Carr and May report to have combined the elements of theoretical work of Piaget, Erikson, Vygotsky, and Bruner.

Cullen (1996) however identifies critical features limiting implementation success for educators in relation to the model chosen. She believes that substantial learning is required on the part of educators [the vast majority of whom learned to teach under a different paradigm of instruction], if implementation is to be successful. Cullen detects educator confusion in attempting to integrate a Piagetian perspective with a socio-cultural one because of the dominant developmental philosophy underpinning

early childhood programmes in the past. She also signals possible problems for educators attempting to implement a curriculum when many are ill-equipped to understand its theoretical underpinnings.

Further to Cullen's argument, a sound theoretical base from which educators are able to demonstrate reflection patterns as proposed by Dahlberg and Asen (1994) appears essential. Without educators having knowledge of the theoretical perspectives underpinning Te Whāriki, Te Whāriki is unlikely to be a catalyst for improved quality.

Early Childhood Services And Professional Development

The diversity of service-types within the early childhood sector creates different challenges for curriculum implementation not seen within compulsory sectors. Backgrounding the diversity of early childhood contexts clearly illustrates that educators work within a context involving beliefs and systems which influence PD outcomes (Day, 1999; Jorde Bloom, Sheerer, & Britz, 1991). Background sketches of the early childhood service-types involved in this study are therefore included in this review. They seek to contextualise the diversity of the sector for the reader and to provide a description of the preparation required for curriculum implementation. Information about Kōhanga Reo and Pasifika groups has not been included as they are beyond the scope of this research project.

The Playcentre Movement

According to May (1997) playcentre was established to provide social interaction for mothers and children to enable all to learn and work cooperatively. Grey (cited in Minnee & Couch, 1991, p. 333) frames the culture of playcentre as follows, "No one is teacher, all are learners. No one is taught, all are learning. No one knows, all are enquiring. No one is grown, all are growing. No one has curriculum, all are resources."

The focus on adult learning as one of the key objectives of the playcentre movement distinguishes it from other early childhood service-types in this study. Parents train voluntarily on the basis that they find it an empowering process and that they are equals within the playcentre (Densem, 1980; Depree & Easterbrook,

1991; Minnee & Couch, 1991). Training organised through playcentre associations provides little need for parents to look beyond their own service for learning opportunities. "Training is designed in a way that is accessible, cost effective and delivered to allow those training to step on and step off to suit individual needs" (Depree & Easterbrook, 1991, p. 451).

Playcentre is specially designed for parents to take up a leadership role at all levels of the playcentre movement. Minnee and Couch (1991, p. 333) describe emergent leadership within playcentre as "the most important factor for the continued future of the organisation." Confidence in adults to take on leadership roles originates from the fundamental belief that parents are *the* most influential teachers of their own children.

The fact that parents are volunteers responsible for the operation of their own centre is a strength of playcentre. "Parents decide for themselves how their playcentre is to be run, and in this way are responsible for the education of their children" (Depree & Easterbrook, 1991, p. 451). However administering centres and encouraging parents to be involved in ongoing training on a voluntary basis, is difficult. Such pressures have resulted in centre closures and contributed to a decline of the number of families involved in playcentre nationally (Minnee & Couch, 1991; Ministry of Education, 1995b).

The Kindergarten Movement

The kindergarten movement has a century long history. Based on the philosophy of Froebel (Hughes, 1989), it was understood from as early as 1926 that at least two years training was required to teach kindergarten, and that buildings should be purpose built (Meade, 1981). "Until 1947 each association designed and delivered its own training qualification and awarded its own certificate" (Education Review Office, 1997, p. 8). Approaches were made to government around this time to develop a uniform programme, and diplomas were granted by the Kindergarten Union. According to Hughes and Meade, kindergarten teacher training then became the responsibility of Colleges of Education in 1975 as a result of a consistent campaign by lobby groups to government.

It was through the move to pre-service training that kindergarten teachers have developed a link to other education sectors and professional development opportunities. The belief that training prepares teachers well for their chosen 'profession' still exists within kindergartens (Renwick & Boyd, 1995). Kindergarten teachers have access to internal professional support personnel [in most instances 'senior teachers' although their titles differ between regions] who act in an advisory and support capacity to staff and employing associations, and who are "delegated the responsibility for the management of education programmes delivered by kindergartens" (Education Review Office, 1997, p. 20).

The roots laid by Froebel are still evident within kindergarten, for example, the emphasis on environment, free play, stage related equipment, and trained staff (Education Review Office, 1997; Hughes, 1989). Parents are encouraged to participate in the daily programme but curriculum provision is controlled mostly by teachers. As suggested by the Education Review Office, parent input focuses largely on decision making on a voluntary basis through local kindergarten committee work, or management at a regional or national level.

Home-Based Care

Home-based care is one of the fastest growing early childhood services (Ministry of Education, 1995b). It is a relatively new service and much of what exists in New Zealand is administered by the national organisation Barnardo's however other home-based schemes are growing in number (Ministry of Education, 1999a). Smith and Swain (1988) describe the service of home-based care, otherwise referred to as family daycare:

> *Family daycare is a system in which children are cared for in private homes under the general oversight of an organisation such as a social services agency or community group. The caregivers are selected, supervised, paid and supported, and the parents are enrolled, matched with caregivers, charged and supported, by family daycare supervisors or co-ordinators. Family daycare schemes are different from private arrangements made between parents and carers. Trained family daycare co-ordinators have a liaison role between parents and carers and supervise the quality of care provided in carers' homes.* (p. 71)

Some caregivers see the option of home-based care as a temporary occupation which allows them to be at home with their own pre-school children while caring for others while earning money (Everiss, 1998, 2000). While some caregivers view themselves as early childhood professionals, others see their role a being similar to mothering with specialised skills being unnecessary.

Co-ordinators who are responsible for overseeing the work of caregivers are required to hold 100 licensing points. Whilst the caregivers are not required to have an early childhood qualification, the majority of caregivers participate in some form of training (Barnardos, 1994; Everiss, 1998). Everiss' study of chartered home-based caregivers in fact found that only 9% of caregivers had no training and that caregivers held a genuine desire to build on the training they had completed. Everiss claims that although training options have increased for caregivers, caregivers are more likely to participate in training when offered rewards and support. This position is understandable as Smith and Swain (1988, p. 104) point out, "It is no use expecting people to take advantage of training opportunities if they do not feel they are necessary, or if there is no inducement or requirement for training." Everiss (2000, p. 34) in a later account suggests that "calls for increased education and training, which impose a cost on the intending caregiver with no monetary return, are unlikely to have much impact."

Childcare

The childcare alternative is a result of the demand for full day, early childhood care. Cook (1985) suggests that after World War Two, an absence of government support and the demand for childcare exceeding the supply, led to a number of small scale private enterprises with unsupervised and untrained workers in private homes. This situation caused widespread public concern and regulations governing the operation of childcare came into effect in 1960. According to Smith and Swain (1988, p. 67) "The worst legacy of these regulations, however, was their failure to make training for staff a requirement." It was not until childcare moved from under the jurisdiction of 'welfare' to 'education' in 1986 that there was more recognition of 'education' in addition to 'care' as an important factor for the growth and development of young children (Dalli, 1993b; Smith, 1987).

Currently, more children are enrolled in childcare centres than any other service-type providing casual care, sessional care, and/or full time care (Education Review Office, 1996). The Education Review Office categorises childcare centres as generally falling under one of the following three kinds (a) community based, (b) privately owned, or (c) those with a corporate or institution connection. Although there is no umbrella organisation to perform a supervisory role for childcare centres, childcare centres may affiliate to available organisations for support.

Prior to 1988, childcare staff could participate in a one year training course. Educators were able to further their training while working, through the Advanced Studies for Teachers Unit (Smith & Swain, 1988). Since 1988, changes to training have impacted heavily on the childcare service [see the following section on early childhood training within this review]. Many of these changes appear to have undermined the need for children to be educated and cared for by knowledgeable adults. According to Smith and Swain (1988, p. 68), "Childcare will never be a professional service which can be respected by parents and the community until it is wholly run by people trained specifically for working with young children."

The Implications of Sector Diversity

The differing yet strong philosophical bases of each service-type signify potentially varied reactions to the presentation of a curriculum document. Research highlights the need for professional developers to be knowledgable about the context in which PD participants work in order for PD to be effective (Fullan, 1991; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Kilmann, 1984; Stein, Schwan Smith, & Silver, 1999). Three issues arise from the diversity of contexts and impact on the effectiveness of PD. These include (a) the diversity of training levels of educators, (b) the relationship of training to professionalism, and (c) the involvement of volunteers.

Early Childhood Training. Unlike compulsory sectors, the early childhood education training scene is complex and fragmented (Dalli, 1993b). Three-year early childhood teacher training was introduced into Colleges of Education from 1988. This training was intended to integrate the training of childcare and kindergarten into a generic early childhood training course. Groups in favour of this change were certain that the qualification Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education] should be the benchmark qualification and that this qualification would

be portable across early childhood services (Meade & Dalli, 1991). The Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education] was also recommended to be the qualification required for teacher registration (Early Childhood Group, 1994).

A scheme for allocating points was developed as a way of enabling educators already employed in the sector without the three-year diploma, to progress through to a three-year full time course qualification. This scheme began in 1990 (Dalli, 1993b). The assessment of an educator's existing qualifications and the work experience in relation to the diploma, crediting points and issuing equivalence, was the responsibility of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (Early Childhood Group, 1994; Meade & Dalli, 1991; Wells, 1991).

More recently, those wishing to train may select to do their training from a range of training providers. Courses of different levels and time spans are available, however, not all training courses lead to a recognised early childhood qualification (Education Review Office, 1996). Consequently, there are a number of educators who still lack an early childhood theoretical knowledge base as a result of what Cullen (1996, p. 116), describes as "piecemeal or incomplete training." This recent marketisation of training has led to a belief that the standards of early childhood training have possibly been lowered (Early Childhood Group, 1994). It has also been argued that the current system does not guarantee that all who train will learn the core components of the Diploma of Teaching [ECE] viewed by many as the benchmark qualification. The impact of this situation is obvious when needing to implement a curriculum document which assumes a shared knowledge base, and requires educators to reflect in a way which reflects Dahlberg and Asen's (1994) notion of 'quality'.

Professionalism. Embroiled within the training issue is the matter of professionalism. A number of commentators have debated what it is to be a 'professional' in early childhood education (Dalli, 1993a; Glascott, 1994; Katz, 1987; Saracho & Spodek, 1993; Willer & Bredekamp, 1993). Katz (1987) outlines eight criteria to be met before a 'field' may be termed a 'profession'. Three criteria most relevant to this study are (a) specialised knowledge, (b) prolonged training, and (c) standards of practice.

Goddard and Leask (1992) claim that professional skill and judgement can not be sustained on anything but a growing foundation of knowledge. According to Renwick and Boyd (1995), whether educators perceive themselves as professionals is heavily dependent on training. Moreover, researchers (Goddard & Leask, 1992; Powell & Stremmel, 1989) claim that higher levels of training and experience are associated with a more in-depth commitment and involvement in PD. Within the early childhood sector, Smith (1995) found that 27 percent of staff currently working in one area of New Zealand, did not have qualifications. It is fortunate however that Smith was also of the opinion that a lack of educator qualifications may be able to be mitigated through specialist training. Powell and Stremmel report that new or untrained educators have been found to use a number of teaching methods considered questionable and 'unprofessional'. If increased knowledge increases the likelihood of being a professional, then the early childhood sector must be required to strengthen the preparation of its educators and be committed to ongoing PD (Bredekamp & Willer, 1993; Saracho & Spodek, 1993; Smith, 1990).

Volunteers. The background sketches of service-types illustrate the involvement of volunteers within the early childhood sector. Literature suggests that volunteers are frequently in philosophical conflict with the 'professional model' (Brown, 1994; Minnee & Couch, 1991). Unlike school trustees, early childhood volunteers responsible for governance and/or management of a professional association do not receive payment in the way of sitting fees yet are expected to fulfil a professional role in the work they do (Mitchell, 1995). Within playcentre, Densem (1980) refers to whether being a 'professional' or a 'parent' is more important in educating young children. Depree and Easterbrook (1991) claim that the considerable commitment given by parents to keep playcentres in operation means that they qualify as 'professionals'. They also suggest that professionalism emerges from the growth all parents experience during their involvement with playcentre. Most literature however claims that (a) specialised knowledge, (b) standards of practice, and (c) prolonged training as recommended by Katz (1987) are necessary factors in defining a profession. Such differing views therefore raise a number of questions regarding professionalism within the early childhood sector.

Wilson (1984) claims that volunteers have many commitments, often resulting in a high turnover or burnout of members. Minnee and Couch (1991) confirm that this is a common feature of playcentre. Additional commitments of educators also affect

their views and whether or not they can participate in PD (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hawthorne, 1994). Wilson adds that crisis management is common within the volunteer sector because volunteers are better equipped to 'help' people, rather than use delegation strategies. Wilson claims that few volunteers have knowledge about managing organisations and suggests a need for training in management and leadership skills in order to work successfully with paid staff and organisations to function effectively.

A further issue for volunteers is that additional obligations [such as curriculum implementation] may require more energy than is available within the volunteer pool. Fullan (1991) also suggests that depending on the scope of a chosen PD project, consolidation of an innovation such as curriculum implementation, may take up to five years. Participant persistence is therefore essential as effective change takes time (Stoll & Fink, 1996). Acknowledging the momentum required to implement curriculum, volunteers [who are constantly changing] require good support to be able to maintain such a long term, high level commitment to PD.

Early Childhood Professional Development Today

There is an increasing belief that PD is the key to improving education in New Zealand. This has been necessitated by policy changes and curriculum developments since 1989. Educators need new skills to respond to a wide range of demands and to maintain a competitive edge and like all members of professions, they need to be involved in a process of learning and reflection to improve their professional practice (Duff, Brown & Van Scoy, 1995; ERO, 2000). In conjunction with this need, Gould (1998, p. 48) suggests that available research on PD demonstrates "major shifts in the way PD providers think about and approach the development of teachers." Literature certainly suggests that a new paradigm for PD is occurring (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Loucks-Horsley, 1999; Stein et al., 1999). One of the key differences to how PD was delivered in the past that researchers are agreed on is that PD is an intensive and long term endeavour (Fullan, 1991; Goddard & Leask, 1992; Guskey, 1986).

Overseas research related to early childhood PD highlights many of the processes which must be taken into account in the delivery of PD programmes (Jones, 1993; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; NAEYC, 1994). The background information provided in

this review describing the diversity of service-types, illustrates that the early childhood sector is less homogeneous than compulsory sectors. Such divergence may mean that educator change in the early childhood sector is more difficult to achieve unless there is variation and flexibility of PD delivery models.

Central to the debate concerning effective delivery models is the issue of whether PD is an individual process (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1987), or one which needs to be tied to the organisation in which educators work (Day, 1999; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Loucks-Horsley, 1999; Stein et al., 1999; Stewart & Prebble, 1987). Research on collaboration suggests that teachers are fragile when it comes to facing the prospect of change within their isolated schools and classrooms (Day, 1999; Parsons, 1987; Johnston & Johnston, 1998; Stein et al., 1999). Delivery models which promote collegial interaction about professional matters are therefore useful and necessary. Within a diverse education sector such as that of early childhood, delivery models which take the composition of the group into consideration is likely to be of high priority. Gaffney and Smith (1997) for example, found that educators needed a balance of working with colleagues of the same and mixed-service-types to gain professional satisfaction and bring about changes to their practice.

With regard to delivery models, Bell and Gilbert (1994) discuss the inability of in-service alone [as one example], to equip teachers to use the ideas they have gained at the course on their return to the classroom. Frustration is often experienced by educators who, after investing in PD programmes find themselves back in a teaching situation doing as they were before. Many find it difficult to sustain or develop teaching activities in line with new knowledge (Barron & Dunkin, 1995; Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Joyce & Showers, 1980). In-service courses that once transmitted a specific set of ideas, techniques and materials to teachers did little more than encourage tinkering rather than overhauling current practices (Huberman, 1993; Little, 1993). Certainly the research suggests that in-service courses alone are unlikely to effect a change in the beliefs, knowledge, and habits of practice of educators that is required for the implementation of Whāriki.

Researchers claim that PD delivery models need to reflect teaching as a complex and dynamic process and provide opportunities for teachers to practise what has been learned (Day, 1999; Guskey, 1986; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Stein et

al., 1999). Teachers need considerable support to assist them in the change process, to adapt ideas, and to implement the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired in training (Stein et al., 1999; Stoll & Fink, 1996; Weindling, 1989; Wilsey & Killion, 1982). More frequent follow-up work to support educators to implement new strategies, has been found to be effective in implementing behaviour change (Day, 1999; Fullan, 1991).

Delivery models which involve the whole-school with ongoing support have become more common (Ramsay et al., 1993; Renwick & Gray, 1995; Stewart & Prebble, 1993). The efficacy of the equivalent of whole-centre development as a delivery model applied to the early childhood sector has been reinforced by commentators for similar reasons (Abbott-Shim, 1990; Douglas, 1997; Hampton, 2000). Research suggests that delivery on an individual basis to whole centres following a school-based development model is able to recognise and adapt to differing roles, training and experience of individuals (Abbott-Shim 1990; Ramsden, 1995). However, while a flexible delivery model is desirable, not all services in New Zealand are ideally positioned for whole-centre development given the structural limitations that exist within some early childhood services (Nally, 1995a). Furthermore, there is a danger that whole-centre delivery delivered on an individual basis may limit educator opportunities for outside networking and meaningful interaction with others, promoted by researchers as a contributing factor toward educator change (Goddard & Leask, 1992; OECD, 1998; Stoll & Fink, 1996).

Barron and Dunkin (1995) propose in-service as a popular alternative to whole-centre work. Barron and Dunkin also consider the options of combining in-service with in-centre work, where key people or 'curriculum leaders' (Clayden, 1989) are released from their regular educational setting a number of times and are assisted by a facilitator to develop skills, strategies, and knowledge in areas of the identified need. According to Clayden (1989, p. 37) "This person will require interpersonal skills that will assist them in their relationships with their colleagues, and specialist knowledge of their curriculum area." If adopting the curriculum leader approach, lead persons also require a clear brief to guide their involvement (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). Clayden (1989, p. 37) stresses the need for an agreed understanding of: "the role of the curriculum leader; the part to be played by the rest of the staff; the ways in which professional communication will take place; the 'non-contact time' that is available for this work." Should the curriculum leader not be the

most senior person of the organisation, Clayden recommends that the relationship between the curriculum leader and the most senior person must be clearly established.

Professional Development Models

When Te Whāriki (1993) was released, the terms 'national curriculum guidelines' and 'implementation' created some uncertainty as new concepts to the early childhood sector. With respect to implementation, Gleeson (1993) in an article in the New Zealand Herald, quotes Carr encouraging educators to "take whatever threads they need from the document" and create their own curriculum. Other literature however provides more detail on what one can expect from the 'implementation' process through PD (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Fullan, 1991; Goddard & Leask, 1992; Guskey, 1986; Hord et al., 1987; Jorde Bloom, 1986; Stewart & Prebble, 1987).

Fullan (1991) and Guskey (1986) include 'implementation' as a component of a sequence shown in model form representing a process of change. The problem with these models however is that they appear simplistic in their application to the diverse early childhood sector. Models also focus on implementation as a direct application, exclusive of reflection. Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985), on the other hand while acknowledging the place of reflection in relation to learning, neglect to mention whether 'outcomes' correlate with what educators intend to achieve.

Educator Change

Researchers agree that PD is a personal process which affects people differently, and progression through any given sequence is unlikely to occur unless educators make changes themselves (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Day, 1999; Fullan, 1991; Guskey, 1986; Hord et al., 1987; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Stein et al., 1999). Individuals firstly need to work out their own meaning of the change process before they are able to make meaningful changes (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). PD is therefore unlikely to be successful without first addressing the needs of individuals. According to Fullan (1991, p. 38) "Real change [in teachers] involves changes in conceptions and role behaviour which is why it is so difficult to achieve." Stein et al. suggest that PD programmes which encourage teachers to transform practice, reexamine beliefs,

and critically reflect, are therefore more likely to be effective compared to those designed only to add skills to the existing repertoire of teachers.

Management of early childhood services in New Zealand have an obligation under the revised Desirable Objectives and Practices [DOPs] to implement policies which promote PD for both management and staff (Ministry of Education, 1998). Currently however PD is a voluntary activity. Huberman (1985) describes a conflict that some teachers experience in relation to the reasons for engaging in PD. Whilst some teachers "do not seem to know what they want until they see what there is to learn about," (Huberman, 1985, p. 254), Huberman maintains that teachers are constantly scanning for improvements or new methods, rather than wanting to apply the band aid approach. Research (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Loughran, 1999) suggests that teachers engage in PD because they want to teach more effectively, however they wish to avoid their practices from being 'exposed', and need 'safe' conditions in which to participate.

Career and life cycles [often intertwined] can also help explain why teachers participate in PD (Day, 1999; Oja, 1989; Stoll & Fink, 1996). Peterson (1987) describes the process of change for an individual through their involvement in PD as having strong links to their development as an adult. The unique characteristics of the link between adult development and career are important in order to recognise "what stage your 'clients' are at" (Strachan & Robertson, 1992, p. 57), and prepare for the individual. The more complex the individual, the more the learning environment needs to change if growth is to occur at an optimal rate. This is complex given the diversity of backgrounds of individuals in the early childhood sector.

Research suggests that many PD programmes in the past have been unsuccessful because educators' lives have not been considered (Huberman, 1993; Stoll & Fink, 1996). Hawthorne (1994) discusses the need to consider the personal dimensions of educators' lives when planning PD so that educators receive relevant opportunities which match their professional growth. Literature also claims that despite formal training, beliefs from life experiences seem to be of greater significance in shaping educators' attitudes, beliefs, practices and philosophies (Bell, 1991; Day, 1999; Stein et al., 1999). According to Stein et al. (1999, p. 243) teachers use their past experiences to "fill in the gray areas" as well as to interpret

new information. Huberman (1985) also insists that much day to day learning and assistance comes from their own experience and those of their teaching colleagues to help resolve problems or to modify practices, due to a press for immediacy and concreteness in their work. The process of educator change therefore is extremely complex. Consequently, Goodson (1992) suggests that the most valuable entry point of learning is to examine teachers' work in the context of a teacher's life which allows greater control for the teacher.

According to Joyce (1981) however, being involved in PD and trying new alternatives is a risk taking business. When educators explore a new teaching strategy, their performance suffers because they are less comfortable with the new than the old, and they may revert to ways which are comfortable and familiar (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991). When deciding on whether to engage in PD, there is seldom any indication that attempting change is worth the investment. Teachers require an act of faith that investing their energy will be of benefit in the long term, and that the change will be better than the situation that currently exists. Jorde Bloom et al. suggest that teachers are in fact unlikely to adopt change unless current theories are not working. Teachers are also aware that if the implementation of the new approach fails, that they also have to deal with the consequences (Loughran, 1999).

Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) claim that often PD participants require pressure to make changes even when they agree on the direction of change. Stoll and Fink (1996) suggest that in some situations it is not realistic to expect everyone to change. Conflict or disagreement is inevitable in many instances and there are a number of reasons why change is rejected (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). Claxton and Carr (1991) comment that resistance to change can occur because teachers feel they are constantly responding to external pressures. Many teachers see themselves as "coping rather than progressing" (Claxton & Carr, 1991, p. 3). According to Hord et al. (1987) resistance to forthcoming change can be alleviated by allowing individuals to have access to the information so that they are able to understand the implications of change in terms of their practice. This process encourages "ownership of and a sense of belonging to the learning process" resulting in commitment to the project (Wilson, 1987, p. 13). According to Duff et al. (1995) personal responsibility for PD participation is crucial for success.

Conditions Which Support Implementation

Conditions which serve to support implementation are noted by researchers (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Claxton & Carr, 1991; Douglas, 1997; Guskey 1986; Johnston & Johnston, 1998; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Loucks-Horsley, 1999; Renwick & Gray, 1995). Writers suggest a number of essential characteristics in the process of managing change during implementation projects (Jorde Bloom, et al., 1991; Fullan, 1992; Hargreaves, 1997a; Stein et al., 1999; Stewart & Prebble, 1987; Wilson 1987). Some characteristics include: (a) a long-term collaborative endeavour in a particular direction; (b) meaningful involvement for those in the programme, i.e., addressing questions that are compelling for participants, rather than those that are imposed by others; (c) active participation; (d) the development of future leaders and support systems; (e) adequate financial support and release time to be involved in PD; (f) understanding the change process; (g) direct application of what is learned; (h) having time to reflect; and (I) being within a non-threatening atmosphere.

Stewart and Prebble's (1987, 1993) sequence for school development provides a useful framework for managing implementation projects. The four stage sequence involves (a) understanding the organisational culture, (b) collaborative problem solving, (c) structural change, (d) curriculum and programme change. Stewart and Prebble emphasise that changes will be more rewarding for the group and are more likely to 'stick' if decisions are planned for and carried out on the basis of shared understanding.

Given the diversity of the early childhood sector and literature trends, three necessary conditions for successful implementation appear to embrace the above characteristics. These are (a) the employment of adult learning and teaching principles, (b) collaboration, and (c) reflective practice. These necessary conditions are now reviewed.

Adult Learning And Teaching Principles

The implications of adult learning for PD are significant. Two basic methods for learning and teaching are commonly proposed when working with adults. They include (a) didactic teaching, and (b) andragogy. Didactic teaching (Brundage &

MacKeracher, 1980) involves providing concrete examples to concrete problems that are relevant to the learner. Knowles (1984) however discusses a number of assumptions within the andragogical model that should be considered when working with adults (a) the concept of the learner as a self-directing person, (b) the learner's experience, (c) readiness to learn, (d) orientation to learning, and (e) motivation to learn. These methods provide guidelines for developing learning experiences which are appropriate and beneficial when working with adults. According to Smith (1985), once confident, the art of the facilitator is to progressively decrease learners' dependence on didactic methods.

Adult learning principles which researchers suggest include: (a) active participation, where adults are given opportunities to experience learning from real life situations and given opportunities to analyse these; (b) ownership of the project; (c) collaboration and peer support; (d) assisting adults to identify their own needs and starting from where they are at; (e) catering for different learning styles; and (f) open communication (Brookfield, 1986; Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980; Derry, 1989; Johnston & Johnston, 1998; Jones, 1987; Knowles 1984; Peterson, 1987; Rogers, 1979; Smith, 1985; Strachan & Robertson, 1992; Zemke & Zemke, 1981). There is therefore a strong case for delivery models to support such principles of adult learning and teaching. Where PD is facilitated by experienced trainers dealing with issues of teachers' daily lives within an environment where collegiality is the norm, the transfer of new skills is more likely to be achieved for adults (Fordyce, 1999).

PD methodology needs to enable participants to be exposed to the links between theory and practice eliminating the temptation for quick fix strategies which are less effective. Moving participants from a point of technical understanding to that of engaging in wider social issues is imperative. Sustained, coherent, inquiry based programmes, whilst also scaffolding the ongoing development of content are recommended (Stein et al., 1999). Content, according to Hampton (2000), however, must be pitched at a level for participants to enable them to build on their existing knowledge.

Working with adults however can be difficult, as the quality of adult learning is susceptible to interference by a number of external variables [e.g., stress, anxiety, fatigue, changes in physical abilities] which may vary among individuals. Many adults, when faced with new material, also experience acute anxiety and may feel a

sense of disempowerment, particularly if their previous experiences with learning have been unsatisfactory (Jones, 1987; Rogers, 1984). Attending to concerns of adults when they express anxiety with new learning is also seen as a key feature of successful PD (Fullan, 1992; Hord et al., 1987; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991). Katz (1985) suggests that there are educators within the early childhood sector with a low level of academic achievement and a consequent poor self image in relation to learning. Jones maintains therefore that establishing a climate of acceptance and a feeling of personal self worth is a critical factor in gaining their support for new learning.

Collaboration

Gaffney and Smith (1997) claim that management, in their role of ensuring that early childhood services are operating effectively, need to be involved in and supportive of PD. Like people, organisations need time and investment (Day, 1999). Organisations need to capitalise on the stage they are at to be successful with implementation, which ultimately is the responsibility of management. The team management approach uses the unique expertise and resources that each member brings to the team (Margerison & McCann, 1984). Motivation and job satisfaction are enhanced, often resulting in tasks being done well and avoiding 'burnout'. Nine work functions are isolated by Margerison and McCann. Combined, the functions lead to team effectiveness when the skills of group members are utilised fully and when a manager or supervisor links the functions together. A common understanding of what the principles of management are is essential to enable each member to contribute to team problem-solving and planning. The team management approach could therefore be applied to curriculum implementation as management and staff work together in their own areas of expertise to achieve a similar end.

Team spirit is obviously a vital contributor to the success of implementation, particularly as theories about how adults learn through their interactions with others develop (Stein et al., 1999). The manner in which decisions are made and by whom weighs heavily on people's ability to reflect and change (Ramsay et al., 1993). Working collaboratively, according to Parsons (1987), provides both moral and material support for one another, helps to share daily burdens in the workplace and reduce isolation (Johnston & Johnston, 1998). Helping one another to predict any

forthcoming practical difficulties involved with implementing a new procedure prepares educators to be able to encourage one another through any doubts which will inevitably arise (Carr & Claxton, 1991). For this reason working through any proposed change requires time, involves many views, and needs a plan.

Literature also suggests that when people work in groups, their awareness level of the need to make changes rises, as well as providing opportunities for collective support about the changes that individuals are making simultaneously (Johnston & Johnston, 1998; Parsons, 1987). Projects which require teachers to collaborate leads to networking opportunities, feelings of empowerment, increased skills, reflection on practice, the emergence of new leaders, and thoughtful peer critique of the work being done (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Stein et al., 1999). Parsons also suggests that incentives are essential for collaboration on a new innovation.

Walkley (1994) however finds a number of unsettling and noncollaborative scenarios in schools which include: (a) meeting overload; (b) inadequate resources to complete or continue projects; (c) apathy from members who *have* to be there; (d) projects that lack ownership; (e) a lack of frameworks and networks to support change; and (f) imposed changes that are not clearly understood which dominate, and result in a lack of motivation, and participation. Lack of time to collaborate is also commonly reported by teachers: "[teachers] ...find themselves too busy bailing out the water to plug the leak in the boat" (Hargreaves, 1997b, p. 99).

Rodd (1994) also reports that while early childhood people recognise the advantages of collaboration, there are difficulties in practice, despite the time and energy that some individuals may give to a project. Collaboration for example is difficult to achieve if the value of it does not underpin the way a service functions (Hatherley, 1999). Educators also hold different knowledge bases and expectations and often assume that it is the role of the leader to keep the team on track, to make decisions, and to solve problems. This may mean that when a team functions poorly, staff are unlikely to take responsibility. Small educator teams are also unlikely to contain the range of skills that an early childhood service requires in order to function effectively and may therefore have difficulty operating in ways which utilise everyone's skills. Research also suggests that when poor communication exists in early childhood services there is a high degree of job

dissatisfaction among educators, and little likelihood of collaborative progress (Stremmel, Benson, & Powell, 1993). These kinds of issues within a service need to be resolved before PD can really begin (Gaffney & Smith, 1997).

Reflection

Central to implementation is the process of reflection. Reflection is a process which appears to be integral to every aspect of learning. Reflection defined by Bull (1992) "implies a revision or re-crafting of learning experiences by the teacher in the light of a critical analysis of a lesson." Researchers describe reflection as a purposeful activity arising when an individual is in a situation which is driven internally as a result of a personal or professional experience (Bull, 1992; Wildman, Niles, Magliaro, & McLaughlin, 1990). As a skill, reflection is therefore critical to PD and has received considerable attention in the literature, particularly in relation to teaching (Bowman, 1989; Bull, 1992; Coombe & Battersby, 1994; Day, 1999; Goddard & Leask, 1992; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Kemmis, 1985; Lasley, 1992; Pultorak, 1993; Richert, 1990; Schon, 1983, 1987; Stewart & Prebble, 1993). With respect to teaching, Bull (1992, p. 145) believes that increased interest in reflective practice "has been to some degree a response to the process of professionalisation of teaching and the growing societal pressure for accountability."

Schon (1983) believes that reflecting upon our practices and our reflections is imperative for all professionals. Reflection, according to Lasley (1992, p. 24), refers to "the capacity of a teacher to think creatively, imaginatively, and at times, self critically about classroom practice." Lasley claims that providing appropriate reflective experiences at a participant's level of pedagogical functioning will assist teachers to move to a more advanced stage hence enhancing professional growth.

Many researchers point to a correlation between the ability to reflect, and a person's knowledge base (Bull, 1992; Coombe & Battersby, 1994; Lasley, 1992). The ability to think about what one does, how one does it, and why, appears vital to intelligent practice (Day, 1999; Richert, 1990). Coombe and Battersby (1994) state:

> *Critical pedagogy embodied within reflective practice provides early childhood educators with a 'critical filter' through which they can consider the work they do in the contexts of the community they serve, the early*

childhood settings in which they work, the broader society and their own practice. (p. 189)

When teachers stop to think about their work and make sense of it, 'reflection' as a process "influences how one grows as a professional by influencing how successfully one is able to learn from one's experience" (Richert, 1990, p. 525). Consequently "the more clearly teachers perceive their own values and understand the theoretical basis for teaching, the greater will be their likelihood of success in the classroom" (Feeney & Chun, 1985, p. 49). Bowman (1989) states that success in the classroom also leads to improved interactions with others. Educator reflection therefore not only has the capacity to increase one's professional judgement, but it helps to revitalise the culture of the organisation (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991).

Various researchers have discussed 'stages', 'levels' or 'quality' of reflections (Bull, 1992; Coombe & Battersby 1994; Kemmis, 1985; Lasley, 1992; Schon, 1983, 1987; Van Manen, 1977). Reflections at the first level involve an emphasis on technique, while those at the second level explore the basis for current practice. When teachers reflect at the third level they conduct substantial internal and external dialogue about issues that influence their teaching. This enables them to look critically at the ethical basis for what happens in the classroom, and how all children are affected by practice. Schon (1983) popularised further dimensions of 'reflection-in-action' [that which takes place during the action], and 'reflection-on-action [occurring outside of the action, enabling a conscious and systematic evaluation of one's actions]. Criticisms of these dimensions as summarised by Day (1999) surround the fact that reflection-in-action is intuitive in nature and therefore less likely to be examined by teachers, while reflection-on-action has a tendency to be managerially driven and fails to address the emotional and professional dimensions of teaching. Day (1999, p. 218) adds that reflection viewed in terms of stages also fails to "address the emotional intra- and interpersonal and professional dimensions of teaching" which are vital.

Pultorak (1993) however prefers to think of reflection in terms of 'categories' so as not to ignore the importance of a technical aspect to reflection. The three categories of reflection identified by Pultorak are (a) 'technical rationality', (b) 'practical action', and (c) 'critical reflection'. Reflections which involve 'technical rationality' can be summarised as those which are based on applying educational

knowledge in a technical manner. 'Practical action' involves reflections often based on the belief framework of the educator. 'Critical reflection' involves an absence of personal bias, and viewed as "reflection of an event with open-mindedness including moral and or ethical considerations" (Pultorak, 1993, p. 290).

A number of activities to stimulate reflection have been used by researchers to learn more about the reflective process (Clift, Houston, & Pugach, 1990; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Holly, 1987; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Stewart & Prebble, 1993; Richert, 1990; Ross, 1990; Walker, 1985). They include activities such as: (a) reflective writing; (b) supervisory approaches; (c) inquiry approaches, for example action research; and (d) modelling. According to Ross, journal writing is the most common of the writing approaches. Journals assist participants to (a) be involved and organised in their thinking, and (b) develop their beliefs and understandings (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Richert, 1990). Researchers (Holly, 1987; Ross, 1990) tend to agree however that journal writing is effective only if participants are directly taught the techniques that will encourage thoughtful writing, and if they receive meaningful feedback about the content of their entries.

Pultorak (1993) identifies at least two reasons why reflection in teaching is difficult for teachers. The first is that reflection is cognitive in nature and it is difficult to look back and learn from one's experiences within a classroom environment. Other literature suggests that teachers are more likely to reflect when they are sure of their own territory (Bowman, 1989; Bull, 1992; Richert, 1990). Within the early childhood sector, the "issues of untrained staff and the varying levels and types of training indicates that some staff have difficulty articulating what is happening in centres" (Nally, 1995a, p. 212). The second reason why reflection is difficult, is organisational in nature. Researchers (Bull, 1992; Nias, 1987; Richert, 1990; Wildman et al., 1990) have cited that teachers are rarely given help to be reflective, and report teachers' lack of time and structured opportunities to reflect or communicate about their work. Such limited opportunities can lead to a decrease of self esteem, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion (Stremmel et al., 1992). Researchers (Bell, 1991; Day, 1984; Dalli, 1993a; Hatherley, 1999) report that without adequate opportunities or knowledge base, teachers may revert to employing practices which are intuitive and reflect their unconscious beliefs, or, act spontaneously as opposed to being guided by theory or philosophy. Such practices may run counter to children's best interests.

One of the difficulties which the early childhood education sector faces is that a curriculum such as Te Whāriki assumes that educators have the technical, practical action, and critical rationality reflective skills to be able to implement it successfully. As a draft document, Te Whāriki (1993) provided a range of reflective questions which at first glance appear simple. Using Pultorak's (1993) reflection categories as a base, Te Whāriki asked educators to reflect on: (a) the tools and techniques used within the provision of the curriculum; (b) the beliefs educators have about working with others; and (c) the social, political, ethical and moral implications that their actions have on children and families. A reflective question from the aim Belonging, Goal 4, of the draft Te Whāriki document can be used to illustrate this point, "What are the procedures when the parents and adults who work with the child disagree on a child guidance issue?" (Ministry of Education, 1993, p. 72).

At a technical level, the question implies that there are procedures with which adults can work, if disagreements on child guidance issues arise. From a practical action reflection perspective, adults' actions are likely to be based on a belief platform which may conflict with others, or be problematic in some way. In terms of critical reflection, all adults reflect on ways to have the views of all parties met and that the outcome is in the best interests of children. It is unlikely that in such a diverse sector, educators will reflect in a manner which is adequate in all three categories. In addition, if reflection is also seen to be influenced by context (Adler, 1991) as well as individuals' beliefs, backgrounds and motivations (Day, 1999), educators will probably demonstrate a reflective bias based on their philosophy.

Stewart and Prebble (1987) argue that curriculum implementation requires a systematic approach. Early childhood educators [particularly those with less training], will firstly require support to learn about Te Whāriki through using the document, together with the technical skills necessary for implementation. Reflections related to 'technical rationality' (Pultorak, 1993) hold an important position in achieving successful curriculum implementation during this phase. Once educators gain confidence, the aim is for reflection patterns to develop in the form of reflective spirals (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988) and focus on learning and how systems benefit children.

Potential Delivery Approaches

A number of PD delivery 'approaches' [i.e., applied methods] can be used to assist educators to reflect and implement successfully. Delivery approaches have been developed outside the early childhood education context and whilst they do not necessarily take specific account of the diversity of the early childhood sector, there are an increasing number of delivery approaches being adapted to suit.

Action Research

One PD approach to encouraging reflection and educator change is through 'action research'. In education, the action research delivery approach seems to be popular for its usefulness in a variety of PD programmes (Barron & Dunkin, 1995; Day, 1999; Jordan & Collins, 1995; Jordan, 1996, 1999; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Lomax, 1995; Oja & Smulyan, 1989). The origins of this approach are in the work of Lewin (1946) and involves a commitment to improved practice. The agenda is set by the teacher but can also be a collaborative exercise.

As the title implies, the idea underlying the action research approach is that of "conducting research through action" (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, p. 6). A number of variations of action research are discussed in the literature however all emphasise that action research is not a result but a formative process. It is explained by Kemmis and McTaggart as beginning with an initial stage of reflection, deciding on an area for improvement, planning for improvement, then acting and reflecting on the changes and overall understanding of what has been achieved. A spiral pattern indicates that initial ideas shift over time and that recurring reflection leads to modification of plans throughout the process.

As a result of increased understanding, teachers are able to better articulate and justify the reasons underpinning teaching practice (Day, 1999; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Lomax, 1995). According to Lomax (1995, p. 49), "It is not just what one does that is important, but why one does it", which includes interrogating one's own values and examines any discrepancy between values and practice. Teachers recognise the need to be open to changing the way they conceptualise professional issues. Lomax (1995, p. 55) states "Teachers who participate in action

research projects become more flexible in their thinking, more receptive to new ideas, and more able to solve problems as they arise."

Much has been written about the benefits of groups participating collaboratively in action research as it provides teachers with the support to reflect (Strachan & Robertson, 1992). All include empowerment for those involved and ownership of the development (Barron & Dunkin 1995; Jordan & Collins, 1995; Jordan, 1996, 1999; Kemmis, 1985; Lomax, 1995; Stewart & Prebble, 1993).

Tripp (1990) however believes that the process of action research has been de-valued by being used as a label to describe any kind of project where the emphasis is upon an emerging plan of action driven by monitoring and reflection. According to Tripp, teachers need to also engage in critical evaluation of themselves, those whom they work with and for, and the broader cultural, ethical and social implications of their practice and begin to work on those. This requires people to make analyses of the situations in which they work by questioning the constraints of an existing situation and understanding how resistances are rooted in competing sets of practice, perspectives, and values, and working through conflict that may arise as a result (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988).

Group Approaches

A number of hybrid collaborative group situations have arisen as delivery approaches. Two mentioned in the literature are 'quality learning circles' (Foote, Irvine, & Turnbull, 1996; Stewart & Prebble, 1993) and 'learning communities' (Dodd & Rosenbaum, 1986; Stein et al., 1999). Both use small groups of teachers who work together regularly to develop their professional practice in a supportive environment.

According to Stewart and Prebble (1993) a quality learning circle follows a three phase sequence of steps (a) discussion on a selected theme [often influenced by the developmental cycle of the school], (b) observing other members of the group demonstrating their interpretation, and (c) discussion and reflection on what they have seen and discovered in their own as well as their colleagues teaching. Literature on learning communities (Dodd & Rosenbaum, 1986; Stein et al., 1999) highlights participants taking responsibility for planning and directing their own

activities within the group, and reducing teacher isolation. According to Stein et al. it is necessary that PD develop 'communities' as well as 'individuals' as communities encourage participants to become 'experts' in a particular field and are able to talk among themselves as well as professionally network with others and pass on information to others outside of the learning community. Learning communities require a cohesive vision however to continue.

Both delivery approaches emphasise that teachers become more committed to their own PD as a result of the increasing knowledge that they gain, and from energising each other. Teacher anxiety is often reduced within and across schools as the approach is collaborative, and there is frequent and supportive feedback, which increases discussion and observation. The priority is to positively reinforce teachers for what they are doing and to establish a culture which encourages teachers to take risks in altering their techniques towards effectiveness.

Partnership Approaches

A number of delivery approaches are used which involve partnerships. In relation to teacher isolation, researchers (Barnett, 1989; Foote, et al., 1996) discuss 'peer assisted leadership'. Initially devised for school principals by Barnett, this delivery approach allows principals to select a partner [colleague] and be observed, or 'shadowed', as they perform daily activities. During shadowing, observers write a behavioural account of the events, activities, and actions that happen. After shadowing, notes form the basis of questions to be asked of principals in a reflective interview which provides the observer with a better understanding of the behaviour of the principal and to understand their leadership roles more closely. Feedback from this approach is said to contribute to a lessening of both physical and psychological isolation and assist principals to be able to articulate the reasons for their actions. Participants are supported, and gain new ideas from what is observed in their colleague's service. Barnett (1989, p. 50) reports that participants comment on an "increased collegial system among peers, increased objectivity while shadowing, and developing procedures for collecting information, may result from the process."

Other partnership approaches found within the literature include (a) 'partnership supervision' (Rudduck, 1991), (b) 'counselling' (Handal & Lauvas, 1987), (c) 'in-class

supervision' (Stewart & Prebble, 1993), (d) 'coaching' (Dean, 1991; Fullan, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Loucks-Horsley, 1999; Showers et al., 1987; Stoll & Fink, 1996), and (e) 'mentoring' (Poelle, 1993: Stoll & Fink, 1996). All involve an individual and partner working together to analyse and learn from the evidence of the classroom. These delivery approaches are intended to be nurturing and involve a more skilled or more experienced person serving as a role model, observing, teaching, and encouraging a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development with a deliberate focus on a narrow range of classroom behaviours (Stewart & Prebble, 1993). Partnerships are carefully matched and a platform established from which ongoing observations and constant feedback can be carried out.

The less skilled or experienced partner carries out the activity without the more skilled or experienced partner taking over. Dialogue from ongoing observations that are carried out create opportunities for discussion on current issues and further networking. Like other delivery approaches, individuals are encouraged to realise the knowledge and values which underlie practice, and enrich their reflections by clarifying and confronting knowledge and values with alternatives. Occasionally as in the coaching approach (Joyce & Showers, 1984), the more skilled or experienced partner may demonstrate skills accompanied by an explanation, while the less skilled or experienced partner observes and asks questions.

With respect to 'coaching', Dean (1991), believes that more investigation is required to determine how coaching might best be applied in PD programmes because of its relative merits in relation to the adult learning process. Coaching is based on the belief that teachers need certain conditions to allow them to transfer their learning to new settings (Showers et al., 1987). According to Joyce and Showers (1980) coaching is based on teaching being cognitive in nature, and that sustained practice is necessary until a transfer of knowledge is achieved. If the opportunities for practice are unavailable, there will be an erosion of the cognitive and interaction skills necessary to implement the practice.

Five components of coaching in the studies on coaching are widely agreed (Fullan, 1991; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Loucks-Horsley, 1999). Each of these components occur in succession and contribute to the impact of the training sequence. The components are (a) presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy, (b)

modelling or demonstration of skills, (c) practice in simulated settings, (d) structured and open-ended feedback about performance, and (e) coaching for application within the teaching setting.

Coaching involves a collegial approach where the individual and coach examine appropriate places in the curriculum for the use of specific strategies, evaluate the effectiveness of these and plan for future trials. It is a continuing problem-solving endeavour between the individual and coach, where the transfer of a teaching skill involves when and how to apply the new skills. Research consistently shows however that coaching relationships among teachers tend to be more effective where giving and receiving help are already accepted and valued practices within the work environment (Little, 1990).

For teachers who are professionally isolated, partnerships can, reputedly, restore the learner's confidence by helping to clarify the issues of practice. Stewart and Prebble (1993) advocate a partnership approach because teachers rarely get an opportunity to gain an objective view of their performance by being confronted with data about what is really going on in the classroom. Furthermore, partnerships can create leverage to encourage one who has lost the energy to change (Rudduck, 1991).

Pitfalls to various partnership approaches are also found within the literature. Stewart and Prebble (1993) have found for example that many teachers find such approaches threatening. The problem-centred nature of partnership approaches is a difficulty in this respect and receiving help may be seen as a sign of weakness. Partnership approaches also place great demands on the more experienced or skilled partner to remain objective and non-obtrusive. She or he is also obliged to accept the problem areas identified by the individual, even when there are more obvious concerns. Fullan (1992) also suggests that many partnership approaches are unlikely to be effective unless they include mechanisms for change management. Support of other colleagues is essential for the transfer of new skills and considerable time commitment is also necessary (ERO, 2000). Participants need time away for learning how to be a partner, build trust levels, and to process their experiences. The 'closeness' of the work environment also requires considerable commitment (Barnett, 1989).

Consultants

The terms 'consultant', 'co-ordinator', 'programme advisor', 'change agent', are virtually used interchangeably in the literature. According to Miles, Saxl, and Lieberman (1988, p. 158) consultants are people with a "license to help." Strachan and Robertson (1992) claim that consultants are now being used more frequently to provide a PD service. Literature suggests that this is because the changes introduced to schools have increased and the skills required of schools to implement these changes have also become more complex (Fullan, 1991; Stewart & Prebble, 1987). Any changes to school programmes require time and care to institute, and are usually in competition with the ordinary demands of keeping the school running (Beck & Kelly, 1989).

When beginning consultancy work, it is important to establish the level of commitment for the activity (Kilmann, 1984). Contracts can be viewed as a starting point to clarify (a) the consultant's role, (b) the time-frame, (c) the aims and the nature of the tasks to be undertaken, (d) who has overall responsibility, and (e) the time commitment expected of each participant (Prebble & Stewart, 1981; Stewart & Prebble, 1987; Webb, 1989).

Once the commitment of the group is known, the consultant interviews participants, or a representative sample, throughout the hierarchy of the organisation, to establish how the organisation functions. This is essential to enable the PD work to be supported by the values of the organisation and the procedures it uses (Kilmann, 1984; Stein et al., 1999). The consultant, with the aid of the management team or school, then develop a plan for action. The implementation stage is complete when both parties believe the organisation can manage without assistance from the consultant.

A large repertoire of skills of successful consultants have been isolated by researchers (Fullan, 1991; Miles et al., 1988; Webb, 1989). One of the most necessary is for consultants to be able to facilitate the change process as they interact with educators (Fullan, 1991; Guskey, 1986).

Overall benefits of the consultancy delivery approach are that particular needs are assessed and personal relationships are developed (Jones, 1993). Dealing with

immediate situations ensures that the activity is meaningful (Abbott-Shim, 1990; Pofahl & Potaracke, 1983). There is also the opportunity for immediate feedback between the organisation and the consultant, that helps to put new ideas immediately into practice.

Two perspectives are possible for the use of consultants within educational organisations. One is of the insider [internal consultant], who has the intimate knowledge of the setting but who comes from within the organisation and whose responses may be influenced by habit or loyalty. The second is the outsider [external consultant], whose differing experiences of teaching situations is able to analyse what goes on in classrooms (Fullan, 1991; Jones, 1993). Each approach can bring insights into problematic teaching situations that might otherwise have been unavailable (Rudduck, 1991).

The literature is divided on whether external or internal status is most advantageous in terms of PD. Collaboration with sources outside a teacher's immediate circle however, is crucial. Beck and Kelly (1989) propose a number of positive attributes of external consultants. The external consultant approach ensures that the situation of each setting is taken into account using a 'one on many' approach and is therefore economical. Teachers can not be expected to be knowledgeable about all aspects of policy changes, research, subject matter, and professional practice. The role of the external consultant therefore is to keep abreast of such issues and convey necessary information to others.

External consultants are often thought to be more objective in their approach because of their separate employment relationship (Jones, 1993; Kilmann, 1984; Strachan & Robertson, 1992). External consultants are in a stronger position to initiate change because of their independent position (Webb, 1989). Literature suggests that external consultants are more power-coercive, able to ask more of staff and therefore bring about faster change than someone from within an organisation (Fullan, 1991; Ramsay et al., 1993; Strachan & Robertson, 1992). Ramsay et al. also report the effectiveness of consultants as a result of challenging teachers on their entrenched modes of operating and how these modes reinforce the school's operations. Ramsay et al. (1993, p. 224) report, " it was only when the 'outsiders', the developers came in and facilitated fresh interpretations of these practices that teachers realised their taken for granted procedures might not be

entirely appropriate." Kilmann adds that external consultants bring hidden cultures to the surface and encourage communication between people. They are also more likely to use and share resources from outside sources.

Fullan (1991) also describes the situation for internal consultants as knowing each setting, and being familiar with the needs of others. Internal consultants are known to be supported in what they are trying to achieve if they earn credibility in assisting teachers to problem-solve classroom difficulties. Due to the fact they are peers they are often considered as less threatening (Webb, 1989). Jones (1993) argues that internal consultants can be successful because they are often in a situation of constructing similar knowledge in their own setting. This recognition builds on the collegial relationships that already exist. Fullan reports however that problems arise if internal consultants experience role conflict.

Research concerning consultants highlights a number of difficulties although there are few where the service from consultants is of a credible nature. Acceptance and impact of the consultant's work is heavily dependent on existing conditions within an environment. Consultants are also regularly limited to short term contracts. Furthermore, their work is often time consuming and consequently limited to a small number of schools (Webb, 1989; Weindling, 1989).

The Relevance Of Delivery Approaches To The Early Childhood Education Sector

Current theories on (a) adult learning, (b) school improvement, (c) change management, and (d) PD models, indicate a number of hallmarks in designing successful PD. Blending the characteristics of current theories and arranging them to meet the varied needs of the sector represents a considerable challenge. There are a number of positive elements to be found within each of the approaches reviewed, which could be successfully applied to early childhood sector PD.

The early childhood sector is increasingly requiring parents to be involved in the curriculum implementation process. Action research could mesh well as a delivery approach providing the opportunity for quality consultation between staff, management and parents. However for the action research process to function effectively, effective problem-solving and communication skills must exist, or be developed within the group (Jordan, 1996; Nally, 1995). Furthermore, the

environment must also have room for experimentation and change (Oja & Smulyan, 1989) and for those involved to be able to identify patterns and themes and link theory to practice. Nally (1995, p. 210) suggests however that "in a sector that has significant turnover in its educators, a wide variety of training bases, a proportion of staff without early childhood education training and often very little time to discuss professional matters", action research may initially demand too much of early childhood educators. While facilitators working within the action research paradigm may vary their approach to working with participants of varied qualifications and reflective abilities, Jordan (1996) also claims that the influence of the facilitator on the direction of the PD process may be a matter of concern.

Partnership delivery approaches afford little coverage within the early childhood sector. Fullan (1992) suggests that costs are higher as 'pairs' rarely represent good coverage of school staff numbers and only reflect a small part of the school culture. Fullan adds that such delivery approaches are costly, and time consuming. Partnership approaches however might be successful where an experienced and skilled educator is confident to work with another within an environment of collegiality, particularly within services consisting of small numbers.

The characteristics of the consultant however might match what is required in the early childhood sector. In using such a flexible delivery approach, the diverse needs of services can be met without compromising the depth of PD required to be delivered for this approach to be worthwhile.

Justification For The Study

The literature reviewed to ascertain how PD might best be delivered in the early childhood sector in New Zealand covers a wide range of fields of inquiry leading to a number of questions which provide direction to this study.

One of the main concerns for the effectiveness of PD delivery is the distinct lack of research with particular relation to the early childhood sector. Overseas research on PD delivery reflects the specifics of education structure, legislation, and policy of the country of origin. Moreover, it is deeply embedded in a context of career structure, and assumptions about training, professionalism, and PD. New Zealand research concerning the compulsory sectors assumes that those engaged in PD

hold a common pre-service qualification and that those participating in PD have the knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to implement curriculum. Such consistency is not found in the early childhood sector.

In addition to the diversity which exists in the early childhood sector, many keys to effective change in early childhood services are controlled by volunteers. In comparison with compulsory sectors, where teachers are paid for their work, the impact of volunteers can not be ignored in the investigation of effective PD delivery models for early childhood. It is therefore conceivable that much of the research that exists for other sectors may not be relevant, let alone effective, for the early childhood sector. The type of methodology chosen for PD delivery models will depend on the training, ability, life experience, motivation levels, and unique adult learning needs of PD participants.

When structuring provisions for PD delivery, existing research assumes harmonious relationships within homogeneous groups of similar need. Because of the lack of homogeneity among early childhood service-types, participants need to feel comfortable, yet challenged among others, and be provided with collaborative opportunities. The question which arises as to whether 'comfort' is related to homogeneity. Delivery models which allow participants to participate in PD under conditions which best suit their needs also seems desirable.

Whilst one-off in-service has been found to be ineffective in compulsory sectors, there is little likelihood that this study would entertain such a delivery model. Variations on the theme however are possible along with those which offer ongoing support on a site by site basis. The delivery approach needs to be economical and ensure coverage, alleviate additional pressure on services, be consistent with individual contexts, and motivate change in participants.

Models in the literature which describe the process of educator change whilst engaged in PD for other sectors appear simplistic for the diverse early childhood sector. They also ignore reflection at each stage of the sequence. With the use of appropriate research instruments, this process might be explained further for early childhood educators. It seems imperative that if early childhood PD is to progress, an investigation into the conditions which actually bring participants to the point of reflection and implementation is required. The question which presents itself is

whether effectiveness arises from individual participant characteristics or the delivery model in which they participate.

The delivery models used in this study therefore have been informed by the literature on (a) compulsory sector PD, (b) overseas PD, (c) adult learning, (d) early childhood sector diversity, (e) reflection, (f) educator change, and (g) training in the early childhood sector. Specifically, these issues in relation to delivery models have been outlined on pages 15 to 18 of this chapter. Delivery model one emphasises (a) adults being able to learn and discuss issues at their own pace with others of similar backgrounds, (b) collegial support, (c) service specific guidance, (d) opportunities for converting reflection into action, and (e) change management strategies. Delivery model two emphasises individuals being able to learn and discuss issues at their own pace with others of different backgrounds with some collegial support. Delivery model three focuses on similar adult learning characteristics to delivery model two, but with the added components of (a) service specific guidance, (b) opportunities for converting reflection into action, and (c) change management strategies as emphasised in delivery model one. These represent the main findings in the currently available research.

The choice of delivery approach [as outlined on pages 29 to 37], has arisen not only from the literature but also as a result of discussions with the community in which the research took place. This delivery approach ensures that service specific needs are addressed, provides good coverage of personnel within an early childhood service, and is based on sound adult learning principles.

Chapter Three
METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study was to compare the effectiveness of three PD delivery models constructed for early childhood educators through the use of a consultancy approach. It was intended that participants benefit professionally from their involvement in the research which in turn would benefit their early childhood services. The study was carried out in South Taranaki, a rural region comprising of small towns and rural communities that has few opportunities available for external professional development assistance, and often described by those living in the area in terms of professional development as 'isolated'.

The researcher maintained that a qualitative study would be the most effective means of answering the research questions. A qualitative study provided participants with the opportunity to identify the strengths of the delivery models that they were involved in and for the researcher to capture data which demonstrated participant perception "from the inside" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 6). As the professional development programme was to be sustained over the period of a year, the researcher was able to observe participant progress chronologically using qualitative methods. Finally, a qualitative study was considered suitable by the researcher for exploring a new area of enquiry.

The Research Questions

Two research questions, each with a subsidiary question, were investigated:

1. Which professional development delivery model is most effective in enabling curriculum implementation and reflection on the part of participants?
    1.1. How do variables such as qualifications and service-type affect the effectiveness of curriculum implementation and reflection?

2. What are the qualitative differences between the outcomes of in-centre based professional development as opposed to individual provision?
    2.1. How do variables such as qualifications and service-type impact on participant outcomes?

With reference to question two, the parameters of the definition of an 'outcome' are wide reaching. 'Outcomes' are best described by Boud et al. (1985, p. 36) as "new perspectives on experience, changes in behaviour, readiness for application, and commitment to action." An outcome therefore might be both cognitive or affective in nature. Consequently, outcomes pertaining to this study were sought within participant journals which related to (a) changes in participant behaviour or attitude, (b) participants reporting a new development or skill, and (c) participants identifying and solving problems or reframing practice as a result of their enquiry. Whilst reflection and implementation within question one are also outcomes of the study, there are additional outcomes other than those relating to reflection and implementation which are also highlighted.

Sample

The early childhood education service-types in the geographical region at the time of the study included (a) Playcentre, (b) Kindergarten, (c) Childcare, (d) Community Pre-school, (e) Ngā Kōhanga Reo, and (f) Barnardos Family Daycare. These services were consulted by the researcher prior to the study to ascertain their interest and whether a PD programme could be sustained in the region.

The PD programme was advertised within the region via leaflet to only those services that were chartered within the geographical boundaries of the study [see Appendix A]. Service addresses were obtained from the Ministry of Education (1999a). The leaflet outlined two PD provisions which consisted of three delivery models in total as shown in Table 1 [p. 42]. Participants from the individual provision once selected, were given the opportunity to volunteer for external support in their work context. Five participants were selected and constituted the third delivery model.

In addition to leaflet promotion, the researcher visited early childhood services and management in the region by appointment and clarified any matters in relation to the programme and its research aspect. Those wanting to apply to participate in the PD programme could do so by choosing their preferred provision and telephoning to register their interest by the closing date.

Table 1

Programme Options

In-centre same-service-type provision 7 centres	Individual mixed-service-type provision 18-20 individuals	
In-centre delivery model - a combination of in-service and external support.	Individual delivery model - in-service only	Individual delivery model - a combination of in-service and external support

The small sample size of the study is acknowledged by the researcher, however a number of factors prevented the study from being any larger. The research instruments [journals and interviews] were labour intensive and the researcher had to manage these within the available time. The study was also carried out in conjunction with a Ministry of Education professional development contract which placed limitations on (a) the number of participants within the programme, (b) the researcher's hours of work, and (c) working within a geographical area that had a limited number of early childhood services.

Participant Selection For The Professional Development Programme

Selection criteria were devised to ensure those participating (a) held a range of qualification levels, (b) were situated near to in-service course venues, and (c) were able to attend the in-service courses. Applicants for the in-centre provision were also required to volunteer two participants willing to act as representatives from each service. Individuals selected for the individual delivery model with external support needed to (a) be willing to write a journal [one of the research instruments used for this study], and (b) hold early childhood qualification levels closely matched to participants selected to write journals from the alternative delivery models.

Eight playcentres applied to participate in the in-centre provision, and 19 individuals for the individual provision. Seven playcentres were selected to take part in the in-centre provision. A total of 20 names were submitted to the researcher by respective playcentre presidents to act as representatives for their centres. A

selection process was not required for participation in the individual provision. All 19 applications met the criteria.

Letters were sent to all applicants regarding their acceptance to the programme [see Appendices B & C]. All participants in the PD programme were also asked to sign a consent form to confirm their involvement in the research study [see Appendix D]. Informed consent was thus obtained in respect of each participant and confidentiality was maintained in relation to written reports.

Selection Of Participants To Write Journals. Fifteen participants in total, five from each delivery model, were selected to write journals to demonstrate their implementation progress. The level of commitment required for journal writing was discussed with all PD participants to allow them to consider whether to apply to write journals and become part of the study. All participants within the PD programme were given an application form to complete at the first in-service course if they wished to be involved in writing journals [see Appendix E].

Participants were also asked to state their qualifications on the application form so that these could be matched across delivery models for the selection process. It was intended that matching the early childhood training levels of journal writers as closely as possible across the three delivery models would afford some control over the analysis of participant journal recordings. However the matching of participant qualifications only took place within the sampling pool, rather than against the overall early childhood population.

Fourteen in-centre participants offered themselves for selection to write journals, while 17 participants volunteered from the individual provision. The qualification levels or training experience of all participants applying to be journal writers can be seen in Table 2 [p. 44].

Individual provision participants applying to write journals were more highly qualified than in-centre participants making it difficult to match participant qualifications across delivery models. Once the applications were collated, qualification levels were set at (a) less than Part Two playcentre training, (b) Part Two playcentre training/30 licensing points, (c) 80/120 licensing points, (d) the New Zealand Free

Kindergarten [NZFKU] Diploma, and (e) the Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education]. [1] Not all qualification levels were present across delivery models.

Table 2

Qualification Levels Of Journal Writing Applicants

Qualification Levels	Number
In-centre Provision	
Part One playcentre training	8 [4 also with Diploma of Teaching (Primary)]
Part Two playcentre training	1
30 licensing points	3
80 licensing points	1
100 points	1
Individual Provision	
No early childhood training	1
Part One playcentre training	1[also with a Diploma of Teaching (Primary) and Bachelor of Education]
Part Two playcentre training	2
30 licensing points*	1
80 licensing points	1
120 licensing points	1
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Teaching Diploma	2
Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education]	6
New Zealand Free Kindergarten Teaching Diploma and Bachelor of Education	1
Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education] and Bachelor of Education	1

* Refer to 'licensing points' [Refer glossary]

Letters were sent to journal writing applicants to confirm [or decline] their participation [see Appendices F, G, H & I]. Participants selected for the study were approached individually and their journals issued by the researcher. Participants selected for journal writing, their early childhood qualification levels and service-type are shown in Table 3 [p. 45]. Table 3 illustrates the variety of roles and qualifications which participants held in their early childhood service. The few childcare centres in the region influenced the number of childcare participants

[1] Refer to the Glossary within this document for an explanation on licensing points.

selected. From this point in the study those selected for journal writing are referred to as 'participants'.

Table 3

Participants Selected For The Study

Partici -pant	Service- type	Delivery Model	External support	Position In Service	Status	ECE Qualifications
1	Playcentre	In-centre	Yes	Parent	Volunteer	Part one playcentre training - nil licensing points
2 *	Playcentre	In-centre	Yes	Parent	Volunteer	Part one playcentre training - nil licensing points
3	Playcentre	In-centre	Yes	Parent	Volunteer	Part two playcentre training - nil licensing points
4	Playcentre	In-centre	Yes	Supervisor	Paid staff	80 licensing points
5	Playcentre	In-centre	Yes	Supervisor	Paid staff	100 licensing points
6	Barnardos	In-service	No	Caregiver	Paid staff	No training - nil licensing points
7	Barnardos	In-service	No	Caregiver	Paid staff	Part two playcentre training - nil licensing points
8	Barnardos	In-service	No	Caregiver	Paid staff	80 licensing points
9	Kindergarten	In-service	No	Head teacher	Paid staff	NZFKU Diploma
10 *	Kindergarten	In-service	No	Teacher	Paid staff	Diploma of Teaching [ECE]
11	Barnardos	External support	Yes	Caregiver	Paid staff	Part two playcentre training - nil licensing points
12	Playcentre	External support	Yes	Assistant supervisor	Volunteer	Part three playcentre training - 30 licensing points
13	Childcare	External support	Yes	Assistant supervisor	Paid staff	120 licensing points
14 *	Childcare	External support	Yes	Supervisor	Paid staff	NZFKU Diploma
15	Kindergarten	External support	Yes	Teacher	Paid staff	Diploma of Teaching [ECE]

* Participants interviewed

In-centre participants 4 and 5 withdrew from playcentre late in the year and consequently withdrew from the PD programme approximately six weeks prior to its completion. Their data have been excluded from any quantitative results related to question two but has been included in all qualitative results.

Selection Of Participants To Be Interviewed. Three participants, one from each delivery model, were randomly selected, and invited by letter to be interviewed about their thoughts concerning their implementation progress and delivery models [see Appendix J]. The letters explained that interviews would be scheduled when the PD programme was completed, and that interviews would be taped, transcribed, and participant responses used as examples to highlight particular findings of the study. All three participants agreed to be interviewed. Those interviewed are indicated by an asterisk in Table 3 [p. 45].

Procedures

The procedures used within this study were selected on the basis that there was a need to explore delivery options for their effectiveness, and to investigate whether the available research was appropriate to the early childhood sector.

Delivery Approach

Initial discussions about PD with educators and management personnel within the South Taranaki region suggested that a 'consultancy delivery approach', would be the most appropriate. This approach involved the use of an outsider who would be given "license to help" educators to implement curriculum (Miles et al., 1988, p. 158). This approach was chosen as external consultants were considered to offer a different perspective to participants and hold a stronger position when initiating curriculum development (Webb, 1989).

There were a number of issues connected with using a consultancy approach. the writer took additional care to keep the roles of 'researcher' and 'consultant' as separate as possible to avoid the dual roles impacting on the study's findings. Both roles were respected and upheld. The writer was aware of the need [as a consultant] to be immersed in participants' thoughts, feelings and progress as a result of ongoing contact, but at the same time avoided distorting the study's

findings and wanting to keep the data meaningful. Such separation however may not have been as simple a process for participants.

The sequential process for school development as identified by Stewart and Prebble (1987, 1993) was encouraged with participants by the consultant. This process involved participants in (a) understanding the organisational culture, (b) collaborative problem solving, (c) structural change, and (d) curriculum and programme change.

Delivery Components

In-service Courses. The common feature of each provision involved participants attending five in-service course days scheduled at eight week intervals from March through to October. Each in-service course was a progression on the one previous. Participants were involved in (a) hands-on work, (b) discussion, (c) resource sharing, and (d) exercises which helped them to implement Te Whāriki and to reflect on their experiences. Participants worked with Te Whāriki to increase their familiarity and were given clear direction on ways in which their planning cycle systems could be developed in line with the Te Whāriki draft document. Strategies for collaboration were discussed during in-service courses. Seminar content did not vary from one provision to another however the in-depth provision discussion focussed specifically on playcentre issues. A summary of course content can be viewed within Appendix K.

External Support. Implementation outcomes were the driving force behind external support. Four external support visits to each service and individual within the in-centre and individual external support delivery models were ideally scheduled as events three, five, seven and nine where possible [see Appendix L for a timeline of the PD programme]. External support visits (a) followed up the work discussed during in-service courses, (b) assisted participants with the process of change, and (c) helped participants to problem-solve any issues surrounding Te Whāriki-based curriculum implementation as suggested by researchers (Joyce & Showers, 1984; Stewart & Prebble, 1987; Showers et al., 1987; Wilsey & Killion, 1982). The direction and support offered by the consultant during visits varied depending on the needs identified by participants during their needs assessment consultation and as the programme progressed. Participants were offered payment for participant relief

as part of the Ministry of Education contract work, to allow them to take part without adult/child ratios in the service being compromised.

Professional Development Provisions

In-centre Provision. The in-centre provision was focussed on change and involved in-service courses related to the participants' service-type - playcentre. The external support component was based on the fact that in-service alone was considered insufficient to achieve change in individuals. External support was primarily directed toward centre representatives from each of the seven playcentres. Representatives were key people from their service who led the implementation process and transmitted information to others in their service. Representatives from the seven playcentres were involved in an initial needs assessment consultation.

The rationale for a same-service-type in-centre provision was to provide participants with the opportunity to engage in PD with others of similar need. It was based on the assumption that the circumstances of educators from different service-types vary, hence they should not be expected to always agree with each other or feel comfortable in one another's presence. The same-service-type in-centre provision was based on the fact that participants deserve the opportunity to be able to achieve their aims in a non-threatening environment.

It was important to investigate whether these participants benefited more as a group than those who received assistance from a diversity of philosophies. It was anticipated that participants of the same-service-type working together created greater cohesion and support for each other (Goddard & Leask, 1992). It was considered that a same-service-type provision would also help to establish the critical mass required to bring about implementation for a particular service-type.

Individual Provision. In-service courses designed to assist individuals with the implementation of Te Whāriki were provided for individuals from a variety of early childhood service-types. The in-service course only delivery model was designed to take into account each individual's service needs at in-service courses. The reason for providing this delivery model was to provide some flexibility for individuals who were unable to commit themselves to an in-depth delivery model.

Further to the in-service course only delivery model, five individual provision participants received initial needs assessment consultation and external support visits. This delivery model was established to enable an individual from a service to fulfil the role of a 'curriculum leader' (Clayden, 1989) and receive a more in-depth delivery. The external support component was based on the fact that in-service alone was considered insufficient to achieve change in individuals. Structuring the individual provision with two delivery models allowed comparisons to be made between the experiences of participants receiving external support and those who did not.

Research Instruments

Instruments suitable for qualitative research were used in the study. Two main methods of data collection were used in the study (a) journal entries, and (b) participant interviews. Both were chosen because of their ability to convince the reader with words. Fifteen participants from across the three delivery models were asked to record and reflect on their successes and personal implementation experiences. One journal writer from each delivery model was also interviewed to explore their journal recordings in more depth.

With respect to the research questions, the outcomes of the PD programme as recorded and described by participants, were used to gain an understanding of the usefulness of delivery models and of any variations in usefulness for different service-types. The researcher also had an interest in using such reflective instruments to explore the relevance of the research (Bull, 1992; Coombe & Battersby, 1994; Lasley, 1992) with regard to the link between knowledge and reflection to the early childhood sector.

To protect the identity of participants, each was assigned a number from 1 to 15. Participant names were not used in written transcripts or in reporting the results. Other instruments were used as part of meeting Ministry of Education contract obligations for the PD programme, but these were not part of this study. They included (a) in-service course evaluation forms, (b) needs assessment questionnaires, (c) implementation plans and evaluations. Needs assessment questions were designed to be similar to those used within the school development process (Stoll & Fink, 1996). Participants assessed their current curriculum

implementation levels, planned future implementation work, discussed ways of achieving their goals, and how they would evaluate the changes that they had made. Implementation plans were used for participants "to gain a comprehensive and coordinated approach to all aspects of planning" (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991, p. 6). Implementation plans were used to allow participants the opportunity to exercise greater control by setting their own targets and success criteria, and to work on a collective vision.

Journals

Journals are described by a number of researchers as a popular yet effective methodological approach for teachers to develop and challenge their reflective thinking (Clift et al., 1990; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Holly, 1987; Richert, 1990; Walker, 1985). The use of journals as a reflective tool were intended to give participants ongoing access to their reflections to promote critical inquiry (Boud et al., 1985). Journals were completed by fifteen participants, five from each delivery model. The contents of participants' journals were essentially confidential however all participants were aware that their comments would be used for research purposes.

Guidelines were provided for participants to follow when writing in their journal [see Appendix M]. The guidelines suggested that participants discuss their training background, previous knowledge of Te Whāriki, and their expectations of the PD programme. Participants were also asked to respond in their journals to four questions provided within the guidelines whenever they attended the PD programme, or when they had made structural changes to their work which they considered were a result of their individual or service participation. Each question was presented with prompts should participants need assistance to begin their writing. Participants were asked to date each journal entry.

The four questions were prepared to encourage participants to analyse and reconstruct what they thought and did in relation to implementation and the effects of PD. They were designed by the researcher after investigating research on (a) professional development in schools, (b) adult learning, (c) reflection, and (d) programme evaluation. The questions were:

1. How well is the PD programme going for me?
2. What knowledge, skills and attitudes have I gained/yet to gain?
3. What have I done in my service as a result of my participation?
4. What have been the benefits of these changes for me and my service?

Prior to the start of the PD programme, the four questions were given to three early childhood educators not participating in the study, to comment on their comprehension of the questions and the likely workload this method would create for participants. The questions were also viewed and discussed by an Advisory Committee as part of the Ministry of Education PD contract.

Participants wrote in their journals during in-service courses and external support visits when they needed to do so. Time at each in-service course and visit was also used for clarifying any queries with the researcher that participants had with journal writing. Participants tended to use this time to ask the researcher if what they were writing was relevant to the study.

Journals were collected for analysis mid-year and at the end of the PD programme. All journals were read, photocopied and returned to the participants with a comment of thanks from the researcher for their input. At the mid-year collection, the researcher also provided comments to further challenge participants' thinking which were written on a separate piece of paper, placed inside participant journals, and returned to participants.

Interviews

Interviewees were asked to consider their journal entries and were given a copy of the interview questions prior to the interviews. The interviews took approximately one hour each in a setting and at a time of the interviewee's choosing. A semi-structured, 'elite' type interview method, as described by Anderson (1990), was used. Such an approach was important so that participant perspectives could be openly discussed.

The interview questions were prepared with the research questions in mind and allowed for personal information which had arisen from participant journal writings to

be elaborated on [see Appendix N for a copy of the interview schedule]. The questions invited participants to reflect on their implementation progress during the year, and on aspects which assisted or prevented implementation progress. Impromptu questions were also posed by the researcher to resolve discussion which arose within the interview situation, and when information was required to answer the research questions which had not previously been provided by the participants in their journals. The interviews were tape recorded to allow the researcher to focus directly on what each interviewee said. They were transcribed at a later date.

Data Analysis

The 15 journals were examined to identify: (a) the outcomes which participants reported as a result of the programme; and (b) that which concerned participant perceptions of the effectiveness of the particular delivery models in relation to their reflection patterns, and implementation efforts. The second research question was addressed before question one.

Question Two

Journals were collected and examined four months into the PD programme to begin to develop categories for later analysis. Interview transcripts were only used within the text of the results chapter to illustrate areas of particular importance. Data analysis occurred on a number of levels [see Appendix O for all coding processes]:

1. Noting remarks in margins when initially reading through participant journals;
2. Scanning journal comments line by line and categorised by paragraph. Thirty six categories of outcome were identified;
3. Outcome categories were placed onto a matrix. Each participant's responses were highlighted in relation to the outcome categories on the matrix where applicable with a page number for quick reference. Participant responses were then examined to see which were specific to, or common across the in-centre and individual provisions. Outcomes which occurred most frequently were also noted to identify any patterns or trends within delivery models or for particular participants;

4. Progress for each participant was mapped chronologically to identify recurring features, patterns, variables, and distinct differences between provisions and delivery models;
5. A causal model as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) was developed to clarify the variables which influenced participant implementation attempts and reflection patterns. Whilst particular configurations of variables were obvious influences, it was not possible to examine all possible configurations within each delivery model as not all were represented. Variables which were most likely to result in implementation efforts and encourage participants to reflect were (a) service support, (b) participant qualifications, (c) prior knowledge of Te Whāriki, (d) existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation, (e) participant motivation [participant self assessment], and (f) service-type;
6. A model demonstrating the change process participants experienced during curriculum implementation was established. The researcher was interested to develop a model particular to early childhood curriculum implementation. The model involved a four stage sequence (a) 'PD programme delivery', (b) 'reflection', (c) 'service support', and (d) 'implementation'. Outcomes were grouped logically under these four stages and each stage noted alongside the analysis of participant journal reflections. These stages became the framework for the organisation of all data [see chapter four];
7. The consistencies found within the data analysis gave rise to speculation concerning effectiveness of each of the delivery models.

Question One

Reflection. A variety of reflections were presented by journal writers requiring a framework to analyse the effectiveness of the three delivery models. In light of the definitions of 'reflection' within the literature review [p. 25], Pultorak's (1993) categories of (a) 'technical rationality', (b) 'practical action', and (c) 'critical reflection', were used to sort and analyse journal reflections, however the quality of reflections was not analysed, only the frequency [see Appendix O for the coding process].

The reliability of categorising participant reflections was obtained via a consensus method of agreement. A sample of 20 percent of participant journals were assessed by an independent evaluator and consensus reached on all but two

comments that had been provided by one PD programme participant. These comments were examined once again in light of the context and it was agreed that they be categorised under a different category.

The frequency of journal reflections under each of the three categories described by Pultorak (1993) was calculated. Journal reflections were analysed in terms of whether they concerned reflections about Te Whāriki itself, or the implementation of Te Whāriki. The total number and range of reflections offered by journal writers from each of the three delivery models was calculated along with the averages for each delivery model. Reflections were also categorised in relation to service-type and participant qualification levels.

The number of reflections per participant was calculated to determine any changes in reflection frequency or a shift in reflection focus during the PD programme. Reflections concerning Te Whāriki and those concerning implementation were tallied when journals were first collected four months into the PD programme and at again the completion of the PD programme. Participants were then grouped according to delivery model to enable comparisons to be made between delivery models and to gauge the impact of external support on reflection frequency and focus.

Emphasis was placed on comparing the frequency of technical reflections, with the combined reflections in the practical action and critical reflection categories. It was anticipated that even if participants undertook curriculum implementation and reflected on it in a common manner, divergent patterns would be displayed in terms of practical action and critical reflection due to the writing skills and the service-type bias of journal writers. It was therefore necessary to separate the technical rationality reflections from those of practical action and critical reflection. The average reflection frequency for technical rationality and the combined categories of practical action and critical reflection were then calculated.

Implementation. A framework was prepared to determine the implementation success of participants. Research was drawn on to develop categories and to analyse the data relating to the effectiveness of PD for the implementation of Te Whāriki (Berman & McLaughlin, 1976; Fullan, 1991; Jorde Bloom, 1986). A need became apparent to link the concept of curriculum to

observation, planning and evaluation systems within the service in order for the researcher to work consistently with participants. The definition of curriculum within the Te Whāriki draft document was also very broad and there was little guidance on what implementation might involve, therefore a particular focus was required.

The extent to which changes relating to Te Whāriki were incorporated into the service's planning cycles in a systematic manner was analysed. The categories were labelled (a) 'minimal integration', (b) 'random integration', (c) 'incomplete systematic integration', and (d) 'complete systematic integration'. 'Minimal integration' involved no evidence of adaptation of existing systems to incorporate Te Whāriki. 'Random integration' was defined as participants exploring ideas which were not applied systematically, but which served to familiarise participants with Te Whāriki or which initially proved worthy as a justification exercise. 'Incomplete systematic integration' included systematic attempts by participants whose planning cycle components were becoming clear and understood by them, but whose efforts were incomplete at the end of the study. 'Complete systematic integration' involved participants implementing an observation, planning and evaluation system which incorporated Te Whāriki at all levels and which functioned smoothly [see Appendix O for the coding process].

Data were analysed according to how participant implementation attempts were distributed between the four implementation categories. This information was tabled and analysed in terms of delivery model, participant qualification levels, and service-type. The choice to focus on implementation from a technical bias was an attempt to begin to define curriculum implementation in a sector which had little prior experience with implementation. This somewhat restricted approach to implementation, was also chosen because of the breadth of Te Whāriki and the need to codify diverse journal entries.

Reflection frequencies for each participant were overlaid on implementation categories in an attempt to determine (a) the relationship between reflection and implementation, (b) the influence of reflection on implementation, and (c) the conditions under which reflection and implementation occur. This methodology was supported by research centring around educators: (a) developing their knowledge, beliefs and ideas; (b) describing and analysing practice in order to bring about a change in behaviour; and (c) attending to their feelings about change through action

(Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Goddard & Leask, 1992; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Showers et al., 1987). This methodology reflected the process of change whilst participants were engaged in curriculum implementation, and identified which delivery models were most effective for particular participants. The model itself however is not discussed in length until Chapter 5.

Feedback to Participants

Two feedback meetings each of one hour's duration were held at two different locations. Participants made their own choice about which meeting they wanted to attend. The feedback served to provide a validity check on the researcher's interpretations of information offered by participants, and to confirm general patterns which had emerged from the PD programme. Meetings also gave the researcher an opportunity to thank all participants for their involvement. Participants listened to the researcher's interpretation of the findings and were invited to disagree, however no disagreements were voiced.

Chapter Four
RESULTS

All outcomes pertaining to the research have been combined and presented under four sections. The four sections are (a) PD programme delivery, (b) participant reflection, (c) support, and (d) implementation. Issues related to question one are discussed under (b) and (d), while those related to question two are discussed under all four sections. In relation to question two, outcomes reported by participants have been presented by provision, however, where significant differences of outcome have been found within the individual provision which highlight the differences between delivery models [i.e, individual external support and in-service course only], this has been noted for the reader.

Outcomes Related To Programme Delivery

Participants all provided a number of reflective comments about the delivery of the PD programme which supported or hindered their implementation progress.

Comparisons Between PD Programme Provisions

In-centre participants [n=5] commented that the same-service provision provided a focussed approach as all ideas contributed by participants were relevant. In-centre participant 4 commented that a same-service provision allowed all to be able to "contribute equally", despite the diverse levels of training and experience of those present in the group.

Participant 3 discussed how the same-service provision enabled participants to feel at ease. In-centre participants commented that together, they were able to look closely at their practice, help each other, and to work through new and challenging ideas in accordance with playcentre philosophy. This was particularly important in relation to increasing their skills in observation and understanding of the value of 'assessment'. Three in-centre participants reported that working through issues related to their philosophy strengthened their own thoughts about playcentre. Participant 2, [the in-centre interviewee] explained:

> *I seem to have started to take playcentre much more seriously as a result ... For me personally, being with other playcentre people the programme has shown me that there is a lot more substance within playcentre that I have not seen before.*

No negative features were reported by in-centre participants in terms of the same-service provision.

Seven individual provision participants [two from the in-service course only delivery model and five individuals with external support] reported on their mixed-service provision. Fewer in-service only participants noted benefits of a mixed-service provision than individuals receiving external support. The feature most favoured by mixed-service provision participants was the sharing of ideas.

In-service only participants reported features about the mixed-service provision which hindered progress. Kindergarten participants in particular within this delivery model commented that there were too many needs present within the provision for their own particular needs to be met. They valued working within small groups with others of the same service-type and qualification level. Participant 10 [the in-service only interviewee] commented, "It was people who I could identify with professionally that I found the best. This definitely affected who I would work with in small groups." Participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] sometimes found discussions with other services irrelevant, and the differing philosophies in the mixed-service provision frustrating.

Individual provision participants with 120 points or more commented that those with less training in the provision found it difficult to comprehend course content and consequently were less able to contribute effectively within the wider group. Participants with less than 120 licensing points also reported a lack of confidence participating in the individual provision with more highly qualified participants.

Individual provision participant 12 [from playcentre] receiving external support, observed herself as being "poles apart" from other participants who worked in early childhood as a full time occupation. Unlike her in-centre colleagues, participant 12 remained resistant throughout the entire PD programme to 'assessment' as a curriculum implementation tool. This result might suggest that the same-service

provision was more valuable than one of mixed composition when participants needed to work through new ideas, as those in the same-service provision overcame their initial reservations.

Facilitation

All fifteen participants reported positive delivery features that related to a style of facilitation which allowed participants to learn at their own pace. No negative features were reported regarding facilitation. Those with fewer qualifications wrote about the importance of the need for content and to ask questions during programme events. In-centre participants 3, 4, and 5 found the use of an external consultant from outside of the playcentre organisation valuable, as they gained a different perspective and more knowledge about the early childhood sector.

Like the in-centre participants, individual provision participants with 80 licensing points or less reported on their need to gain content from the PD programme. Those with 120 licensing points or more were most concerned about gathering information and resources to take back to their services to assist the change process. Participants 9 and 10 placed considerably more importance on sharing information at in-service courses compared to those receiving external support because of the fewer contact opportunities. Participant 10 [the in-service only interviewee] commented:

> *This [sharing ideas] was one of the most valuable aspects to the programme. Being able to talk and share ideas with some of the other course participants, finding out where they were, what worked for them and what didn't, how it worked, what they had thrown out and why.*

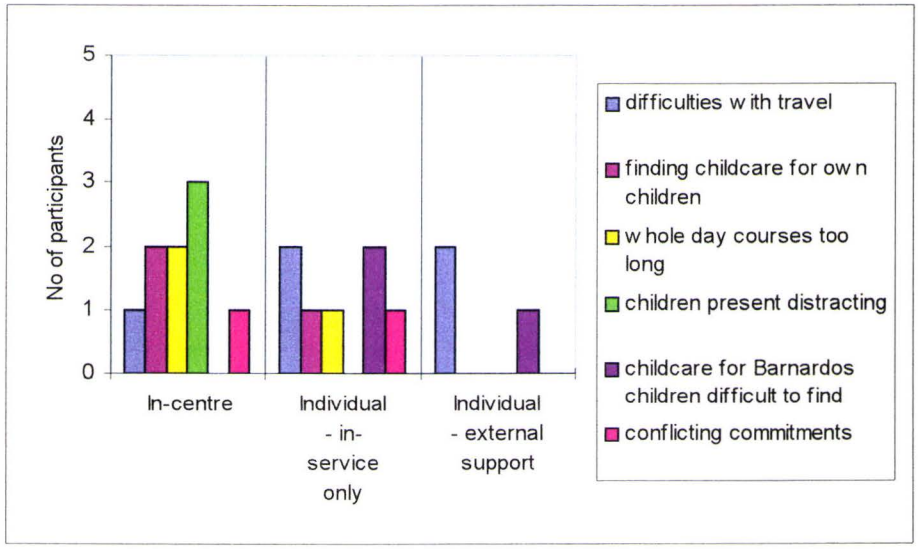
PD Programme Structure

Four in-centre and nine individual provision participants reported positively on features related to PD programme structure. Similar comments were offered by participants from both provisions. Eight participants with less than 80 licensing points commented positively on the progressive way that the programme was structured and content was delivered. Participants from the in-centre and individual external support delivery models reported that PD programme events were timed

well to enable them to reflect. Four of the five in-centre participants reported increased knowledge about PD, while three individual external support participants appreciated the PD programme being able to pay for a reliever for external visits to enable participants to be released.

Negative features related to PD programme structure were reported as shown in Figure 1. Many of these comments were tempered by the personal circumstances or motivation levels of participants. Fewer negative features were reported by individual provision participants with external support.

Figure 1. Negative structural features of the PD programme.



In both provisions travelling to course venues was a problem for participants living in more isolated areas. There were also structural features of the PD programme commonly mentioned by particular service-types that prevented participant progress. Playcentre participants generally found it difficult to attend whole days for in-service courses, while participants 2 and 3 also found the year's programme too long. As Figure 1 demonstrates, finding childcare was a problem for playcentre participants. Playcentre participants found it difficult to arrange childcare for their own children, and other participants found children who were consequently present at in-service courses, distracting. The commitment required of in-centre participants was high when also seen alongside their other family commitments and this affected their attendance rates.

Individual provision participants found it tiring when they were also required to work the same day as also attending an in-service course. Barnardos participants found it difficult finding alternative care for Barnardos children so that they could attend PD programme events.

In summary, with respect to question two of the study, the main qualitative difference between the outcomes of in-centre based as opposed to individual provision in terms of programme delivery was found between a same-service provision and a mixed-service provision. A same-service provision helped participants to feel at ease, to contribute equally regardless of their background or early childhood experience, and to make progress. A mixed-service provision was less successful for individual provision participants in this respect.

Outcomes Related To Reflection

Major differences in reflection patterns were found for participants across the three delivery models. The total number of individual reflections for the three delivery models combined ranged from 11, through to 57, with an average of 34 reflections. With two incomplete sets of in-centre delivery model data, the reflection range spanned from 29 to 47 reflections with an average of 39.6. In-service only participants produced less of a range, with a span of 11 to 31 reflections. The average number of reflections for this group was 20.6. Reflections of individuals receiving external support ranged from 27 to 57 reflections with an average of 44.

Table 4 [p. 62] presents the reflection frequencies of participants involved in each of the three delivery models. Participants within each delivery model are shown in order of participant qualifications. In-centre participants 4 and 5 left playcentre toward the end of the year and withdrew from the PD programme. Participant 5 reflected the least of all PD programme participants with 9 reflections, while participant 4 recorded one of the highest frequencies of 56 reflections. If their data were included, the reflection frequencies of in-centre reflection range would have almost spanned the entire range of participant reflections, however there would have been little difference overall in terms of the average number.

Table 4

Reflection Frequency By Delivery Model

Delivery model	Reflection frequency	Average
In-centre		
Participant 1 Participant 2 Participant 3	29 47 43	39.6
Individual - In-service Only		
Participant 6 Participant 7 Participant 8 Participant 9 Participant 10	16 11 23 22 31	20.6
Individual - External Support		
Participant 11 Participant 12 Participant 13 Participant 14 Participant 15	27 57 54 49 33	44
Withdrawals (in-centre)		
Participant 4 Participant 5	56 9	

Although participants within the in-service only delivery model had fewer programme contact opportunities on which to reflect [because they did not receive external support], all 15 participants had been asked to regularly reflect on their developments as a result of the PD programme. More regular contact therefore motivated participants to reflect.

Participant Reflections On Outcomes Related To Their Learning

All 15 participants reported outcomes that related to an increase in knowledge about Te Whāriki that they had gained from their involvement in the PD programme. Participant 2 [the in-centre interviewee] commented, "Growth happened very quickly for myself and others from our playcentre. The course was an empowering process

for all of us." Comments from six individual provision participants, four of whom received external support, were of a similar nature. Participant 10 [the in-service only interviewee] claimed that " having a professional objective that I could share with others for the whole year was great. I really benefited from coming from a similar place to those wanting to know similar things to me."

Participants expressed a range of ways the PD programme helped them to gain a greater understanding of Te Whāriki and to use the draft document. In-centre participants 1, 2, and 3 reported that once they learned the meaning of the title *Te Whāriki*, and how to say it, they began to feel more comfortable with the document itself. Participants 6, 7, 8, 11, and 12 from the individual provision who also reported knowing little about Te Whāriki at the start of the programme reported increased confidence. These eight participants in total all held 80 licensing points or less.

With the exception of participant 5, playcentre participants from both provisions reported that they now knew what 'curriculum' and 'implementation' meant as a result of their involvement in the PD programme. Prior to their involvement, much of what they read or heard about Te Whāriki was "already happening at playcentre." Participant 3 noted however during her involvement, " More needs to be put on paper ... A lot of Te Whāriki happens in the centre, it's just that examples aren't recorded."

Participants 10 and 14 within the individual provision were confident that they were now using the whole Te Whāriki document as a result of the PD programme. Both participants also claimed that learning more about Te Whāriki led to an increase in their understanding of early childhood development theories. Participant 9 however [with an NZFKU Diploma] noted that Te Whāriki had shifted away from the pure developmental theory with which she had been comfortable in the past. This theoretical change had proved difficult for her.

In contrast, in-centre participants did not discuss specific theoretical perspectives within their journals but discussed their view of playcentre philosophy in relation to Te Whāriki. Participants 2 and 3 who held part two playcentre training or less, queried the absence of 'areas of play' [commonly accepted as the foundation of the playcentre programme] within Te Whāriki. In-centre participants generally were

confused about how Te Whāriki and 'areas of play' could be integrated. Playcentre participants commented that playcentre was considered a place for children "to play and get on with other children." Participant 2 commented that generally parents at her playcentre did not encourage children to gain more than "the basics", and that "extension wasn't necessarily valued as a priority." For this reason, playcentre participants held concerns that Te Whāriki posed problems to their idea of 'free play', particularly as new documentation procedures associated with implementation would place limitations on how they preferred to operate. By the end of the PD programme all in-centre participants were less concerned by this aspect, and about how to integrate areas of play and Te Whāriki.

In-centre participants commented strongly on an increasing affinity with the principles of Te Whāriki in relation to their philosophy as a result of the PD programme. There were however only five participants from the individual provision who commented on the value of the principles. One of these was participant 12, also from playcentre. With the exception of this participant, only participants with more than 80 licensing points from the individual provision reflected on the importance of the principles of Te Whāriki. Participant 12 wrote:

> *I feel it is appropriate to use family and community more than ever after this course. I also need to be more aware of the 'hidden curriculum'. If the ultimate aim is to help the children, then we need to be sure that all the principles are upheld.*

Five individual provision participants with 120 licensing points and over commented on the depth of Te Whāriki as they learned more about it. These participants began to criticise Te Whāriki as being "vague", "wordy", and "open to too much interpretation." These participants predicted problems in gaining implementation consistency within a diverse sector with such an open document. Participant 10 [the in-service only interviewee] explained:

> *I think that you need a certain amount of knowledge to be able to use the document to its fullest use, and to cope with it. It's hard, and it needs real commitment and thinking about. You need to look at the theory behind Te Whāriki. From what I saw over the year, I'm not sure some others were in a position to do that because of their limited training and experience.*

In-centre participants while increasingly relaxed with Te Whāriki as a document in terms of their philosophy, also shared concerns about its complexity but most of all about the commitment required of centre members to comprehend and implement it. This view was shared by individual provision participants with 80 licensing points or less. All reported feeling bewildered however trying to work with the amount of information within Te Whāriki. Despite the problems participants reported, participants across provisions reported benefits for all early childhood services using the same curriculum document.

All in-centre participants wrote of their increased comfort with the idea of observation to guide the planning and evaluation of the programme and to meet the individual needs of children. In-centre participants held concerns however about (a) having insufficient time to write down the information observed, (b) the documentation process interfering with their work with children, and (c) having to write the observations when they "knew all children at the centre anyway."

The only individual provision participants who reported increased comfort with the idea of observations were Barnardos participants 6 and 8 who held less than 80 licensing points. Fewer individual provision participants reported this outcome as all participants with the exception of participant 12 [from playcentre] had been collecting written observations of children to varying degrees prior to the PD programme. Participant 12 remained the only participant who did not begin to gather observation information specifically about individual children.

All in-centre and nine individual provision participants reflected on their improved understanding of planning cycle processes as a result of their involvement in the PD programme. Participant 12 with 30 licensing points commented, "I can see that if you observe, plan, act, and evaluate, it would help the children." Participants also reported the need to make changes to their existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation. Individual provision participants with 120 licensing points or more commented early in the PD programme on the areas requiring attention to their systems. Participant 10 [the in-service only interviewee] commented, "The greatest outcome of the programme for me was seeing the need for changes, and knowing where our systems could be strengthened." In-centre participants declared difficulties applying what they had learned to their systems. These participants were

also agreed that continuity between sessions would eventuate by using a more focused planning cycle approach.

In-centre participants reported severe gaps within playcentre training particularly in the areas of (a) assessment, and (b) planning systems. Participants 2, 3, 4 and 5 maintained that this knowledge was a prerequisite to a PD curriculum implementation programme, but as participant 4 [a supervisor] with 80 licensing points reported, it is "not something that we at playcentre have been trained to do... I've really been struggling with this 'individual assessment'. I've needed to look at it myself before talking to others." Participant 4 however predicted difficulties implementing a system for assessment when not all parents are involved in training. Participant 3 also reported an inherent problem with the sequence of playcentre training modules:

> *The way that the training is set out maybe influences where adults are at and why they find Te Whāriki difficult. They don't value extension of children, or evaluation and planning because they simply haven't got to that level. Level four is when they get the most information on planning but this is too far away ... they need it before that. Most never get to level three in our centre let alone level four.*

The Influence Of Qualifications and Service-Type On Participant Reflection

There were few differences in reflection frequency between the qualification groups. Participants with 20-30 licensing points and 80-120 licensing points were represented in each delivery model [however the two participants with 80-120 licensing points in the in-centre delivery model withdrew late in the programme and therefore their results are not included], but those holding a Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education] and a New Zealand Free Kindergarten Union [NZFKU] Diploma were only represented in the individual provision delivery models. Participants with less that 20 licensing points were only represented in the in-centre and in-service only delivery models.

Participants from two qualification groups, those holding a NZFKU Diploma and those holding between 80 and 120 licensing points, reflected above the average number of 33.8 reflections for the total group. Participants with 20-30 licensing

points also reflected above the average number of reflections. Participants with a Diploma of Teaching [Early Childhood Education] reflected at a surprisingly low rate of 32 reflections, below the average frequency. Those who held part two playcentre training or less reflected the least as a group.

Although higher reflection frequencies did not necessarily correlate with higher qualification levels, reflection frequencies did correspond to the service-type to which participants belonged. Table 5 illustrates that of the four service-types participating in the programme, childcare participants reflected most frequently.

Table 5

Reflection Frequency In Relation To Service-Type

Service-type	Reflection frequency	Average
Childcare		
participant 13 participant 14	54 49	51.5
Playcentre		
participant 1 participant 2 participant 3 participant 12	29 47 43 57	44
Kindergarten		
participant 9 participant 10 participant 15	22 31 33	28.6
Barnardos		
participant 6 participant 7 participant 8 participant 11	16 11 23 27	19.2

The relative reflection frequencies for participants from other service-types could be ranked after childcare as, playcentre, kindergarten and Barnardos respectively, with only childcare and playcentre participants reflecting above the average reflection

frequency of 34. Participant 15 [from kindergarten] within the individual external support delivery model reflected almost as often as the average reflection frequency, however all remaining kindergarten and Barnardos participants reflected below the average frequency.

Participant reflection frequencies from the first to the second half of the year were analysed by qualification levels, service-type, and delivery model. In-centre participants 1, 2 and 3 with 30 licensing points and less, either increased or remained constant in their reflection frequencies from the first to the second half of the year.

In-service course only participants 6 and 7 [from Barnardos] with part two playcentre training or less, and participant 10 [from kindergarten] with a Diploma of Teaching [ECE], increased or maintained their reflection frequency from the first to the second half of the year. A decrease in reflection frequency was demonstrated by participant 8 [from Barnardos] with 80 licensing points and participant 9 [from kindergarten] who held an NZFKU Diploma.

The frequency of reflections for three participants in the individual external support delivery model increased from the first to the second half of the year. Participant 6 [from Barnardos] with part two playcentre training and participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] with 120 licensing points and an NZFKU Diploma demonstrated this pattern. There was a decrease in the reflections of participant 12 [from playcentre] with 30 licensing points, and participant 15 [from kindergarten] with a Diploma of Teaching [ECE] from the first to the second half of the year. The two childcare participants were the only participants from a single service-type whose reflections increased.

Presentation of reflection frequencies defined by category (Pultorak, 1993), combined with participant qualification levels, and service-type are seen in Table 6 [p. 69]. Qualification levels were not a determining factor for a high critical reflection frequency on the part of playcentre participants, however generally higher critical reflection frequencies, combined with low technical rationality frequencies, for playcentre participants, might suggest that the kind of training received influenced how they reflected. Childcare participants reflected more on critical reflection issues than any other category, while kindergarten participants reflected more consistently

on technical rationality. Barnardos participants reflected least often as a group on all three categories.

Table 6

Reflection Frequency In Relation To Category, Qualifications, And Service-Type

Service-Type				
Reflection frequency	Childcare	Kindergarten	Playcentre	Barnardos
Critical reflection				
21-30	- 80-120 lcsg pts - NZFKU Dip.		- parts 2 & 3 - < part 2	
11-20		- Dip.Tchng [ECE] - Dip.Tchng [ECE]	- parts 2 & 3	- parts 2 & 3
<10		- NZFKU Dip.	- < part 2	- 80-120 lcsg pts - parts 2 & 3 - < part 2
Practical action				
21-30				
11-20	- 80-120 lcsg pts		- parts 2 & 3 - parts 2 & 3 - < part 2	
<10	- NZFKU Dip.	- Dip.Tchng [ECE] - Dip.Tchng [ECE] - NZFKU Dip.	- < part 2	- 80-120 lcsg pts - parts 2 & 3 - parts 2 & 3 - < part two
Technical rationality				
21-30				
11-20	- NZFKU Dip. - 80-120 lcsg pts	- Dip.Tchng [ECE] - Dip.Tchng [ECE] - NZFKU Dip.	- parts 2 & 3 - parts 2 & 3 - < part 2	
<10			- < part 2	- 80-120 lcsg pts - parts 2 & 3 - parts 2 & 3 - < part two

Although this study does not investigate the quality of participant reflections, participant 14 from childcare was the only participant who demonstrated reflecting on her reflections:

> *Each time after a course I thought about something differently. I'd write these thoughts down and when I came back to work I noticed things that I hadn't noticed before which made me think about what I'd written ... As I was looking, I made comments to the other staff who then started looking. We began noticing things that we hadn't noticed before. I'd look at what I'd written before and add something ... We were having to reflect and reassess all of the time.*

Five of the fifteen participants reflected more frequently than the average number of reflections within each category. They were participants 12, 13 and 14 from the individual external support delivery model, in-service participant 10, and participant 3 from the in-centre delivery model. The training and qualification levels of these participants spanned part two playcentre training through to the Diploma of Teaching [ECE] which was virtually the entire range held by programme participants.

Table 7 [p. 71] presents participant reflection frequencies by reflection category and delivery model. When combining the reflection frequencies of practical action and critical reflection categories, only in-centre participant 1 reflected more on questions of technical rationality than other categories of reflection. Participant 9 reflected the same amount of technical rationality reflections as she did the combined categories.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the changes in reflection focus for participants from the first to the second half of the year. Figure 2 [p. 71] shows that in-centre participant 3 had a decrease in reflections about Te Whāriki from the first to the second half of the year. All participants however demonstrated an increase in reflections about implementation from the first to the second half of the year. The change in reflection focus suggests a change in participant focus from reflection in relation to learning about Te Whāriki, to reflection on applying this learning to practice. Once participants had passed the understanding stage they were able to be identify particular aspects of the document within their services and their reflections changed.

Table 7

Reflection Frequency In Relation To Category And Delivery Model

	Reflection Category		
Delivery Model	Technical Rationality	Practical/Critical Reflections	Total
In-centre			
participant 1	18	11	29
participant 2	6	41	47
participant 3	12	31	43
Individual - In-service only			
participant 6	3	13	16
participant 7	1	10	11
participant 8	4	19	23
participant 9	11	11	22
participant 10	14	17	31
Individual - External support			
participant 11	7	20	27
participant 12	14	43	57
participant 13	20	34	54
participant 14	16	33	49
participant 15	11	22	33

Figure 2. Changes in reflection focus demonstrated by in-centre participants.

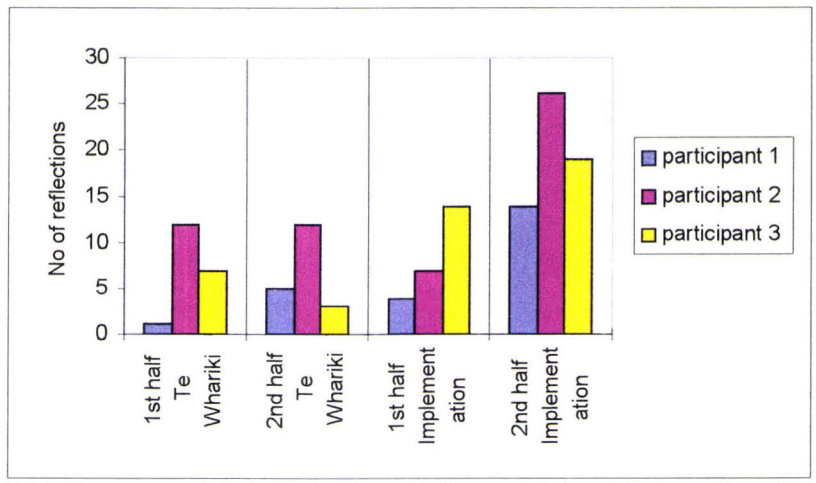


Figure 3 presents in-service only participants 6 and 7 [from Barnardos] also reflecting higher on implementation than on Te Whāriki in the first half of the year. The reflection frequencies of these participants however were lower in the second half of the programme than the first which might suggest motivation problems or an inability to effect change affected their reflection patterns. Participant 10 reflected more on Te Whāriki in the second half of the year than the first, however this did not affect her frequency of implementation reflections. Participant 9 reflected less on implementation than Te Whāriki in comparison.

Figure 3. Changes in reflection focus demonstrated by in-service only participants.

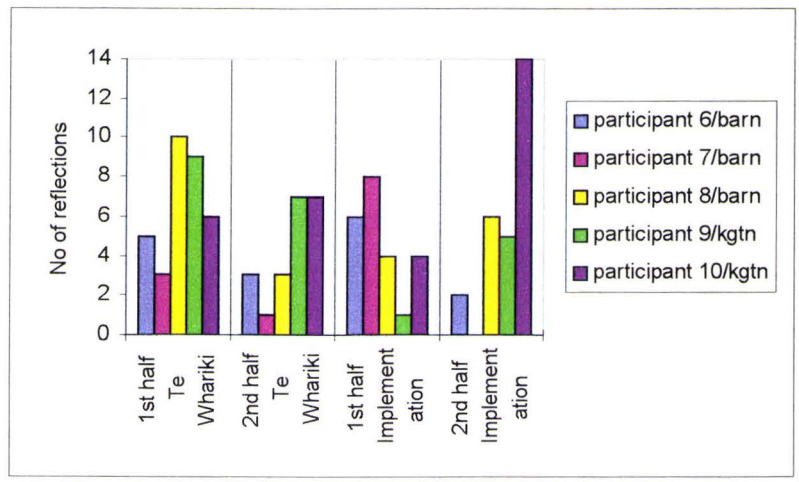


Figure 4. Changes in reflection focus demonstrated by individual external support participants.

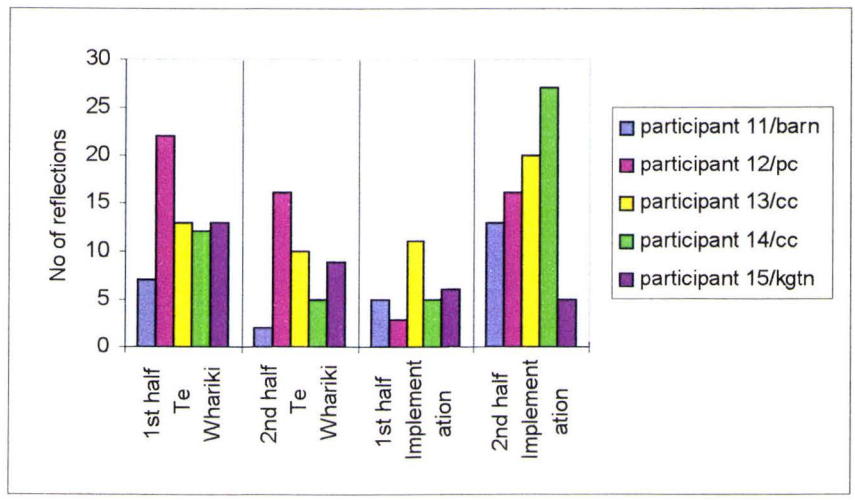


Figure 4 [p. 72] presents the most consistent pattern of reflection for all of the delivery models. A similar shift can be seen within this individual external support delivery model as was found with some in-centre participants. Participant 15 however reflected less on implementation within the second half of the year than in the first, and recorded fewer reflections on Te Whāriki.

In summary, the findings with respect to research question one regarding the most effective delivery model in terms of enabling curriculum reflection on the part of participants, and the impact of variables such as qualifications and service-type on reflection are as follows:

1. Individual provision participants with external support were found to reflect more frequently than participants from other delivery models. When comparing the qualification levels of these participants with in-centre participants, it is feasible that higher qualifications had encouraged participants to reflect. However, in-service only participants within the same provision, three of whom were also in the higher qualification bracket, reflected the least. It is therefore likely that external support encouraged participants to reflect more so than qualifications;
2. Reflection frequency patterns were influenced by service-type as opposed to qualifications. Two strata, based on participant reflection emerge. The first strata includes childcare participants with high qualification levels and playcentre participants with lower qualifications, each of whom demonstrated high practical action and critical reflections. The second strata, includes kindergarten participants with high qualification levels and Barnardos participants with lower qualifications each of whom demonstrated lower practical action and critical reflections;
3. Reflection frequency patterns were influenced by external support;
4. The way in which participants reflected was influenced by the kind of training participants had received;
5. Participants with higher training levels reflected more on professional issues than those with less training;
6. Higher technical reflections were not necessarily associated with low training levels;
7. In-centre only delivery model participants were the only participants whose reflections increased from the first to second half of year, but it was the individual with external support participants who were the most consistent

reflectors in terms of the transition from reflecting about Te Whāriki earlier in the year to matters concerning implementation as the PD programme progressed.

With respect to question two of the study, the main qualitative differences between the outcomes of in-centre based as opposed to individual provision, in terms of reflection were:

1. Differences between reflections of in-centre participants as they described an increase of knowledge about Te Whāriki whereas individual provision reflections concerned professional issues in relation to increased knowledge. This outcome appears to have been influenced by participant qualifications and prior knowledge of Te Whāriki;
2. In-centre participants [those from playcentre] were more philosophically in tune with the principles of Te Whāriki than individual provision participants. There was more than a hint of service-type influence with this finding as individual provision participant 12 with external support also from playcentre reflected similarly to her playcentre colleagues.

Outcomes Related To Support

Every participant illustrated a unique problem moving to the implementation stage. To assist this move, two kinds of support were found to be helpful to participants (a) external support given by the researcher, and (b) internal support provided by those in their service. Internal support has been termed 'service support' for the purposes of this study.

External Support

External support was provided for participants within two of the three delivery models. Participants reported that external support assisted them throughout the PD programme to: (a) address particular service needs; (b) gain support from others in the service; (c) develop systems for observation, planning and evaluation; (d) work through the change process; (d) action implementation plans; (e) provide ongoing movement and direction; and (f) access resources. Participants also reported an increase in motivation from external support. Participant 12 wrote that without the aid of external support she "would not have come to this commitment."

She and participant 15 commented that an impending researcher visit was also helpful as it provided the impetus to keep going. Table 8 presents the positive features of external support reported by participants.

Table 8 shows participants indicated a need to become familiar with Te Whāriki before being able to reflect on it and apply this knowledge to their respective situations. Once the reflective process began they attempted to gather support from others, prepare and plan for changes collaboratively, and to action these.

Table 8

Positive Features Of External Support

Positive features	In-centre with external support [n=5]	Individual with external support [n=5]
familiarised service with education structure	3	-
helped get the message across to all in the service	4	-
helped with change process - 'the how'	4	3
addressed specific service needs	4	2
gave professional direction	1	3
lifted motivation	1	3
able to have resources at hand	1	3
help with systems	2	4
added weight in the service	3	-
prioritised action with clear, practical steps	1	3

External support assisted participants to plan their implementation. Participants worked through implementation plans and all reported using external support visit times to clarify their direction. External support also provided the opportunity for participants to see what was possible in terms of implementation and to extend them beyond their everyday practices. They wrote that directed support was most useful. Participant 14 wrote:

> *The purpose of the visit today was to work through the needs assessment questionnaire to help identify the areas to focus on this year. It seems that our planning system could be made less complicated and we could use our individual assessments to guide our planning more. Lots of direction was given, ideas were exchanged and it seemed to just grow from there.*

Although not applying for external support, participant 8 [a Barnardos caregiver], reported that it would have assisted her to progress further, "I enjoy doing the exercises at the course, but for me, things seem to come to a halt when I leave here. It seems easy in theory, but putting it into a programme!"

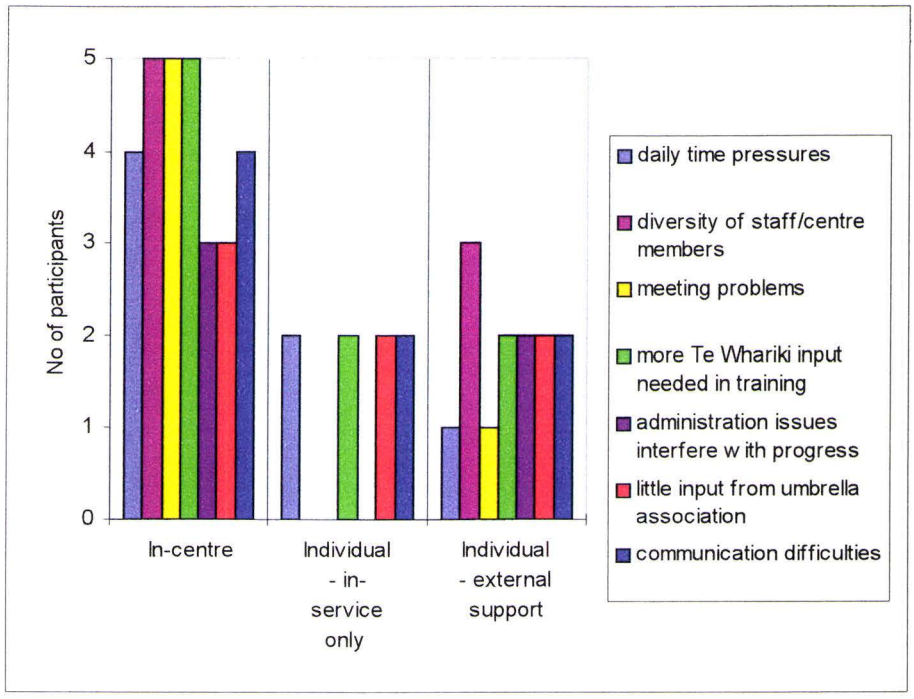
In-centre participants commented that the support given from someone 'outside' of the organisation was beneficial in helping them to see beyond a playcentre mind-set, and to gain a greater overview of the early childhood sector. Individual provision participants commented that external support served a resourcing purpose in terms of discussing new ideas.

The only recorded problems with external support were reported by participants 2 and 15. Both participants claimed that sometimes they did not have adequate time between visits to complete all of the agreed tasks. Participant 15 who worked in a two teacher kindergarten had little teaching experience. She believed that the external support she received as an individual sometimes caused minor friction between herself and her colleague. Once her feelings were disclosed, both staff were occasionally involved in support discussions to avoid any further conflict.

Service Support [Internal]

Participants experienced differing degrees of service support but all needed to convince others of the value of change in order to attempt and sustain implementation. At one level, factors which influenced the success of service support for participants were related to (a) management input, and (b) the service's ability to make collaborative decisions. At another level, participants' ability to gather service support depended on the qualification and motivation levels, and prior knowledge of Te Whāriki that they and others in their service held. The difficulties gaining service support are shown within Figure 5 [p. 77].

Figure 5. Service support difficulties.



In-centre participants and participant 12 [from playcentre] in the individual provision discussed many difficulties gaining support from other centre members. Playcentre participants reported that service support would have been improved had there been direction given by the umbrella organisation to playcentres regarding Te Whāriki implementation. In-centre participants also commented that the 'in-house' playcentre training system isolated them from knowing about the change aspect of PD programmes.

Playcentre participants had previously received limited exposure to Te Whāriki. Three playcentre participants commented that without having Te Whāriki in training modules the document assumed less importance and centre members were less willing to offer support to those participating in the PD programme. Participants 1, 3, 4, and 12 reported that centre members thought that Te Whāriki was a "Māori document", and consequently did not affect them in any way.

All playcentre participants reported that daily pressures in and out of playcentre left insufficient time to commit themselves to learning about Te Whāriki and implementation. Pressures on their time as volunteers and increasing pressures on small rural centres, affected the motivation levels of centre members which meant

they were less willing to offer support to those working directly in the PD programme. Four in-centre participants reported that the Te Whāriki document was available in their playcentres for centre members to read, but because of the pressures placed on volunteers, participants did not encourage other centre members to read the document in case they were "put off." Participant 2 [the in-centre interviewee] described the everyday commitment levels required of volunteers:

> *The day to day commitment that parents give is enough. They don't want to do more. At the end of the session all they want to do is clean up and get out, get home, and away from it. They've already spent three and a half to four hours there!*

Participant 2 reported that the energies of centre members were so spread within the centre that Te Whāriki was "one more thing to do for playcentre, and, it was done after everything else." Individual provision participant 12 [from playcentre] indicated that she was often motivated with new ideas but when she returned to the centre there were many tasks which required her attention and her energy for Te Whāriki "evaporated."

In-centre participants 2, 3, and 4 suggested that maintaining training commitments in addition to PD work was at times overwhelming as there seemed too much to learn and be involved in. In order for playcentres to remain open, playcentre training assumed priority over PD therefore many centre members were unable to commit themselves to PD.

In-centre participants 1, 2, and 5 reported enjoying their role working with fellow representatives in their playcentres on implementation projects. Participants 1 and 5 took responsibility to initiate implementation of Te Whāriki in their centres. As systems for implementation were established they worked with small groups of interested people but with the aim of full involvement of centre members. The remaining three in-centre participants took a different approach. They attempted to have all centre members involved from the outset believing that a broad base of knowledge within the playcentre was needed.

In-centre participants discussed how they were often faced with the question of how to lead the implementation process so that the leadership skills of others could emerge. In-centre participant 4 [a supervisor] commented, "I am not wanting to take full charge as the knowledge needs to be spread among playcentre members. They need to do it and own it." This participant reported a "sense of betrayal" at the lack of support given by other centre members. She reported that centre members began to rely on her to take total responsibility, and consequently reported that she was "feeling a bit alone."

In-centre participants maintained that they would have gained more support if the centre had formally discussed their involvement in the PD programme and the consequences of their involvement before applying. Participant 2 [the in-centre interviewee] reflected on how her playcentre's decision to apply for the programme affected the support that she and other representatives at her centre later received from centre members:

> *Firstly, I think our centre never decided to fully get into the programme. A few of us recognised we needed to do something and so we attended. But, although others were supportive in a very quiet way and they asked questions, they really didn't want to do it themselves.*

Only in-centre participant 5 [also a supervisor] reported that members from her centre had discussed the support they would give to the centre's representatives in the PD programme so that progress could occur in the centre. This participant explained her centre's reasons for applying to the PD programme, "our main aim was to see Te Whāriki integrated into our playcentre. We did not want it to be a separate headache for parents to contend with, or to be struggling with it five years down the track."

By the end of the year in-centre participants reported a number of important criteria to consider when choosing representatives to ensure implementation success. In-centre participants believed that representatives needed to be committed to (a) lead and effect change, (b) be involved in playcentre until implementation is completed and centre members are confident, and (c) ongoing training. All participants were certain that supervisors needed to be involved in the PD programme.

Regardless of the level of service support given to representatives by other centre members, there was consistent agreement among playcentre participants that encouraging all centre members to be involved in the implementation of Te Whāriki would be a gradual process. Participant 2 [the in-centre interviewee] explained that the volunteer nature of playcentre affected how much people got involved in centre related activities, "They're not getting paid for their input. They do it for the love of their children."

The nature of representative attendance for playcentre participants led to centre members being "drip fed" information by participants. Participants 2, 3, 4 and 12 reported that the method of drip feeding information to other centre members was hard work, particularly as these participants had no prior knowledge of Te Whāriki. Participant 2 commented, "It's a very time consuming process to do Te Whāriki fully, learn about it, talk with others ... then implement it!"

All in-centre participants reported issues from other centre members to the development of systems for observation, planning and evaluation. This situation influenced the pace at which implementation could ultimately occur. Participants were certain that resistance occurred because some centre members found it difficult to understand or cope with written systems. Participants also recognised the diversity of knowledge held by centre members about observation, planning and evaluation prevented immediate change. All playcentre participants felt that the low levels of training held by the majority of centre members prevented centre members from accepting new information. Participants also reported that a new and informed perspective was required on the part of playcentre association management before they could make significant progress, as the association were resistant to 'assessment'.

A number of communication problems were reported by in-centre participants which affected the support they received from centre members. These included (a) knowing what or how to communicate Te Whāriki related information to centre members, (b) knowing how to convey accountability issues to centre members, and (c) limited communication channels to work through to disseminate information. Participant 2 [the in-centre interviewee] also reported difficulties gaining support because of the large size of her playcentre.

Participants reported that meetings were integral to the dissemination of playcentre information, but that these were often unsuccessful in getting the message across. Problems with meetings included: (a) a lack of focus; (b) absenteeism or low attendances, which meant that not all centre members gained the necessary information; and (c) limited time for discussion. Participants felt that centre members did not attend meetings for fear of their workload being increased through discussions about Te Whāriki. Centre members with farming commitments found it difficult to commit themselves to attend evening meetings. This resulted in participants relaying information on a random basis as they were reluctant to call another meeting.

Individual provision participants found gaining service support easier than in-centre provision participants. Individual provision participants with 120 licensing points or more, and with prior knowledge of Te Whāriki documented fewer problems than those who were less qualified. Higher qualified participants were clear about what they expected to achieve from the PD programme as illustrated by participant 14:

> *One of my expectations of this programme would be to be able to get a system for planning which encompasses the whole planning cycle and Te Whāriki. I'll need some help to gain confidence to extend the awareness of planning and Te Whāriki to other staff and to parents, so that they can all effectively contribute.*

Five individual provision participants however reported difficulties with representative attendance. Four of these participants [two of whom received external support], held few qualifications and experienced difficulties relaying information to others when returning to their service. The fifth participant [the in-service only interviewee] held a teaching diploma and while she was not overly concerned about her ability to relay information to her colleague, she did believe that attendance with her colleague would have given them "more of an opportunity to work together and develop as a team." All participants reported a need to be supported by all in the service for implementation to be successful.

Individual provision participants also reported a number of criteria for the selection of representatives. They stated that it was important that representatives held a

delegated role for implementation within the service, and that they intended to continue their involvement with the service.

Both verbal and written communication systems were important for convincing others within the service of the benefits of implementation. Participants 13, 14 and 15 reported facilitating regular workshops and meetings for staff where they were able to work through new ideas. These participants all pre-planned their communication attempts to gain the most effective use of these events. Participant 14 explained in her interview the process she undertook when working with staff:

> *Each course, I'd made notes and gone back with the information to staff meetings. This led to us trialing lots of new ideas and programming concepts. At each staff meeting we looked at what we covered at the last in-service day ... We had some major discussions ... It was from this discussion that we came to agreement on the changes that could be made. We set ourselves some tasks, planned to check it back at my next support visit, and set a date to review what we had achieved.*

Participant 14 [the individual provision interviewee] also talked of the importance of having management support for her decisions:

> *I'd talked a lot with our manager before the programme began. Management supports everything we do here. We talked about who would be the right person to attend the programme and what we thought we needed to achieve. Management is interested and pretty good with going along with the way we have thought about and implemented everything. Let's face it, profit's profit!*

Within the individual provision, four participants with external support reported facilitating workshops for parents. Participants 13,14 and 15 stated that workshops held specifically for parents led to improved relationships between staff and parents. These participants in turn reported an increase in parent participation in child assessment procedures.

Although individual provision participants reported similar kinds of difficulties associated with communication and gaining service support, they also reported

unique problems which reflected their service-type. Participants 7, 8, and 11 [from Barnardos] remarked on a need for management to provide more resources for caregivers, and to promote opportunities for networking and support. Participant 7 [receiving in-service only] openly discussed her lack of motivation because of the lack of support she believed she received from Barnardos, "Its really difficult to know how much of a priority Te Whāriki has for Barnardos. We have no coordinator at present and the support from them is just not there." Participants 7, 8, and 11 also discussed the need for management to respond quickly to integrating Te Whāriki into training to enable caregivers to have the same information which would allow them to support one another more effectively.

Participants 9, 10, and 15 [from kindergarten] reported that group size pressures and competing commitments for non-contact time limited their available communication time with one another and parents about Te Whāriki. They found that they needed time to talk through interpretations of Te Whāriki which existed among staff. They also reported difficulties finding effective ways of encouraging parents to be interested in the work they were trying to achieve using Te Whāriki.

Participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] thought that effective communication was dependent on what was happening in the centre at any given time. Participants 13 and 14 particularly discussed the frustration in childcare associated with working with staff holding a variety of qualification levels. Participant 13 illustrated these difficulties:

> *I think that it is particularly confusing for staff who don't have much training. It's a difficult situation because the only way to become familiar with Te Whāriki is to use and read it constantly, and that's not easy to do if you haven't got the training background.*

To overcome this hurdle, participant 14 wrote, " We had to have the same level of understanding in order to get things going, which is why we spent the time on the basics before anything else...groundwork." This participant in her interview commented that when all staff were 'on board' she noted a feeling of collegiality and growth among staff:

We were lucky to be able to find an approach which worked for everyone. Then we sat down and pooled ideas, looked at what was practical and what wasn't. Staff were open to discussions, as the things we talked about were going to make life easier for us all.

In summary, with respect to question two of the study, the main qualitative differences between the outcomes of in-centre based as opposed to individual provision, in terms of support were:

1. In-centre and individual provision participants utilised external support in different ways. In-centre participants were more likely to use external support to help participants pass on knowledge to others in the centre and to clarify their own understanding, whereas individual provision participants were interested in ensuring the change process went smoothly, being provided with resources to make the necessary changes, gaining assistance with developing systems and having clearly identified steps to guide their progress;
2. Variables such as participant qualifications, service-type and prior knowledge of Te Whāriki appeared to influence how individual provision participants [particularly those with external support], managed their representative roles. This was not evident from in-centre participants;
3. In-centre participants were most likely to report difficulties in gaining service support than individual provision participants. This was also influenced by service-type i.e., related to the volunteer nature of playcentre;
4. Variables had a greater influence on participant ability to gain service support rather than PD provision. Each service-type had their own issues when gaining service support;
5. Individual provision participants' ability to communicate with others in the service and gain service support correlated with participant qualifications;
6. In-centre participants found a number of benefits participating in training with an external consultant not linked to playcentre.

Outcomes Related To Implementation

Participants' implementation attempts were arranged through the data under four categories (a) minimal integration, (b) random integration, (c) incomplete systematic

integration, and (d) complete systematic integration. Surprisingly, participants were remarkably consistent with their attempts.

Analysis of the implementation data suggests that the extent to which participants were able to implement Te Whāriki was more likely to reflect the service-type to which they belonged, rather than the delivery model in which they participated. The category of complete systematic integration was achieved by participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] within the individual external support delivery model. The implementation attempts of participants 9, 10, and 15 [from kindergarten] from both individual delivery models were categorised as incomplete systematic integration. The attempts of in-centre participant 1 [from playcentre] was also placed within this category, however the attempts of playcentre participants were otherwise represented in category three, random integration. Implementation attempts made by individual delivery model participants 6, 8, and 11 [from Barnardos] were classified in the random integration category, while the attempts of participant 7 could only be classified as minimal integration. Participant 7 was unable to adapt existing practice as a result of her participation in the PD programme. Table 9 [p. 86] illustrates the greater significance of service-type in relation to implementation. The quantitative data from participants 4 and 5 who withdrew from playcentre are not included in this section of the results chapter.

Unlike reflection frequencies, higher qualification levels influenced the extent to which participants implemented Te Whāriki. This was evident particularly for participants within the individual delivery models. Participants with less training in the individual provision were less able to apply the technical knowledge required for complete systematic integration.

The influence of higher qualification levels on the extent of implementation was not so evident within the in-centre delivery model. The implementation attempts of participant 1 who held part one playcentre training were classified as incomplete systematic integration.

Table 9

Implementation Category In Relation To Service-Type

	Implementation Category			
Service-Type	Minimal integration	Random integration	Incomplete systematic integration	Complete systematic integration
Childcare				
participant 13				•
participant 14				•
Kindergarten				
participant 9			•	
participant 10			•	
participant 15			•	
Playcentre				
participant 1			•	
participant 2		•		
participant 3		•		
participant 12		•		
Barnardos				
participant 6		•		
participant 7	•			
participant 8		•		
participant 11		•		

Table 10 [p. 87] presents the categories of implementation combined with participant qualification levels, and service-type. The table demonstrates a predominance of Barnardos and playcentre participants with fewer qualifications within the random integration categories and those from kindergarten and childcare within the incomplete and complete systematic integration categories.

Implementation Attempts

All except participant 14 [from Barnardos] reported implementing Te Whāriki in a variety of ways within their service. The range of implementation activities included: (a) trialing adaptations to observation, planning and evaluation systems; (b) discussing Te Whāriki during centre meetings; (c) developing noticeboard displays;

(d) facilitating workshops; (e) writing and distributing newsletters; (f) distributing questionnaires; and (g) developing policies. Implementation activities trialed by participants can be seen in Figure 6 [p. 88].

Fewer implementation activities were trialed by in-service only participants. Individual external support participants trialed the greatest number of activities. External support was an important delivery feature in assisting these participants to plan and action implementation activities.

Table 10

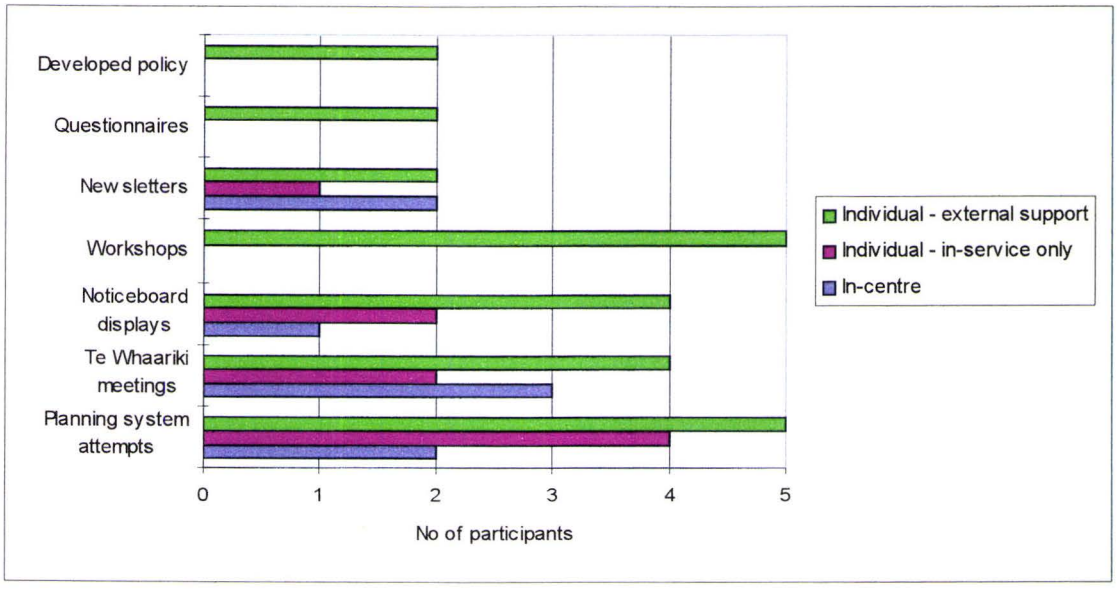
Implementation Category, Qualification Levels and Service-Type

	Implementation Category			
Service-Type	Minimal integration	Random integration	Incomplete systematic integration	Complete systematic integration
Childcare				- NZFKU Dip. - 80-120 lcsg pts
Kindergarten			- Dip. Tchng [ECE] - Dip. Tchng [ECE] - NZFKU Dip.	
Playcentre		- parts 2 & 3 - parts 2 & 3 - < part 2	- < part 2	
Barnardos	- parts 2 & 3	- 80-120 lcsg pts - parts 2 & 3 - < part 2		

The most commonly trialed implementation activity across all three delivery models involved participants altering their observation, programme planning and evaluation systems to be based around Te Whāriki, and meetings held for communicating to others about Te Whāriki and implementation ideas. Other implementation activities trialed by PD participants that were similar across delivery models were those used to convey information to others in the service. These included (a) noticeboard presentations, and (b) newsletters. Individual provision participants with external support reported that noticeboard displays proved a useful way of communicating with others. Displays offered information about Te Whāriki and how the document

was used to guide the service's programme. Only one in-centre participant reported developing a noticeboard display and needed to purchase a noticeboard to do so. Generally speaking however, particular activities were preferred by different service-types. This preference sheds light on the implementation success for some participants. Only individual external participants facilitated workshops, distributed questionnaires and developed policy using Te Whāriki.

Figure 6. Implementation activities trialed by participants from the in-centre and individual provisions.



Observation, Planning and Evaluation

According to journals, three in-centre participants and nine individual provision participants attempted to integrate Te Whāriki into programme planning and evaluation systems as a result of their involvement in the PD programme. In-centre participants frequently reported: (a) revamping daily session evaluation forms to include Te Whāriki; (b) evaluating areas of play using the goals, aims, or principles of Te Whāriki; (c) evaluating sessions using the goals of Te Whāriki; and (d) ensuring children received appropriate interactions from adults. In-centre participants 1 and 3 attempted to establish systems in their playcentres where parents gathered information about their own children in relation to Te Whāriki, however only participant 1 whose implementation attempts were classified as incomplete systematic integration succeeded in doing this. Participant 3 was unable

to gather sufficient service support to make progress in this idea, and along with participant 2, continued to encourage random exercises which increased the knowledge about Te Whāriki of other centre members.

Although incomplete at the end of the PD programme, participant 1 made structural changes to planning and evaluation processes and developed observation and planning systems relevant to her centre. Clearly the system which was developed was demonstrating links between planning cycle components. In-centre participant 1 developed a flip chart which displayed selected knowledge, skills, attitudes, and reflective questions relevant to the centre. Centre members were beginning to use a sample of these selected knowledge, skills, attitudes, and reflective questions to prompt daily session evaluation comments. The session evaluation form had been reworked to relate to relevant Te Whāriki aim headings. Information about individual children was included in these comments. Centre members were using the comments they had made to direct programme planning. This centre had begun to discuss a process of developing child profiles from the information written about individual children on daily session evaluation forms.

In-centre provision participants reported that they were "on track" when using Te Whāriki as an evaluation tool. Although in-centre participants were less likely to record child observations, they reported looking more closely at what children did at playcentre. Participant 1 commented, " I can look at a situation now and relate it to Te Whāriki. I also seem to be observing a lot more."

In-centre participants were clear that observation, planning and evaluation systems needed to be "user friendly", "not impose more paperwork", and follow an agreed association policy. Systems, according to participant 5, also had to be "conducive to maintaining the trust and confidentiality required for rural playcentres to survive."

According to participants 1, 2, 4 and 5, other centre members were also now able to recognise aspects of Te Whāriki, and more centre members were contributing to daily session evaluation forms as they gained confidence. Participant 4 reported that centre members were offering comments which described children's behaviours in relation to Te Whāriki. Participants 2 and 5 reported that the awareness level of centre members in respect to planning and evaluation had definitely increased as a

result of the work which representatives were attempting to achieve within the PD programme.

Although the majority of individual provision participants had reported conducting assessment procedures prior to the PD programme, nine participants reported increased observation skills as a result of their involvement in the PD programme. All nine reported attempting to plan from written observations.

A diversity of observation, planning and evaluation ideas were trialed by individual provision participants which were compatible to the varied philosophies. Service-type influenced how participants approached implementation. Participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] reported achieving a child centred and integrated planning system at the end of the PD programme. They reported that (a) observation schedules were systematic, (b) child profiles guided the group plan, and (c) two planning cycles had been completed by the end of the PD programme. Participant 13 reported that all of the centre's "planning loose ends were tied up effectively as a result of using the planning cycle more effectively."

Participants 9, 10 and 15 [from kindergarten] worked to establish and maintain their child observation schedules and to develop individual child profiles. These participants had begun the PD programme with planning systems which included Te Whāriki but which did not relate to child observations. As a result of the PD programme they had begun to plan from observations gathered within a Te Whāriki framework and were grouping children with similar interests or needs. These participants were starting to link child observations to promote Te Whāriki knowledge, skills, and attitudes within their planning. Participants 9, 10 and 15 however all experienced a similar difficulty in maintaining observations. Participant 10 summarised this when she said, "In a two teacher kindergarten it's almost impossible to find the space to write observations down. I'm constantly interrupted, so overall we are making slow progress."

Participants 6, 8 and 11 [from Barnardos] attempted to style their own documentation of children's records of care within a framework which had been supplied by their umbrella organisation. Participant 8 explained her attempts, "The programme is making me think about individual needs. I could attempt to incorporate the goals as well and be more detailed ... There's room for change."

Participants 6, 8 and 11 all reported observing behaviours in children more positively and closely. Participant 8 [the most qualified of Barnardos caregivers with 80 licensing points] and participant 11 [with external support] both reported on one occasion following an interest which had been observed in a child, and using Te Whāriki to extend this.

Meetings to discuss Te Whāriki and Implementation

Meetings to discuss Te Whāriki and observation, planning and evaluation were reported to have been held by all in-centre participants. For some participants, problems were apparent which have already been discussed under the service support section of this chapter. Participant 2 however reported improved meeting attendance and direction as centre members began to see the relevance of Te Whāriki and observation, planning and evaluation. Participant 5 reported her supervisory role had become more focussed as a result of more focussed meetings:

> *I have become confident in my positive promotion of the document within the playcentre and been able to use the programme to lend some weight in implementing Te Whāriki, through talking and reporting to parents. I have recently also been able to justify my limited progress and brief notes on individual children which is of great value to my work.*

Within the individual provision, pre-planned meetings with other staff to discuss Te Whāriki implementation was a favoured activity. Participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] reported increased motivation when they were paid to attend such meetings. Participants 13 and 14 reported a number of spin-offs as a result of meetings. They included (a) improved team relationships, (b) all staff contributing towards identified goals, (c) more frequent reflection on the part of all staff, and (d) staff acting more professionally toward their responsibilities. Participant 14 stated that the commitment shown by all staff supported her in her supervisory role.

In summary, the findings with respect to question one regarding the most effective delivery model in terms of enabling curriculum implementation on the part of participants, and the impact of variables such as qualifications and service-type on reflection are as follows:

1. Implementation results are largely a reflection of the service-type to which participants belonged;
2. Implementation attempts were further enhanced with external support when this was allocated to participants who held positions of authority;
3. Participants with external support [i.e., those within the in-centre and individual external support delivery models] were found to trial more activities;
4. Implementation activities trialed were preferred by different service-types.

With respect to question two of the study, the main qualitative differences between the outcomes of in-centre based as opposed to individual provision, in terms of support were that individual provision participants with higher qualifications experienced implementation success. Participants with higher qualifications were more able to apply the background knowledge and skills gained from their training. Background knowledge for some participants included prior knowledge of Te Whāriki and for all it included the necessity to have systems for observation, planning and evaluation. If participants were well placed in relation to these three variables, they moved to the implementation phase more quickly. This was not as evident for in-centre participants.

Concluding Comments

It is difficult to determine which delivery models were effective in terms of reflection and implementation, however some patterns are noteworthy. Analysing the data for both research questions it can be seen that service-type as a variable had a considerable influence on the overall results. In determining the effectiveness of delivery models when overlaying implementation patterns and reflection frequencies, only the high reflection frequency of participants 13 and 14 [from childcare] equated with a high category of implementation. This suggests a good match in terms of delivery model for childcare participants.

As demonstrated, service-type was an important variable impacting on reflection and implementation frequency. In terms of implementation only however, service support was the only variable which consistently influenced the success of implementation attempts for all participants across delivery models. Higher levels of motivation were also influenced by the service support which participants received. Higher motivation in turn gave added incentives to participant implementation

attempts. Reflection frequencies however were not necessarily influenced by participants having service support. High reflection frequencies and service support were in fact only seen with childcare participants.

Although service support and participant motivation were important across service-types for implementation purposes, additional influential variables for each service-type can be noted. Both childcare participants were positioned well in terms of qualifications, service support, prior knowledge of Te Whāriki, and existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation. It was therefore difficult to identify the most critical variables for childcare participants. Both childcare participants were also involved in the individual external support delivery model and held positions of responsibility within their centres. Childcare participants reflected more often across reflection categories than participants from other service-types. They also reported being highly motivated.

Kindergarten participants had service support, prior knowledge of Te Whāriki, and high qualifications, however their existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation were not as developed as those of childcare participants and they reported slightly lower motivation levels. Kindergarten participants also had less input from the umbrella organisation in comparison to childcare participants. Interestingly, the external support given to participant 15 [the less experienced staff member within the kindergarten] did not advance her attempts at implementation or indeed with reflection. It is difficult to know why this occurred, however, it may be that because this participant did not hold a position of responsibility in the centre, nor have active involvement from management, that she did not reflect as often or achieve implementation in its most complete sense. Although the overall results may not have been as successful as expected for kindergarten participants given their placement in terms of all variables, their reflection frequencies and implementation attempts are consistent. It is unclear why this occurred, however it may be that they would have been better suited to an in-centre same-service provision.

The implementation attempts of three Barnardos participants were classified as random integration, while the attempts of the fourth Barnardos participant [participant 7], were classified as minimal integration. Certainly a lack of motivation was a contributing factor admitted by this participant. External support directed to

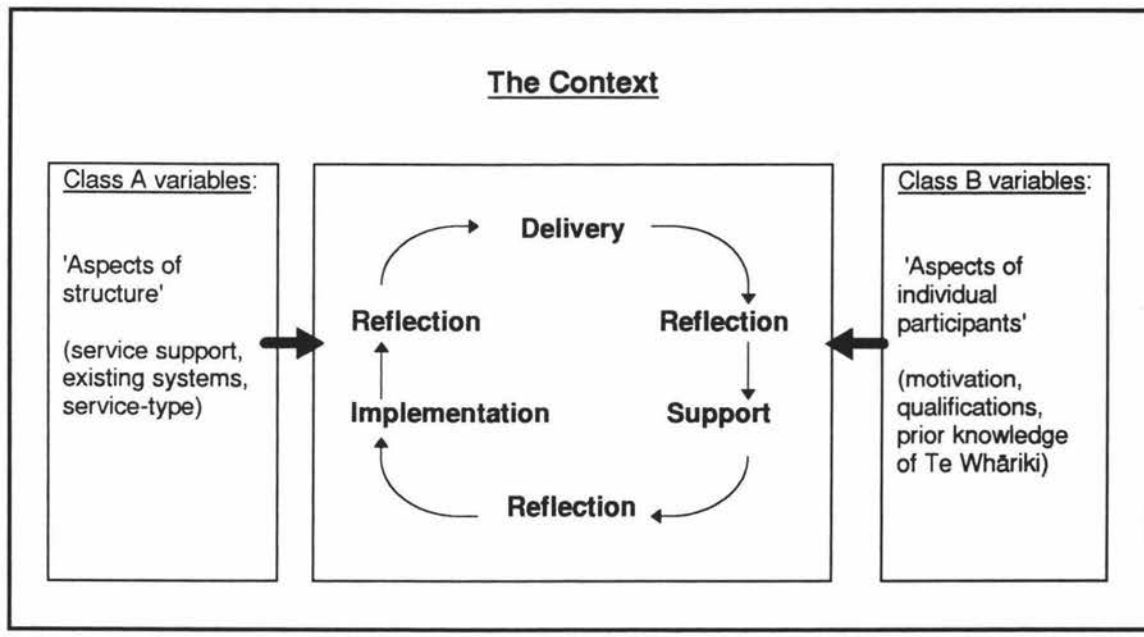
participant 11 did not affect her implementation success and minimally affected her reflection frequency in comparison to her colleagues. This highlights the need for Barnardos participants to be better placed in relation to other variables so as to impact more favourably on their implementation attempts and reflection frequencies. Barnardos participants appear to have been least well served by the individual provision.

The majority of playcentre participants spent time practising with potential components of a Te Whāriki based observation, planning and evaluation system at random, with the main objective to gain familiarity. Higher reflection frequencies were found where playcentre participants received limited support from others in the centre. Implementation success demonstrates a relationship to the lower technical reflection rates which playcentre participants exhibited. Participant 1 on the other hand demonstrated more technical rationality reflections than other participants from playcentre and her implementation attempts were classified as incomplete systematic integration. Implementation success demonstrates a relationship to the lower technical reflection rates which playcentre participants exhibited. Participant 1 reported a lack of existing observation, planning and evaluation systems within her centre, and no prior knowledge of Te Whāriki when she began the programme. She also held fewer qualifications. The most influential variables held by participant 1 which contributed to her implementation success were good service support, and motivation. This result suggests that both the variables, service support and motivation, are important for playcentre participants to succeed. This finding can be supported also by participant 4 [who withdrew from playcentre, and the study] who held 80 licensing points, and prior knowledge of Te Whāriki. She reported insufficient service support, fluctuating motivation levels because of the level of support she was offered, and was unable to implement Te Whāriki beyond random integration.

Chapter Five
DISCUSSION

Effective PD programmes encourage participants to reflect, trial ideas and make positive changes (Fullan, 1991; Guskey, 1986; Lasley, 1992; Loughran, 1999; Pultorak, 1993). It was through such a reflection and trialing process that a model describing the sequence of change which early childhood educators progress through when implementing curriculum was developed for this study. As seen in Figure 7, the model is situated within particular contexts.

Figure 7. A model to illustrate the sequence of educator change whilst engaged in professional development curriculum implementation



The Model

The six phase sequence of the model can be explained by drawing on research from a variety of sources in addition to participant reflections in this study. The model is cyclical beginning at the first phase, 'delivery'. Delivery involves participant attendance and involvement with in-service courses and/or external support visits. These opportunities provided participants in this instance to learn about Te Whāriki and discuss implementation ideas in terms of their relevance to their particular context. The delivery phase also includes the external consultant recognising the

importance of context to ensure that delivery is relevant to participants, an understanding of how adults learn and the change process, and attending to critical issues that influence long term success of PD (Foote et al., 1996; Stein et al., 1999).

'Reflection' occurs three times within the model, at phases two, four, and six. During phase two, participants reflect on the possibilities of how information gained within the delivery phase might relate to their existing practice as individuals and within their service. There is considerable literature (Abbot-Shim, 1990; Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Claxton & Carr, 1991; Strachan & Robertson, 1992) suggesting the many benefits associated with: (a) participants sharing information; and (b) opportunities to seek more information and to formulate ideas and strategies on how new information might be absorbed into one's own context. Participants consider possible adaptations to practice to fit with their particular context and may also make connections to their philosophy. Participant awareness and understanding develops during this initial reflective period as they begin to uncover "the implicit theories that have been embedded in their previous practice" (Claxton & Carr, 1991, p. 7). This process is required to be gone through before a change in practice can occur. Participants also reflect on how they might gather support during this phase.

Within the third 'support' phase, participants work toward gaining critical mass within their service to make changes to existing practice. Research on collaborative endeavour suggests that it is necessary to have a general consensus about the direction of change for implementation to successfully take place (Claxton & Carr, 1991; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Parsons, 1987; Stewart & Prebble, 1987). To achieve consensus, participants (a) work collaboratively with others in their own contexts relaying information, (b) discuss ways in which structural change might take place, and (c) make suggestions for adaptations to existing practice. Those who receive external support may also gain specific assistance from the external consultant at this time.

Participants at phase four reflect on the outcomes of the support. The level of support gained now influences the progress participants make through the model sequence. If participants have been unable to gather support, increased personal awareness and understanding as suggested by Bell and Gilbert (1994) still enables them to reaffirm an implementation path on a personal level, provided motivation still exists.

Phase five is the 'implementation' phase. This involves implementation of the new practices either on an individual level or service level, and begins with experimentation and ultimately a change in behaviour (Fullan, 1991; Guskey, 1986). This phase leads participants to the final 'reflection' stage where participants reappraise what it is they have tried to achieve. Participants (a) evaluate the effectiveness of how the service functions, (b) consider philosophical issues, (c) problem solve, and (d) provide recommendations or extensions for future implementation efforts. They "reflect on their own performance, and allow insight into it to emerge, in a more open-minded experiential way" (Claxton & Carr, 1991, p. 7). Guskey maintains that a change in behaviour or practice within the implementation phase also leads to a change in belief and attitude within the final reflection phase, hence prompting ongoing delivery and a return to phase one.

The Context

The 'context', consisting of complex social and organisational systems proposed by Jorde Bloom et al. (1991) and Stein et al. (1999), consists of two dynamic classes of variable which relate to (a) aspects of individual participants, and to (b) aspects of structure. Both classes of variable influenced the capabilities of individuals within an organisational environment, and affected how, or whether, participants progressed through the model sequence within their given context. Class A variables were those concerned with the personal aspects of individuals and included (a) participant motivation, (b) participant qualifications, and (c) participant prior knowledge of Te Whāriki. According to adult learning and teaching enthusiasts, class A variables impact on the level to which participants feel able to contribute while engaged in training (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Brookfield, 1986; Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980; Everiss, 1998; Jones, 1987; Knowles 1978, 1984; Peterson, 1987; Rogers, 1979; Smith, 1985; Strachan & Robertson, 1992). Class B variables on the other hand, related to structure and include (a) service support which assumes an infrastructure, (b) existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation, and (c) service-type. These variables are also seen as important by other researchers (Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Parsons, 1987; Stein et al., 1999; Stewart & Prebble, 1987), and in effect define the success of implementation within this study.

Such a model therefore combines the work by Jorde Bloom et al. (1991), who claim that structural, process and cultural factors are important when implementing change, with that of Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein (1971) and Smith and Keith (1971), who identify specific causes of failure for innovations within schools. Causes of failure include, for example, (a) a lack of motivation, (b) inadequate systems, (c) insufficient training, and (d) a lack of understanding or commitment among staff in relation to the innovation. PD delivery and support functions therefore need to be specifically tailored to augment the needs of individuals, maximise variables, and ameliorate any gaps or problems which exist structurally or individually within the context.

Direct issues as a result of this study which are related to reflection, delivery, support and implementation phases of the model are now discussed.

Reflection

A curriculum such as Te Whāriki assumes that educators are able to apply the technical rationality, practical action, and critical reflective skills as suggested by Pultorak (1993) to achieve complete systematic implementation. When playcentre and childcare participants particularly reflected on the work they did with parents, reflections were of a practical action and critical nature. Such reflection patterns can be seen to parallel the underpinning theories of Te Whāriki which view the child as part of a greater context. These reflection patterns however did not equate with implementation in a systematic sense for playcentre participants as they were unable to draw on existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation to help them with the implementation process.

While the development of the PD model used in this study suggests that educators pass through a reflection stage prior to implementation, reflection of any kind therefore does not necessarily lead to implementation. As Day (1999, p. 227) suggests, "reflection is a necessary but insufficient condition for change." At each reflection phase within the PD model, participant reflections may have been of a technical, practical action, or critical reflection nature, and were influenced by class A or B variables. For this reason, the interrelationship between the two classes of variable and in particular those that support reflection are of interest. It was in fact the class B variables which were important for achieving implementation. A

systematic approach [existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation], collaborative endeavour [service support], and external support were important factors toward successful implementation (Day, 1999; Fullan, 1991; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Stein et al., 1999; Stewart & Prebble, 1987; Strachan & Robertson, 1992). When combined with positive class A variables such as personal change and motivation, implementation was most rewarding for participants.

While it was not the intention of this study to investigate the quality of participant reflections, considerable research on reflection suggests that on a reflective scale, reflections of a technical nature hold less importance than others (Bull, 1992; Coombe & Battersby 1994; Kemmis, 1985; Lasley, 1992; Schon, 1983, 1987; Van Manen, 1977). Reflections categorised as practical action and critical reflection in this study appeared more directed at the needs of children, however only participant 14 as highlighted on pages 69 and 70, demonstrated Schon's (1987) highest order of reflection, that of being able to reflect on a verbal description of reflection-in-action. Furthermore, participant reflection patterns were rarely balanced across Pultorak's (1993) three categories.

It is possible when comparing the literature on reflection quality with the results of this study that researchers presuppose educators hold similar qualifications. In light of this, Pultorak's (1993) more relaxed approach to viewing reflection in terms of categories, appears more relevant within the early childhood sector where the context (Adler, 1991), varied qualification levels, and/or educator's lives (Day, 1999), have a large influence. If for example, reflective practice is an expression of educators' lives as Day suggests, then one's ability to reflect may be more to do with self actualisation and adult development, rather than qualification levels. Reflections do however clearly provide a key to particularising PD delivery models to improve participant reflection and ultimately attempts at implementation.

In most instances, participants held a reflective bias which was influenced by the philosophical base of their service-type. Grey (1974), for example, gives possible reasons for the reflective bias of playcentre personnel:

> *Not long after parents have begun this style of learning - through observing the play progressions of their children - they begin to realise that they too are*

changing. The process of noticing others draws our attention to ourselves. (p. 76)

Grey also suggests that self understanding and personal growth then become an added incentive to playcentre involvement.

The reflections of playcentre participants provide a clearer picture of the complex philosophical and structural nature of the playcentre environment for Te Whāriki implementation. Clearly, 'group think' was evident within different service-types. Playcentre participants reflected mostly at the second and fourth reflective stages of the model. Playcentre participants were most influenced by class A variables during these phases. Only participants 1 and 5 [who withdrew from the PD programme] reflected at phase six. At phase two, the majority of playcentre participants reflected on the impact of knowledge on them personally and how to pass this information on to others in the service who held (a) few qualifications, (b) varied motivation levels, and (c) no prior knowledge of Te Whāriki. In-centre participants were certain that Te Whāriki was "too complex" for all centre members for these reasons. Jorde Bloom et al. (1991) suggest that 'complexity' is a major reason for accepting or rejecting change. In the case of playcentre, if Te Whāriki is too complex for parents, it will be difficult for them to maintain an underlying belief that parents are the best educators for their children, posing a critical dilemma for the playcentre movement.

Playcentre participants reflected on the outcomes of their support attempts at phase four. They reflected more frequently than participants from other service-types about determining how to work with other centre members. Those with less service support in fact recorded more practical action and critical reflections than those with service support. When the main component of playcentre philosophy i.e., the 'parent cooperative' was not functioning effectively, reflections evidenced conflict and exhibited a strong ethical and moral base. High frequencies of reflection at the support phase for playcentre participants suggests that support rated highly in the hierarchy of variables required for implementation.

Kindergarten participants reflected more at the second and sixth phase of the model and on technical matters than any other reflection category. Their reflections illustrated a perceived need for technical assistance to meet their aims for

participating in the programme, therefore most of their reflections were in relation to class B variables i.e., how their existing systems for observation, planning, and evaluation could be developed and based around Te Whāriki. Kindergarten participants experienced few problems with convincing other educators in their service about the value of Te Whāriki because of the similar value-bases and qualifications teachers held. Reflections at the support phase from participants in the in-service only delivery model however did demonstrate a mindset that parents were not interested in being involved in what teachers were trying to achieve with implementation. If the kindergarten teachers in this study, at least, encouraged more dialogue with parents in relation to children's learning, and focused more on the principles of Te Whāriki this may have increased their overall implementation results. External support may have been beneficial to them in this regard. Instead, kindergarten participants gave brief descriptions within their journals of their implementation efforts. The reflection pattern of kindergarten participants within this study is illustrated in Appendix O.

Barnardos participants as a group reflected least of all service-types. Reflections revealed considerable personal development for individuals at phase two, but raised a number of issues related to class A and B variables such as (a) training, (b) motivation, and (c) insufficient recognition of their work within their isolated contexts at phase four. Everiss (1998, 2000) in support of the home-based caregiver predicament believes that caregivers would be less likely to view their work as low priority and therefore temporary, and be more motivated if given more relevant support, improved working conditions, and training opportunities and incentives by their organisation. Everiss' (1998) study reported that a number of caregivers thought they deserved more recognition for the work they did.

Childcare participants reflected on questions of technical rationality and they reflected more frequently than participants from other service-types within the practical action and critical reflection categories. Thus, childcare participants demonstrated a balance of reflections at phase two, four, and six and on class A and B variables. It is not possible through this study to judge how well childcare participants applied the principles of Te Whāriki, but certainly the reflective patterns of childcare participants demonstrated the capacity and willingness to grapple with such issues. While this finding is not generalisable to all educators within childcare it is clear in this study that childcare participants engaged with parents in a differer

way from other participants, and demonstrated a more balanced set of reflections across reflection categories compared to participants from other service-types.

The fact that service-types appear to have particular characteristic biases suggests that sector diversity is influenced by the training that educators receive and endorses service-type philosophies. Cullen (1996) suggests that knowledge gained through training provides educators with the confidence to reflect. Other researchers (Goddard & Leask, 1992) also emphasise pedagogical knowledge as the basis for development of both reflection and teaching. Reflections provided by higher qualified participants in this study suggest that they were more able than participants with few qualifications to synthesise new knowledge, but that some of these participants tended to reflect more in a restricted technical sense and this may be inherent in the context. In comparison, playcentre participants, many of whom held fewer qualifications, provided a range of reflections which were less technical. What they lacked was a structure for reflection which training might provide. Childcare participants demonstrated a breadth of reflections which not only linked to moral and ethical issues but also demonstrated how their technical skills allowed them to move on to concentrate on such issues. The impact of training for childcare participants is an unknown in this instance as while participant 13 was undergoing field based work, participant 14 held an NZFKU Diploma.

Reflective biases suggest that there is a wide variation of early childhood knowledge being offered by training providers. As proposed by other interested parties (Early Childhood Group, 1994), improved regulation is required to address the variation in course content and processes offered by training providers, while still enabling a philosophical range. This would ensure that all educators are equipped with the necessary teaching knowledge and skills to enable them to reflect in ways which highlight the richness of Te Whāriki.

Delivery

Researchers emphasise the role adult learning theory should play in PD (Peterson, 1987; Strachan & Robertson, 1992). Strachan and Robertson (1992, p. 57) emphasise "the active role of the learner; the provision of regular feedback during training; the employment of a wide variety of learning approaches; process as well as content; the job related and the useful and professional socialisation." Stein et

al. (1999) claim feeding into this process is the consultant or facilitator's repertoire of other strategies, namely their knowledge not only about how adults learn but about the change process, their consideration of the context for participants and their awareness of what influences long term success of PD. Delivery methods were adopted within this PD programme that reflected such a methodology and these emphasised participants working at their own pace with opportunities for clarifying, problem solving, and sharing ideas. However, adopting a learner centred approach within the in-centre same-service-type provision created a different result from that of the individual mixed-service-type provision.

Literature by Bell and Gilbert (1994) suggests that personal development precedes professional development, and determines the pace to which implementation occurs. On a personal level, in-centre participants reported increased feelings of empowerment which were gained through a same-service-type delivery model using a learner centred approach. PD delivery took a distinctly personal focus which was followed by an increased professional awareness. Satisfying the diverse needs of individual mixed-service-type provision participants was more difficult. This effect was also found in research by Gaffney and Smith (1997). Fewer participants reported feeling empowered to the same extent as in-centre participants. This may have resulted in lower implementation achievements for some participants than might have been otherwise wished.

In support of literature by Joyce and Showers (1988) and Rosenholtz (1989) who claim that shared meaning helps to make significant change a reality, in-centre participants emphasised the importance of having participants on the same 'wavelength', being able to support each other, having a basis for shared dialogue, and being able to gently move others toward making changes. Where significant philosophical adaptation was necessary to proceed with implementation, it was clear that issues related to implementation which affected playcentres were able to be debated safely within this same-service-type delivery model. In-centre participants were able to consider implementation techniques appropriate to their philosophy, which was most effectively done as a group. This in turn strengthened their own philosophical beliefs in relation to playcentre. Other researchers (Foote et al., 1996; Hampton, 2000), in their studies on early childhood PD, found that whole centre development or working as a team allowed participants to speak the 'same language'. A similar aspect occurred with a same-service-type provision.

Issues were far from generic for participants in the mixed-service-type provision and in-service courses alone were less effective in addressing the range of issues relevant to participants from each of the service-types for them to work through. Participant 12, a playcentre participant with external support within the individual provision, did not have the opportunity to be with other playcentre colleagues. This participant found herself resistant to resolving particular issues in relation to playcentre philosophy. It is difficult to gauge whether her progress toward implementation would have been improved in a same-service-type provision as her actual results were no different from three other in-centre participants. She would however have been able to work through issues with her colleagues without feeling threatened should she have been placed in a same-service-type provision.

The strength of the same-service-type provision was also evident as in-centre participants with a range of qualification levels worked constructively together to develop implementation strategies that could be used throughout the umbrella organisation. The influence of qualifications on participant value-bases however within the individual provision was apparent. Nally (1995) in her writing about PD in the early childhood sector claims that PD delivery needs to take into account the issues for varied qualification levels of participants. Individual provision participants with few qualifications were less able to contribute effectively within the diverse group while higher qualified participants were frustrated at the range of qualifications. This negativity may have contributed to a lowering of motivation levels as also found by Hampton, (2000). Foote et al. (1996) in their study on early childhood PD reported that whether participants were intolerant or not, the group mix probably affected what some participants thought they were able to achieve. Participants' ability in accepting and applying new knowledge is not surprising given the research on adult and professional development stages of individuals (Day, 1999; Katz, 1972; Oja, 1989; Peterson, 1987).

Pitching PD delivery at the appropriate level in order to encourage the development of each participant as advocated by Bell and Gilbert (1994) and Hampton (2000), is therefore difficult to achieve. It does seem insufficient particularly initially, to expect participants to be able to "take whatever threads they need from the document" and create their own curriculum as suggested by Carr (in Gleeson, 1993), without input by a facilitator. However, even if a more directive teaching approach were to have been used with the individual mixed-service-type provision, it is unknown whether

participants would have reported feeling more empowered. Differences in the value-bases of participants within the individual provision [unlike the same-service-type in-centre provision] had considerable impact on whether a large individual mixed-service-type provision was in fact appropriate.

Support

External Support

Current research now indicates that support following initial training is most crucial, while participants are experimenting with new practices as it helps "to tolerate the anxiety of occasional failures and persist in their implementation efforts" (Guskey, 1986, p. 10). Stein et al. (1999) suggest that the transfer of knowledge gained from in-service into the classroom is not a straightforward process. Without sufficient support teachers are often aware of being unable to make changes to their practice once returning to their own setting (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). Without external support, participants in this study found implementation more difficult, were less confident, and were insufficiently challenged.

In terms of implementation, external support was firstly helpful for participants when faced with 'indeterminate zones of practice' (Schon, 1987), while working through the Te Whāriki implementation process. Indeterminate zones of practice, according to Schon (1987, p. 13) involve "situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value conflict." External support encouraged participants to discuss uncertainties, kept up the implementation momentum and helped cement changes. Participants who received external support [i.e., those from the in-centre and individual external support delivery models] also trialed the greatest number of implementation ideas. Participants were able to bridge the gap between aspiration and practice, which Goddard and Leask (1992) suggest is also necessary to reflect critically. The overall impact of external support on reflection also suggests that external support motivated participants to reflect.

External support provided participants with a different perspective to their immediate environment because of the opportunity they had to share professional problems and issues with someone from outside of the organisation. "Seeing things from a different perspective may provide the answer [or a partial answer] to what otherwise

may have been an intractable problem, or an unsatisfactory solution" (Beck & Kelly, 1995, p. 20). This 'outside' perspective also resulted in asking more of participants and brought about change more quickly in a way similar to that suggested by Strachan and Robertson (1992). If the aim of PD is improved practice as a result of new learning and reflection, delivery models without external support are therefore likely to be less effective than those which offer particularised assistance.

Unlike other education sectors a distinctive feature within the early childhood education sector is that not all participants involved in PD hold the recognised benchmark qualification. Gould (1998) claims that a lack of qualifications impacts on the level of educator understanding about early childhood issues. Where participants had major gaps in their early childhood knowledge, the aims of the PD programme were frequently hijacked as the consultant was placed in the undesirable position of supplementing participant early childhood knowledge in preparation for what would ordinarily be considered PD work.

Participant motivation was increased when receiving external support, particularly when participants were able to be released from work related duties so that they were able to focus on the task at hand. ERO (2000) claims that time in the school day is already spoken for and releasing teachers for curriculum innovations often provides them with the impetus that is needed to succeed. External support eased the pressure of participant travel within a rural area, and increased the likelihood of participant attendance. However, enabling participants to attend visits without staffing concerns and finding others with adequate licensing points to cover participant release time, were issues within a rural community with few resources. Any advantages of external support soon dissipated under such circumstances as participants were not able to attend visits without feeling the PD programme brought additional pressure.

Playcentre and Barnardos participants were less responsive to external support compared to those from kindergarten and childcare. Those who held networks outside of their own service or service-type required less time to familiarise themselves with the external support feature. Bell and Gilbert (1994) suggest that when teachers isolate themselves, their opportunities for accessing new ideas and gaining feedback are restricted. Educators therefore need to be aware of the benefits of networking as an important mechanism for PD to remain informed (Rodd,

1996). Outside networks according to Goddard and Leask (1992, p. 135), will "ultimately benefit the institution." However to access professional resources outside of one's service may not be as simple as it seems. Powell & Stremmel (1989) intimate that the extent to which educators network, correlates with qualification levels.

Nadler and Tushman (1983) suggest that where a consultant works with participants at every level of an organisation, implementation efforts are likely to be more successful. Weindling (1989) adds that change management is most likely to be effective if participants involved at each level hold a role where they have responsibility for change. Two items allied to this view are worthy of mention with respect to this study. Firstly, the more experienced kindergarten participants within the in-service only delivery model may have benefited more from external support than participant 15, who as a first year teacher had other priorities. Secondly, participants working under an umbrella organisation may have felt more satisfied with their implementation efforts if those in more senior positions within the organisation had also participated and received external support. For example, both childcare participants with management support merely needed external support to increase their reflections, assist them in the change process, and to implement Te Whāriki.

Finally, Weindling (1989) advises that the work of external consultants can be put to use by helping to develop the skills of key people particularly when the internal structures are weak and when services wish to avoid additional pressure. This comment would suggest that there is a case for representative attendance when geared to the most appropriate people, however, a range of options in which external support is offered to meet the needs of a diverse education sector is needed.

Service Support [Internal]

The implementation of Te Whāriki, by way of the document's principles, calls for the active involvement of parents, management and educators in curriculum implementation and decision making process. A receptive environment therefore in which to experiment and discuss implementation efforts with others was of critical importance to all participants. Service support or, 'gaining critical mass', a feature

found important by other researchers (Fullan, 1992; Gaffney & Smith 1997; Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Prebble & Stewart, 1987), took the form of participants needing to convince others of the value of change. Implementation success for participant 1 with no qualifications or prior knowledge of Te Whāriki and limited systems for observation, planning and evaluation within her centre, can only be explained by this variable. Strategies used to gain critical mass however vary within different contexts and are discussed later in this chapter.

Jorde Bloom et al. (1991) discuss the importance of collaboration within implementation programmes. Part of a collaborative environment, they suggest, is in forming a shared philosophy, decisions, and educational goals which leads to a feeling of ownership of what is being implemented. Rodd (1998) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) agree that working together is empowering when everyone is open to and agreed on the direction of change, and when projects draw on the experience and talents of others.

The necessity of a systemic approach to planning and evaluation is also supported by researchers (Fullan, 1992; Stewart & Prebble, 1987) who suggest that prior to any structural change [which implies a system], all must be familiar with the current systems, and be part of a collaborative problem solving process to develop a new system to suit the organisation. Sarason (1990) maintains that change creates a rippling effect therefore adopting a systemic approach allows organisations to balance and connect multiple innovations. It is clear from the journal recordings of childcare participants that a collaborative approach led to staff experiencing growth and feelings of personal satisfaction as well as initiating a number of centre related changes at many levels of the organisation. Both kinds of outcomes are significant according to Fullan (1991, p. 32) as they reflect "real change."

All participants reported some kind of 'resistance' to change when working within their service. Participants who experienced little service support became frustrated in their attempts to translate reflection into implementation and their motivation levels decreased. Fullan and Miles (1992) suggest however that the term 'resistance' is not productive as it diverts attention from the real problems associated with implementation, such as a lack of direction, technical skill, or resources. 'Resistance' also immobilises people into thinking "if only" rather than as "natural

responses to transition" (Fullan & Miles, 1992, p. 748). This 'if only' scenario was certainly present among most playcentre and all Barnardos participants.

In-centre participants consistently queried how common goals for implementation might be achieved within a diverse parent cooperative. Jorde Bloom et al. (1991, p. 153) suggest that change is more difficult when "not all individuals see it in the same way." Fullan (1991) suggests that concerns about the personal costs and the energy required of individuals to learn new skills is often too great when taking on something new. Playcentre participants as volunteers had more difficulty with achieving change than those in paid employment. They experienced a lack of support from other centre members because of the additional time, energy and commitment required. Densem (1980) discusses the conflict which has arisen as a result of pressure on playcentres toward the 'professional' model with increasing responsibilities to keep their centres in operation, for example, maintaining training levels to retain government funding, while also having to take on new initiatives. Such forces impacted on the outcomes which playcentre participants achieved as many centre members needed to prioritise playcentre training over PD.

As volunteers, in-centre participants were presented also with conflict situations which related to family responsibilities that impacted on their attendance within the PD programme. This conflict produced barriers for participants in terms of their ability to produce consistent implementation outcomes, and to maintain motivation levels. Hawthorne (1994) and Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) discuss the need to consider personal aspects of peoples' lives when planning PD. Stoll and Fink (1996) advocate that change must be planned for in manageable amounts given the additional commitments of individuals. In light of this situation, playcentre participants may have tried to achieve more than they were realistically able to achieve given the demands on them over and above those related to playcentre. Noticeably, the majority of individual provision participants [particularly those in paid work] were unaffected, but if PD is to be accorded to all of the sector services, these issues require resolution so educators from all service-types can attend with minimal pressure.

Representative Attendance. Renwick and Gray (1995) suggest that the leader's role is central in the change process. According to Jorde Bloom et al. (1991, p. 31) "Leaders are required to assess current situations and structure the

change to improve conditions." Leadership qualities also imply a degree of courage and risk taking on the part of the leader (Rodd, 1996). The capacity for effective leadership appears particularly important in a changing society as early childhood service personnel cope with uncertainty and competition.

Pringle and Collins (1996) claim that organisations run predominantly by women are diverse, as is the variation of leadership styles within them. The beliefs held about leadership by participants in this study were influenced by their organisational patterns and contexts, and impacted on how representatives fulfilled their role. Such diversity reflected the complexities of representative attendance and demonstrated the variety of strategic attempts for bringing about implementation across early childhood services (Jorde Bloom et al., 1991; Kagan, 1994). Particular hallmarks influencing the success of representative attendance within this study however are noted.

Philosophical tension in relation to 'leadership' became evident for playcentre participants in their role as representatives due to an underlying playcentre ethos of 'emergent leadership' and 'empowerment'. Densem (1980, p. 78) writes about the role of the supervisor of a playcentre as a leader in relation to emergent leadership, " ... you will do your best to see that other parents develop their own talents and confidence in themselves both as parents and as people." It was this conviction that influenced the majority of playcentre participants as they followed the virtues of using slower implementation processes to allow all centre members to have an integral part in the development of the curriculum. This impacted on the pace of their progress.

According to Minnee and Couch (1991) emergent leadership involves supporting others to gain confidence so that they are encouraged to take on further roles. Rodd (1996) suggests however that leadership is far from innate and therefore more complicated within a change context. It is also insufficient for beliefs, skills and processes such as 'empowerment', 'communication', and 'conflict resolution' to be stated as commitments within an organisation (Kagan, 1994). Researchers agree that leaders must be nurtured and to a degree, taught how to be effective within a change context to turn such commitments into a reality (Espinoza, 1997; Kagan, 1994; Rodd, 1996).

As a result of PD participation, representatives initially became more informed than those not directly involved in the PD programme. Representatives required readily available channels for giving direction to others as suggested by Archibald (1975). Few playcentre participants were comfortable however to communicate or make changes as a result of their newfound knowledge for fear of retribution from other centre members because they held too much information.

Ironically, the efforts of participants 1 and 5 were the most effective in terms of instituting change in playcentre. Both participants had been given authority by the centre and used interim power-based strategies to develop systems which would later involve the support and involvement of other centre members. While it is possible for leadership to be applied in a way which may not be in accord with the principles of Te Whāriki, it is interesting to note that the implementation efforts of participants in positions of authority or, who assumed some authority on behalf of the centre, were at least in a technical sense categorised as either incomplete systematic integration or complete systematic integration, regardless of service-type or delivery model.

This study attests to the importance of personal traits participants exercised to motivate others. Participants whose implementation efforts were categorised as either incomplete systematic integration or complete systematic integration demonstrated a balance of task and people orientated skills to bring about collaboration within their service (Jorde Bloom et al., 1991). Careful selection of representatives who are able to balance leadership requirements to mesh well with individual contexts is therefore essential (Clayden, 1989).

Gaffney and Smith (1997), while they support leadership as being instrumental in the implementation process, also found that a professional approach on the part of participants was needed to modify and improve practice in response to new knowledge. In accordance with the correlation between qualifications and professionalism as discussed within the literature review, participants with a knowledge of early childhood pedagogy and practice held clearer expectations of PD, and focused on the necessary changes. Their implementation outcomes were also mostly achieved. With the exception of participant 1 with little early childhood training, participant qualifications contributed to leadership success in most instances as also suggested by Kagan (1994). PD was considered to be a

"purposeful endeavour" (Guskey, 1986, p. 6), by higher qualified participants. The link between qualifications and implementation success therefore differed on the whole from qualifications and reflection frequency.

Representative attendance encouraged the seeding of implementation ideas and also required participants to lead the change process which according to Jorde Bloom et al. (1991, p. 31) is a fine art of maintaining the "momentum, the pace, and the spirit." One of the major concerns of in-centre participants was maintaining the high motivation level required to influence change and to keep information moving through to all centre members to ensure continued support. This proved difficult for those participants who spent most of the year familiarising themselves with Te Whāriki, before they were able to gain support from centre members in preparation for implementation. Researchers (Day, 1999; Rudduck, 1991) also suggest that teachers generally find a lack of support and time for communal reflection on practice, or for philosophical discussion. Nevertheless Day (1999, p. 224) claims evidence to suggest that even if educators are provided with the time and encouragement to reflect in different ways, "they tend to focus upon the planning and evaluation of everyday practice and not the ethical-moral issues espoused by some academics." Day does however continue to discuss how these more restricted reflection patterns may be influenced by pressure from those ensuring compliance. This was particularly the case for volunteers participating in the PD programme.

Adult learning enthusiasts such as Brundage and MacKeracher (1980) believe that when participants enter PD programmes voluntarily they are less likely to feel anxious or threatened. Some participants had been pledged support by others in their service prior to their involvement in the PD programme, while others applied to participate in the PD programme as they did not want to waste the opportunity made available to them locally. Services who agreed early on in the PD programme that representatives would be responsible for initiating change and gave their representatives a clear brief (Clayden, 1989; Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991), were most comfortable in their representative role.

Playcentres however had experienced little PD and were unfamiliar with the change aspect associated with PD programmes. As participant knowledge grew this situation altered, however other centre members were unfamiliar with what

representatives were trying to achieve within the PD programme and were reluctant to participate when representatives attempted to get them involved. Other centre members were less likely to see the potential benefits of change and new ideas threatened to invalidate their current practices which they believed were still of value. According to Fullan and Miles (1992) however, systemic ownership is very unlikely to be achieved in advance of learning something new. Fullan (1991, p. 35) suggests that at the initial stages of PD "teachers are more concerned about how the change will affect them personally in terms of work in and out of the classroom." The process of gaining support for implementation was therefore destined to be one of gaining familiarity and comfort for playcentre members. In-centre representatives became frustrated at others' discomfort and prolonged timing hence were placed in difficult positions when having to 'carry' others who did not have similar commitment levels. Most in-centre participants who found it difficult to gain support from others in the service were encouraged to channel their energy into implementation activities which they could do as individuals and with small groups of interested people to achieve success. The task of encouraging all representatives and centre members to assume some personal responsibility to PD, as well as the need for them to be reflective about their participation as maintained by Duff et al. (1995), was going to be difficult to achieve for those who were not familiar with PD or, who had limited resources.

Representatives were challenged in their attempts to harness the efforts of those with lower levels of training in their services. Conflict was likely to result as those with lower levels of training both participating in the programme and within the service were less open to new ideas. Gould (1998) believes there are difficulties introducing changes to unqualified people assuming roles as educators. Childcare participants however demonstrated the need for varied communication systems to bring staff together to reflect and plan for change, which was helped by small staff groups assisting them to be successful with their concentrated efforts.

Two in-centre participants who left playcentre during the study also highlight the importance of retention within PD programmes and representative attendance. With reference to volunteers, however, Brown (1994, p. 63) indicates that it is common for volunteers to be "snapped up" or to "embark upon professional training" once they have gained a number of skills. Fullan and Miles (1992) claim that attrition can very easily eliminate small gains. To counter this situation, Weindling (1989)

suggests training more than one key person willing to lead projects who can support one another to pass on information to and gain support from others. Fullan and Miles (1992, p. 748) suggest to remedy the situation "pockets of success" must include the creation of new structures, procedures, and a culture that moves toward continuous improvement.

Playcentre participants debated the issues surrounding their need to create and retain a wider base of knowledge about Te Whāriki in their service. While the benefits of 'whole centre' PD are noted in the literature (Abbott-Shim, 1990), in-centre participants knew it was unrealistic to expect all centre members to be involved at an in-depth level. Minnee and Couch (1991, p. 334) believe that "positions in playcentre have also become more complex and time consuming. People are now reluctant to move into new positions, as they see the job as being too great." The option of in-centre representative involvement therefore provided a realistic compromise particularly for playcentres. Kindergarten participants however were clear that they would have benefited more if they had participated as whole teams. Whole centre involvement is also argued for in PD research by Hampton (2000) as the most suitable delivery for kindergarten teachers. If kindergarten staff were to participate together and receive external support, it is likely that kindergarten teachers would succeed very quickly and their involvement in a curriculum implementation programme might well require a shorter time span.

Management Support. Brown (1994) suggests that there are problems for early childhood services as they feel the brunt of a shortage of time, expenses, and sufficiently experienced personnel. A lack of resources is exacerbated for some service-types by the reality that many are governed by volunteers. When there is a coordination effort of volunteers required at all levels of an organisation to achieve implementation success, it is easy to predict the potential perils. For organisations to be successful, Wilson (1984) claims volunteers will require training for: (a) executives, staff and directors of volunteers in sound management principles; (b) paid staff to be shown how to work with volunteers, and (c) training for volunteers in skills and leadership. The benefits of such training would outweigh any disadvantages for most of the service-types participating in this study.

Nadler and Tushman (1983) insist that the greater the degree of congruence between the various levels of an organisation, the more effective are its outcomes.

Furthermore, Fullan and Miles (1992) claim that cross role grouping of an organisation works more effectively when working toward and managing change. Participant journals revealed that where management was clear about 'implementation', they helped to create a framework for implementation, and participant motivation levels were positively affected. Quite the opposite occurred for participants where there was less support between levels of an organisation. These participants experienced an element of job dissatisfaction and little collaborative progress (Stremmel et al., 1993).

Fullan (1991, p. 46) concurs that, "While change is an individual process, organisational change is often necessary to provide supportive stimulating conditions to foster change in practice." This appears to be the issue of most importance in terms of support for some service-types. The isolation of Barnardos participants within their own organisation meant that they found it difficult to gain any collaborative progress. Barnardos caregivers depended heavily on their coordinator for support, and were susceptible to constant changes made within the Barnardos hierarchy. This situation affected their (a) attendance, (b) motivation patterns, (c) perception of their role as educators, and (d) relationships with other PD programme participants. Creative structural support is therefore needed to allow caregivers to take part in further training together learning about Te Whāriki and where all caregivers are given release without loss of payment. A more cohesive infrastructure within the umbrella organisation would benefit caregivers and motivate them to reflect about their work. Evidence has emerged during the last two decades to support the importance of encouraging home-based caregivers to become part of professionally supported networks, so that more caregivers view their work as socially important and personally rewarding (Everiss, 2000). Delivery models which allow caregivers to network and which enhance the caregiving triangle and work constructively with coordinators would contribute to creating a positive "organisational culture" (Jorde Bloom et al., 1991).

Management supported childcare participants by giving regular paid non-contact time for all staff to spend conducting and analysing their child observations. This payment increased participant motivation levels. There was also some indication of an influence of a 'profit motive' in respect to motivation for childcare participants. This profit aspect appeared to increase participant motivation. Management supported the work which staff did with the aim of providing a quality programme,

which in turn would serve to increase clientele and as a result, capital. While the relationship of profit to quality early childhood programmes may not be generalisable across profit-based centres, management in these cases provided motivation for staff to work collaboratively with each other and parents. The positive approach of childcare management and policies to support the implementation of Te Whāriki all contributed toward more balanced reflection patterns of childcare participants and implementation success. Researchers (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991; Stoll & Fink, 1996) contend that a supportive infrastructure leads to an increase in teachers reflecting on their professional judgement and a more positive school culture that includes shared vision and staff collegiality.

Playcentre participants reflected on a wide range of issues which may prove favourable in the long term for them, however important organisational issues appear to affect the playcentre organisation, which without resolution, may mean lasting implementation is unlikely to eventuate. Of critical importance was the understanding of 'implementation' issues on part of the playcentre umbrella organisation. Confusion arose between in-centre participants and their umbrella organisation when it became apparent that 'implementation' might have implications for change and in particular, adopting a new perspective on individual child assessment.

If implementation is to be successful for playcentre participants, playcentres also need to have a well organised infrastructure and high commitment levels to cope with a range of activities required to be carried out in the centre. The commitment required of playcentre participants meant that substantial amounts of their own time was used to attend professional development without payment. With a scarcity of funds within playcentre, rewards for those participating in PD must be gained from elsewhere within the organisation's infrastructure. Incentives which are relevant to the particular service-type, combined with a well administered system by the umbrella organisation is needed for playcentre participants to enable them to focus and be involved without carrying additional administrative burdens. An increase in the commitment levels which playcentre participants are able to give might also occur if the knowledge gained through their involvement in the PD programme was also able to be credited toward playcentre qualifications.

While kindergarten participants fared averagely with their implementation efforts and reflection frequencies, it is likely that involvement of management and professional support personnel in the Te Whāriki implementation process would have added strength to their work.

Implementation

Participants defined 'implementation' idiosyncratically, based on their individual perceptions. According to Jordan (1996) the variation of interpretations was evident within services' observation, planning and evaluation systems at the start of Ministry of Education Te Whāriki implementation contracts, many of which appeared confused in design and practice. The range of interpretations concerning implementation therefore presented problems for consistency of implementation within the sector. The Education Review Office (1998), subsequent to the rewriting of Te Whāriki, expresses concerns regarding the variation of performance and use of Te Whāriki by service-types. As a consequence the ERO stresses the need for clear expectations to be stated within such documents to avoid the huge variance of use and interpretation by services. In this study, more consistent perceptions of 'implementation', that is, implementation activities trialed by participants, and implementation achievements, were however observed where there was commonality of service-type, and qualification levels.

Miles and Huberman (1984) suggest that one cannot assume that without extensive training, background knowledge, and experience, that people will know what to expect from a professional development programme. In this study, higher qualified participants were more open to change because they had definite expectations of the PD programme. By the end of the PD programme higher qualified participants were less likely to define implementation as assimilating new ideas into their existing practice. Instead, they planned to make changes as a result of their participation and expected that they would be provided with the resources to assist them to make changes to improve their practice. As Hampton (2000) also found in her study on kindergarten teachers' involvement in PD, training assisted participants to want to link their PD knowledge to practice. Consequently, there was a correlation between participant expectations of the programme and the implementation activities and outcomes which they reported they had achieved.

The importance of seeing oneself as a professional with the expectation that PD will prompt and assist the change process is found in research by Bell and Gilbert (1994). Bell and Gilbert suggest that development in teachers is usually private and the decision to participate in PD for improvement for whatever reason usually occurs prior to the PD programme being on offer. The decision to engage in PD occurs because most teachers want to perform better in their work and they know that PD "presents a pathway to increased competence and greater professional satisfaction" (Guskey, 1986, p. 6). Woods (1994) claims that this is because teachers have a strong sense of professionalism. Certainly this was the case for higher qualified participants who held expectations of the PD programme which were also linked to their beliefs about being a professional. Dalli (1993a) and Katz (1987) agree that in relation to the early childhood sector, qualifications run parallel to teacher awareness of the need for ongoing personal and professional growth and to the responsibilities associated with being an 'educator'.

Many participants with few or no qualifications attending the PD programme however did not consider themselves to be 'teachers'. Although participants, regardless of qualifications, experienced increased feelings of empowerment as they gained more knowledge this did not necessarily change how they viewed their own status as teachers or educators. Although Depree and Easterbrook (1991) might argue that playcentre parent are professionals, there is a clear association between professionalism and training which Depree and Easterbrook neglect when considering the research about what it is to be a professional, and how this links to the relationship between qualifications and implementation. Within such a diverse early childhood sector, a redefinition of what it is to be 'a professional' may be in order to acknowledge the skills of those without a pre-service qualification.

Participants, regardless of qualifications, wanted to develop workable observation, planning and evaluation systems which integrated Te Whāriki, which were not time consuming, and that others could learn to use with relative ease. Kindergarten participants, as also found by Wilks (1993), requested that systems developed for observation, planning and evaluation needed to be simple enough to be managed for large group sizes. Playcentre participants thought that systems needed to be practical, user friendly and bring about quick results as centre members were not all confident at paper work. Fullan (1991) highlights 'practicality' as one of the interactive factors affecting implementation. Fullan believes that without

compromising quality, participants need identified steps to progress through which include 'how to do it' possibilities.

Where observation, planning and evaluation systems were relatively well established, less structural work was required to base systems around Te Whāriki, and participants could respond positively to implementation. The efficacy of established systems tended to be present with higher qualified participants who also had prior knowledge of Te Whāriki. Participants with higher qualifications who were relatively familiar with Te Whāriki moved quickly from using a Te Whāriki substituted theme-based system described by Cullen (1996, p. 114) as "conservative press", to developing observation, planning and evaluation systems based on child profile information. This change in participant approach suggests a link between qualifications and improved quality provision. Where progress of higher qualified participants was hampered it was more likely to be attributed to the mixed-service provision and the in-service only delivery model. Limited systems on the other hand increased participant frustration levels, impacted on participants' motivation levels and ultimately restricted the outcomes which could be achieved.

In-centre participants, regardless of their qualification, had been exposed to limited information within their training about the need to plan systematically or appropriate information on assessing the development of individual children. Although they agreed that the concept of planning was important, reality often dictated a more spontaneous response in their work with children. In line with Meade's (1996) findings, in-centre participants felt most comfortable with playcentre being a place where children were able to play with other children and progress socially. The varied training levels of playcentre members, all learning in a fieldbased sense, meant that any technical knowledge was usually gained through the examples of others in the centre, rather than through established standards of quality. Gaffney and Smith (1997) also found in their study that participants with less theoretical knowledge needed more time and support to make connections between Te Whāriki and the planning process.

The pattern which emerges, is that Te Whāriki implementation requires extraordinary amounts of personal motivation on the part of participants, particularly for playcentre. Additional energy required to implement changes had to be supplied alongside other daily pressures. Fullan (1991) suggests that daily demands are

known to crowd out sustained movement gained by PD programmes. Huberman (1983) claims these daily demands exhaust the energy of teachers and limit opportunities for sustained reflection.

'Implementation', according to Fullan (1991), may take up to five years and occurs when new systems are built into the organisation. Sustained commitment therefore is required (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). A report published by the ERO (1998), highlights that many early childhood services had still not come to grips with Te Whāriki despite taking part in PD training. This study's systematic categorisation of participants' implementation efforts demonstrates the need to view implementation as a determined collaborative effort toward improvement with active leadership, rather than a familiarity exercise. The "crux of change is how individuals come to grips with this reality" (Fullan, 1991, p. 30).

Concluding thoughts from the researcher...

Naturally, the varied results of participants evokes reflection on the part of the researcher concerning her consistency of approach to participants within each of the three delivery models. Appendices K and L demonstrate in-service course and visit content and each participant's schedule of programme events. Playcentre participants were more likely to stray from the desired schedule for reasons discussed within this chapter, namely, their numerous commitments which had to be respected and accepted by the researcher.

A greater emphasis was placed by the researcher on discussing issues related to implementation for playcentre participants [regardless of delivery model]. It is therefore foreseeable that the increased levels of debate in contrast to participants from other service-types may have led to higher reflection frequencies for these participants, distorting the relationship between reflection and qualification levels. In addition to centre specific issues which were addressed during external support visits, in-service content was also followed up on. This facility was not available for in-service course only participants which possibly resulted in less emphasis on reflection by the researcher, and more reliance on participants to reflect.

Chapter Six
CONCLUSION

Research suggests that consumer needs demonstrate a need for a diversity of early childhood service-types (Allan & Critchlow, 1993; Luxton, 1995; May, 1990; Meade & Dalli, 1991; Smith, 1993). While research also suggests that the early childhood sector did not wish for a curriculum to constrain this diversity (Carr, 1996; Gleeson, 1993; Murrow, 1995), a consistency of approach to the provision of quality curriculum is required so that the needs of children are being met regardless of the early childhood service they attend.

"The evaluation evidence obtained by the Education Review Office [ERO] on schools throughout New Zealand demonstrates clearly that the skills and capabilities of teachers have a significant impact on student learning and achievement" (ERO, 2000, p. 2). Increasing interest in the issues of professionalism and improved quality practice within the early childhood sector begs the question of whether on-going PD contributes to improved teaching practice. Hatherley (1999) suggests that as the operating values of educators are understood better, the more confidence can be gained about the belief that PD initiatives make a difference. The government therefore has a major interest in ensuring the most effective kind of PD resources are available for services' use.

The importance of the current study rests on the need to provide an insight into how PD delivery models could be designed and efficiently applied to ensure that funding is distributed to meet the needs of the early childhood sector. The challenge is an exciting one, and is unlikely to have occurred had a contestable environment not been introduced. The issue concerning the discrepancy between what educators claim they value or are trained to do, and practice is well known. PD needs to assist educators despite diversity, to gain the skills, attitudes, and knowledge to understand Te Whāriki and sustain changes to their practice, so that children benefit.

Since this study was carried out, the Ministry of Education in their capacity as 'funding provider', has continued to encourage professional development contractors to evaluate the delivery models they employ. This action has resulted in further refinement of delivery models and more specific knowledge about their

effectiveness. Greater competition among services within the sector has resulted in a demand for teachers to be demonstrating sound teaching practices and to be articulating their understanding of theory. A workload increase for educators as a result of new initiatives has also resulted in the need for educators to learn new information through informative and sustaining PD.

The Research Questions

Stein et al. (1999) claim that for many years it was unknown whether what was being promoted in PD programmes was actually finding its way into educational institutions. It is now believed that delivery models comprising of particular organisational characteristics are of greater use to PD participants. Stein et al. in accordance with earlier work of Showers et al. (1987) for example, suggest that transference of newly acquired skills is difficult therefore delivery models need to be designed to ensure that PD participants are supported until transfer has occurred. As found in this study, delivery models involving external support are therefore recommended for future PD programmes.

A PD programme where participants are required to work through new ideas is likely to require a hands on discussion approach in order to work through specific philosophical issues. Same-service-type delivery models are recommended where services are required to consider their own organisational culture in developing an implementation strategy. In this study, establishing a common language for discussion (Day, 1999) [necessary for the development of any organisation] was much easier for participants to achieve within a same-service-provision.

While acknowledging the different contexts of participants, PD delivery could do more to encourage the reflective abilities of participants across each of the reflection categories as defined by Pultorak (1993). Implementation methodology must seek to produce reflection patterns that encourage participants to think beyond the daily routines and be active about issues that relate to education. In 1999, the Ministry of Education (1999b) released the publication entitled *The Quality Journey: He Haerenga Whai Hua,* in which reflection is a critical component to increase compliance levels for quality in early childhood services. This document was followed in the year 2000, by a publication relevant for home-based services. One of the more redeeming features of *The Quality Journey: He Haerenga Whai Hua*

has been the self review process described within it. This process requires reflection, consultation, implementation and the recognition of continued improvement on the part of those involved in the quality journey process.

Participants within this study demonstrated considerable commitment to implementation given the uncertainties they held concerning what implementation might involve. Reconstructed delivery models will need to take into account what is required in terms of each context, to achieve full implementation of Te Whāriki. This analysis of the variables highlights the importance of skills required on the part of the consultant. Although this study found that positive class B variables assumed more importance in implementation success, positive class A variables were found to assist class B variables in such a way that a diversity of contexts, in other PD programmes may prove otherwise.

The application of a consultancy approach appears to be easily adapted from one context to another and worked favourably with participants regardless of their qualifications and service-type. Through the promotion of an equal relationship between the consultant and participants, many of the aims of PD such as empowering participants to reflect and improve practice were able to be achieved (Day 1999). Delivery models that provide opportunities for participants to share with colleagues have been consistently reported in this study as being of benefit in (a) reducing participant isolation, (b) developing ideas, and (c) managing change. PD, according to Stein et al. (1999), should also aim toward building growing and self-sustaining learning communities for educators to participate in common activities and be active within their profession.

More recently, 'action research' has become a more favoured delivery approach enabling PD participants to bridge the gap between research and practice (Jordan, 1999). As discussed within the literature review, the most effective change in educator practice occurs when educators themselves have identified through their reflection the aspects of their teaching which they want to change and remain in control of making these changes. Without further research however, it is still debatable whether action research is the most appropriate delivery approach in all instances.

In this study, qualifications were instrumental in the curriculum implementation process. While acknowledging the richness of philosophical diversity within the early childhood sector, supportive government policies which constructively address qualification issues would assist allow participants to gain more from PD opportunities. Any key initiative such as Te Whāriki is unlikely to be successful regardless of PD participation, if its presence is not seen within the wider context. Carr and May (1996) state:

> *Issues such as funding, regulations, accountability and training policies are also part of the fabric. Te Whaariki was developed on the assumption that early childhood centres would have the funding, and the trained staff to operate quality programmes. It will not be possible for the Aims and Goals to work for children in a satisfactory way under current levels of funding and minimal regulatory and accountability requirements. The early trials of Te Whaariki have highlighted this issue.* (p. 234-235)

Additional Thoughts Regarding Delivery Models

Some general characteristics about the suitability of delivery models can also be noted:

1. Shorter, more frequent delivery times which encourage participant motivation, implementation momentum, and regular reflection, appear most suited to playcentre because of volunteer status and other commitments;

2. Consideration might be given to clustering based on the role which participants play on behalf of the service. Combined with a delivery that focused on change management, participants who were given power to work on the behalf of the service were successful with their implementation efforts;

3. Delivery models which focus on what participants currently know, might involve participants being grouped according to qualifications for some service-types. The practicalities of grouping participants in this way however are more difficult but it would allow content to be pitched at a level that would ameliorate variables and in turn suit the needs of participants better;

4. When systemic changes are required throughout an organisation, PD needs to involve people at all levels in order to creates internal conditions that will sustain change, and embed implementation priorities within an overall strategy that is understood by all (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). Depending on the service-type, flexibility in delivery models which allow participants to work separately and/or together on some issues may be required to develop an overall implementation strategy. Currently, decisions about curriculum implementation are left to individual services;

5. The implementation efforts of some participants were perceived to be thwarted because of a lack of understanding on the part of management. This indicates the need for curriculum management training. Stoll and Fink (1996) maintain that if PD is essential to school improvement, effective planning processes on the part of management is required. Participants need to be recognised for efforts and support systems must be in place;

6. It would seem unlikely that full implementation of Te Whāriki is possible as a result of a one year PD programme, particularly for services without existing systems for observation, planning and evaluation and for participants with fewer qualifications. A long term commitment from government is therefore required.

The Model

Aspects of the model devised for this study on page 95, can be validated by recent PD studies (Day, 1999; Stein et al., 1999). In recognition of the importance of context, Stein et al. suggest that PD will have little impact unless PD facilitators are able to ameliorate variables by attending to the particulars of the contexts in which educators work. Essential to the success of PD implementation then is the facilitators' understanding of differing early childhood contexts.

In relation to the PD model, participants demonstrated within the study that reflection did not always lead to implementation. One of the reasons for this was a lack of provision of internal support. Implementation attempts as a result ceased to continue past reflection phases two or four. It is therefore essential that PD participants have a clear role when participating in PD and are able to encourage collaboration and a growing ownership of the project by all. One of the problems is

that not all educators, including those in leadership positions, have the skills to lead, and many are not supported by management.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Limitations. A number of limitations to the study are acknowledged by the researcher:

1. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, it is clearly stated that none of the findings of this study are generalisable to other populations. At best they provide 'hints' of avenues for further study;

2. The data from this study are based on participant perceptions. While this provides a diverse range of descriptive and relevant responses, the data were open to interpretation by the researcher who held a dual role as researcher/consultant;

3. The researcher was restricted by what participants themselves offered and the frequency of their reportings. Attrition and attendance rates were beyond the control of the researcher. The individual circumstances of participants meant that not all participants were able to follow the same pattern of programme events. Whilst it is unknown whether this affected the results, certainly the flow of the PD programme was affected for these participants;

4. Participation in the study was based on the willingness or interest of educators to volunteer to take part. While the participant motivation variable can be assumed because of this to some extent, not all variables were equally represented across each of the three delivery models;

5. The proportion of participants from each service-type involved in the study did reflect services in this geographical area. However, results may have been different had there been an equal number of participants from each service-type, representing controllable variables within each delivery model. Further studies could address this issue;

6. As curriculum implementation was a new innovation, it would have been helpful to carry this research over a two year period. It is likely that some participants would have made more progress and contracts of a longer duration would be in more in line with research recommendations (Fullan, 1991). The time span of this study was restricted however, by one year Ministry of Education contracts at the time.

Future Research Directions. This study highlights at least eight avenues where further studies could be carried out to determine a way forward for early childhood sector PD:

1. Further research could be carried out to determine the reasons for a philosophical bias in reflection patterns demonstrated by participants. Implementation methodology must seek to produce reflection patterns that encourage participants to think beyond the limited patterns demonstrated within this study. Further studies might include the impact of *The Quality Journey: He Haerenga Whai Hua* on reflection patterns;

2. Although the concept of implementation has become clearer since this study was carried out, further studies are required to investigate beyond technical implementation;

3. Current research on effective schools suggests that a systemic implementation approach contributes toward consistency of practice, an educator mindset toward continual improvement, and higher levels of outcome for children (Stoll & fink, 1996). Due to isolated nature of the way that early childhood services operate, little research has been carried out on the ways management, parents, and educators can work together successfully toward gaining a systemic approach for curriculum implementation. This is an area worthy of investigation;

4. Contextual challenges that exist for participants would appear to highlight the need for ongoing and relevant research. Studies where methodology seeks to control variables across delivery models would highlight the idiosyncrasies of different contexts and us to understand better the values which educators hold that ultimately influence implementation outcomes and reflection patterns;

5. The voluntary participation of individuals in the early childhood sector highlights the need for research to determine the capacity of individuals to continue to absorb new directions. A recommendation within the Austin report (1999) concerning the length of the school day, is that if society seeks capable educators, that PD should no longer be a voluntary activity. Given the difficulties playcentre participants in this study experienced trying to motivate and involve centre members, the impact of constant involvement in PD on volunteers is worthy of investigation;

6. This study demonstrated that participants working in private childcare produced more balanced reflection patterns and implementation outcomes than those working within other services. Studies that focus on the influence of competition toward educator motivation would be useful;

7. Due to the limit on funds from both government and parents, further studies to determine the most appropriate way to spend funds is essential. There are a number of areas where funding could be well spent (a) training, (b) PD, (c) improving ratios, or (d) salaries, to name only a few. Research would assist the early childhood sector and government to be more discriminating and determine a direction;

8. Given the diversity of the early childhood sector, further studies on the most appropriate ways to group individuals and services for PD delivery would be beneficial. Whether action research is the most appropriate delivery approach for a diverse early childhood sector is also worthy of research particularly within contexts where there are educators, parents, and management with varied qualification and motivation levels.

Of these eight potential research avenues, three are recommended by the researcher as being most likely to produce dividends for the early childhood sector: (a) reflection patterns; (b) collaboration between management, parents, and educators; and (c) the impact of PD on volunteers. As early childhood research develops and identifies more appropriate methodology, the sector can only improve on what it offers children and families.

GLOSSARY

centre members	The term used for playcentre parents whose children are enrolled in playcentre and who are not paid staff members.
Department of Education	The Government department responsible for the education sector leading up to the 1989 education reforms. Functions of the Department were split as part of the 1989 reforms and allocated to the ECDU and MoE.
Diploma of Teaching [ECE]	This is an early childhood qualification taking three years of full time study or its equivalent. Until 1997 it was only available through Colleges of Education.
Early Childhood Development Unit [ECDU]	The Government organisation responsible for a wide range of functions one of which is professional development. Now known as Early Childhood Development [ECD].
ECE	An abbreviation for early childhood education.
Education Review Office [ERO]	A Government organisation established under the 1989 education reforms [initially titled the Review and Audit Agency], responsible for ensuring accountability within schools and early childhood services.
licensing points	A system introduced by NZQA in 1990 after the NZFKU Diploma was upgraded to the new benchmark qualification, a Diploma of Education [ECE]. The point system was designed as a transition mechanism for those who held a recognised qualification. Licensing points were granted to early childhood educators undertaking training through an NZQA approved training provider. Educators must have completed a single qualification worth at least 30 licensing points to accrue further points. Prior to this time, recognised qualifications for working in an early childhood service included; a college of education childcare certificate, a playcentre association supervisor's certificate, or a Karitane Nursing Certificate as three examples. These qualifications were translated into points depending on years of study, level of difficulty and practicum. The Diploma of Education [ECE] was awarded 120 points, the highest number.

Ministry of Education [MoE]	The Government organisation established under the 1989 education reforms charged with providing policy advice to the Minister of Education, overseeing the implementation of national policies, negotiating charters, and providing funding for a range of purposes.
New Zealand Free Kindergarten [NZFKU] Diploma	Qualification awarded to kindergarten teachers trained at a Teachers' College prior to 1987. Superseded by the three year Diploma of Teaching [ECE].
New Zealand Qualifications Authority [NZQA]	The Government organisation established in 1990 responsible for approving training courses and training providers, and coordinating the development of unit standards on the NZQA framework.
part 1 & 2 playcentre training	These are playcentre training modules without recognised qualification status. The first recognised playcentre qualification allocated licensing points is assistant supervisor level [part three].
PD	An abbreviation for professional development. A term often interchanged with teacher development, staff development, and in-service training.
service	The term used within this study to embrace all early childhood organisations e.g., an early childhood centre such as a childcare centre, or an umbrella organisation such as family day care.
service-type	The term used in this study to describe a type of early childhood service that identifies with a particular philosophy e.g., kindergarten, playcentre.

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Appendix A.

Tēnā koutou katoa
Ngā mihi nui ki a koutou

My name is Tracey Lidington. I have been involved working in the early childhood education sector for 15 years. Since training as a kindergarten teacher, I have taught in a number of kindergartens in the North Island.

I was then employed by the Auckland Kindergarten Association as one of eight Senior Teachers. My workload involved giving professional advice and support to 20 kindergartens and employing associations.

In 1991, I left Auckland to work in Palmerston North for the Palmerston North College of Education as a lecturer within the Early Childhood Education Department. For the last three years I have worked for the College in New Plymouth, lecturing and coordinating the Early Childhood Diploma Course, Off Campus. Other responsibilities for college have involved lecturing in the Professional Studies and Equivalency Programmes.

Early Childhood curriculum development is a long term interest, and I am excited about being more involved in this area through this contract work. This year, I will also be working on a thesis through Massey University, which will combine well with Ministry contract work.

I hope to hear from you soon.

Appendix A continued.

Commitment and costs to Centres / Individuals

This service is free. All travel and payment for relievers will be reimbursed.

Most resources that services/individuals require will not exceed what would normally be needed for yearly curriculum planning.

Services/individuals will need to be prepared to give some of their own time for this work to succeed.

Services/individuals will need to sign a consent form which relates to the research component of the programme, and will confirm their commitment to the programme for 1995. Forms will be offered subsequent to selection.

Services/individuals will need to be "ready to roll" at the start of the new year.

For further information

Please contact:

Tracey Lidington
26 Bonithon Avenue
NEW PLYMOUTH

Ph/fax: (06) 758-7415

I would be pleased to be invited to discuss with any early childhood service any further information that may be required.

I will be shifting house and moving to South Taranaki mid January. A contact number will be left with Teachers' Support Centre in New Plymouth,
Ph: (06) 758-6217.

A New Professional

Development Programme

for

South Taranaki

Early Childhood Curriculum

Te Whāriki

February to November 1995

Be a participant and make this **local** professional development opportunity your priority for 1995 !.
Phone to participate now!

Appendix A continued.

General Information:

The Ministry of Education is funding the implementation of Te Whāriki in licensed early childhood services in New Zealand from 1995. A variety of professional development delivery models and approaches are to be trialed to determine which are the most effective for the early childhood sector.

South Taranaki services/individuals, from Stratford to Waverley are invited to participate. A selection process will occur should there be too many applications. Services/individuals are able to opt into this programme for their needs specific to Te Whāriki, and continue with existing professional development support and in-service providers for other needs. However services/individuals are unable to apply for Te Whāriki work with more than one Te Whāriki contract provider.

This programme will also operate in conjunction with a personal study on professional development delivery models. Participants will be given the opportunity to be involved in evaluating the programme through writing journals and being interviewed.

There are three delivery model options offered:

Strand One

- Consists of seven services of one service-type i.e., Childcare. The professional development programme will be targeted to that service.

- A plan will be developed in consultation, to assist each service in the implementation of Te Whāriki over the year.

- Five in-service opportunities will be offered. All participants will have an in depth opportunity to focus on Te Whāriki. Each in-service opportunity will build on the one before. Courses will assist in implementing the service's plan.

- A total of four in-centre support visits:
  - 1 x to consult and develop the service's plan;
  - 2 x to respond to each service's needs; and
  - 1 x to evaluate the programme.

Strand Two

- Consists of 18-20 individuals from a variety of service-types

- Each individual will be offered:
  - Five in-service opportunities that focus on the implementation of Te Whāriki.
  - Five individuals from this Strand may opt to receive four support visits

Appendix B.

14th February 1995

Kia ora

I am please to advise you that you have been selected into Strand _____of the Te Whāriki Curriculum Professional Development Programme. Thanks for your interest.

Seven playcentres have been selected into Strand One and 19 individuals into Strand Two. Each strand will operate independently and receive separate in-service courses, at times and venues which suit the participants. The list of participants is enclosed.

You will be contacted shortly regarding the first in-service course. Costs for relievers, or people to cover the time while you are involved in the courses, and support visits [if applicable] will be available.

Thanks again.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix C.

14th February 1995

Kia ora

I regret to advise you that due to over subscription, you have not been selected into the Te Whāriki Curriculum Professional Development Programme.

Thanks for your interest. Should there be another programme in the area next year, I hope that you will apply.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix D.

Professional Development Programme

Early Childhood Curriculum

Te Whāriki

Participant Consent Form

I /We ..... agree to participate in the *Te Whāriki* Professional Development Programme, provided by Tracey Lidington throughout 1995.

In signing this contract, I/we understand that the information gathered will be used for a university thesis research. I/We also understand that the results from this programme will assist the Ministry of Education to develop further professional development programmes within the early childhood sector.

I/We understand that I/we have the right to ask questions at any time, to withdraw from the study, and to decline to answer any particular questions.

All research will be carried out with sensitivity and information will remain confidential to protect each participant. I/We understand that names will not be used without my/our permission.

I/We also understand that any written work relating to the research is available on request.

Centre name/individual: _____

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Contact phone number and address:

Tracey Lidington
[redacted]

Phone / fax: (06) 278-8801

Appendix E

Application Form

(1) I _____ am willing to participate in journal writing, to provide additional information on the effectiveness of this programme. I understand this information will be used for research purposes, and that all clauses within the consent form will apply.

(2) Please state your early childhood qualification or the training you have received to date._____

(3) Applies to Strand Two only:

I would like to volunteer for external support provided by this programme for the year, to implement Te Whāriki. Yes / No

[Please circle]

Appendix F.

2nd April 1995

Kia ora

I am please to advise you that you have been selected as one of the fifteen participants to write journals to evaluate the effectiveness of the Te Whāriki professional development programme. Thanks for your interest.

Enclosed is your journal and guidelines for writing comments.

In the meantime, please could you consider and reflect upon the guidelines for writing journals provided.

More information and opportunities for discussion will take place either at the first in-service course or support visit [whichever is applicable].

Thanks again for your interest. The information will be valuable in helping to gain an insight into more effective delivery of professional development.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON.

Appendix G.

2nd April 1995

Kia ora,

I regret to advise you that you due to a large number of applicants, you have not been selected to write a journal to evaluate the effectiveness of the Te Whāriki professional development programme.

I would like to thank you however for your interest and support.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix H.

2nd April 1995

Kia ora

This letter is to confirm you as one of the five individuals selected to receive external support within the professional development programme Te Whāriki. Thanks for your application.

Please ensure again that all involved in the service are happy for me to visit. There will be four support visits in total throughout the year.

Finances are available to pay relievers or people to cover while you are involved in support visits. Hopefully, this will prevent any major disruptions to the service at these times.

Thanks again.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix I.

3rd April 1995

Kia ora

Thanks for applying to receive external support with the professional development programme Te Whāriki, as indicated on your questionnaire.

Unfortunately due to oversubscription, it is with regret that you were not one of the five participants selected to receive this service.

I will do my best however to meet your specific needs through the in-service courses.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix J.

14th May 1995

Dear _____,

I would like to invite you to participate in an interview about your experiences this year while participating in the Te Whāriki programme. This interview information will be used as data for my Masters thesis.

Little preparation would be required on your part, as the interview will focus on the aspects you have already raised in your journal.

The interview will be scheduled for December and will take approximately one hour. It can be held at a venue which suits you.

I will contact you around mid November to check whether you are available and will post you a copy of the questions at this time so that you can familiarise yourself with them in relation to your journal.

Thanks.

Yours sincerely

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix K.

In-service Course and Visit Content

	In-service Course	Visit
1.	Introduction to Te Whāriki what is Te Whāriki; it's origins; structure and layout; aims and goals; MoE contract; research aspects; year's direction.	initial consultation.
2.	Observation, Planning, Evaluation the planning cycle.	fine tune implementation plans; planning cycle possibilities; discussion on reflection reflective writing, consultation with parents and management regarding implementation plans for participants 1, 5, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15.
3.	Reflection research the reflective practitioner reflective examples within Te Whāriki	devising system for child profiles and ways to include parent participation for all participants except 2, and 12; participants 2 and 12 continuing solely to look at ways to involve parents in knowing about Te Whāriki.
4.	Observation rationale techniques examples realities establishing a cycle child profiles knowledge, skills and attitudes	participants 1, 5 and 15 fine tuning systems; participants 13 and 14 reviewing new system; participants 2, 3, 4 and 11 familiarisation workshops for parents/caregivers and convincing others of merits of a planning system; participant 12 discussing essential elements of a planning system; evaluation of the year's progress.
5.	Planning and Evaluation rationale techniques examples realities knowledge, skills and attitudes evaluation of year	

N.B. Visit content was dependent on the individual's pattern of in-service course attendance and service needs.

Appendix L.

Timeline of Programme Events

	March Event 1	April Event 2	May Event 3	June Event 4	July Event 5	August Event 6	September Event 7	October Event 8	November Event 9
In-centre									
Participant *1	In-service	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit
*2	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit
*3	In-service	In-service	Visit	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit
*4	In-service	In-service	Visit	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit (absent)	In-service	Visit (absent)
5	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit (absent)	In-service (absent)	Visit (absent)
Individual - In-service only									
Participant 6	In-service	In-service		In-service		In-service		In-service	
7	In-service	In-service		In-service		In-service		In-service	
8	In-service	In-service		In-service		In-service		In-service	
9	In-service	In-service		In-service		In-service		In-service	
10	In-service	In-service		In-service		In-service		In-service	
Individual - External support									
Participant *11	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit	Visit
*12	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	Visit	In-service	In-service	Visit
13	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit
14	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit
15	In-service	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit	In-service	Visit

* variation

Appendix M.

March 1995

Dear

Thanks again for offering to take part in journal writing. The purpose of you being part of this process is to assist in the investigation and comparison of what in-service programmes are better suited for the early childhood education sector. I will be using this information for a University thesis.

In order to gain the results needed for the research, it will mean that your commitment to this process will be desired until the end of the programme. Should there be any problem with this, please let me know.

The exercise book enclosed with this letter is to be used as a journal. Please record your comments in this book each time you have contact with the programme i.e., in-service courses, or support visits. Please also make comments in your journal when you consider them to be relevant and/or when you have made changes to your work as a result of your involvement in the Te Whāriki programme. Evidence of change in your work as a result of your involvement is very important to mention, as well as any comments that reflect your thoughts, actions, and feelings about the implementation process. A record of any discussions that you might have that are related to implementation, would also be a helpful record.

In order for me to have ongoing feedback, please post me this journal on the 1st of July, and the 15th November, 1995.

Please date all of your journal entries. Thanks.

Yours faithfully

TRACEY LIDINGTON

Appendix M continued.

The following information should give you sufficient guidelines for journal writing. If you need help, don't hesitate, please ask.

1. Please provide the following information in the front of your journal:

- the early childhood service to which you belong, e.g., Barnardo's, playcentre;
- any early childhood training/qualification that you might have. This may be stated in points and/or by title. If you are working towards a qualification please state that qualification. If your qualifications alter over the year, please note the developments in your journal;
- where you first heard of Te Whāriki, what you knew of Te Whāriki, and how if at all you were using Te Whāriki in your work before you began the Te Whāriki programme;
- how you became involved in this programme, what you thought it was about, and what services you thought you would receive through your involvement.

2. Please write down your short term and long term expectations of the programme. They will be helpful to refer to at a later date.

3. There are four questions to answer on the following page. Please answer them each time that you have contact with the programme or when you consider change to have occurred as a result of the programme. Underneath the questions are some possible areas for you to focus on that might be useful to help you provide answers to the questions. If you have thoughts in addition to those that I have suggested, please record these as well.

Please contact me if you need to ask me any questions. Thanks again.

Appendix M continued.

(i) How well is the programme going for me?

- how suitable is the delivery, i.e., the professional development package that I am receiving?
- what are the costs/benefits to me for participating, i.e., the difficulties or problems I am experiencing, as well as the gains I am making as a result of my involvement?
- how effective is they delivery that I am receiving? What works well? How does it support me to implement Te Whāriki? How could my needs be met more effectively?
- how much of a priority is the programme for me/the service?
- what are the problems or issues that I experience?
- is the programme what I thought it would be?
- is the programme meeting my expectations that I have identified above?

(ii) What skills, knowledge and attitudes have I gained/yet to gain?

- e.g. more content/implementation techniques/change management techniques/personal shifts/philosophical shifts

(iii) What have I done in my service as a result of my participation?

- which of my practices lead me to believe that I am implementing Te Whāriki?
- what are the factors that influence: how I work; the things I do; some of these practices?
- is there room for change with some of my practices? how might I do things differently?
- how does this programme support me to effect change in myself?

(iv) What have been the benefits of these changes for me and my service?

- in what ways have I been able to effect change in my service?
- what kinds of changes have been easy to achieve and which have been more difficult? Why?
- what are the planned changes/effects as a result of participating in this programme
- what are the unplanned changes/effects as a result of participating in this programme?
- who benefits from the information I gain in the programme?
- am I the most appropriate person from my service to be involved in this programme?

Appendix N.

Interview Questions

Q. What were the features of the programme which facilitated positive results?

Q. What were the limiting features of the programme, or, the features which prevented implementation?

Q. Can you discuss outcomes you achieved from the programme - either positive or negative?

Q. In what ways did the programme encourage you to reflect?

Appendix O.

Examples of Coded Journal Entries

EXCERPTS FROM JOURNALS:	NOTES	OUTCOME	MODEL SEQUENCE	REFLECTION	IMPLEMENTATION ANALYSIS
Participant 1:					
November: The programme is going well for me. I have learned a lot. It has encouraged me to further my training. I have completed part one and two and have begun some part three and four workshops which will see me as a supervisor next year.	experiencing personal and professional growth	motivated by PD programme	reflection	technical rationality	
There is still a lack of interest with some parents, but the way we have organised the planning and evaluation forms and the flip charts to go along with it, it is a lot easier for people to write things down, and to see what is needed. They weren't writing anything before.	centre members beginning to contribute	increased participation of others	support	technical rationality	
We have begun using the knowledge, skills and attitudes with our forms as a basis for observing, planning and evaluating. They are printed up and put in with the reflective questions so that they are user friendly too. We are starting to write about individuals.	system in place	structural change - established a system for ob. plan. and eval.	implementation	technical rationality	incomplete systematic integration

Appendix O continued.

EXCERPTS FROM JOURNALS (continued)	NOTES	OUTCOME	MODEL SEQUENCE	REFLECTION	IMPLEMENTATION ANALYSIS
Participant 4:					
June: Quandary - OK to assess for a special need in p/c, however, what happens to all other children? Do all children have special needs to be met? Would like to look at this more.	thoughts about assessment	increasing comfort with assessment	reflection	critical reflection	
Looked at some reflective questions in the Waterplay - exploration. Discussed how we could perhaps use some of these questions [and examples for toddlers etc.] to implement changes in line with p/c philosophy into areas of play, if necessary.	using 'one off' examples to familiarise	explored document	implementation	practical action	random integration
Participant 6:					
November: To be fair, I should say that I got out of this course what I put into it, which was very little. This is not a criticism of the course but more of my lack of enthusiasm and effort.	motivation issues	no structural changes made	reflection	technical rationality	minimal integration
Participant 9:					
June: We have been observing children as individuals... we now can group individuals with similar interests to extend the programme for them. This is difficult - something's missing. We also find it difficult to group children without thinking firstly about the 'old' physical, social, cognitive etc skills.	system in place	structural change - established a system for ob. plan. and eval.	implementation	technical rationality	
We have set up displays of Te Whāriki aims and goals and attempted to discuss them with the parents...As long as their child is happy at kgtn, they do not want hear about Te Whāriki.	attempts to inform others	difficulties communicating with parents	support	technical rationality	incomplete systematic integration

Appendix O continued.

EXCERPTS FROM JOURNALS (continued)	NOTES	OUTCOME	MODEL SEQUENCE	REFLECTION	IMPLEMENTATION ANALYSIS
Participant 13:					
July: As a result of our last visit, our centre decided to do more incidental observations as running records were time consuming. We had been constantly questioning the purpose of all this?	improvements to ob. plan. and eval. system	structural change - trialed new practices	implementation	critical reflection	
We now have more up to date information on each child, and the incidental observations are also providing us with a way of evaluating the programme to ensure it is meeting the needs of the children.				technical rationality	
Policies are being written using reflective questions in Te Whāriki. We have found that other members of the staff can be involved which means that they are carried out in practice as staff understand them.	broader use of Te Whāriki	used Te Whāriki to write policies	implementation	technical rationality	
Policies are not as wordy. This encourages parents to read and question them so we can come to some agreement, which is an important process in putting policies into practice.	parents beginning to contribute	increased participation of others		practical action	
August: We are close to completing the full cycle of our programme plan. We have observed all children in age/stage groups. We have identified a common need/strength for each group. We have identified goals from Te Whāriki in relation to these needs/ strengths. We have established a programme plan that meets the needs/strengths. Incidental observations give us some indication as to how the programme is going.	ob. plan. and eval. system in place	ob. plan. and eval. system actioned	implementation	technical rationality	
We have had a good response from parents and they are keen to add information to child profiles. Parents are commenting on how they are pleased that we are meeting their child's needs.	parents beginning to contribute	increased participation of others	support	technical rationality	complete systematic integration