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Time-sensitive Change: Leaders' and Stakeholders' Perspectives

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Time-sensitive Change:

Leaders' and Stakeholders' Perspectives

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Time-sensitive Change: Leaders' and Stakeholders' Perspectives" submitted by Linda Marie Dudar in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Abstract

This study investigated time-sensitive change in schools that had been successfully accomplished in shorter timeframes, namely, a period of three years or less, than those timeframes suggested by scholars in the field with the view to explore the conditions, processes, and leadership behaviors that promoted successful, time-sensitive, complex changes. The rationale for this study was underpinned by the fact that increasingly school leaders are being expected to bring about faster-paced change in order to meet the ever-changing demands of their educational system and the global needs of society.

The research was focused predominantly on leaders' perspectives but also included other educational stakeholders, such as, teachers, students, and parents who were involved to varying degrees in the time-sensitive change in their school. The conceptual framework encompassed four related areas: leadership, organizational change, time, and stakeholders' perceptions of change.

This study was oriented within the pragmatic paradigm with a constructivist orientation; that is, the researcher was "more interested in the views, values, beliefs, feelings, assumptions, and ideologies of individuals than in gathering facts and describing acts" (Creswell, 2012, p. 429), and utilized mixed method design including questionnaires and interviews. A total of 111 respondents (representing the perspectives of superintendents (n=4), principals (n=39), educators (n=25), students (n=21), and parents (n=22). There were 39 questionnaires returned by principals and of these 16 participated in in-depth interviews. There were four school districts representing urban, rural, and remote contexts encompassed in the data collection. There were eight schools included in the 360° stakeholder

perspective interviews. Focus group interviews were conducted with educators, students, and parent stakeholders to explore their perception of the change process.

There were four key findings which indicated:

- Time-sensitive changes were necessary, successful, and effective even when these were complex and difficult;

- Complex time-sensitive changes required essential elements, many of which were common to different change implementation processes, in order to be successful;

- Time-sensitive change was perceived to be sustainable, transferable, and repeatable; and

- Leaders of successful, complex, time-sensitive change exemplified strong intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and usually had substantial previous leadership or change experience.

Resulting from this research, this researcher conceptualized a model for rapid change processes for leaders. This model entitled "the rapid change model" emerged as a possible guide or framework to inform and guide leaders who are similarly faced with expectations to bring about rapid change within their school context. The components involved with the rapid change model include 1) knowledge surrounding the identification of needed change and demands; 2) leaders' metacognition and self-evaluation for change; 3) change visioning; 4) the change process; 5) monitoring and evaluating the change process; and 6) 'sustainability' and 'sustainability considerations' if deemed necessary.

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I dedicate this research work to our dear sons Paul and Mark. May your bearing witness to this effort be an inspiration for continued learning in your own

life journey. Thank you both for your love and support and I love you both so much!

Randy, you have always been so amazing as my husband and best friend! Your love, generosity and support have touched my heart and there are no words to describe how much you mean to me. I love you and thank you!

God, grant me serenity to accept

The things I cannot change

Courage to change the things I can

And wisdom to know the difference

Amen

Dedication

Dedicated to our dear sons Paul and Mark

With my love, thanks and best wishes

for your future endeavors.

May you always be inspired to learn,

help others, take care and love each other.

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

Background and Context

The accelerated pace and demands of society have placed significant expectations, including the implementation of necessary changes, on educational leaders over the past decade (Fullan, 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Webber, Lupart & Scott, 2012). Alberta has been acknowledged for its high educational rankings throughout Canada and the world and required changes to accommodate global needs and a changing environment have been emphasized by political leaders and filtered through district and school leaders to stakeholders (Statistics Canada, 2012).

Implementing educational changes have been viewed as a complex and time-consuming task with completion times for change implementations ranging from three to ten years (Fullan, 1998, 2005; Burke, 2008). Some researchers have grim hope for change success due to the complexities associated with change (Evans, 1996). Educational changes involve initiatives such as new programs, people, and most often both programs and people resulting in multiple implementations of change for success (Nevis, Lancourt & Vasallo, 1996). Although much has been written in the area of change, there appeared to be a gap in relation to whether or not time-sensitive change was possible, and if so, what processes would facilitate more efficient change within this demanding school context (Darling-Hammond, Lapointe, Meyerson, Orr & Barber, 2009; Fullan, 2007; Leithwood & Strauss, 2009). This study examined time-sensitive change from the perspective of leaders who were charged with the change, namely, teachers who frequently were charged with the implementation of the change

process, students who were the recipients of the change, and parents who were concerned with the educational context. Educational stakeholders are an important group in Alberta and are vocal and involved schools, districts, and at the governance levels.

The Alberta ministry of education, Alberta Education, supports the needs of students, parents, teachers, and administrators from early childhood schooling through to grade twelve. Their role includes the development of curriculum and assessment of outcomes; provision of teacher development; support of special need students; provision of funds to school boards; support of aboriginal and francophone education; management of the Alberta Initiative for School Improvement (AISI); and oversight of basic education policy and regulations (Government of Alberta, 2012a). The Teacher Quality Standard Framework and the Principal Quality Practice Guidelines were developed to support the leadership role of the teacher and principal, respectively (Alberta Education, 2008; Alberta Education, 2009; Ministerial Order (#016/97), 1997). Alberta Education expects stakeholders such as parents, and community members, and students to collaborate to improve services, as well as, to provide feedback on educational matters. Various other educational stakeholders include the Alberta School Boards Association, Alberta School Councils' Association, Alberta Regional Consortia, The Alberta Teachers' Association, The Association of School Business Official of Alberta, and the College of Alberta School Superintendents. These Alberta Education Partners (2011) also collaborated to provide support toward a culture of learning and to "develop a shared understanding of and commitment to their roles and responsibilities to support implementation" (p. 1). Educational leaders,

therefore, are expected to maintain a high level of student achievement and do this with the support from their educational stakeholders (Hughes, 2010).

Assumptions.

This doctoral research was guided by four main assumptions. First, change is a part of 21st century life that has been impacted by globalization, increased societal expectations for high quality education, and the resultant shift to increasing the impact of instructional and assessment practices (Klinger, Maggi & D'Angiulli, 2011; Lieberman & Pointer Mace, 2008; Scott & Webber, 2012). Change is not new and will always be part of the education scene (Burke, 2011; Hargreaves, 2007). When new knowledge or strategies become available, leaders tend to alter their practices when evidence indicates there are more effective practices (Perkinson 1984). Popper describes this as "trial and error" whereby principals will change when some better approach or practice comes along. Change involves altering people's beliefs and behaviors which difficult and complex whereas processes or initiatives are less so (Burke, 2011; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1991; Guskey, 1986; Sergiovanni, 2009; Senge, 2006).

Second, leadership is an essential aspect of effective schools (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Leithwood, 2007). In order for leaders to be successful in designing, implementing, and evaluating change they must have specific capacities, professional skills, and strengths (Fullan, 2002; Sergiovanni, 2009; Siccone, 2012).

Third, time is a perennial issue in schools – generally related to the lack of this commodity, but also highlighting the importance of time to all, particularly teachers and leaders (Hargreaves, & Fullan, 1992). Linked to the issue of time is that change is a process not an event and therefore requires time (Guskey, 1986; Fullan, 2002; Leithwood & Strauss, 2009; Schwahn & Spady, 1998). Fullan (2001), Burke (2008), Senge (2006), and Mulford (2004) indicated that complex change may take years to accomplish particularly when it entails altering organizational cultures. However, with the complexity of our contemporary society many leaders no longer have the luxury of time which increases their level of pressure in the educational system to bring about rapid change. These assumptions identify the important aspects of the change literature which are pertinent to this research and to the discussion of the findings from this study. These assumptions also guided the formulation of the conceptual framework (see Figure 1-1) which in turn provided a structure for the literature review.

Purpose.

This doctoral study explored the perceptions of school leaders and their school-based stakeholders with respect to the lessons learned about instituting and implementing time-sensitive changes within school contexts in Alberta. In recent years, many principals have been expected to bring about changes in: the implementation of school curriculum; the quality of teaching, learning, and assessment practices of their teachers; school culture; timetabling and programming; and/or school operations; faster than previously expected. This expectation for greater efficiency has raised many questions about whether or not fast-paced change is possible, viable, desirable, effective, and/or sustainable. Hence, this study explored leaders', teachers',

students', and parents' perspectives of the success of various change initiatives established and completed within three years or less in schools in Alberta, Canada.

As timeliness is imperative in meeting the needs of our fast-paced society, this research sought to identify the processes involved in bringing about time-sensitive change in order to provide guidance, and specific strategies and processes suitable for other school and system leaders faced with similar demands and expectations to create time-sensitive change. This knowledge will be beneficial to stakeholders of education who are constantly seeking ways to improve the educational system in a more timely manner.

Problem.

Throughout history, leaders have made significant contributions to society and have been committed to meaningful causes (Fink & Brayman, 2006). Over the last several years, educational leaders have been at a breaking point due to the challenges with managing expected changes in addition to the many and varied demands already placed on their leadership roles (Sergiovanni, 2009). Leaders frequently entered the profession with the belief that they were well prepared with all the necessary requirements of education, practice skills, and experience to be successful and this commitment has been evident of leaders over the years (DuFour & Eaker, 2004). However, due to the increased expectations placed on the leader, the accelerated pace of society, and the complexities involved with change, the task of being a rapid change agent has become extremely difficult (Caldwell, 2006). An unsupportive reform environment is one of many reasons why change may not be successful (Hargreaves & Fink, 2000). The organizational structure and the participants must be aligned with the

school vision to support productive and constructive change (Schwahn & Spady, 1998). Other reasons for a lack of change success include lack of a compelling purpose, incorrect development, timely implementation, misalignment of change participants, and misalignment of the organization. Other reasons that contribute to lack of success include the fast speed of the change, poor or absent leadership, a flawed approach and/or facilitation of the change, the dimension of the change, ineffective timing of celebrations, recognition of participants, and a lack of buy-in and resistance amongst the staff. Dufour and Eaker (2004) noted the complexities and challenges associated with making change stating "those who review the research for help on how to implement and sustain a successful change process are likely to become confused" (p. 45). However, despite the potential confusion, change is a requirement in the field of education and the knowledge of how to bring about faster-paced change is essential for school leaders and their communities in the pursuit of enhanced student outcomes.

Research questions.

The literature has indicated that previous change initiatives have taken anywhere from five to ten years depending on various factors and circumstances. Hence, a period of three years or less to enact a change was identified in this research study to be a 'shorter timeframe' to that indicated in the literature as usual or viable for complex change. To explore this issue the following research questions were posed:

- How do Canadian school leaders perceive change particularly when it is to be implemented in a short timeframe?

- How does a leader's change perspective align with the stakeholders who are impacted by the change?

- What consequences (both positive and negative) result from creating change in shortened timeframes?

- How can change occur within an optimal (shorter) timeframe?

- What are the elements which facilitate faster-paced change?

Overview of the method.

This research was situated within the pragmatic paradigm and utilized mixed method design encompassing both quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2008; Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). Both questionnaires and interviews were used to provide both quantifiable and meaningful data to answer the research questions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Patton, 2002). This study explored both leaders' and their stakeholders' perspectives to time-sensitive change initiatives. Therefore, four different school boards were purposefully sampled to obtain representative insights into change leadership in rural, metropolitan, remote, public, and separate (Catholic) schools. All four superintendents from these school boards accepted the invitation for their school board's inclusion in the study. All principals in these four school boards were invited to participate in the survey with invitations issued for them to volunteer their school community for more detailed sites of study. In total 111 individuals participated in the formal data collection. Within the sample there were four superintendents, 39 principals (39 questionnaires and 16 in-depth interviews), 25 educators, 21 students, and 22 parents who participated in interviews and focus group interviews in eight schools (including elementary, secondary and K-8-9 schools).

Only school leaders completed the questionnaires. Interviews were also conducted with a sub-sample of school principals, and focus group interviews were conducted with the teachers, students, and parent stakeholder groups who had participated in the change initiatives. Both the questionnaire and interview schedule had rating-type, as well as open response sections. The questionnaire explored the types of changes the principals had initiated in the school, the rationale for change, who were involved, the change process, and the duration of the change. Focus group interviews explored participants' deeper insights related to the change initiative and what it entailed, the impact of the change, whether or not the change was deemed to be successful, and their perceptions of the leader's role in the change process. Stakeholder data served to triangulate the principals' accounts of the change and provided a more all-encompassing perspective of the impact that the change had on the school community.

School sites for more in-depth exploration were selected from principals who had responded to the invitation to participate; however, more schools were available than required or were viable to include. Therefore, schools were purposefully selected based upon the type and speed of change that had been implemented. That is, a range of different changes were included in the study in order to explore various types of change initiatives, including the broad categorization of programmatic and people-oriented changes. Elementary, secondary, as well as, K-grade 8-9 were selected to ensure representation from a wide range of school types.

Data were analysed using simple descriptive statistics. The open-ended data were analysed using an iterative thematic coding approach whereby the researcher read

the interviews and coded based upon the emergent themes (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). Coding themes were checked by a doctoral student-peer through a process of inter-relater reliability (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). This meant that the researcher's coding themes and her student-peer's were seperately identified and then checked for similarities and differences. There was almost no difference in coding themes so the inter-rater reliability check was deemed to be successful providing a high degree of confidence.

Once the quantititive and qualitative data were processed and analyzed for the leaders' and the various stakeholder group's data, then these data were integrated for greater meaning and clarity (Creswell, 2008). Additionally, the stakeholder data were triangulated with the leader data to check that the veracity of the various accounts tallied while recognising the relevant and appropriate differences in stakeholder perspectives. The findings are presented in Chapter 4 with a discussion presented in Chapter 5.

Conceptual framework.

The conceptual framework in this study (see Figure 1–1) included four main concepts: leadership conceptions and dimensions required for change, organizational change, time conceptualizations and time use in schools, and understanding the context and stakeholder perspectives. These four themes comprised the foundation structure for the literature review but will be briefly outlined here in Chapter One.

Change driven by expectations from society and the educational community

Time	Organizational	Leadership
Issues	Change	Dimensions
Conceptualizations		Change agency

Positive and Effective Time-sensitive Change

The Canadian K-12 Context:
Educational stakeholder
perspectives to change
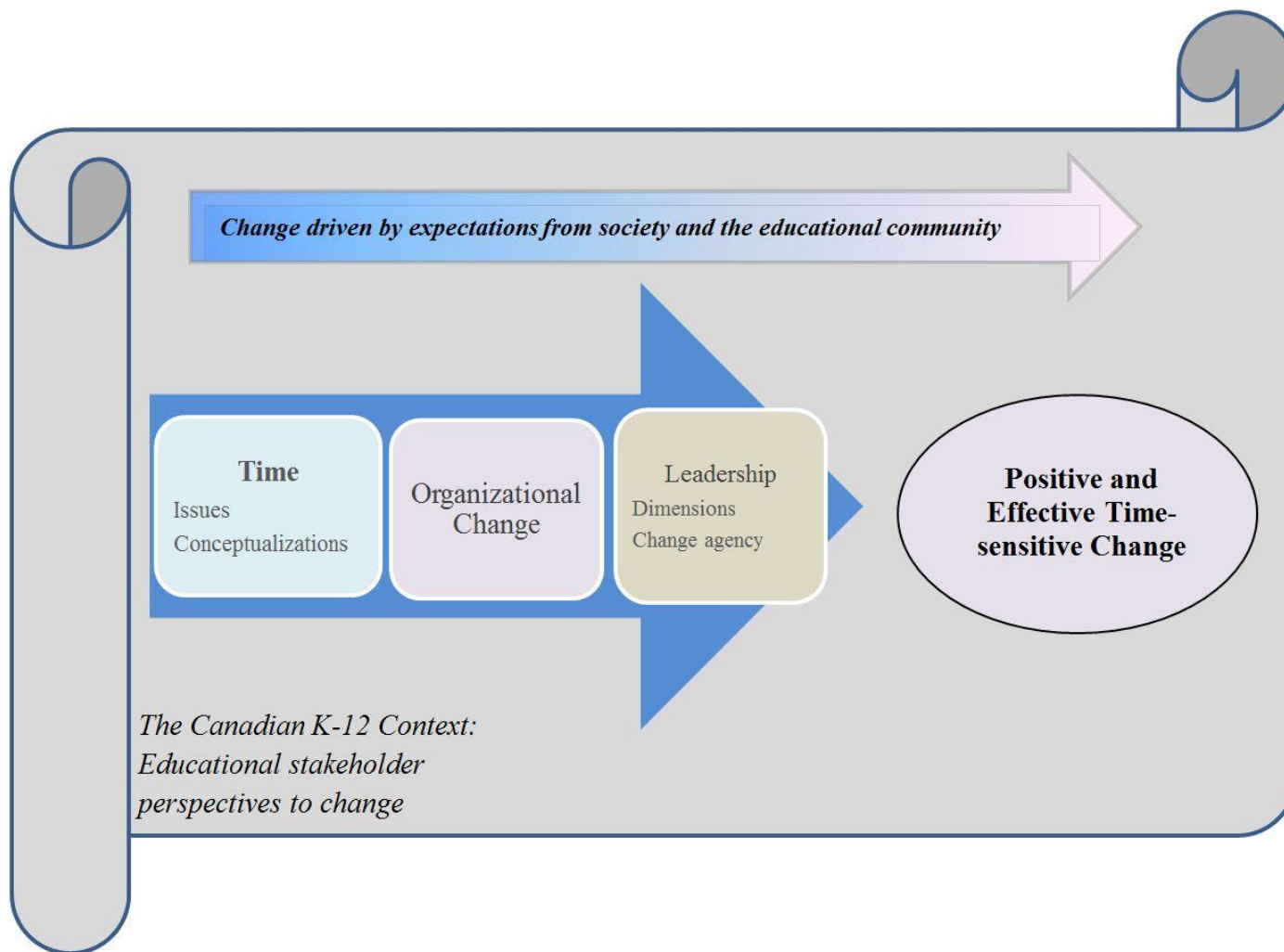
Figure 1-1: Conceptual Framework

A key aspect of change is leadership because without sound change agency the efficacy of change is endangered. Leadership for change encompassed the best qualities of leaders as successful change agents. The central focus in this study was the leader and his/her ability to create time-sensitive change; therefore, various leadership theories including transformational, transactional, authentic, servant, and instructional leadership were discussed. Significant researchers of change such as Sergiovanni (2009), Fullan (2007), Hargreaves (2006), Northouse (2010), and Senge's (2009) research were key influences in this research. As leadership is such an immense field of literature it was impossible to present an exhaustive review of all of the leadership scholarly work in the literature review, but a large sampling of relevant work is presented. The interpersonal and intrapersonal qualities of leaders as change agents were identified as important. Interpersonal qualities referred to those skills which leaders used to effectively and successfully interact with participants. These included: communicating and developing a vision, building relationships and capacity, and providing support. Intrapersonal leadership qualities referred to the inner qualities and characteristics of leaders that facilitate their success. These included leaders' natural talents, self-efficacy, capacity to reflect on their actions and thinking, attitude, and creativity. The success of organizational change leaders' was linked to these dimensions and personal traits when implementing time-sensitive changes.

Organizational change theory was important to include in a study on change. This field of study identified why change has historically been, and continues to be, relevant and necessary for today's educational leaders. Organizational change theories were presented, compared, and contrasted in order to distill the most relevant and

timely elements of change theory. Two main areas for discussion were types of organizational change including people changes and process-oriented changes. People changes included those that created a shift in participants' behaviors and attitudes which represented a key step in facilitating cultural changes. Process-oriented changes included those which were programmatically-focused rather than people-focused. It was important to note that in many instances evidence of a blended approach of both people and process changes were present as part of the change processes within this study so this distinction may have been somewhat artificial.

The concept of time was pivotal in this study. The central focus in this study was the leader and his/her ability to create time-sensitive change; therefore, an understanding of time, various conceptualizations of time, and how time is used in schools was necessary. Time is a key element in schools with many educators perceiving time as an enemy. However, time is not always perceived the same way by all and within the frame of different activities. Because the pace of society is so rapid and there is an expectation that educators should increase the efficiency as well as the effectiveness of school improvement efforts, it was important to explore the research about time and its conceptualizations to inform this study. Various areas of time included complexity of time, increased pace of time, and the prioritization of time.

The final concept explored was school community stakeholders within the context of Alberta. These educational stakeholder groups consist of two main clusters: those at the macro level including the ministry of education (Alberta Education, 2008, 2009) personnel, the teachers' union (Alberta Teachers' Association), boards of trustees and so on; and those stakeholders at the micro or school level, namely,

teachers, students, and parents. Stakeholders' support and involvement have been identified as essential with the change process within the literature as they were also influenced and impacted by the change. They can also be instrumental in aiding the leader's implementation of the change. All four conceptual areas were deemed to be important in exploring effective time-sensitive changes in school organizations.

Significance.

This study will be of interest to current and aspiring school and district leaders, policy makers, scholars, professional developers, and other educational stakeholders as it is designed to provide insights into faster-paced change initiatives, the leadership approaches required to establish successful time-sensitive change, and to describe the implications for various stakeholders in managing and participating in the change process. The following outlines the interest that various stakeholder group may have in the findings of this study:

- School leaders will be interested in the findings related to knowledge of best practice and strategies for successful and efficient change. New leaders, as well as those assigned to new appointments will have access to current and effective ways to implement mandated or chosen initiatives in shorter timeframes.

- District leaders will have a greater understanding of the common elements that contribute to change success to assist them in planning for change and leadership development programs. Findings related to leaders' perceptions of change may also assist district leaders with the planning of new academic, special education, language, and technology initiatives.

- Professional development committees will have access to necessary topics for future leadership development programs.

- Educational stakeholders will have greater understanding and knowledge about change process elements to maximize success. Stakeholders' perspectives of successful change will be valuable to members of the stakeholder community who explore effective and efficient methods of collaboration.

- Policy makers may reference this research when creating policies for schools and professional development organizations may utilize these research findings to accelerate change practices within a variety of educational settings.

- Scholars will find this useful related to the speed of the change. Although some research has been completed in Canada, this time-sensitive change research would add to the already established knowledge of leadership and organizational change to support all individuals within the organization.

Delimitations.

Delimitations were based upon factors of rural, metropolitan, remote, and public and separate (Catholic) districts. Private and charter schools were not included as they varied in respect to policy expectations and requirements. This study included only four school districts within the province of Alberta and change types varied from each school community. Successful time-sensitive changes were generally identified by the district superintendent, principal, and stakeholders of each individual community.

Limitations.

The questionnaire was personally introduced to the leader participants as part of a district meeting; therefore, there existed the potential for participants who missed the meeting to have also missed out on the personal delivery of the researchers' explanation and who may have not uniformly understood every item. This was addressed by having hard copies of the presentation available for any individuals who wished to participate in the questionnaire and subsequently mail in their questionnaire at a later date.

With any study that does not include the entire population there are limitations to the generalizability of the study. Not every school or school board in the province was included due to limitations related to time, travel, and expense; therefore, this is a limited sample to that of the entire population and as a result may be not as generalizable if all schools were included.

In this study there were only four school districts included out of the 64 school districts in Alberta. Additionally, there were 16 leaders who participated in the surveys and eight schools represented in the whole school stakeholder focus groups. Only major change initiatives were examined in depth to provide a range of different types of change, so smaller, less complex changes were not included. This might mean that there were other factors which were not explored due to their exclusion. Hence, there may be limitations to the generalizability of the findings.

Glossary.

Term	Definition
AISI	Alberta Initiative for School Improvement is a initiative conducted by Alberta Education to support school improvement.
Change	A plan to create something new or to modify previous processes which is designed, structured, and initiated through the efforts of the leader and in collaboration with the change participants having an impact on stakeholders such as students, teachers and parents with the view to bring about necessary and positive outcomes to people, programs, or organizations.
Constructivist research design orientation	The researcher is "more interested in the views, values, beliefs, feelings, assumptions, and ideologies of individuals than in gathering facts and describing acts" (Creswell, 2012, p. 429).
Effective change	A valuable, successful, and/or impactful change.
Efficient change	A fast or streamlined change.
Interpersonal skills	Interpersonal leadership dimensions are those which are considered relational and key to establishing relationships with change participants (Northouse, 2010).
Intrapersonal skills	Intrapersonal dimensions of leadership consisted of genuine qualities that separated leaders as being unique and were essential for leadership success.
Leader	A principal or appointed leader of a school.
Organizational culture	Using Fullan's (2008) description organizational culture in this study is defined as things that people commonly agreed upon or perceived as the way things were done in their organization.
Participants	Individuals directly involved with the change process.
Pragmatic paradigm	Is the methodological philosophy that ascribes to the world view that a mix of methods is best in order to best answer the research questions. This philosophy has a practical orientation whereby the researcher is not solely ascribing to quantitative or qualitative research methodologies rather is eclectic and utilizes different methods in order to emphasize the advantages of each method while reducing the inherent weaknesses through a

combination approach thereby achieving an optimal methodological approach. Pragmatism enables both factual and interpretative data which increases the validity and trustworthiness and provides for triangulation of different data sources and perspectives. This philosophical orientation is endorsed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Creswell (2012).

Rapid change accelerators Specific actions conducted by the leader to intentionally accelerate the pace of the change. (Example: Rallying the efforts of the participants with immediate feedback and praise.)

Self-efficacy An individual's beliefs in his/her capability to accomplish a task.

Stakeholders A group with a similar role or responsibility. An individual who has a vested interest in the change or in educational processes in schools in general. For the purpose of this research study the stakeholder groups consisted of two main groups: stakeholders at the macro level including the ministry of education (Alberta Education) personnel, the union, boards of trustees, etc, and those stakeholders at the school level, namely, teachers, students, and parents.

Successful change A change process that was valuable to the school community; was complex and challenging to participants and leaders; and its specified aims were achieved within the 1-3 year timeframe.

Sustainability The viability of the change to continue over time.

Task force Individual(s) appointed by the leader to assist with the change initiative.

Time-sensitive change A change accomplished within a shorter than normal timeframe.

Trait Qualities and characteristics of leaders

Organization of the thesis.

      The conceptual framework presented in this chapter (Figure 1-1) provided a structural order for the selected literature in the next chapter. The literature review is contained in Chapter Two and provides descriptions and analyses on leadership, organizational change, time, and stakeholders' perceptions which served to inform this study and provided the theoretical foundation. The research design and associated method are described and presented in the third chapter. The results are stated in the fourth chapter followed by a discussion of results and the literature findings in Chapter Five. The final chapter (Chapter Six) presents an overall summary of the major findings and presents the rapid change model which represented the outcomes of this research.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

In the following sections, related background literature is presented on leadership, organizational change, time, and stakeholders. The first section identifies the demands that leaders face, leadership conceptualizations, as well as interpersonal and intrapersonal skills that facilitate leaders' capacity to lead. Specific organizational change leadership theories from theorists such as Senge, Sergiovanni, Fullan, Leithwood, and others are explored to identify strategies and best practices that may facilitate rapid change. It must be noted that a range of literature was selected to inform this study that spanned both scholarly and popular texts. While the scholarly research-based literature provided a firm foundation for this chapter, popular, non evidenced-based leadership and change literature, such as, Fullan's, Covey's, Northouse's, and Senge's latter work were also utilized mainly because these texts are in common use by school and system leaders and are frequently cited within the Alberta context. Therefore, it would have been perceived as an omission to recognize only more scholarly sources. Even so, more weight was ascribed the scholarly rather than popular sources.

Change is not foreign to Alberta's school leaders with many reforms in education occurring over the past century as global circumstances have shifted. From the early Canadian pioneers' efforts to action researchers of today, contributions of knowledge and expertise throughout the history of education have created what is recognized as one of the best education systems in the world today (Matsumoto, 2002). Education system administrators expect school principals to keep abreast with the

increasing pace of change. This means there are increasing demands that principals will be able to institute positive educational change in shorter timeframes than expected even a decade ago. Chenoweth and Everhart (2002) stated the rate of change is determined by leaders' professional skills and abilities to establish positive productive cultures. The following section presents related literature about change and how to successfully establish it within schools.

Context of the Study

There have been many studies conducted exploring change, change processes, and leadership and change but relatively few have been exploring the pace of change particularly within the Canadian context (Fullan, 2007; Senge, 2006). Context is important, as education in Canada is quite different to that of the United States, the United Kingdom, and other western nations as there is no federal portfolio for education, other than that which oversees First Nation, Métis, and Inuit education; rather, education falls within provincial jurisdictions, with each province demonstrating variation in education policy, practices, and funding (Council of Ministers of Education – Canada, n.d. a).

Alberta is a large province with approximately four million inhabitants spread over 661, 000 km^2. The ministry of education, Alberta Education, is responsible for establishing policy, funding, monitoring, and reporting on the quality of education in the province. There are 299 school authorities with approximately 2,154 schools (Government of Alberta, 2012c) who have devolved responsibility from Alberta Education to govern their schools and ensure quality teaching and learning, professional development of teachers and leaders, and maintaining positive

relationships with the community. Alberta has a superior educational system with Canada ranking as the fifth highest in the world and Alberta ranked the highest of all Canadian provinces and territories in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Council of Ministers of Education Canada, n.d. b; OECD, 2010). Explaining Alberta's successful school system may be due to the continual efforts by Alberta Education along with many educational stakeholders in focusing on school improvement, positive change, and enhancing learning and achievement of students.

Recently, Alberta's Premier Redford pursued a promised agenda of change and renewal which included a significant educational change. As a result, this time-sensitive initiative resulted in both positive and negative consequences for educational leaders:

> A major platform announcement from the Tory leader was a 10-day deadline once she took office to reverse $107 million in education cuts, blamed for the loss of 1,000 teaching positions across Alberta. A major cash infusion this late into the school year is sure to cause some disruption. (Komarnicki, 2011, p. B1)

The change was intended to support the best interests of students through the provision of additional resources, but the speed of the change also forecasted negative consequences. Leaders who already experienced various challenges in their role were faced with significant rapid decision-making due to the mandated time frame attached to the implementation.

The Alberta Government's report (Government of Alberta, 2011b) from the premier's council entitled "Shaping Alberta's Future" called for all organizations,

including academic and research institutions, to adopt a leadership role to create influences for positive change. This report highlighted that transformation of economies in developing countries require an increased demand for energy, concern of the environmental impact, and changes in which the way our world conducts business through advances in knowledge. Canada is affected due to its role within the highly interconnected global grid. The impact of these developments demands more from Alberta's educational leaders and their organizations in the preparation of children and youth to ensure Canada thrives in the global economy and that the next generation contributes to meeting the needs of the nation's future. "Alberta needs all its citizens to develop the mindset and skills to thrive in today's world and drive economic growth- to be resilient, lifelong learners, healthy and productive, eager to achieve and perform, globally connected and informed" (Government of Alberta, 2011b, p. 172).

Educational leaders in Canada, similar to those around the world, have been subjected to various changes as due to the impact of globalization and technology (Government of Alberta, 2012b). As a result of the transformations of economies in developing countries, educational leaders and their organizations are tasked with the preparation of children and all citizens to thrive in a global economy so they can best contribute to meeting the needs of the future.

Educational organizational changes have varied in countries throughout the world. Zhao (2009) stated "While the United States is investing resources to ensure that all students take the same courses and pass the same tests, the Asian countries are advocating for more individualization and attending to emotions, creativity, and other skills" (p. 62). Zhao stressed the importance for creativity, talent diversity, and global

and digital competencies for successful 21st century learning. The following figure (Figure 2-1) identified the need for change from a global perspective and the evolution of this impact on Alberta's provincial changes in education that have filtered down to the individual school leader.

Global Changes- Canada, Alberta	Provincial Changes in Education (Alberta)	School Leadership Change
Economies in developing countries	Development of Principal quality practice standards (Leadership competencies)	Leadership Expectations
Demand for energy and concern of the environmental impact	Teacher competencies	Acceleration of Time-sensitive change practices
Conduct of world business		Stakeholder involvement in change practices

Figure 2-1: Impact of Change from a Global to School Leader Perspective

An overview of the global, national, and provincial contexts related to leadership and educational change supported the view that over the history of education, organizations' demands of change due to societal and international expectations have accelerated. As a result leaders have been required to identify the

best approaches in establishing effective time-sensitive change for current and future generations.

The provincial focus on improving education has led to many initiatives, frameworks, and professional development projects designed to promote educational quality of teachers, leaders, curriculum, and assessment with the view to increasing student outcomes. Examples of some of these initiatives include the Alberta Initiative for School Improvement (AISI), the Teacher Quality Standard Framework, the Principal Quality Practice Guideline (Alberta Education, 2008, 2009; Ministerial Order (#016/97), 1997), and the Alberta Student Assessment Study (Webber, Aitken, Lupart, & Scott, 2009). Increasing the quality of education requires knowledge of the change process and strong leadership in order to bring about successful change. This highlights also the importance of understanding leadership and what that entails and will be discussed in the following sections.

Leadership

> *Leadership can be manifested and distributed in many different ways, both formal and informal, though effective leaders of teaching do have some characteristics and behaviors in common. These include establishing credibility and trust, building a community of good teaching practice, supporting change and innovation, articulating a rationale for change, dispersing leadership among colleagues, involving students, ensuring that good teaching and educational developments efforts are recognized and rewarded, and marketing the department as a teaching success. (Hughes, 2010, p. 235)*

It has been previously stated that demands on leaders today have changed dramatically over the last fifty years (Sergiovanni, 2009). These pressures are particularly evident in the field of education. In addition to expectations as an instructional leader, principals are expected to create mission goals and statements, set priorities, plan, manage, gather information, and make decisions, and promote their school through optimal public and community relations. Leadership roles and responsibilities have also included the implementation of changes, which can vary significantly from one situation to another, as a given requirement in the work environment, as well as the added pressure of the pace of change and increased expectations to produce these in shorter timeframes. At times leaders have been parachuted into a school by the district administration with expectations to create change, while other school leaders have been self-motivated to implement necessary changes without exterior pressure from superordinates. Additional pressures included increased accountability for daily tasks, staff, reporting to system decision-makers, new policies and initiatives, the integration and employment of increasingly complex technology, and continuous refinement of best practice skills required by leaders to manage quick and successful organizational change (Alberta Education Advisory Committee, 2011).

Caldwell (2006) best related the tensions involved in this role: "to describe that need in the bluntest of terms: leadership has quite literally 'hit the wall'" (p. 6). Caldwell continued by describing the situation at the school level as being at a point of "crisis" with respect to the leadership position, with workload and responsibility resulting in educators expressing little interest in the desire to become a leader and

those individuals in the field of administration leaving the profession due to reasons such as "endless restructuring." This "crisis" of workload and responsibility has already impacted the educational environment of our children as Caldwell warned "it ought not to be this way in a profession that is developing the most valuable resource in the nation" (p. 6). Therefore we need to examine contemporary leadership theory in order to better understand this important role.

Leadership Constructs and Theories

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010, p. 3).

The literature exploration identified various leadership views and conceptualizations. Deal and Peterson (1999), for example, described eight major roles of principal leader as the historian, the anthropological sleuth, the visionary, the symbol, the potter, the poet, the actors, and the healer. In the past sixty years "as many as 65 different classification systems have been developed to define the dimensions of leadership" (Fleishman et al., 1991, cited in Northouse, 2010, p. 2). A range of authors and researchers was used to examine and compare leadership theories (Fullan, 2002; Hargreaves & Fink, 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Northouse, 2010; Senge, 2006). Table 2-1 was constructed as a matrix to identify various leadership theories and theorists, to examine the characteristics of each theory or construct, and to enable comparisons and contrasts. This exploration of key theorists and leadership constructs/theories supported a sound foundation of leadership knowledge and change.

Table 2-1:
Leadership Constructs/Theories and Theorists - Comparison and Contrasts

Title of the theory/type of leadership	Moral /ethical	Servant (Leader focusses on needs of followers)	Authentic	Transformational (Changes and transforms people)	Transactional (Management focused)	Instructional	Boundary breaking & Entrepreneurial
Example of Leader	Mandella	Greenleaf Mother Teresa	Exemplified by their genuineness, capacity to create trust, honesty, openness		Managers who exchange service for rewards	Curriculum instructors Focus on learning outcomes	Those who are innovative and think outside the box
Characteristics or features of the theory/definition	Connect peers with purpose Capacity building prevails Learning is the work Transparency rules Systems prevail	Strength of others developed through: • Empathy • Understanding • Healing • Listening • Respect • Service to others • Justice • Honesty • Community	Linked to interpersonal and intrapersonal skills of the leader Linked to leaders credibility and positive relationships	Concerns with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long term goals. Exceptional form of influence Incorporates: • Charismatic and visionary • Inspirational motivation • Intellectual stimulation • Dominant • Self-Confident • Strong moral values	Management of: • Humility and will • Commitment • Self-reflection for continuous improvement	Role of leader as instructor Duties include providing: • Resources • Instruction • Communication • Visibility • Clear voice • Moral Code • Adapt to change	Thinking that extends beyond the constraints of the usual. Extends and uses the differences in temporal, spacial, technological boundaries Mental Models Shared vision Team learning Redirecting
Similarity or alignment with other theories	Similar to authentic and transformational	Support for followers High Ethics/Values	Aligned with transformational leadership	Leader develops trust and respect of followers	Rewards Strives for continuous improvement	Specific to curriculum and learning	Crystallizing

Difference in the theory to others		Strong humanistic and caring approach		Leader transforms with followers. Strives for highest level of maturity	Management approach	Flexible to shift styles when necessary	Proto-typing Institutionalizing
Relationship of leadership theory to change initiatives	Within the change the leader will not seek to damage his/her followers	/	Without this element of credibility, trusting relationships are not possible and change is impeded or impossible	Transformational Change may result for positive and negative purposes Revolutionary leadership	Contractual agreement of exchange	Development of positive environment through building of trust	
The theorists associated with this leadership type (location of theorist)	Fullan Sergiovanni	Buckingham/ Clifton Greenleaf	Avolio Gardner Cooper Scandura Luthans Walumbwa Irvine & Reger Sergiovanni	Kouzes & Posner Bennis & Nanus - Block Fullan Hargreaves Northouse Burke	Darling-Hammond Collins	Leithwood (Canada) Mulford (Australia) Fullan (Canada/USA) Hargreaves (UK, Canada) Bennis & Nanus	Webber & Robertson Senge Scharmer, Jaworski, & Flowers,

Leadership theories and approaches – ethical and moral, servant, transformational, transactional, instructional, change, entrepreneurial and boundary-breaking leadership – were selected due to their predominance and relevance to organizational change. This exploration was designed to inform this researcher and to underpin this study of change agency as it may pertain to time-sensitive change. The following descriptions outline the characteristics of each of these selected leadership theories with a synthesis of how these are similar while highlighting the important differences.

Moral/ethical leadership.

> *Ethics is central to leadership because of the nature of the process of influence, the need to engage followers in accomplishing mutual goals, and the impact leaders have on the organization's values. (Northouse, 2010, p. 383)*

"Ethical leadership is knowing your core values and having the courage to live them in all parts of your life in service of the common good" (Center for Ethical Leadership, n.d., n.p.). Leaders create a powerful influence on their followers through their actions which demonstrate their principles of respect, service, justice and honesty. Community and leaders hold the responsibility for being sensitive to the impact of their influence on their followers as well as being respectful of their beliefs, attitudes, and values (Sergiovanni, 2005). The relationship developed between the leader and followers determines the climate and culture of the organization. More ethical leaders emphasize the best interests and greater good of the organization instead of their own personal interests or intentions. They also exemplify justice in the manner they deliver resources, rewards or punishments and honesty and transparency in the manner that

they communicate information. Northouse (2010) stated "In regard to leadership, ethics has to do with what leaders do and who leaders are. It is concerned with the nature of leaders' behavior and with their virtuousness" (p. 378). Moral ethical leadership focuses on the sensitivity of followers, careful decision making, and genuine authenticity.

Servant leadership.

With its strong altruistic ethical overtones, servant leadership emphasizes that leaders should be attentive to the concerns of their followers and should empathize with them; they should take care of them and nurture them. (Northouse, 2010, p. 385)

Greenleaf's (1977) "service to others" or "servant leadership" role was considered key to becoming a leader. This involved working with others while demonstrating characteristics of understanding, healing, listening, and unconditional acceptance. Healing is described by Greenleaf (1977) as the effort "to make whole" (p. 36). Healing is experienced by both the individual who is serving as well as the individual who is being healed. By listening carefully to others and searching for understanding, others can be strengthened through the process. Acceptance of other involves accepting the imperfections of the individual and recognition that no one is perfect. Servant leaders engaged in humanistic and caring opportunities to work with and enrich their followers. Joyce and Calhoun (2010) identified the leaders' responsibility to look after the professional growth of staff, both experienced and new, through professional development and mentorship.

Authentic leadership.

> *Authentic leadership is about people who are dedicated to understanding their own uniqueness and hidden talents, people who have the courage to be that authentic person, and people who then inspire, support, and encourage other people on their journeys to find and express their voices. (Irvine & Reger, 2006, p. 86)*

Authentic leadership is a relatively new leadership construct but is quickly gaining popularity due to its laudable and constructive dimensions. Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, and Dickens (2011) described four main components of authentic leadership: awareness of "one's thoughts, feelings, motives, and values"; "unbiased processing" that involved metacognition which leads to acceptance of both positive and negative attributes; action and behaviour which entailed acting in alignment with the leader's beliefs rather than simply pleasing others, attaining rewards or avoiding punitive consequences; and "relational orientation" which indicated the importance of leaders' capacity to establish and maintain positive relationships with others based upon "truthfulness and openness" (p. 1121).

Authentic leadership is dependent on goodness, honesty, and trustworthiness (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Based on a practical as well as a theoretical approach, these laudable values were perceived necessary for leaders in societies that were viewed as untrustworthy; that is, those fraught with opportunism and corruption. Leaders who wished to become "authentic" strived to do the right thing for the common good and were influenced through their life experiences (Avolio, Rotundo, & Walumbwa, 2009; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). Indeed George and Sims (2007) defined authentic leadership as:

genuine people who are true to themselves and to what they believe in. They engender trust and develop genuine connections with others. Because people trust them, they are able to motivate others to high levels of performance. Rather than letting the expectations of other people guide them, they are prepared to be their own person and go their own way. As they develop as authentic leaders, they are more concerned about serving others than they are about their own success or recognition. (p. xxxi, cited in Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011, p. 1122)

Authentic leaders used their high moral dimensions to guide them in making the best decisions, creating trusting relationships, and using their inner values and passion to fulfill their mission (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Therefore authentic leadership is very similar to that of moral and ethical leadership but has also been linked to transformational leadership as these qualities are essential for bringing about change, particularly those that involve people and cultures (Sergiovanni, 2005). Table 2-2 presents three different viewpoints of authentic leadership: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and developmental.

Table 2-2:

Intrapersonal, Interpersonal and Developmental Viewpoints of Authentic Leadership

Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Developmental
Focuses on what goes on within the leader	Relational process through reciprocal process of leaders and followers	Can be nurtured in the leader–not fixed
Incorporates self-knowledge, self-regulation, self-concept	Buy-in of followers is imperative for change to take place	Developed over a lifetime and influenced by major events
Genuine leadership led from conviction (originals)		Developed from strong qualities and ethics
Relies on life story and experiences of leader		Composed from self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing and relational transparency

Note: Adapted from Northouse (2010)

Northouse (2010) indicated that this relatively new leadership approach was criticized by other researchers due to the limited research into this theory and noted that additional research was required in order to validate it within the range of orthodox theories. Even so its similarity to ethical and moral and transformational leadership will likely endorse its inclusion within the theoretical frameworks on leadership. It does, however, note leadership experience as valuable to leadership, as well as providing a pragmatic orientation in focusing on leaders' intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

Transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders ... [inspire] *others to excel, giving individual consideration to others and stimulating people to think in new ways (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, p. 231).*

Transformational leadership had several strengths and conceptualizations and frequently overlapped other leadership styles; however, it involved a close connection of both the leader and their followers throughout a transformation or change process. Northouse (2010) linked it with moral and ethical leadership where he stated that transformational leadership is where "a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower" (p. 172). Transformational leaders are inspirational, motivational, hold high expectations, and promote a team spirit among participants with particular attention given to the individual needs of followers to support them in achieving their full potential. Supporting the needs of followers has been emphasized in the leadership styles discussed so far; however, transformational leaders also encourage creativity, challenge previous beliefs and values, and encourage freedom of individual thought. Avey, Hughes, Norman, and Luthens (2008) cautioned that because transformational leaders were influential, they emphasized the need for leaders to keep their employees happy by reducing employee cynicism and thereby increasing positive change.

Idealized influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, and Individualized consideration (termed by Bass (2000) as the "4I's") were essential components of transformational leaders. Leaders with high standards, strong ethics, and authenticity served as role models (*idealized influence*) for their followers who wished to become like them. Followers gained *inspirational motivation* through leaders who delivered high expectations, encouraged team spirit, and included their followers as part of the organization's vision. *Intellectual stimulation* was acquired by encouraging followers to challenge their beliefs and use their creativity and innovation.

Finally, *individualized consideration* was provided by leaders' development of a caring and supportive environment for the followers. Through the use of their dynamic personalities, transformational leaders have the ability to transform their followers; however, this ability could be used for destructive as well as productive purposes. *"Pseudotransformational"* leadership, a negative style of transformational leadership, resulted if leaders' interests were personally pursued rather than the best interests of followers. This negative aspect was also noted with the authentic leadership literature Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). This raises concerns of followers who may challenge a highly influential leadership if they did not approve of pseudotransformational leadership practices. Contrastingly, leaders of influence are recognized as strong role models who can be depended upon for good decisions, are highly respected and trusted to provide followers with a clear and realistic vision and mission. Although charismatic leaders hold the power to persuade and direct followers through transformational leadership, Irvine and Reger (2006) warned:

> Regardless of how skillful one is at coercing, mandating, and manipulating people to do things from the power of a position, if the goal is to build mutual respect, engagement, and lasting commitment, ordering people around is not the type of focus we have been talking about. In leadership, to actually contribute in ways that are lasting and sustaining, presence must take precedence over position. (p. 79)

This speaks to the importance of building relationships with others, open communication and creating trusting work environments which are explored in latter sections in this literature review.

Transactional leadership.

Management is about role, task accomplishments, setting objectives, and using the organization's resources (for example budget or information systems) efficiently and effectively, and rewarding people with extrinsic factors such as money, titles, and promotions. (Burke, 2008, p. 192)

Burke (2008) described transactional leadership, in contrast to transformational leadership, as involving an exchange or agreement, and taking care of managerial tasks rather than meeting the personal needs or professional development of the employees. Contingent rewards were used by transactional leaders in exchange for meeting leaders' expectations, and transactional leaders were quick to respond to followers with negative feedback and corrective measures when mistakes were detected. Darling-Hammond (2004) linked this form of leadership to the impact of school management processes over the last twenty years due to the legal and bureaucratic accountability measures saying:

These have especially focused on attempts to manage schooling through standardized educational procedures, prescribed curriculum and texts, and test-based accountability strategies, often tied to tracking and grouping decisions that are meant to determine the programs students will receive. (p. 1051)

Northouse (2010) noted that management duties related to activities of creating order and stability, whereas leadership duties were related to the influential process of adaptation and constructive change. Despite significant differences between management and leadership styles, both forms involved the influence of followers and at times both types of leadership overlapped. He continued "When managers are

involved in influencing a group to meet its goals, they are involved in leadership. When leaders are involved in planning, organizing, staffing, and controlling, they are involved in management" (p. 11). Similarly, Ramsden (1998) agreed that management and leadership were related indicating "Efficient management is complimentary to leadership, not opposite to it" (p. 92). He suggested that substituting one form of leadership for another was not the solution but rather recommended a thoughtful blend of the two styles. Ramsden identified an exceptional function of leadership was developing the best qualities in the participants in preparation for future goals.

DuFour and Eaker (2004) indicated that proper school management would provide a smoother transition for change. However, Senge (2006) insisted that training or command-and-control management approaches could not change individuals' philosophies, indicating that one person, with this approach, would not be capable of altering the attitudes, beliefs, skills, capabilities, or perceptions in other individuals.

A careful balance between transactional and other more proactive change oriented leadership approaches for leaders would be necessary for leaders when implementing change. Darling-Hammond's (1994) view warned against too much management through legal and bureaucratic accountability measures. Senge (2006) cautioned that management approaches would not support the shift of individuals' philosophies. Northouse (2010) and Ramsden (2008) perceived merged possibilities for management and leadership suggesting that each had different roles, overlapped at times, and provided a balance to promote change.

Instructional leadership.

> *'Instructional leader' has been in vogue since the 1980s. Based on the research that identified principal leadership as essential to 'instructionally effective schools,' it was intended to reinforce the importance of having principals pay more attention to leading the curriculum and instructional program of the school and spend less time focusing on 'managerial' activities and bureaucratic tasks. (Siccone, 2012, p. 104)*

The instructional leader focused on teaching and learning outcomes. Hallinger (2003) noted that those scholars who researched change implementation, effectiveness, and improvement were able to provide significant contributions towards instructional leadership. Instructional leadership was recognized as necessary in poor schools where significant change was required and usually conducted by charismatic leaders who were considered experts of administering instructional changes and developing a new culture. The instructional model developed by Hallinger (2003) included the development of the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a school learning environment. Hallinger cautioned that the instructional role of the principal was not the only role that was necessary, therefore principals had to adjust their actions to the needs and context of the school.

Siccone (2012) reported that during the 1990s the instructional leadership style was less recognized due to other more predominant styles such as transformational. In 2008, the National Association of Elementary School Principals redefined instructional leadership and provided specific standards of what leaders should know and do to create learning environments for students as well as adults (Siccone, 2012). With the demands placed on school leaders, the emphasis on instructional leadership was

towards the content and process of learning; however, because little research had been done at that time it was uncertain as to how the instructional leader influenced learning or the relationship between instructional learning and student achievements.

Although it was suggested that more research was required in this area, Scott and Webber (2008) claimed that "instructional leadership and management have been and continue to be interrelated components of school leaders' professional practice" (p. 762), mirroring the debate about the division of leadership and management. They also pointed out the necessity of professional development and instructional leadership to support areas of globalization, large populations of migrant students, and parents who choose for their children. The instructional leader defines the mission for the school community, manages the curriculum program, and works towards developing a positive atmosphere to create a healthy environment or climate (Leithwood, Patten & Jantzi, 2010; Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). These responsibilities are essential components of leadership to ensure that the focus of teaching and learning and success of student instruction are not lost in the midst of other distractions including the administrivia of the role.

Boundary-breaking entrepreneurial leadership.

> *The primary purpose of educational entrepreneurship is the building of human and social capacity to lead responsible, constructive educational initiatives. Coupled with educational entrepreneurship is the necessary consideration of incorporating and structuring sustainability to ensure that the programs, teaching, and outcomes are of a consistently high standard. Therefore educational entrepreneurship can also include* [teachers] *as well as student as learners within the learning organization. (Webber & Scott, 2008, n.p.)*

Boundary-breaking leadership was initially coined by Webber and Robertson (1998) in the late 1990s and explored the shift in expectations on leaders. They described this model as "'boundary breaking' because of its capacity to move learning beyond the boundaries normally imposed by cultures, roles, institutions, economics, and national borders" (p. 13). In later refinement of this leadership construct, Scott and Webber (2008) encouraged school and system leaders to seek opportunities to practice entrepreneurship in order to avoid the status quo. Six elements of entrepreneurship for leaders in educational organizations included: the practice of *innovative* behavior which involved leaders' generation of knowledge and skills; imagination of future possibilities; effective communication; construction of relationships with internal and external members of the organization; and mastering of technical skills required as an agent of change. Scott and Webber (2011) stated "Educational entrepreneurs also must have the technical skills associated with change management such as conflict resolution, relationship building, time management and the capacity to triage needs and set priorities" (p. 6).

Canadian perspectives of leadership were essential in this study given that this research setting was located in Alberta, Canada. Entrepreneurial leadership, based on the Life Long Learning Leader framework, more commonly known as the 4L model, was considered a sophisticated leadership development focusing on instructional, entrepreneurial, and inclusive practices (Scott & Webber, 2008). These authors stated that "At the school level principals should focus their time and resources on articulating the school mission and goals clearly, facilitating collaboration and

professional learning, involving teachers in decision making, and promoting positive relations between the school and community" (p. 767).

"Networking" was essential for leaders to have the necessary information for initiating change and adjust to the change environment. "Time-space communication frameworks" was necessary for the leader to manipulate technologies for effective communication, understand multidimensional perspectives use reflective practices, and develop a local-national-global cultural literacy known as "Local-global perspective." "Educational organizations as knowledge centers" were developed for students, educators, and support staff to ensure that the needs of the community were addressed. Finally, the practice of integrated face-to-face and internet-based learning supported the leader in a competitive local, national, and international environment (Webber & Scott, 2008, p. 16).

Webber and Scott (2008) noted that this type of entrepreneurship that was manifested in Canada may not be applicable in other settings and was comprised of skills and knowledge still new in its conceptualizations, manifestations, and sustainability. Development of leadership knowledge and skills were critical for effective schools and were perceived to be successfully developed through leadership programs (Siccone, 2012). Leadership development was highly recommended by Webber and Scott (2008) stating "leaders at all career stages require sufficient time to learn, reflect, collaborate, and grow" (p. 16). In this research study the possibility that perhaps time-sensitive change could also be successfully developed through leadership programs was noted; however, this style of leadership was not intended as a fit for all leadership situations.

This discussion of a range of leadership theories leads to the question of which, if any, are better than others, and how do we identify optimal leaders, particularly those who are able to bring about change? The Learning Partnership (TLP) and the Canadian Association of Principals recognized Canada's outstanding principals for excellence in: instructional leadership, professional learning communities, partnering with families and communities and in continuous commitment to personal growth initiatives. All 123 recipients of Canada's outstanding principals were studied and yet there did not appear to be a single profile of these leaders who represented the full range of demographics (e.g. urban, rural, northern, rich, and poverty type schools with populations ranging from of 25 to 2700 individuals) (Freedman, 2009). When describing leadership types, it was reported that most were experienced leaders and had been in their role for over ten years. Common characteristics of these individuals included having a passion for their leadership role and a committed vision of excellence for all. These leaders held a collaborative approach, were modest about their influence, and spoke highly of their faculty's contributions. Finally, outstanding principals engaged parents and partners in the community and identified resolutions to conflicts. From this eclectic range of characteristics it is possible to determine that many the leadership theories encompass highly desirable and valuable dimensions. Therefore, it can be proposed that a mix is necessary in order to effectively lead schools to facilitate change.

Summary of leadership constructs and theories.

Similarities, differences and a clearer understanding of leadership theories have been provided in this section on leadership theories. Almost all of these leadership

approaches, with perhaps the exception of transactional leadership (which suggests an "exchange for service" perspective), stressed the importance for the leader to care for their followers through the provision of supports such as professional development, understanding and sensitivity to the impact of change on the followers, and the ongoing importance of good communication, interaction, and inclusion. Coleman (2011) noted the most significant change in leadership in the 21st century was the shift towards increased collaboration. Collaboration of leaders with staff and the community was emphasized in several of the leadership theories. Leaders were viewed as individuals who were good role models, had strong moral and ethical values, and were capable of providing a leadership vision and sound direction. They often demonstrated characteristics that were authentic and had unique interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, as well as some prior leadership experience. Canada's outstanding principals were described with similar characteristics. The differences appear to be attempting to capture a specific aspect or dimension within a leader's role. For example, instructional leadership focuses on how a leader promotes high quality teaching and learning, transformational leadership focuses on a leader's role in bringing about change that alters the organisational culture, while entrepreneurial leadership focuses on the need to operate differently in order to better meet the challenges of 21st century school populations and contexts. These different theories aim to describe an aspect or dimension and are now being categorised as "adjectival leadership" theories, that is, those that seek to describe the characteristics of a form of leadership; however, as useful as these are they fall short of representing the complexities inherent in this role (Mulford, 2008). The next section explores the more personal leadership dimensions

identifying specific elements that are pertinent for leadership success within an organizational change process.

Leadership Dimensions

Leadership success relies largely on the personal skill dimensions of the individual leader, that is, those who have a repertoire of refined skills are more likely to be successful in leading an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Leadership dimensions include those that are intrapersonal, as well as, interpersonal. The next section will identify the difference between these two dimensions of leadership and how these are essential to leadership success.

Intrapersonal.

Lynham and Chermack (2006) pointed out that future leadership required a shift to a different approach saying "In short the stresses and demands of the emerging global organization and accompanying chaos and complexity of these business realities will likely call for leadership that can think and act fundamentally differently in the future" (p. 73). Even though they were discussing the commercial sector the same can easily apply to the increasing complexities in educational leadership. Intrapersonal dimensions of leaders consisted of genuine qualities that separated leaders as being significant in their success. Intrapersonal skills rest largely within a leader's psyche and involve his/her use of their personal capacities, characteristics, values, skills, and personality which guide their thinking and actions with others. Although there may be numerous characteristics that are considered essential when exploring leadership intrapersonal skills, however, the leadership characteristics reviewed in the next section

include: hardiness, confidence and self-efficacy, passion and care for others, trust and respect, and being a leader with a clear vision.

Hardiness.

Eid, Johnson, Bartone and Nissestad (2008) identified "hardiness" that was developed earlier in life and provided a stable element for individuals. Eid and his colleagues indicated that being hardy was an important trait for leaders when having to undergo difficult challenges, given the demands placed of today's leaders. They stated that:

> Hardy persons have a high sense of life and work commitment, a greater belief of control, and are more open to change and challenges in life. They tend to interpret stressful and painful experiences as a normal aspect of existence, part of life that is overall interesting and worthwhile. (p. 6)

Kouzes and Posner (1997) described hardy individuals as those who approached stressful situations in a positive manner. Change was viewed by participants as a commitment, an interesting and positive experience with the possibility of having influence or control in the process. The family background was significant for developing hardy individuals and Kouzes and Posner (1997) stated "[W]hen there's a varied environment, many tasks involving moderate difficulty, and family support, then hardiness flourishes, regardless of our socioeconomic background" (p. 73). Three suggestions for leaders to help develop hardiness in their organizations included providing more rewards for participants than reprimands, selecting tasks that were both challenging for individuals as well as within their skill range, and the support of a culture where change is seen as possible. Followers must

be reassured that adversity can be overcome when facing change and the task of the leader is to provide them with this setting. When referring to hardiness Kouzes and Posner (1997) recognized that leaders with psychological hardiness identified these as displaying "commitment rather than alienation, control rather than powerlessness, and challenge rather than threat" (p. 74). They further recognized that people don't produce excellence when they feel that they are not involved, unimportant, or intimidated. When individuals experience a sense of control, commitment, or being challenged they identify signs of accomplishment and are able to communicate these indicators for others to be able to seek success.

Confidence and self-efficacy.

Bandura's (1977) socio-psychological theory of self-efficacy identified the feelings of a leader's own behavior (choices) and consequences of that behavior for others as a result of their beliefs. Northouse (2010) described self-efficacy as a person's confidence with respect to their performance. Leaders with a stronger self-efficacy found ways to establish a sense of control and create changes in their environment which in turn influenced their motivation, effort, and perseverance for continued growth. Building on Bandura's work, Leithwood and Jantzi (2008) noted the level of stress and depression leaders experienced in threatening or challenging situations, which determined the level of belief leaders had in their own capacities. The strength of the leader's self-efficacy indicated the capacity of the leader's persistence; that is, those who had high self-efficacy persisted longer while those with lower self-efficacy gave up. Similarly, leaders who were in extremely difficult situations for prolonged periods tended to experience a deterioration of self-efficacy

which resulted in inconsistencies with problem solving and a lowering of expectations of participants' aspirations (Bandura, 1993). In relation to confidence and self-efficacy, Snyder (2002) identified 'high hopes' as an important leadership ingredient. Leaders were able to identify potential challenges as well as way to overcome them. Being hopeful was critical especially during times when leaders felt they could not continue in the midst of pressure. Instead of quitting during these times of trial and tribulation leaders had the tenacity and capacity to continue the struggle and to search for the next effective plan.

Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins' (2008) explorations of personal traits, dispositions, and personality characteristics of successful leaders also identified confidence or sense of self-efficacy as influential to students' learning and achievement. They also described leaders with high self-efficacy as those who conducted their leadership role through a style of reassurance, confidence, and remained calm during times of crisis. The continuous changing role of the principal required confidence to influence, facilitate and guide others, and perceive change as a fact of life or opportunity for growth (Lambert 2003). Confidence and self-efficacy would be essential considerations with the study of leadership and time-sensitive change.

Passion – leading with one's heart.

Reeves (2002) stressed the importance of passion when building a mission and vision as passion engages the emotion of people. Failure to recognize the emotional engagement of people results in a management style rather than one of leadership. Covey (2004) stated that "leading from the heart was more important that leading from

the brain" saying "Someone may be brain dead, but if their heart is still pumping, they live on; when your heart is dead, you're dead" (p. 162). Covey also emphasized that followers must experience the love and passion from their leader before being expected to follow him/her. Jampolsky (1994) identified an example of leadership that depicted the love and passion through the charity works of Mother Teresa who advocated, demonstrated and insisted that "We must transform love beyond words and show it through our actions" (p. 179). Mother Teresa stressed the need for leading with the heart as well as demonstrating leadership through action and exemplified traits of love, trust, caring, and concern for the collective good and interests of others. This aspect of an ethic of care also resonated throughout Sergiovanni's (2005) work where he identified the importance of the leader perceiving his school as a family and caring for them as a concerned and caring caregiver. Passion or leadership of the heart is described as a significant link between the leader and followers and binds them together through strong relationships of love and care.

Trust and respect.

In our studies, we found statistically significant correlations between people's trust in their leader and their subsequent satisfaction with and evaluations of that person's overall leadership effectiveness (Kouzes & Posner, 1997, p. 167).

Hargreaves and Fink (2006) examined three sources of human resourcefulness required for successful educational change; trust, confidence, and emotion. Trust was an essential ingredient created through the leaders' competence, understanding, communication as well as contractual agreements that are kept. Trust was considered a key ingredient for improving organizations in achievement and boosting the energy

and moral of participants (Covey, 2004, Hargreaves & Fink, 2006). Caldwell and Hayes (2007) identified that effective leaders made necessary changes that were frequently expected by change participants. Change participants perceived these successful leaders as those who actively addressed their own and their organization's needs and demanded change to promote growth. Providing for the needs of participants may be identified as an interpersonal trait; however in doing so, trust is developed with the participants.

Covey (2004) identified trust as a key characteristic for rapid change. In various organizations and cultures, trust was the "glue" that held relationships together (p. 162). More importantly, when there was trust between the leader and followers, the speed of relationship development was also accelerated; another important consideration for implementing change. Covey (2004) insisted:

There is nothing as fast as the speed of trust. It's faster than anything you can think about. It's faster than the internet, for when trust is present, mistakes are forgiven and forgotten. Trust is the glue of life. It is the glue that holds organizations, cultures, and relationships together. Ironically it comes from the speed of going slow. With people, fast is slow and slow is fast. (p. 162)

Lambert (2003) stated "the principal builds relationships and develops trust through honesty and respect" (p. 119). Lambert viewed the development of trust as building of relationships with others by the leaders' employing humility, actively listening, being fair with opportunities, being appreciative of individuals' leadership, and through the professional treatment of others. Participants' fears about change were

reduced when there was the presence of trust and more opportunities for leadership development within the community. Lezotte and McKee (2006) also identified trust as a key element for change as well as for change sustainability. Trustworthy leaders developed relationships that were clearly understood by all involved and leaders were known to "say what they mean and mean what they say" (p. 19). Similarly, Siccone (2012) indicated that leaders needed to demonstrated integrity in order to be trusted, to keep one's word and to hold others accountable for what they say they will do. Lezotte and McKee (2006) also indicated they were strategically effective in demonstrating characteristics of patience, persistence, and faith with their participants and also in the change process which inspired trust that the change was right for them and their organization.

Visioning.

Vision is more than an image of the future. It has the power to inspire, motivate and engage people. Vision rallies people for a joint effort, motivates them to become involved and committed, promoting quality performance, causing them to exert additional efforts and devote time to organizational learning processes, aimed at improving school outcomes. (Kurland, Peretz, & Hertz, 2010, p. 30)

Kurland and his associates' (2010) exploration of various definitions described vision as an image, ideal, and objective which provided a future direction, sense of purpose, and a set of ideals. Burke (2011) reported that it was the change agent's responsibility to create the mission and vision to set the tone and direction for the future organizational change. Having a vision also supported energy and buy-in of the participants to achieve a common goal or mission. Burke (2008) described the

leadership characteristics when creating a vision saying "Leadership is about vision; change; using one's intuition, influence, persuasive and presentation skills; and rewarding people with personal praise and providing opportunities to learn new skills" (p. 192).

Lezotte and McKee (2006) emphasized that in addition to creating the vision for the organization, a successful leader needed to effectively communicate the vision in such a way that it inspires followers to buy-in to the change process. Siccone (2012) warned that if vision was not also accompanied with an action plan, cynicism, rather than change, could be produced due to the lack of action. With the current challenges in organizations, participants required a clear vision in order to be inspired and they often pressured leaders to identify the vision for them (Quinn, 1996). Schlechty (1990) recommended that an alignment of the vision and leaders' values with the purpose of reformation was necessary to manage schools, rather than wielding bureaucratic authority. Values required for change processes to be successful included providing participants with positive recognition and affirmation, intellectual and professional variety, and creating a tone to assure participants that they made a difference. Freedman (2009) distinguished outstanding principals as those who "held to their vision and were comfortable with ambiguity and unintended consequences" (p. 31).

Lezotte and McKee (2006) provided another view of leadership, specifically related to the capacity of leaders to build trust, stating that leadership was not innate or natural, rather one that could be learned saying:

> Fortunately leadership is <u>not</u> something that is innate and inborn. Nor is it
> a product of personality or charisma. Leadership arises from the effective

use of a specific set of skills or behaviors that can be learned, practiced, and defined. (p. xii, emphasis in original)

Summary.

Intrapersonal skills in this section were defined as those that were those within the psyche of the leader and related to the interplay of the leader's personality, personal characteristics, as well as their actions in relating to others within a change dimension (Siccone, 2012). Leadership intrapersonal skills involved the traits of hardiness to endure challenges, having high levels of self-efficacy and confidence in leaders' capacity to accomplish goals, having passion for the role of leadership and the ability to lead with one's heart (love and the ethic of care) as well as their head (intelligence and astuteness). A positive attitude was identified for the purpose of viewing change as a fact of life or opportunity for growth. Developing trust was presented through intrapersonal as well as interpersonal skills, the latter due to the resultant influence on others and the capacity to build relationships using this as a key component, and was emphasized as an important leadership trait.

Given that change is complex and frequently difficult; leaders require personal strength to maintain their motivation to lead change efforts. Northouse (2010) described leaders who used their personal strengths and knowledge to achieve their success as "authentic". Snyder (2002) identified that personal strength is drawn from a sense of hopefulness. Eid, Johnson, Bartone and Nissestad (2008) stated that distinguished leaders had a commitment to life and work and accepted stressful and painful experiences as normal when in the midst of change and challenge. The development of interpersonal skills, such as interacting with participants, appeared to

support the development of intrapersonal skills, for example, confidence, self-efficacy, and the ability to create trusting environments. The following section provides an exploration of interpersonal skills that have been identified as significant for leaders.

Interpersonal.

Leadership's unique function is to bring out the best in people and to orientate them towards the future (Ramsden, 2005, p. 120).

Interpersonal leadership dimensions are those which are considered relational and key to establishing positive relationships with change participants (Northouse, 2010). The following interpersonal skills that will be presented include building the capacity of participants, establishing trust and respect, making a commitment, and creating communication.

Strategies for building capacity.

Capacity building consists of developments that increase the collective power in the school in terms of new knowledge and competencies, increased motivation to engage in improvement actions, and additional resources (time, money, and access to expertise). (Fullan, 2005, p. 175)

Leadership is created through relationships that are developed between participants and the leader as a result of buy-in (Cashman, 2008). Ramsden (2005) acknowledged strong relationships between leaders and followers as key for accomplishing extraordinary things including change. This involved the leader's personal communication with the participants, recognition of their inner beliefs, listening and being open to new ideas, and building of a collaborative team approach. Lambert (2003) pointed out that the role of the principal had changed significantly

saying "We now know that a principal who is collaborative, open, and inclusive can accomplish remarkable improvements in schools and deeply affect students' learning" (p. 43). Leaders were advised to create opportunities for teachers, parents, and students to lead and experience success in leadership roles to build organizational capacity with the school members. Lambert stated:

> A principal's ability to support, encourage, involve, recognize, model, teach, and give others the opportunities to lead brings about the development of a culture of leadership : the continuous development and permeation of leadership and leaders within an organization, making it live within the school community. (p. 188)

Building leadership capacity involves working well with others through influence, mentorship, guidance, and facilitation. The development of a leadership team provides additional assistance through conversations about teaching, learning and leading, goals and plans for student learning, and relationships with district personnel and the home communication process (Lambert, 2003).

Major areas of concentration for capacity building from Darling Hammond's (2004) perspective included providing teachers with the knowledge and skills required to teach well, the necessary school structures that support high quality teaching, and assessment and evaluation processes for continuous change and improvement. Darling-Hammond stressed "Unless school districts undertake systemic reforms in how they hire, retain, prepare, and support teachers and develop high quality teaching, the chances that all students will have the chance to meet new high standards are slight

(p. 1078). These needs identified by Darling-Hammond suggested the areas of future change implementations that promoted school improvement.

Leaders also built capacity by being visible to the school community. Visibility and presence of leadership were noted by Gray and Streshly (2008) as important common practices of great principals as well as great business leaders. For example, being physically present to the employees through the practice of daily walkabouts supported the development of a trusting and participatory learning environment and active involvement modeled an attitude that was necessary for participants. Schwahn and Spady (1998) recommended that values, missions, visions, and outcomes required active leadership involvement accompanied with significant decisions and actions to be effective.

An effective strategy for building capacity and inspiring staff as well as being more visible was establishing celebrations of success (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Celebrations create positive emotions which in turn create energy while negative emotions sap energy (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006) and good leaders discovered creative yet inexpensive ways of celebrating success which recognized participants' efforts and enhanced their energy with the change process. Bennett (2003) agreed that acknowledging participants' success assisted with building communities of learning through formal and informal settings. Formal settings involved special ceremonies or award celebrations while the informal settings involved casual conversations that become a tradition or part of the culture. Perseverance and integrity were necessary to develop a network of conversation and practice that resulted in positive outcomes and for all participants involved. Bennett (2003) described hospitable leaders as those who

recognized the various contributions of participants in support of each other. He stated that "Successful leadership involves letting others make differences" (p. 171).

Fullan (2005) also recommended capacity-building with training and support in place for all key leaders to improve all schools in a district. He identified that building connections between schools enabled individuals to learn from one another and establishing a sense of identity was needed to support ongoing learning. Conflicts were viewed as productive opportunities to explore differences and a culture of care combined with high expectations were necessary to address difficult outcomes.

Commitment.

Leadership commitment, evident through leaders' actions and behaviors, was necessary to lead and produce needed changes with an organization. This required significant effort on the part of the leader as well as a balance established between the goal pursued and the current reality. Siccone (2012) indicated that evidence of commitment could be recognized through the leaders' vision, action plan, and delivery of resources, training, and administration of incentives. Resources and training for the participants developed competence and confidence to support the change and incentives that were aligned with the desired change ensured that the participants were rewarded for the right purpose. Siccone also emphasized the commitment to training as an integral component to assist with development of confidence and competence for success. Irvine and Reger (2006) agreed stating: "Leadership is not a position. Leadership is not a title. Leadership is not personal accomplishment. Leadership is a presence, a commitment and a capacity to encourage, support and guide other people through the strength of who they are" (p. 63).

Educational leaders in Alberta have expected commitments. The Alberta Professional Practice Competencies (2011) were drafted to support leaders in becoming more effective, to fulfill the essential purpose of educational leadership, and to facilitate consistency in the application of school authority policies and processes. The draft list, compiled by a committee of significant educational stakeholders including the ministry, universities, teachers' association, school boards and trustees, reinforced the expectations that school leaders needed to engage in promoting sound instructional practices and learning-leadership responsibilities. This would help to support provincial leadership development and align accountability of leaders with learning opportunities to develop leaders' knowledge and expertise. The Alberta professional practice competencies included:

- Fostering Effective Relationships – a school leader must build trust and foster positive working relationships within the school community on the basis of appropriate values and ethical foundations.

- Embodying Visionary Leadership – a school leader must involve the school community in creating and sustaining shared vision, mission, values, principles, and goals.

- Leading a Learning Community – a school leader must nurture and sustain a school culture that values and supports learning.

- Providing Instructional Leadership – a school leader must ensure that each student has access to quality teaching and the opportunity to engage in quality learning experiences.

- Developing and Facilitating Leadership – a school leader must promote the development of leadership capacity within the school community for the overall benefit of the school community and education system.

- Managing School Operations and Resources – a school leader must manage school operations and resources to ensure a safe, caring, and effective learning environment.

- Understanding and Responding to the Larger Societal Context – A school leader must understand and appropriately respond to the political, social, economic, legal and cultural contexts impacting the school.

- Current research, evidence, and lessons learned inform implementation decisions

(Alberta's Education Partners, n.d., p. 5).

The Alberta Professional Practice Competencies listed key elements that were common to other research authors such as development of relationships, communication and understanding and creating a vision. Leaders of today must be committed to meeting the expectations set out by the stakeholders of the change process.

The expectation on principals to increase their personal education from their undergraduate level qualification to a post-graduate diploma and/or degree was stated in "The Principal Quality Practice Standard: Successful School Leadership in Alberta" document (Alberta Education, 2009). However, this expectation, in addition to the significant number of expectations already placed on busy principals, presented an unrealistic situation for principals who intended to demonstrate leadership commitment and professional growth.

Communication.

Effective school change initiatives require accurate, clear, concise and timely communication. When the pace of change quickens, change implementers find a greater need than ever to know just what is going on. (Williams, 1997, p. xiv)

Williams (1997) identified a link between the pace of change as well as the need for communication. Change initiatives required communication practices demonstrating accuracy, clarity, and timeliness. When articulating the vision, providing feedback, listening, and understanding to participants, Burke (2011) strongly emphasized:

> Organization change with all its complexities and nuances needs to have focus, proper emphases on priorities, and explanation, particularly of 'why we are doing these highly disruptive activities.' Repeating this story time and again (message/vision/mission) is one of the most important functions of the change leader. (p. 263)

Providing participants with timely and transparent communication with useful information, such as feedback about the outcomes, helped to identify areas for improvement (Abel & Sementelli, 2005; Lambert, 2003). Williams (1997) recognized the need for communication feedback in positive educational change to identify how changes were being implemented and why they were successful. This helped leaders to energize participants in pursuing future accomplishments. Schlechty (1990) also stressed the need for feedback within a results-oriented culture to provide direction to participants saying:

I am convinced that none of this can happen without the creation of a results-oriented culture and a leadership structure that uses results to discipline and direct action. Failure to discipline shared decisions by results means that the decisions will be disciplined by reference to the interests of factions, groups, and parties, rather than the interests of children. (p. 62)

Chenoweth and Everhart (2002) encouraged multiple sources of information, as well as feedback and assessments, to determine if a change process had been successful through active, authentic, interactive, inclusive, and continuous learning. Active learning was instrumental to engage student involvement and learning, and authentic learning connected the instruction to real life situations. Interactive learning emphasized collaboration among participants, while inclusive learning incorporated various approaches. Finally continuous learning helped to bridge prior knowledge and strengths to support future knowledge development.

Levin (2009) argued that communication was often neglected within educational reforms. At times, communication was present at the onset of the implementation then slowly deteriorated as a result of the leaders' overconfidence. Leaders were advised that they must take the time to inform participants of the positive reasons for reform. Fullan (2010) viewed communication during a change implementation as more important than communication prior to the change stating that "Communication in the abstract, in the absence of action, means almost nothing" (p. 26).

Communication was also a key leadership element when solving problems and strengthening a shared vision. An example was noted by Dalton McGinty (Ontario premier at the time) who recognized the "Leader to Leader" program of 20 leaders of 10 struggling and 10 effective schools. These leaders came together to communicate common concerns and effective strategies in bringing resolutions to the challenges (Fullan, 2010). Greenleaf (1977) also emphasized the art of listening as important communication. Listening was described as more important than remembering or being still but rather an attitude to understand what others were saying. When understanding was developed, wisdom and unlimited opportunities were created. Reeves (2009) stated complex organizations that created effective changes in a short period of time incorporated ongoing communication from the leader throughout the entire organization.

Summary of interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions.

This literature review provided significant background information on leadership and included intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership organizational change dimensions. Freedman (2009) described outstanding principals with sound interpersonal skills as "those who held to their vision and were comfortable with ambiguity and unintended consequences" (p. 31). When learning processes are channeled through a school vision there is great reassurance of sustainable improvement (Kurland et al., 2010). Schwahn and Spady (1998) described the vision as the reason that others buy into the change, and if the vision is not compelling then it is unlikely that the change would occur. Fullan (2001, 2005), like Schwahn and Spady (1998), recommended stakeholder input into the vision to set the direction and to plan

out the approach to change, which allowed them to be more engaged and assume ownership of the change process.

Siccone (2012), Greenleaf (1977), Schlechty (1990), and Williams (1997) identified communication as a critical skill for effective leadership. Williams (1997) indicated that in change processes, communication was a critical interpersonal skill as the participants need "to know what is going on" and what their role was in the change (p. xiv). Scott and Webber (2008) emphasized continuous communication and feedback as essential aspects of leadership, and Burke (2008) recognized the need for communicating praise to support participants' efforts as a key leadership trait during times of change. Hughes and Mighty (2010) identified effective communication skills as necessary to market teaching success, reward good teaching, and build a strong practice. Siccone (2012) and Greenleaf (1997) both identified the importance of the intrapersonal skill of active listening to identify the stakeholders' perspectives to the change, the difficulties they are experiencing and potential solutions to the issues. Siccone (2012) indicated "Communication has three dimensions: content, which is what you say; process, which is how you say it: and context, which is who you are, to whom you are speaking, where*, when*, and *why"* (p. 33). Siccone also associated communication as key for the collaboration of staff and the capacity to assist them to work well and productively together. When staff worked together they created positive change cultures and these were supported and sustained with effective communication. Communication, therefore, motivated participants to continue expending effort in the change and to strive for future accomplishments. Schlechty (1990) also emphasized

the importance of communicating results in order to direct the pathway for further change and to introduce new ideas and strategies through shared decision making.

These intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions are essential for school leaders to be able to influence individuals to engage with a needed change, as well as those who are impacted with educational change implementations. Leaders' intrapersonal skills are contained with the personality and psyche of the leader while interpersonal skills are those which facilitate the leaders' capacity to develop relationships with others. The combination of these dimensions along with the leaders' experience directly impact the followers and result in a positive outcome for students and other members of the school community.

Change Leadership

> *Becoming change savvy makes you more confident and humble at the same time. In this respect, leaders have two responsibilities: to be always learning and refining the skinny of change* [key essential elements] *and to realize that they have an equal responsibility to teach others the same. (Fullan, 2010, p. 75)*

Evans (2001) stated that "change means different things to different people; in fact; it usually means something different to each and every individual (p. 21) and Dufour and Eaker (2004) indicated that those who pursued the study of implementing and sustaining successful change would become confused due to the many reasons why changes failed. Additional views about change from Lezotte and McKee (2006) recognized that:

Change is not easy; it is dynamic and chaotic, emotionally charged, and stress inducing. An important precursor to leading successful change in your school or district is a realistic view of what that change will mean, as well as a clear understanding of your own attitudes towards the change process. (p. 47)

Fullan (1988) cautioned that the capacity of a leader to make change was limited making it a challenge to find a principal who was successful in making successful change, stating "despite ten years of effort, principals as dynamic change agents are still empirically rare-probably fewer than one in ten" (p. 7) and Burke (2008) admitted that additional research was required to understand leaders' personality, charisma, power and impact to influence the culture of an organization. To better understand the complexities of change and the difficulties that accompany leaders of change the following section explored Senge (2006), Sergiovanni (2005), Fullan (2010) and Cashman (2008) who were well known in the literature of change. Each individual was studied to explore various key elements of change as well as those elements that facilitated faster-paced change.

Senge's Fifth Discipline.

As an executive team, you must master managing organization change – design, structure, and implementation. This must be accomplished through methods that get the entire organization engaged and committed, both in favor of the shared vision and in a rigorous search for the truth. (Senge et al., 1999, p. 438)

Senge's (2006) theoretical argument for organizational change discovered ways that participants think and interact as well as ways that leaders support participants

with change. Leaders who supported their followers allowed these participants to contribute ideas and activities which helped them to be part of the process and withstand the challenges of the change. Greater involvement by more participants resulted in increased levels of diversity, commitment, innovation, and talent. Senge (1999) and his colleagues' exploration of various change terms identified "profound" change as that which shifted inner values of individuals (Senge et al., 1999, p. 33).

Five learning disciplines for leaders and their organizations were classified by Senge (2009) as personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking. *Personal mastery* was recognized as the strong link that was developed between leaders' vision and their current reality when making decisions. *Mental models* involved continuous reflection, discussion, and ongoing consideration of global situations to direct leaders' actions and decisions. Having a *shared vision* with the participants gave them the opportunity to have a commitment and contribute to a future shared vision. Group interaction, known as *team learning,* through techniques like dialogue and skillful discussion and collective thinking, resulted in plans with greater intelligence, abilities, and greater energy towards understanding of interdependency and change. *Systems thinking* provided leaders with a larger view to better understand how various elements linked together within the organization rather than simply perceiving the individual components. These five disciplines provide essential elements for leaders who must not only have a strong vision but also the right judgement when initiating change in varied circumstances. This involves ongoing reflection and continued discussions and refinements as the change process evolves. It is also essential for the leader to allow participation from a range of individuals in the

organization and to provide support to them through various learning opportunities. Finally, the leader must have a perspective of the larger context of the change in order to connect the change with other organizations or external possibilities.

Sergiovanni's Virtuous Leadership.

> *These* [virtuous] *leaders know and focus on what is important, care deeply about their work, learn from their successes and failures, take calculated risks, and are trustworthy people ... four leadership virtues: hope, trust, piety, and civility. When these four are at the core of leadership practice, the leverage needed for improving even the most challenging schools can be discovered. (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 112)*

Sergiovanni (2009) emphasized the importance and balance of eight prescribed management competencies for successful leaders (Sergiovanni, 2009). The first four competencies were acknowledged as those borrowed from Bennis and Nanus (1985): management of attention, trust, meaning, and self. Management of attention focused on attention with the leaders' words, the attention and time given to participants, and the behavior and rationale provided with decision making. Management of trust was demonstrated through leaders' honesty, credibility, and legitimacy with the relationships developed. Connections that leaders established with participants' purpose and meaning of life was recognized as management of meaning, thus enhancing the participants' commitment to the organisation and collaboration in supporting and co-creating the leader's vision. Finally, the leaders' awareness of their personal beliefs and actions were referred to as self-management.

The remaining four management competencies described by Sergiovanni were identified as management of paradox, effectiveness, follow-up, and responsibility. A

leader's management of paradox involved the combination of differentiating thoughts and opinions for the purpose of a stronger vision and commitment. Strong vision was connected to the possibilities that supported change for participants, while the areas not visible to the leader created obstacles which restricted change. Management of effectiveness involved capacity for leadership improvement over time. Leaders who were good managers in the midst of implementation processes provided timely follow-up procedures for the participants. The final competency was a leader's management of responsibility. These responsibilities included leaders' planning, organizing, leading, and controlling which created a heightened understanding, meaning and significance with the participants' even through periods of extreme difficulty. Sergiovanni (2009) emphasized the importance of leadership planning which involved setting goals and objectives for the school and developing blueprints and strategies for implementation. The provision of human, financial, and physical resources for participants were key to accomplishing goals, in addition to completing evaluations, reviewing regulating performance, and providing feedback.

Sergiovanni (2009) described leadership as one that comprised itself of three important dimensions – one's heart, one's head, and one's hand which work together for success. The "heart" of leadership coalesced with values and beliefs to which a leader was committed. The "head" connected theories of practice that the leader had developed and could be reflected upon for future situations. The "hand" involved the leaders' actions and the decisions that resulted in programs, policies, and procedures. A commitment of hard work, passion, and a vision were prescribed with all of the management competencies. The demonstration and management of these virtues is a

significant responsibility for leaders in their role as successful change agents as well as for the change participants.

Fullan's Change Theory.

> *A good theory explains not how you want the world to work, but how it actually works. Paradoxically, if you have strong moral principles along with a theory of change (as distinct from just having the moral principles), you have a greater chance of improving your organization and its environment. I recommend then that you work on your own theory. (Fullan, 2008, p. 125)*

Fullan's (2005) Theory of Action for System Change (TASC) involved components that were interrelated and simultaneously addressed. Once the purpose and process of reform was established, a small number of goals were determined with strategies to measure the progress. This measurement of progress could be conducted, perhaps by comparing them with other related organizations. Resources of funding, time, and expertise were required as well as establishing partnership with stakeholders to help guide the change process and develop opportunities for leadership. Flexibility and collaboration with partnerships of all levels of the field were necessary when setting an agenda. As a trainer and consultant of change projects around the world, Fullan (2005) believed this theory for system change could be adapted at various organizational levels including those of district and schools. Fullan indicated that turning around low performing schools could be achieved by placing stronger emphasis on capacity building and less emphasis on accountability. Schools in England that were identified in need of attention to improve their performance proved to be successful in most cases with a reduced timeline as the interventions were refined

(Fullan's 2005). Fullan's work with Bertani and Quinn (as cited in Fullan, 2005) identified ten lessons for districts to initiate as drivers of reform. These included: a compelling conceptualization by district leaders; a collective moral purpose; the best approach or vehicle to improve all schools in the district; building capacity; lateral capacity building – which involves a network for schools across districts to work together so they can create a shared identity beyond the individual school; ongoing learning for teachers and the learning community; productive conflict whereby gains are reported through resolving conflicts surrounding the change agenda; a demanding culture which refutes the status quo; external partners that support the school change agenda; and, a focused financial investment. A conceptualization of the reform as well as a commitment to strategies to build capacity for the participants was required of district leaders with their moral purpose being in the interests of the entire district.

Fullan (2008), recognized as a world-wide authority on education reform, later recommended best practice secrets for change leaders to help their organizations survive and thrive. These secrets included the importance of building positive relationships to help identify participants' strengths and be able to connect them with the necessary areas of change. Other secrets for change included building participant capacity to make contributions towards the change, communicating the change process to the participants, and pursuing ongoing learning for continued improvement (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2009). Fullan (2008) stressed the point that leaders must search the theoretical framework that helped them make sense of their ideas and beliefs and recommended that leaders create their own change theory based on their own ideas and beliefs.

Cashman's Change Mastery Steps.

Making these shifts will transform your leadership effectiveness by shifting from being coping-driven to being character-driven (Cashman, 2008, p. 125).

Cashman (2008) advised that "change mastery is about developing an unshakable inner confidence that we can handle and can learn from whatever comes our way" (p. 112). Successful leaders of change are able to deal with unanticipated large or small circumstances and this experience helps to develop their effectiveness. Changes of perceptions were shifted from 'coping with the change' to 'surviving the change' to 'leading with more flexibility'. Other shifts included 'problem perceptions to opportunity perceptions', 'short-term to long-term', 'circumstance to purpose', 'control to agility', 'self to service', 'expertise to listening', and 'doubt to trust' (Cashman, 2008). In other words, negative thoughts shifted to positive thoughts through a range of dimensions.

Cashman (2008) acknowledged the complexities of change and the necessary requirements of leadership collaboration, relationship building, participation management, change management, and adaptability and risk taking skills as necessary to steer the change process. He acknowledged that complex changes lacked clear or traditional solutions which may have been previously successful. Complex changes challenged the abilities of individuals and required reflection and action, in addition to flexibility and agility as the circumstances shifted throughout the process. Leading with agility involved being open in the learning and present in the moment, integrating immediate focus and broad awareness, trusting in one's self, developing resiliency through mental-emotional stretching, remembering that all significant change begins

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with self-change, practicing the change mastery shifts and taking the leap (Cashman, 2008).

The first piece of advice Cashman gave was to remember that change is constant and leaders must adapt and learn from it as opposed to resisting it. Adaptability which is a key feature of Cashman's work resonates with Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky's (2009) work in adaptive leadership where they defined it as "the practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive" (p. 14). When leaders were faced with change, they were also faced with opportunities to be open to new possibilities and learning and to let go of old (traditional) ways. Leaders needed to focus on the present and become masters of the present moment to develop the capacity to manage present moments linked together for long term success. Leaders were also required to keep the overall vision in mind. During rapid and dynamic change, leaders trusted themselves and their intuition which helped to instill confidence in their followers, even during times of failure. Times of failure were viewed as part of change and tenacity to continue to pursue future projects were celebrated. Leaders adapted by changing and growing through the change process. This required an open view with flexibility to accept whatever came in the leader's pathway. Leaders needed the resilience to thrive with change and to recognize that change starts from within. Leaders' strategies for working with change followers included focusing their attention on the change and helping them envision the change from their perspective. Followers benefitted from an environment where they were able to communicate and share their perspectives on a daily basis. Time also needed to be provided for processing and reflection. Followers needed to be reminded of

possibilities for a positive future and to not dwell on the past particularly if the past was negative.

Popper's Evolutionary Epistemology.

Perkinson (1984) in his discussion of Popper's theory of the "evolution of epistemology" articulated that individuals establish knowledge through criticism and testing (p. 38). Popper defined his theory as a "trial and error" process where failed strategies are eliminated or modified and best practices are kept for future reference "The growth of knowledge is always the same: we try to solve our problems, and to attain, by a process of elimination, something approaching adequacy in our tentative solutions" (cited in Perkinson 1984, p. 38). Hence, principals in their search for optimal knowledge and practices will critique their colleagues and their own current epistemologies and practices and will discard the old and ineffective in order to adopt innovative knowledge and approaches. As schools struggle to adapt with the pressures of change, Popper's process was described as 'survival of the fittest' in terms of continual epistemological improvement and refinement of practice.

Popper's theoretical framework recognized that "our ignorance grows with our knowledge, and that we shall therefore always have more questions than answers" (Magee, 1994, p. 36). Magee noted that Popper acknowledged that one must be concerned with change and that the pace of social change seemed to be getting faster. The challenge of change from Popper's perspective was to "maximize our control over the actual changes that occur in a process of change which is never-ending- and to use that control wisely" (Magee, 1994, p. 111).

Summary – Change leaders.

The effective leader realizes that no one leadership style is appropriate for all followers and all situations and accurately discerns which styles are appropriate for which followers in which situations (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005, p. 18.)

There have been several scholars who have contributed their theories about change leadership. Fullan's (2008) view encouraged leaders to develop their own leadership theory and Cashman (2008) emphasized the importance for leaders to master their own shifts for change. Sergiovanni (2009) identified that a balance of various management competencies were required for school leaders and Senge (2006) emphasized 'disciplines' for leaders' consideration in order for followers to choose change. The emphasis of strong leadership with a number of disciplines, managements, and creativity were evident throughout the literature. All change leaders must focus on developing relationship with the followers and using best practices to support these participants throughout the change process.

Other common elements of good principals included their professional identity, influence of the liberal arts, and personal identity (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Successful change agent leaders held teaching and learning at the heart of their professional identity and were passionate and energized about the challenges of change. They appeared to be lifelong learners and continuously searched for the best options and were influenced by professional development. Finally, good principals were able to maintain a mutual respect between home and school as well as maintaining the boundaries required by their role (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Leaders of change were required to provide affiliation, collegial support, and interaction "That

is what leadership is about, doing it one's own way, but for purposes of leading change according to key roles and sequenced activities" (Burke, 2008, p. 25).

Organizational Change

> *Regardless of the direction in which school improvement efforts are headed, the point is that improvement is continuous and change is constant. During the process of change, new things will be tried, mistakes will be made and hopefully lessons will be learned. (Siccone, 2012, p. 128)*

A review of the change literature investigated how the change theory and processes have evolved over the past decade. This knowledge was necessary to understand change processes in organizations and the perceptions of effective change agents. The following sections will explore the history of change within the Canadian context as well as various models and/or theories of change. Specific change studies of Hall and Hord (2011), and Burke (2008) will be presented as well as findings from a study of the world's most improved school systems by Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010).

History of change within the Canadian context.

Canada's education has changed due to various global, national, and provincial pressures. Over the past thirty years, two global educational paradigms have been recognized as significant in responding to changes and guiding educational reforms in Canada. O'Sullivan (1999) described these are paradigms which focused on world competition and collaboration. Knowledge was viewed as the competitive advantage with global competitiveness of industrial nations in the global economy while interdependent global needs and responsibilities were viewed as key elements with

global interdependence (Lieberman & Miller, 2005; O'Sullivan, 1999). The following section maps some of the significant changes to occur to Alberta's education context which illustrates the awareness within Canada to maintain its competitiveness in the global market.

Mapping significant change milestones in Alberta.

From the early efforts of Canadian pioneers to action researchers of today, contributions of knowledge and expertise throughout the history of education have created what is recognized as one of the best education systems in the world today (Matsumoto, 2002). Some significant historical changes to education as identified by Matsumoto were identified from a provincial, national and global scope. These changes were tracked from the late 1870s through to the present day and included:

- Introduction of school grading in Alberta (late 1870s);
- Adoption of different (external to Alberta) models of education such as Egerton Ryerson model (Ontario based) in 1910-1914 and the John Dewey model (American based) in 1935;
- Restructuring to larger administrative units;
- Redefining of school districts;
- Discovery of oil (1947) at Leduc, Alberta. This created an end to Alberta's status as a poor province;
- A new Teaching Profession Act with mandatory membership (now recognized as the Alberta Teachers' Association);
- Curricular revision, teaching objectives, and evaluation criteria and procedures (for students and teachers) were redefined.

- Initiation of standardized tests (1981) and compulsory grade twelve final exams (1983) in all core subjects (contributing 50% to the final grade).

An Alberta Education (ministry of education) review of almost every aspect of education including administration and delivery was conducted in 1984-1985. In a joint study, the Alberta Chamber of Resources (ACR) and the Conference Board of Canada conducted international comparisons in education. These 1991 comparisons included Alberta schools and those in Japan, Germany, and Hungary. By 1994 the province was fully responsible for educational funding and reduced the total number of school boards from 140 to 60 with superintendent appointments being addressed at the ministry level. Additional changes included a 50% cut of funding for kindergarten, the total removal of transportation funding, and activation of the charter school legislation (Matsumoto, 2002). These changes represent the significant shifts of education over the years due to national and international pressure and trends. Changes have been influenced by several individuals, such as Hall and Hord, Hargreaves and Shirley, Darling-Hammond, and others, and many of these are well-known in the educational context. The following section identifies key change agents and their contributions to change. Additional knowledge will be provided through the comparison of the various theory and theorists.

Table 2-3:
Change Theories and Theorists

Comparison of Change Theories and change theorists	Hall and Hord	Hargreaves/Shirley England research study	Darling-Hammond (Report of US Education)	Reeves	Levin	Schleicher (World)	Burke
Personal dimension of Change Leader	25 years of experience with Concerns-based Adoption Model	Founder of International Centre for Educational change (Toronto University)(1987) Shirley (Micro/macro education intervention research	Named one of US top influential people affecting educational policy (2006)	Author and founder of Leadership and Learning Centre. He worked with education, business, non-profit and government around the world	Canadian Research Chair in Educational Leadership	Education and analysis of international education systems (OECD)	Organizational change consultant US army
Type of organizational change theory	(CBAM) Concerns-based Adoption Model Relates to individuals rather than entire organizations	The 4th way Purpose and partnership Principles of professionalism Catalysts of coherence	Democratic professional approach	Study of failure of traditional change strategies	Politics and change	International comparisons used as drivers of change	Four Phases 1. Pre-launch 2. Launch 3. Post-launch 4. Sustain

Characteristics or features of the theory/definition	Implementation Bridge to support change process Stages of concern	Vision Engagement Investment Responsibility Partners in change Alternative path of change to inspiration and sustainability.	Investment in teachers skills and knowledge Development of students critical thinking skills Supportive learning conditions	Direction Speed Scope Hierarch/networks 5 levels of networks Level five	Data supported plan Careful implementation Create buy-through communication Focus on few goals	Rational Possibilities of education National targets in broader perspectives Assessing the pace of change Supporting political economy of reform

Change theory and theorists.

Because it would be impossible to describe each of these theories and theorists, the following chart was provided which presented organizational change theories and theorists that were explored as part of this literature review. Table 2-3 describes change theorists and theories, personal dimensions of their change leadership and characteristics of their theories. These individuals have been highly recognized as significant contributors to change research and are well known as successful change agents in their areas of change expertise. Their work is representative from various locations including Canada, United States, England as well as studies that have been conducted throughout the world.

Hall and Hord's Concerns-based Adoption Model.

Over the years, a greater understanding of change has developed based on research and professional learning that included identifying programs and practices that were not producing successful learning, identifying those that were effective and transitioning them in the classroom to develop new understandings and skills (Hall, 1974; Hall & Hord, 2011). Hall (1974) developed the Concerns-based Adoption Model (CBAM) which described how participants in change reacted and conceptualized the change process over time. Hall and Hord recognized that change efforts varied with different types of change and recommended an "implementation bridge" to support the change process (p. 123).

Hall and Hord's (2011) CBAM initially drafted in the 1970s was designed as a tool to measure the progression of learning, changes, and school improvement. Stages of concern were identified in the manner that leaders addressed the participants' concerns. At the onset of the change, the participants appeared unconcerned about the change and were not yet considered on the bridge to implementation. This required change leaders to provide additional information to identify to participants what was to follow. Following this stage, participants were focused on the impact of the change which required ongoing information by the change leaders. Once the task of implementation had begun, the participants' degree of concern shifted to being the most intense and potentially lasted for periods up to five years. Continued supports from the change leaders through coaching of their participants were required. When the participants recognized the impact that they had made as a result of their efforts, the implementation was considered complete.

Hall and Hord (2011) also cautioned that each innovation required its own configuration with respect to how groups were designed, the subject area of change, and the individuals involved with the change. To determine the change stages, behavioral profiles of educators were identified ranging from those individuals who did not respond at all to the change (Nonuse), those who made inquiries and consideration of the change (Orientation), those who continually checked back and developed efficiency with the implementation (Mechanical), and those who created routines and could predict what would happen next (Routine). Continuous feedback was essential throughout all of the process was essential. Formative assessments were able to help leaders identify participants' progress throughout the change while summative assessments were only necessary once the change implementation had been completed. Guskey (1986) made similar recommendations with his work with research on teaching, mastery learning, and evaluation. When working with staff, Gusky reminded that change was a difficult and gradual process for teachers and therefore, teachers needed to be given continued support for the change through ongoing training and by using feedback in the form of student learning outcomes. Shapiro (2004) identified participant attitudes of change individuals as apathetics, incubators, advocates, and resistors. He described participants who were indifferent (apathetic), those who contemplated what the change could do for them (incubator), those who supported the change (advocate), or those who resisted the change due to concerns, past experience, or fear (resistors) (Shapiro, 2004). The leader manipulated the necessary combination of change technique as they saw best in order to produce the desired change.

Burke's stages of change.

By "change significantly," I mean to turn the organization in another direction, to fundamentally modify the "way we do things" to overhaul the structure – the design of the organization for decision making and accountability – and to provide organizational members with a whole new vision for the future. (Burke, 2008, p. 11)

Burke (2008) warned that the success of large-scale organizational change is rare as a result of various reasons. These included the fact that change involved the shift of cultural changes, and participants of change may perceive that nothing appears to be broken, thus no need for change. Additionally, Burke indicated there was a lack of knowledge about planning and conducting change. Along with communicating the need for change as initiating first steps, primary phases of organizational change included the pre-launch, launch, post-launch, and 'sustaining the effort' phases (p. 269). Phases of Burke's model for planning and leading organizational change were known to overlap and could be interrupted at any time. These phases are explained in the following paragraphs:

Pre-launch.

This is the time period where leaders reflect on the change which heightens and clarifies their own self-awareness, motives, and values. Self-reflection time assists leaders with the creation of their vision recognizing that the course of change was not predictable with areas that they could or could not control. The leaders' self-understanding assists them to understand the participants' feelings. Because change can be complex and chaotic, leaders are required to be good decision makers, which involves their knowing when to take the lead or when to step back and facilitate

others' leadership capacity. Leaders' intentions are critical in organizational change as there is great potential to change the status quo when the goals of the organization and the leader are aligned. When the values of leaders and organizations are aligned, then the result is success. However at times, it is necessary for leaders to change the values of their organization, which is essential in changing the culture of the organization. This involves creating a vision statement which provides clear direction for the change process. Burke (2008) described effective change leaders as individuals with high energy to work long hours, those who interacted with people, and had the ability to energize others.

Launch.

In this phase Burke (2008) indicated leaders recognized the need for change and were responsible for collecting and analyzing information, as well as communicating and convincing participants. He stated change could be orchestrated at different levels; however, because resistance could vary at each level, leaders needed to pay attention to each of the specific needs that were required. Changes at the individual level required the involvement and choice of the individual. Changes at a group level involved proper closure of the past and new membership and decision making. System level changes required a strong reason for change accompanied by strong leadership as Burke indicated this strong leadership was "not in a dictatorial way but leading with persistence and with clarity of direction, passion, and vision" (p. 259).

Post-launch.

Burke continued in his description of his phases of change indicating that once the launch of the change had been initiated, it was typical for leaders to experience anxiety and uncertainty. Leaders questioned their decision for change due to feelings of a loss of control which required persistence on their part. Establishing a balance between encouraging others out of their comfort zone and ensuring things did not become dysfunctional was necessary. Resistance behavior, such as avoidance or blame, from participants is addressed during this phase and new processes are developed during this process. Participants who become angry with the change process looked to the leader as their target of frustration. This again requires patience, careful listening, and caution so that leaders did not become defensive to participants but rather persevered and assured participants by constant communication of the change vision. This enabled participants to identify with the vision message and see themselves as part of the story.

With respect to change in larger organizations, it was important to recognize that change was too complex for just one implementation but required multiple implementations. Examples of Burke's (2008) "multiple levers" included a re-engineering of the change process, designing of mission statements, training and development for the participants, creation of values and behaviors that would be implemented as a result, and support of a new culture" (p. 260).

Sustaining the change.

Burke presented four considerations about sustaining the change. These included unanticipated consequences, momentum, choosing successors, and launching

new initiatives. At times the implementation of the change results in unanticipated consequences, where people who embrace or resist the change may change their views and sometimes the desired outcomes do not take place.

Maintaining the momentum can be created through recognizing the efforts of the individuals in the change and celebrating their achievement. The leader must be alert to external factors which require modifications to maintain the change. Choosing new successors is also significant so that new ideas and fresh approaches can continue to flow within the organization. Finally, new initiatives may help to drive the change into the future and spark new energy.

Burke (2008) strongly suggested areas of needed research with organizational change which included the continued exploration of sustaining the momentum of organizational change through participant feedback, and exploring strategies for measuring and celebrating participant achievements. Another area of consideration which is valuable for leaders is the exploration of chaotic patterns which arise during change and participant creativity which emerge as part of the process. Continued research with communication was another area for change process, specifically the timing and the amount of communication needed in a change process.

A contemporary perspective on change in schools.

Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber (2010) reported research resulting from a study of the world's most improved schools that involved 200 leaders in 20 school districts around the world, and which provided an understanding of school system performance from a global perspective. School districts reported significant, sustained, and widespread substantial improvements in a timeframe as short as six

years. This global and extensive research indicated that rapid change was possible. Although common strategies were explored, each case was context-specific. Successful changes were acknowledged across various cultures, income levels, diverse countries, and political systems. Leadership was identified as the critical ingredient for successful change. These successful change agents were described as highly motivated and committed to finding better ways of performance and recognized that discipline and a drive to move forward were required.

Within a two- or three-year timeframe district improvements were identified. Three common steps with these districts included determining the status quo, the necessary interventions (referred to as the intervention cluster), and determining the system's adaptation to the intervention cluster (taking into consideration the context). One critical difference was that no consistency was found with the various interventions or with the amount of rigor or discipline used as part of the process.

Change ignition was usually the result of two of the following: A crisis, the impact of a high profile or the new energy of a leader, or criticism of the school. Mandated or persuaded interventions were based on attributes, such as, the desired pace of change, whether the desired change was a non-negotiable for the system reform, the degree of winners and loser as a result of the change, and the credibility and stability of the leadership and government.

Cross-stage interventions were those that were evident throughout the different levels of performance. Although they were implemented differently at each of the levels, interventions that were identified included: changes in curriculum, the provision of rewards for teachers and principals, development of technical skills of teachers and

principals, assessment of students, development of systems for data collection, and developing change through policies and educational laws. Sustainability was developed through knowledge of what worked and inventing new ways of doing things better. Sustainable leaders learned how to work around challenges of their context and use it to their advantage. Education, innovation, and economic success were key to success. Change involves people and at times programs, and sometimes a combination of both people and programs. The following section provides a discussion about people and program changes.

People changes and program changes.

Most changes don't count for very much. Some changes actually make things worse. This is why the school change and school improvement distinction is so important. School improvement is anchored in gains the school makes over time in achieving its purposes. Some of the purposes have to do with students' learning. Other purposes have to do with teach learning. And still other purposes deal with other themes. School change often happens in a random pattern. School improvement requires a much more targeted approach than is usually the case. (Sergiovanni, 2009, p. 364)

Changes may be categorized as people changes or program changes. The following section provides information of program and people changes. People changes involves the necessary culture that is essential to support change, as well as, individual types of motivation and concerns towards change including change resistance, while program changes involve a particular practice or instructional approach. At times, both people and program changes may be encompassed in the change process.

People changes – culture.

The point of view that I am presenting here is that you don't change culture by trying to change culture. Culture is "the way we do things around here" and concerns deeply held beliefs, attitudes, and values. Taking a direct, frontal approach to changing values is fraught with difficulty, resistance, and strong human emotion. We therefore start with behavior instead. We start with the behavior that will lead to the desired change in attitudes and values. (Burke, 2008, p. 23)

Holcomb's (2001) described organizational change as those that occur with each of the individuals within the organization rather than the institution as a collective. Lezotte and McKee (2006) stated:

Change is not easy; it is dynamic and chaotic, emotionally charged, and stress inducing. An important precursor to leading successful change in your school or district is a realistic view of what that change will mean, as well as a clear understanding or your own attitudes towards the change process. (p. 47)

Schwahn and Spady (1998) reported that people do not change unless they share a reason to change, have ownership of the change, and know that the leader is serious about the change. In a similar vein, Hall and Hord (2011); Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, and Hall (1987) stated participants must also have a clear picture about how the change will affect them and must be supported throughout the process for them to engage and be successful with the change. These researchers identified that leaders were key to working collaboratively and supporting participants to make change happen (Burke, 2008; Leithwood & Strauss, 2009). Joyce and Calhoun (2010)

reiterated the need for leaders to support teachers in changes to instructional practices. They indicated that leaders must provide teachers with support through mentorship and peer-coaching in order for change to teaching behaviors to occur and become embedded in teachers' routines. Therefore, understanding that change is complex highlights the importance of effective leadership in visioning for the change, guiding and shaping it according the demands of the context, and supporting the participants of the change.

Even though leadership is important, Burke (2008) described the powerful force that can be created when several individuals agreed on the same issue and warned that the leader could easily be outnumbered even if the perceptions of the issue were not correct. Through the development of positive culture, leaders are empowered to build the momentum of implementation and to create change. The rate of change could be determined by the leader's ability and pace of establishing a positive culture. Culture was described as aspects that people within an organization commonly agreed upon and was evident by the presence of collegiality, mutual sharing of assistance, and collaborative work (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002). In order to support staff members to work in a culture with diverse views, leaders recognize that meeting management procedures and group process skills are necessary and that it may be possible to introduce new ideas and ways that would eventually change behaviors. Senge and his associates (1999) stated the importance of studying the culture until it is understood instead of creating a new culture while Deal and Peterson (1999) noted that leaders could change the culture through the importance of understanding the school and the community culture. Without the understanding of the culture, the result is failure

instead of success (Senge, 2006). changing the culture could involve a timeframe of five to ten years which is twice as long as one might expect; however, even after this length of time, the culture itself may not have changed but rather simply provided the "stage for the culture to evolve" (Senge et al., 1999, p. 335). Mulford, Silins, and Leithwood (2004) agreed saying "Instead of others trying to insert something into the school's culture, the school, and especially its leadership, should first be trying to help that culture develop an awareness of and responsiveness to itself" (p. 35).

Burke (2008) noted the importance for leaders to build teams such as committees, teams, or work groups when making change within their organizations. Team-building activities helped to achieve the change required within the organization. The effect of the change, however, differed with each individual, work unit, and system. Individuals view the change from the perspective of their personal impact and Burke warned that although the change process would not be the same for all levels of the organization, the common outcome for all individuals is organizational survival:

> It should be reiterated that the fundamental mission of an organization is
> to survive. Most of the time, organizations survive by continuously fixing
> problems and trying to improve the way things are done. Sometimes,
> however, survival depends on an entirely new raison d'etre with
> completely different products or services or both. (Burke, 2008, p. 69)

Not everyone believes that cultural change is possible. Evans (2001) delivered a pessimistic perspective related to cultural change saying... "Is there any hope for culture change in schools? - the answer is no" (p. 519). In his view, the task of

changing a culture was highly unlikely even if it could be identified. This is a very different perspective than previously mentioned researchers who suggested that cultural change was possible (Hargreaves, 1992). The view in this case suggested that if individuals adamantly decided that they were refusing to change, then there was no possibility of resolution. Wheatley (2012) stated that change is not possible saying:

> So what do we do? We cannot change this world, as fearsome as it is. It's an emergent phenomenon that will not be changed no matter what we do. Instead, let's make a good use of the process of self-making, consciously choosing values and beliefs that support meaningful lives and strong community where we are and with those we're with. (p. 49)

Knights and Willmott (2007) pointed out that administrators did not control the culture of the organization but the behavior of the people within the organization that decided how the daily structure will unfold saying "Even the best attempts of cultural change and understanding may not necessarily solve the problem if the individuals involved refuse to shift their thinking" (Able & Sementelli, 2005, p. 445).

Key individuals who are a significant part of people changes include school community stakeholders. The following section introduces the stakeholders and emphasizes the significance of building relationships with and including them in the change process.

School Community Stakeholders

Although principals are important, and their visions key in focusing attention on change and in successfully implementing the process of change, what counts in the need is bringing together the ideas and commitments of a variety of people who have a stake in the success of the school. (Sergiovanni, 2009, p. 364)

Sergiovanni (2009) claimed that community provided "the theory and the framework for schools to use to strengthen their commitment and efforts toward improving connections, coherence, capacity, commitment, and collaboration (p. 110). The next section identifies stakeholders as key to organizations and change, and addresses the importance of their role, as well as some of the challenges such as resistance of stakeholders to change.

Stakeholders as key to organization and change.

Leaders at all levels including parents, school councils, students, community members, businesses, industry and post-secondary institutions are considered partners in supporting implementation and are able to participate in the transition towards the intended goal. (Alberta's Education Partners, 2010, p. 4)

Stakeholders have been recognized as key contributors in supporting change practices and should be involved in the change (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002). Chenoweth and Everhart reminded that an effective leader is able to transition from being the center of attention of leadership to facilitating others to assume leadership roles. Lambert (2003) described parents who co-lead with stakeholders, participate in education practices in the school community, and advocate education to other parents as a key support to leadership and change. Leithwood (2004) also recognized external

stakeholders of the district, community, and government as part of educational change support system.

Lezotte and McKee (2006) identified increasing leadership pressures of accountability to various stakeholders including ministries of education, parent and community groups, boards of trustees, government, and others. These pressures have made it more difficult to recruit and retain good school leaders. In the document produced by Alberta Education (2009) the committee described these pressures as:

> School mission and goal development, issue identification, priority setting, school improvement planning, financial and human resource management and development, information gathering and data-based decision making, public and community relations and educational accountability and reporting system requirements are all competencies expected of the Alberta school principal. (p. 3)

In addition to the number of competencies reported by Alberta Education, leaders are also faced with dealing with resistant individuals who refuse to collaborate. The following section discusses resistance to change.

Resistance to change.

> *Organizational change may be an oxymoron like jumbo shrimp. Organizations don't change as whole entities. They change as the people within them do, and those people don't change all at the same time. There are leaders; there are optimistic followers; there are pessimistic, reluctant followers; and there are some who don't budge at all. Those who lead the way – and those who readily join them – need support to weather initial resistance and continue their efforts. (Holcomb, 2001, p. 133)*

Change means different things to different people (Holcomb, 2001). Schwahn and Spady's (1998) reasons for resistance indicated that resistant participants must be convinced that their leaders were serious about the change and they knew what the transition would look like from their perspective. It was also essential that they know what support they could expect to receive during the course of the change. Being able to participate and agree to the rationale of the change were two important factors to consider when working with individuals who are resistant. Productive change occurred when the organizational structure and the staff were aligned with the school vision. People did not change unless they shared a compelling reason to change, had ownership in the change, were serious about the change, had a concrete picture of what the change would look like for them personally and received organizational support for the change (Schwahn & Spady, 1998).

Burke (2008) identified forms of resistance due to: fears of change (blind resistance), fear of loss of position or power (political resistance), and the belief that the change was wrong (ideological resistance). Participant resistance may have resulted for the purpose of protecting the organization and some may adopt a unified stance for fear of potential break-up of the organization. Also, members of the organization who were not capable of adapting to the change requested the selection of a new leader; however, at times the employees needed to be transitioned and the leader was capable of delivering the change in the organization (Burke, 2008).

People changes involve learning about the 'change culture' of the organization which can be complex as well as time-consuming. Individuals of the organization may resist the change that is introduced which requires careful attention by the leader to this

resistance. Participants are stakeholders of the organization and therefore their contributions are essential for a successful change process.

Program changes.

Innovation is multidimensional. There are at least three components or dimensions at stake in implementing any new program or policy: (1) the possible use of new or revised materials (instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies), (2) the possible use of new teaching approaches (i.e., new teaching strategies or activities), and (3) the possible alteration of beliefs (e.g., pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programs). (Fullan, 2001, p. 39)

Program changes involve an introduction of new programs, materials, approaches and strategies, or understanding of a new theory (Fullan, 2001). Fullan's research in school improvement indicated the necessity of support for change which may involve providing resources such as curriculum materials or technology. In addition to the resources, training for new approaches is required for effective implementation of new instructional strategies. This may include the understanding of the theories associated with new initiatives. Additionally, programs may also include a new language, technology, strategies and techniques, and/or curriculum.

One example of a recent learning approach involved the framework for student learning introduced by Alberta Education. The framework, which included support of the competencies for "engaged thinkers and ethical citizens with an entrepreneurial spirit," was one of several initiatives advanced to promote the development of learning for Alberta students (Alberta Education, 2011, p. 6). The framework directed the programs of curriculum, assessment, and teaching and learning, and placed the student

as the centre of focus for being equipped with the required attitudes, skills, and knowledge necessary for the future. The engaged thinker (i.e., the student) was recognized as one who collaborated with others to learn new information and:

> who thinks critically and makes discoveries; who uses technology to learn, innovate, communicate, and discover; who works with multiple perspectives and disciplines to identify problems and find the best solutions; who communicates these ideas to others; and who, as a life-long learner, adapter to change with an attitude of optimism and hope for the future. (Government of Alberta, 2011a. p. 6)

Sustainability.

Developing organizational learning processes, driven by a school vision that guides the daily work of the teachers appears to hold considerable promise for building sustainable improvement (Kurland et al., 2010, p. 30).

Hargreaves and Fink (2006) defined sustainable leadership as one that "preserves and develops deep learning for all that spreads and lasts, in ways that do no harm to and indeed create positive benefit for others around us, now and in the future" (p. 17). School leaders did not always follow through with the efforts to sustain and assess its effects on those involved. Fullan (2001) explained that the reason for failed change was due to weak infrastructure and noted that the sustainability of an organization must have the capacity to exercise continuous improvement through deep values. Fullan indicated that moral purpose was at the center of sustained change and that raising the level of achievement of all as the only way to achieve large-scale, sustainable reform.

Hargreaves and Fink (2006) offered seven principles for sustainability in educational change that included: leaders learn and care for others, overcome the challenges of leadership succession, distribute their leadership, model being socially just, promote diversity, are prudent and resourceful, and learn from the best. They stated that:

> Sustainable leadership honors and learns from the best of the past to create an even better future. Amid the chaos of change, sustainable leadership is steadfast about preserving and renewing its long-standing purposes. Most change theory and change practice only had a forward arrow; change without a past or a memory. Sustainable leadership revisited and revived organizational memories and honored the wisdom of memory bearers as a way to learn from, preserve, and then move beyond the best of the past. (p. 20)

Hargreaves and Fink emphasized that sustainable leadership was essential to improve the environment, promote diversity, and develop human resources. Wisdom from best practices and experiences from past theory and change were necessary to establish a better future. Lezotte and McKee (2006) agreed that leading sustainable school change required having a proven and practical mode of continuous improvement as well as the knowledge and skills needed to lead it.

Chenoweth and Everhart's (2002) suggestions for continuous improvement involved cooperative learning, peer- and cross-age tutoring for students, and increased student responsibility. They also noted continuous improvement as essential as well as supporting participation and enhancing the teaching and learning. Identifying when

change had been effective was also essential. Sustainable leadership involved being resilient and patient for results without burning people out and required a mindset, culture, and direction, combined with a focus and commitment to improvement (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006).

> Investing stakeholders in the change process involves a fundamental alteration in the connection between responsibility and accountability, and is an important component of sustaining the change agenda. (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002, p. 215)

Summary of sustainability.

The key points identified for sustainability focused on the need for the leader and the organization to pursue continuous improvement as well as to learn from past practices for future development. This requires perseverance and patience on the part of the leader as well as ongoing support for the participants. The strong morals of the leader are essential to provide a strong foundation for sustainability resulting in continued improvement for all participants.

Summary of organizational change.

> *First gear has served us well, but it now inhibits our performance. The way we used to approach change is no longer viable. As long as we maintain a first-gear mentality regarding change management, limited results are all we can expect. (Conner, 1992, p. 42)*

The review of organizational change provides information from various researchers to inform this research. As previously discussed, change is complex,

involves people and programs, and moving people from one operational mode to another which can be emotionally draining. This means leaders must have the strength to promote personal resilience, thereby supporting them through complex and sometimes exhausting change cycles. Leaders need to have certain capacities, professional skills, and strengths in order to be effective change agents and to sustain change. In their discussion leaders were expected to have good communication skills, the capacity to work with others, and to foster collaboration amongst their staff. Leader also needed to learn through the change process experience as Joyce and Calhoun (2010) stated "Institutional change comes down to changing ourselves. Unless some believe that professional development is perfect we have to fan the winds of change-in our own direction" (p. 128).

Conner (1992) pointed out that the way change was practiced in the past was not always effective and organizations, particularly in educational administration, required significant learning (Fullan, 2008; Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Schlechty, 1990) and Shapiro (2004) indicated there was no single formula for change due to the fact that organizations as well as the changes with them were different. In fact, the one constant in education was the need for change and continued improvement and the need for change to be implemented in a required timeframe. The next section discusses the conception of time. This literature was necessary in understanding concepts of time as they are associated with leaders and organizational change.

Time

Similarly, understandings of time and its use are different and entrepreneurs must respect those conceptions (Webber & Scott, 2008, p. 18).

The exploration of time was an important consideration as part of this literature review. Canadian educators have been subjected to a number of changes related to time including changes in the traditional school calendar to modified instructional calendars with year-round school programs, temporary schools used in hospitals, and on-line schools (Scott & Webber, 2011). The following sections identify various conceptualizations and dimensions of how time is perceived within educational communities.

Conceptualizations of time.

Time is universally conceptualized as 'clock-time,' as a measurement system against which all other activities are calibrated (Woodilla, Boscardin, & Dodds, 1997 p. 296).

Woodilla, Boscardin, and Dodds (1997) examined the multiple conceptualizations of time (including *clock time*) by experienced educators in elementary school settings. These concepts included how their time was spent (*time use),* how their time was interpreted (*individual time sense)* and the time patterns that were developed as a result of their work *(work rhythms).* Educators' views of how they used their time (*time-use)* involved both their personal time and organizational time. The manner in which they referenced time (*time-sense*) involved major holidays or school cycles from previous experience. This was known to be a reference for

future planning purposes. Repeating patterns, duties, and schedules of the educator were connected to the work patterns of the organization (*work rhythms).*

Several perspectives such as developmental, instructional, events and activities, and included an exploration of educators' required tasks, the speed at which tasks were completed, and the time-span of projects within various settings and individual circumstances. Educators' awareness of personal concepts of time associated with themes related to connections between life-world and educational practice, time economy of the school, and strategies for using time according to individual needs (Woodilla et al., 1997).

Woodilla et al. also explored other concepts of time such as how it was perceived by educators; for example, time as a commodity controlled by others (*time ownership),* was necessary (*time needs),* and was planned or unplanned (*use of time).* School time was considered something that could be exchanged or negotiated and educators identified time-related tasks through *time-space connections, linking and multitasking.* Using *time-space connections* benefited educators who worked together in a common place, and time and interest to complete tasks. Educators who practiced *linking* together created a collaborative network of support for task completion and *multitasking* was developed to continuously complete more required tasks in a given timeframe. Woodilla et al. (2007) recommended continued research of time and education for students to progress with their learning development. Future areas of time study included areas of time decision-making practices, interests, and the power of time.

Similar to Woodilla and his associates' study (2007), Hargreaves (1994) also categorized time and its uses within educational settings. He described four dimensions of time as technical-rational, micropolitical, phenomenological, and sociopolitical time. *Technical-rational time* could be shifted to accommodate one's purpose. This type of time was known to enhance or inhibit educational changes. *Micropolitical time* was scheduled time that was distributed in schools and had power and status. Scheduled time is often determined by leaders and distributed through time-tables, meetings schedules, and supervision schedules. This decision of time and how it is allocated may be viewed as time related to power and status as it directly controls the schedule of the educator. *Phenomenological time* was educator's perception of time being determined as slower or faster depending on their level of interest, recognizing that one individual's perception may be considerably different than the next. Differences in perception of importance may be created when prioritizing time. Time dominated by administrators was described as *sociopolitical time*. Time has been perceived in relation to tasks and events (subjectively) with each event consuming a particular amount of time. Previous concentrations of time in educational settings focused on developing student learning and achievement as well as developing team teaching exercises. Hargreaves (1994) stated "it may be more helpful to give more responsibility and flexibility to teachers in the management and allocation of their time, and to offer them more control as to what is being developed with that time" (p. 114).

Senge and colleagues (1999) did not view time as limited but rather a lack of time flexibility. Prioritizing one's own time was challenging as time was so consumed

with tasks and goals forced by management that little discretionary time was allowed to pursue what might be perceived as much more important for the organization. Lambert (2003) described time as a problem in the education profession and viewed time as an enemy that controlled and dominated leaders' lives with numerous tasks and mandates; however, time was also viewed as a precious resource that could be offered or utilized in collaboration with others resulting in productive synergies. Time spent away from a school could have also resulted in a shift of perspectives where responsibilities and relationships were able to be aligned. Because time was a key element which was important when achieving a valuable outcome (Holcomb, 2001), the following section explores the necessity of time when implementing change in educational settings.

Time and change.

> *In our development work we have been interested in how long it takes to turn around a poor performing school or district to become a good or better performing system. Our current conclusion is that you can turn around an elementary school in about 3 years, a high school in about 6 years, and a school district (depending on size) in about 8 years. (Fullan, 2001, p. 17)*

Fullan (2001), reporting on a Canadian study (Ontario), identified that the time frame for successful organizational change ranged from approximately three years in an elementary school setting to approximately eight years for a school district. Describing timeframes for educational change was more complex than Fullan anticipated. Fullan's description of change in one school district stated:

So is the story of the Durham School District in Ontario in which the system's 114 schools progressed from being a stuck school district in 1988 to being awarded the Bartelsmann prize in 1996 for being an outstanding innovative school system. (Fullan, 2001, p. 178)

More recently, Fullan (2005) identified a pilot project involving diagnosis and planning to identify areas and strategies for improvement over a three year period involving the majority of 43 Ontario schools.

Hargreaves and Fink (2006) continued to emphasize time as a necessity for educational organizations saying "This is because with an approach where educators at the frontline implement ideas conceived at higher levels of an organization through cascades of regulation and training, this is the amount of time it takes to implement change" (p. 99). Horsley and Horsley (1998) also reported the three to five year period of implementation in the classroom but recognized longer periods for more systemic change initiatives. Burke (2008) recognized that making changes required the development of new behaviors which resulted in new attitudes and beliefs. Burke noted that the strength of the culture was dependent on the time frame needed to change saying "Strong cultures are at best difficult to change, and, if the organization is large and complex, it can take years" (p. 263).

Hardy (2008) argued that there was not enough time to engage in long term change goals as leaders continuously struggled with the number of assigned tasks, the daily interactions with numerous staff, dealing with student issues, and managing discipline. Holcomb (2001) identified several best practice suggestions to create more time for principals. These included developing multiyear plans, placing timeframes on

initiatives, focusing on a few highly visible priorities, allocating staff development time towards specific activities, rearranging schedules, scheduling returning substitute teachers with continuous lesson plans, and scheduling guest visits to free time for teams.

Increasing the pace of change?

Time is content free. The passage of time does not create change; what we do with the time does (Lambert, 2003, p. 78).

In addition to leadership pressures previously identified, district supervisors expect principals to keep up with the increasing pace of change. This means there is a growing expectation that principals must be able to institute positive educational change within a school in a shorter timeframe than was expected even ten years ago. This is endorsed by the 'change' literature which revealed investigations of change that have taken place over shorter periods of time. The contributions of Caldwell (2006), Fink (2006), and Dufour and Eaker (2004) assisted leaders in identifying the crisis and need for shorter timeframes for change, knowledge and understanding of complex change processes, and suggestions for sustainability. When referring to change acceleration Avey, Hughes, Norman, and Luthans (2008) stated "Organizations that wish to accelerate change may significantly benefit from developing transformational leaders within their management ranks" (p. 122).

Senge et al. (1999) identified a critical link with the speed of change and the leaders' need for sensitivity when establishing the amount of aggression used in creating change. He stated that aggressive change was comparable to a shower nozzle approach saying "The more aggressive you are in your behavior – the more drastically

you turn the knobs – the longer it will take to reach the right temperature" (p. 91). A lack of perfect temperature when creating change often created discomfort for the employees of the organization until the perfect setting for change had been reached. Conner (1992) acknowledged this temperature as a 'level of readiness' for the accelerated change. The individual was viewed as the gatekeeper of the change which manipulated the speed of change with relation to the potential of the human being. Conner stated:

> the fastest speed of change is that of an individual progressing through transition. Organizations tend to move more slowly, and the human race as a whole evolves at the slowest rate. Regardless of age, position, wealth, status, motive, or desire, no individual, organization, or society can adequately absorb life's inevitable transitions any faster than their own speed of change will allow. (p. 12)

Conner presented factors which impacted the speed of change with the individuals within the organization. These included the severity of the change, the ability to remove unwanted distractions, and the flexibility of the individuals within the organization.   An organization's capacity to efficiently and effectively accommodate the change was limited by the organization's level of resilience. Kalahear (2003) described various levels of conceptualization with change and speed through participants' stages of concern that ranged from a state of change awareness to a state of change accomplishment. By assessing the stages of concern, it was possible for the leader to determine necessary steps to manipulate the speed of change. Shapiro

(2004) emphasized the importance of noting behavior patterns of systems over time periods saying:

> dynamics unfold over time. Sometimes components interact very quickly, causing the resulting system behavior to appear almost instantaneously. Sometimes there are delays. One way or the other, time is always a consideration in understanding the behavior of a system. So another system thinking skill is to look for patterns of behavior over time. (p. 68)

Summary.

The element of time in relation to change was a key factor. It was apparent that Conner (1992) and Kelehear (2003) saw the power of change from two different perspectives. Kelehear identified the leaders' potential to accelerate the process of change through the identification of participants' stages of concern. Conner, however, viewed the individual as the sole power to shift the speed of change. Lezotte and McKee (2006) pointed out that change cannot be imposed from the top down, but rather with the buy-in of those who implement and sustain the change. Without the buy-in, the system will return the way it was prior to the change.

From a Canadian perspective, there appeared to be continued research in relation to the nature as well as causes and consequences of leadership and organizational learning. Effective Canadian educational leaders are in high demand in order for Canada to maintain its educational competitiveness on the global stage and finding change agent leaders who can implement positive change is challenging.

Chapter Summary

The explorations of the literature on leadership, organizational change, stakeholders, and time have provided substantial background knowledge for this study. Demands on leaders today appear to have changed dramatically from those evident in the past. Society and governments expect more from school systems to meet the ever changing nature of the global setting (Scott & Webber, in press). This means educational systems, districts, schools and classrooms must change to keep pace with these societal and governmental demands. With the advent of ICT, the integration of technologies into education, the changing demographics of western classrooms due to global migration patterns, and the advances in knowledge over the past two decades, schools must change their teaching, learning, assessment, and operations to remain responsive to these changes (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004).

Change is profoundly different not only in terms of the volume of change, but also in relation to its concentration and consequences (Wheatley, 2012). The pace of change and increased expectations to produce these in shorter timeframes has resulted in greater pressure for leaders and their communities (Conner, 1992). Some of these pressures include: increased accountability for implementing new policies and initiatives, daily operations, staff practices, more responsibilities entailed in the role, more complex technologies for teaching and administration which have necessitated the continuous refinement of best practice, professional skills and knowledge by leaders to manage quick and effective organizational change (Scott & Webber, 2008; Webber, Scott, Aitken, Lupart, & Scott, 2012). Leaders may be self-motivated to

implement necessary changes without exterior pressure; however, many district administrators parachute leaders into problematic schools with the explicit expectation to create change, fast. The literature which has provided various leadership theorists and constructs/theories and elements that were common to leadership success were discussed. These included the importance of intrapersonal dimensions such as strong individual values and beliefs; interpersonal skills to build relationships with followers and stakeholders; and having leadership experience of prior learning and knowledge upon which leaders can draw to inform their change efforts.

Organizational change is recognized as a need and leaders are generally not resistant to change. Frequently they recognize that change is necessary and are alerted to more effective practices and approaches particularly when these will likely positively influence student outcomes. This means that the most successful principals will be those who are nimblest in adapting to the changing demands of their system leaders and societal stakeholders, and who are able to engage with change more efficiently. Changes may involve program or people changes and at times may require multiple implementations (Burke, 2008). Scholars of organizational change such as Fullan, Burke, Senge and Sergiovanni offered effective practices for change leadership, which included having vision, commitment, communication, capacity building, and strategies for sustainability (if this was deemed useful or desirable). Leaders are acutely aware of the consequences of failure and the importance of exploring new approaches; therefore, entrepreneurial leaders in today's society, strive for adaptations that will be integrated into their repertoire of leadership practices (Scott & Webber, in press).

The advent of ICT has increased the pace of the creation and mobilization of knowledge. With education being responsive to the demands of society, the increased pace of life and work has filtered into schools thereby driving change. In past decades "reforms" were perceived as events where a change was required and implemented and then the participants continued with their work lives. Guskey and his associates' (Guskey & Peterson, 1996; Guskey & Sparks, 1991) studies of change altered our conceptualizations of change to that of a process rather than an isolated event, involving a range of participants who had roles to play in designing, implementing, and hopefully, evaluating the change. His work assisted the academic community to understand that change was, and remains a continuous and embedded aspect of 21st century life, one with which educators, and particularly leaders, need to engage, become skillful in managing, and use to the best advantage to promote optimal learning environments for children and youth in society. Unfortunately, many educators perceive change as problematic as it requires thought, effort, and action, and creates additional demands on their time (Fullan, 2006; Mourshed, Chijioke, & Barber, 2010). Change also consumes time and time, rather the lack of it, is always a concern in schools (Conner, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Siccone, 2012). Educators perceive time in various ways which included time – controlled by others, time – required to complete a task, and the manner in which time is used. Educators' experience of networks and skills can assist in supporting the best utilization of time (Woodilla et al., 1997).

In their discussions of change Holcombe (2001), Schwahn and Spady (1998), Fullan and Hargreaves (1991), and Leithwood (2008) all indicated that change was

complex because it required the individuals in the organization to alter their thinking, attitudes, and approaches. Guskey (1996) stated that teachers tended to only change their beliefs once they have seen the resultant benefits to their students from the implementation of different teaching strategies. Frequently, this meant that educators had to suspend their beliefs, attempt new strategies, and observe the results in terms of positive student outcomes before they would alter their thinking. This underpinned the complexity of changing people's beliefs and subsequent behaviors. Along this similar theme of people-oriented change, Hargreaves and Fullan's (1992; Hargreaves, 1992, 1994) work on school cultures revealed how difficult it was to turn around unproductive or even toxic cultures. Burke (2008) explained that "strong cultures are at best difficult to change, and, if the organization is large and complex, it can take years" (p. 277). Senge (1999) suggested a timeframe of five to ten years when creating a cultural shift. Even after this length of time it was noted that the culture may not have changed but rather the "stage for the culture to evolve" has been established (Senge et al., 1999, p. 335). Culture changes are not an easy task for leaders. According to Fullan (1988) leaders who are able to influence culture are very difficult to find. Fullan cautioned that the capacity for a leader to make change was limited; therefore, it was a challenge to find a principal who was successful in making change "despite ten years of effort, principals as dynamic change agents are still empirically rare – probably fewer than one in ten" (Fullan, 1988, p. 7).

Senge and his associates (1999), and Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) indicated that complex change required between five and ten years to implement, however, Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber's (2010) McKinsey Report of the world's most

improved schools stated that rapid change *was* possible. Their premise was that entire districts could change in a timeframe of six years, contrasting with Senge, Hargreaves, and Fullan's earlier work. In Fullan's later work (2010) he admitted "Effective change cannot be accomplished overnight but skinny change agents [those who utilize the essential change knowledge] can accomplish quality implementations with high impact in remarkable short timeframes – much shorter than we hitherto thought possible" (p. 7). Even so, there are few studies which explored the viability of faster-paced change in Canadian schools; hence, the value of this study which explored time-sensitive change.

The next chapter, Research Design, outlines the design and methods that were utilized to explore the questions concerning whether or not leaders and their communities were able to implement time-sensitive change within schools in Alberta. The chapter includes discussions about the paradigmatic orientation, ethical considerations, phases of the procedure with data collection, methodological literature related to triangulation, validity and reliability, and outlined the sampling frame as well as providing the demographics from the various instruments.

Chapter 3 – Research Design

Introduction

This study explored time-sensitive change in schools in Alberta, Canada. In particular, change was examined from the perspective of the leader as change agent but also included stakeholders' perspectives, namely, teachers, students, parents, and more peripherally that of superintendents. The study was situated within the pragmatic paradigm and encompassed mixed method design. There was a total of 111 respondents in this research. There were 39 principals who returned a questionnaire and of these 16 principals participated in in-depth interviews. There were eight schools included in the in-depth examination of a range of change initiatives. In the stakeholder groups within these eight schools there were 25 educators (including 21 teachers and four vice principals), 21 students, and 22 parents who participated in focus groups that explored their perspectives related to implementing time-sensitive change. There were four districts which included rural, metropolitan, and remote schools represented in the study. The four superintendents also discussed the change initiatives and the leadership that was required for success in an informal conversation with the researcher.

This chapter provides a description of the paradigmatic orientation, methodological design, as well as an explanation of the sampling frame and procedures undertaken to complete this study.

A mixed method design was used for this research study and included the use of questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and focus groups. The types of questions used

in the study were open-ended and exploratory (qualitative) as well as rating-type and uniform questions (quantitative). Additional methods that were incorporated were collecting documents about the change initiative and processes. This mixed method model was referred to by Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) as the QUAN-QUAL model. This model was:

> also known as the triangulation mixed methods design, [whereby] quantitative and qualitative data are equally weighted and are collected concurrently throughout the same study – the data are not collected in separate studies or distinct phases, as in the other two methods. (p. 463)

This study explored how Canadian principals perceived change particularly when it was implemented in a short timeframe, specifically three years or less. It also examined the consequences (both positive and negative) that resulted from creating change in shortened timeframes, in addition to the elements which facilitated faster-paced change and how change occurred within an optimal (shorter) timeframe. Data collection through focus group interviews examined how closely the leader's perception of the success of the change initiative aligned with his/her staff, students, and parent stakeholders, the level of challenge encountered in the change process, and the 'best practice' method to bring about the change. In addition, the internal and external supports required during the change process were explored.

Ethical considerations and appropriate practices were given careful attention when working with study participants. Additionally, the limitations and delimitations, the demographics of the sample, the timeline of the research, and the stages of the research design are presented.

Mixed Method Approach

Mixed methods research designs combine quantitative and qualitative approaches by including both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. The purpose of mixed methods research is to build on the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative research methods to understand a phenomenon more fully than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone. (Gay, et al, 2009, p. 462)

The mixed method research design has become more recognized within the last 10-20 years but has been used by educational and social science investigators since the 1930s. Although authors have previously used other terms like 'multiple methods' or 'mixed methodology' for this type of design, McMillan (2008) recommended the importance of using the term 'mixed method' to avoid confusion between other references. McMillan (2008) stated two of the significant advantages of this research approach:

[T]he two biggest advantages are (1) the ability to provide a more thorough understanding of a research problem because of the opportunity to examine multiple forms of data that are more comprehensive than data that might be collected via either quantitative or qualitative methods alone; and (2) the ability to answer complex research questions that cannot be addressed through the use of quantitative or qualitative methods alone. (p. 310)

McMillan also reported that when given the proper circumstance, this mixing of the methods can result in a stronger and more comprehensive study because the

mixed method approach has the advantage of capitalizing on the strengths of one method while compensating for the weaknesses of the other method. The mixed method researcher triangulates data by examining information from multiple methods, that is, the capacity to explore the phenomena under study from a range of perspectives or data forms. The definition and uses of triangulation will be discussed later in this chapter. Creswell (2008) and Mertens (2007) both indicated that many mixed methods researchers realize the merits of multiple methods when conducting research and agree that current and future research may value this practical approach. This has been particularly evident in educational research situations where both the outcome and the process were required.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Creswell (2008) identified one single paradigm for the mixed method approach termed "pragmatism". Those who support this paradigm are confident in choosing what is most practical in research methodology. Researchers describe the philosophy of pragmatism as one where the mixes of ideas establish practical value and usefulness. A pragmatic approach would be beneficial for educational research where both factual and interpretative data are compatible for achieving optimal information to answer the research questions. The following diagram compares the quantitative and qualitative approach with the mixed method approach.
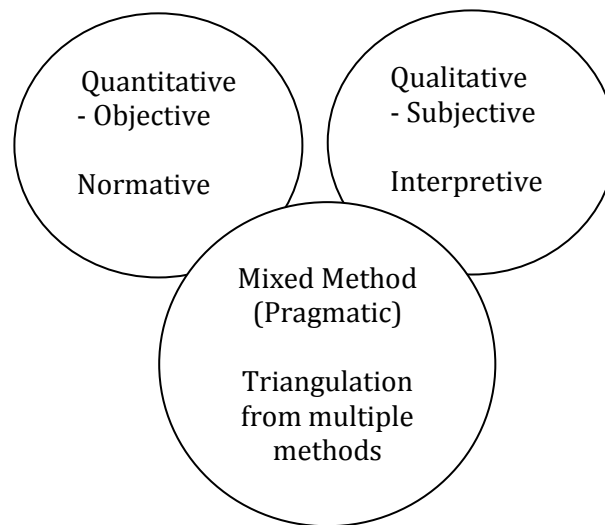
Figure 3-1: Pragmatic Approach of Mixed Methods

Characteristic components of the qualitative method typically included inquiry, data collection of in-depth information, and interpretive analysis. For the quantitative method the characteristic components typically included experimental designs, objective data collection, and statistical analysis. A variety of mixes are possible when preparing a mixed method instrument. Careful consideration and rationale was given when deciding the type of measurement, design, and analysis that was best suited or pragmatic in meeting the aims of the research study.

Strengths of mixed methods.

The mixed method allows the researcher to mix not only the research techniques but also the methods, approaches, concepts or use of language within the study. Studying the same phenomenon through the quantitative and qualitative data approaches allows the researcher to collect data over an extended period of time and

monitor the implementations which would be useful for future reference and research. Creswell (2008) presented the advantages of mixed method which suggested the strength of both qualitative and quantitative research that could be combined successfully to provide a methodologically stronger study than using one method alone. He linked paradigms and methods by differentiating the paradigms through concurrent and sequential designs. Cohen and Manion (1994) along with Mertens (1998) agreed that social scientists have made progress in accepting this blended approach. It is no longer the issue of which approach is superior, rather it is a matter of using the best judgement in adopting one or the other or a combination with respect to optimizing the research approach.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) stated that qualitative and quantitative researchers are in agreement on major issues which they had previously disagreed. These included the variability of reason between individual perceptions, the perception of observation depending on background experiences and knowledge, multiple theories within a single set of data, the difficulty of determining hypotheses within isolation of a community, the recognition that evidence that is susceptible to change in the future, the social nature of research within a community, and the recognition of individuals' values in making choices with observation, investigation and interpretation. When these mixes of ideas demonstrate practical value and usefulness, researchers describe this philosophy as pragmatism. Researchers can complement the strengths of the research without enhancing the weaknesses. If this is done effectively, there is no doubt that it will be a stronger approach than one single method.

From a pragmatic viewpoint, the field of education searches for best practices in

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order to create success. Educators sometimes refer to this search as "survival." The use of practical knowledge helps us progress towards the bigger picture of truth and understanding. This blended approach has the potential of obtaining the best advantages of determining this outcome, but there are also weaknesses to consider.

Creswell (2006) described researchers who criticized the mixed method approach. They claimed that the mixed method has reduced the qualitative component of the research to a secondary status and that it has distanced itself too far from the interpretive foundation. Another limitation of mixing the qualitative and quantitative methods may be the perception that one party may have the potential to influence the other party's thought process as a result of the interview exchange between the researcher and the participants. Although the mixing of the two processes is considered acceptable in a mixed method approach, the researcher must be aware of this influence if it were possible to damage the result through bias or unequal representation. Additionally, practical terms such as "usefulness" and "workability" have the potential of appearing vague to those considering the mixed method approach. This may create a loss of confidence in the specific rationale.

Application of mixed method approach in this study.

An understanding of quantitative and qualitative research was essential when choosing a combination of research designs in a mixed method approach. The previous section has provided a review of the characteristics and underlying perceptions of the mixed method approach. This following section explains how multiple methods from the quantitative and qualitative research approaches were selected for the purpose of achieving a stronger outcome rather than using a single

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approach. For my research study, the two data collection processes that were complementary and pragmatic were questionnaires and interviews. These methods were beneficial in collecting descriptions of the leaders' perceptions of time-sensitive organizational change. My career experience in educational leadership for several years gave me the opportunity to observe and experience both quantitative and qualitative research in education. My experience with quantitative numerical data in the form of surveys, test scores, and statistical reports had provided me with valuable information such as measuring student achievement, providing current descriptive data, or selecting students for specific educational programs. Being involved with interviews with administrators, teachers, students and parents have also been a common practice as part of my leadership responsibilities. As my research study involved perceptions of current leaders' related to leadership and time-sensitive organizational change, quantitative as well as descriptive research methods in the form of a mixed method questionnaire was deemed to be valuable. The quantitative and qualitative approach served to address specific areas of principal's leadership and the time-sensitive change, and allowed for open-ended responses and exploratory questions in both the survey and interviews. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) supported the mixed methods approach stating "both may be utilized in the same studies, as when the administration of a (quantitative) questionnaire is followed by a small number of detailed (qualitative) interviews to obtain deeper explanations for the numerical data" (p. 8). When considering the best of both methods, Bailey (1997) tells us:

the purpose of the quantitative research is theory-testing: to establish facts, show causal explanations and relationships between variables, allow prediction, and strive for generalizability. The purpose of qualitative research, on the other hand, is to develop concepts that will sensitize readers to cultures, describe multiple realities and interpretations … and develop an understanding of the perspectives of the actors and of that particular setting. (p. 49)

Bailey speaks of sensitizing the reader to cultures. This research identified useful information from respondents regarding their perceptions, interpretations, and understandings related to their experiences based upon the respective cultures, environments, and situations of change experienced in their school. Each leader, as a change agent, held his/her individual theoretical beliefs and shared their story of successful time change.

Educational researchers have suggested that previous change initiatives required substantial time to implement and sustain. Current literature indicated that the demands for leaders to create time-sensitive changes in shorter time-frames have increased (Caldwell, 2006). Even though there is a plethora of literature written regarding leadership and change; because of the increasing demands of change in shorter timeframes, current research was necessary to provide ongoing feedback to educational leaders regarding this ongoing change agenda. For the purpose of this author's research, these data were collected in three separate phases. The following diagram outlines the phases as they were conducted in the research study (see Figure 3-2).

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│          Phase One              │
│  Questionnaire - School Leaders │
│   Consisting of open-ended and  │
│        rating-type items        │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
│   Phase Two   │   │   Phase Three   │
│ In-depth semi-structured│   │ Focus group interviews   │
│ interviews with key   │   │ with teacher, parent,   │
│ informants   │   │ and student participants │
│ (leaders of selected   │   │ (selected schools)   │
│ schools)   │   │   │
└──────────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────┘
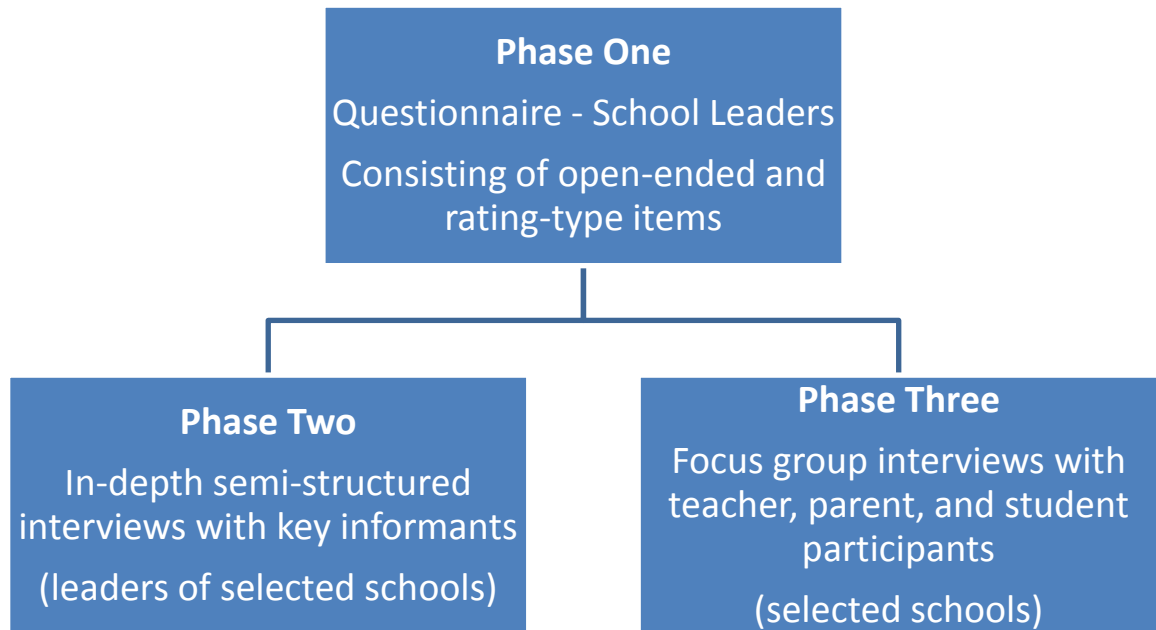
Figure 3-2: Schematic of the Quan–Qual Sequential Mixed Method Design in This Study

Timeline.

The phases were conducted using a timeline for the study. The following plan indicates the research steps and periods of time taken to complete the research:

- Contacted district superintendents to discuss potential schools suitable for inclusion into the research;

- A request was made for nominations of successful time-sensitive change agent leaders;

- Request for the school districts participation and permission to administer questionnaire to leaders in a district leaders meeting;

- Prior to the interview with principals taking place, candidates were provided information about the research, and required documents for informed consent that were to be returned to the researcher;

- Established a selection of potential candidates from the list to representative sampling for each desired demographic variable (e.g., rural/urban, elementary/secondary etc);

- Contacted the leader to establish a time for invitation to participate in an in-depth semi-structured interview;

- Made arrangements for interviews to be recorded by the researcher using a computer and LCD projector to display the verbatim transcription of the conversation allowing participants to immediately respond to the answers and provided immediate clarification (immediate member checking process). The researcher had the skill to be able to accurately type at high speed while simultaneously maintaining eye contact and conversing with the participant. Focus on the questions was promoted through the use of the semi-structured interview schedule;

- Ensured that the summary of data was complete for analysis;

- Informed respondents of expected time frame for the study and noted if principals wished to receive a copy of the summary study findings including recommendations;

- Established focus group sessions for staff, students, and parents for the purpose of triangulating the change and the sustainability aspects with stakeholders involved in the change process; and

- Data was processed and analyzed with different data forms being used to triangulate the change process from a range of stakeholder perspectives.

Ethical Considerations

Kilbourn (2006) stated that researchers must understand the implications of power, respect the process and rights of the candidates, and act according to their university's rules of ethical conduct. By following the establishing expectations of the University protocol and continuous dialogue with my supervisor, the researcher believes that ethical conduct was maximized throughout the study not only with her interactions with participants but also in ensuring there was scholarly rigour and trustworthiness in the data analysis processes. The researcher followed the guidelines recommended in Denzin and Lincoln (2000):

1. Treat others with respect

2. Establishing trust with the selected interview candidates is imperative to feel comfortable in sharing their story and supporting them to share their leadership practices. Keeping this in mind, they may reveal information which may require setting boundaries. Many of the key issues that can be anticipated include knowing where to set boundaries.

Examples of boundary setting could include confidentiality, freedom of information, or unprofessional conversation due to emotions of their story. It may also be possible that in the event of their sharing; information may surface in which they do not wish to reveal. Unprofessional conduct could also include that of the unethical leader. Fullan (2003) described leaders who sometimes push the boundaries (potentially unethical practices) when trying to establish change. It was important for the researcher to be aware that candidates may have used practices that crossed the line of protocol such as taking risky chances or taking advantage of their colleagues to

credit themselves with success, thus risking the result of broken relationships and lack of integrity of the organization.

Another ethical consideration was to ensure that respondents' information was recorded as accurately as possible. This meant recording data as quickly as possible as well as connecting with my supervisor to ensure that all the steps of the data collection process were observed. These considerations were intended to assist with building trustworthiness of the researcher when interpreting data and analysing the results.

Phases of the Data Collection Process

The data collection within this study encompassed three main phases: Phase one was instrument design – questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule, piloting the instruments, and administration of the questionnaire to school principals in four school districts in Alberta, Canada. Phase two involved interviews with a selection of principals who had responded to the invitation on the questionnaire to be included in the study for more in-depth involvement. Phase three encompassed focus group interviews with stakeholders including teachers, students, and parents. Additional evidence of the change processes, such as documents, meeting agenda, notes, and records which described the change process were included as part of the data collection. These data were collected to assist with triangulation of the school leader's account of the change and provided a more encompassing perspective of the impact the change had on the school community. The following sections describe the activities that were entailed in each of these phases.

Phase One.

Instrument design – the questionnaire.

Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), Jaeger (1983), and Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) agreed that questionnaires are efficient, inexpensive, can be completed in a relatively short time frame and can be collected from a large number of participants. They have the advantage of being able to provide quantifiable information which can provide an indication of the extent of a perception or behavior and allow for more generalizability of the data (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). Some disadvantages with questionnaires include potentially poor response rates, participants misreading or misunderstanding question or items, and the lack of depth or response (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The questionnaire in this study (see Appendix B) was only conducted with district school principals and included specific sections relating to the topic of these leaders' perceptions of successful change that was implemented in a time-sensitive manner. In order to overcome some of the inherent disadvantages of questionnaire the researcher administered the questionnaire in person at a district principals' meeting. This enabled her to immediately answer questions about the intent of items and to be able to maximize the response rate. Additionally, interviews with leaders were able to provide opportunities for richer insights into the items on the survey overcoming the limitation of the questionnaires.

The questionnaire included specific items relating to the topic of principals' perception of successful change implemented in a timely manner. The questionnaire was organized under sub-headings of leadership, organizational change, and time. These areas of focus investigated the:

- leader's perception of change in relation to the level of difficulty they experienced in instituting the change;

- leader's choice of, and rationale for, selecting certain change practices;

- internal and external support systems that the leader can access; and

- leader's perception of the change during the prescribed time frame (3 years or less).

The questionnaire stated the topic of time-sensitive change and its potential benefits as a result of this study. The areas of focus were helpful by being used as sub-headings. The questionnaire itself represented a mixed method approach as school leaders were invited to share their experiences in open-ended or exploratory-type (qualitative) questions which allowed for deeper explanation as well as selection-type (quantitative) items which were systematic and controlled.

The questionnaire also included a section that invited volunteer participants who had successfully instituted time-sensitive and efficient organizational change to participate in an in-depth semi-structured interview at a later data. Although a purposeful sample was in some cases already identified by the superintendent, this invitation was included as part of the questionnaire to allow all participants the opportunity to volunteer for a follow-up in depth semi-structured interview. This assisted in reducing bias which the superintendent may have had in selecting particular individuals. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire and explained what was being asked of the respondent, the purpose of the study and invited the respondent to request a summary of the final results.

A pilot was conducted to refine the questionnaire with individuals who represented a similar sample to those in the study including doctoral peers who were also school leaders. Problems in the wording of questions were found and revisions were made to create a sound and effective instrument. To create an attractive questionnaire, the researcher tried to keep the document brief and easy to understand. Selection-type items were used as it was easier to respond by circling a letter or word rather than by writing a lengthy response for each question. The sections of the questionnaire were directly mapped to the research questions. Various demographic items that related to the variables in the survey were also included, such as, the type of school, the experience level of the leader and so on. Definitions were included for any obscure or potentially ambiguous terminology.

Instrument design – the interview schedule.

Acknowledging the importance that the qualitative approach represents in educational research, interviews were selected as one of the methods appropriate to gaining a deeper understanding of leaders' perspectives and actions. Hence, a semi-structured interview schedule which complemented the mixed method approach was also designed during phase one of the study. Holstein and Gubrium (2008), and Miller and Crabtree (2004) described interviews as reality-constructing and interactive events during which the researcher and the participants construct knowledge together through a conversation. This collaborative process of sharing creates a unique opportunity of creating knowledge between both parties which cannot be obtained through observation alone. Interviews provide insight on the participants' perspectives, the meaning of events for the people involved, information about the site, and perhaps

information on unanticipated issues (Patton, 2002). Interviews allowed immediate follow-up and clarification of the participants' responses (Creswell, 2008). The interview provides the advantage of supplying large volumes of in-depth data efficiently. The mixed method approach within the semi-structured instrument (with rating-type and open-response items in the interview schedule) served to address specific areas of leadership and time-sensitive change, as well as allowed for open-ended responses in the interview and exploratory-type questions which enabled the probing for additional information.

These questions were formulated under the categories of leadership, time, and change. The categories of focus for the questions in the semi-structured interview schedule (see Appendix C) used in this study included:

- Level of challenge involved in the change process;

- Best practices to bring about change;

- The amount of internal and external support that was required or provided during the change process; and

- The perception of the change as a result of the experience.

Interviewer preparation.

As with any method it was important to be aware of key issues to ensure "trustworthiness" of the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). It is evident that interviews required a great deal of time to conduct as well as to analyze the resultant data. This researcher also paid attention to Gall, Gall, and Borg's (2007) advice to researchers who considered the use of interviews. They suggested that interviewers should:

- not impose their own agenda or bias;

- be open to responses that were contrary to their own paradigm;

- not mention specific terms or over-cue participants – therefore avoid leading questions;

- direct responses to concrete, detailed accounts rather than generalizations;

- watch for discrepancies between the participant's verbal and nonverbal behaviours;

- include strategies such as the probe and the pause; and

- learn to be silent longer than the participants top encourage them to discuss their accounts of the phenomena under exploration.

This list of advice was used as a check list in interview preparation and training to maximize interviewer effectiveness. Several updates with the researcher and supervisor were also held to ensure that the researcher was optimally conducting the research.

Trial and pilot study.

A pilot study tested the instruments designed for the study on a smaller scale with a small sample representative of those in the study. This process assisted the researcher with checking for the appropriateness of questions that had been selected as well as any potential problems with the research methodology to acquire the most accurate and easily-understood instrument. A pilot study to trial the questionnaire was conducted with three school leaders who were peer doctoral students to ascertain the clarity and uniformity of understanding of the questionnaire items. A pilot interview was also conducted with these three leaders who had experience with implementing change within their organizations. Although the suggestions were minor from the

views of the experienced leaders, this feedback was taken into consideration and the adjustments to the two instruments were completed.

Phase one procedure.

The first phase continued with the contact of each district superintendent, to explain the purpose of the research, and to request permission to conduct this study their district (see Appendix E). During these conversations the superintendents were invited to share their district change success stories which assisted in identifying the types of change that had occurred and potential participants for the study who had implemented time-sensitive change. The districts were purposefully selected to be representative of urban and rural school settings and the principals represented elementary, middle, and secondary schools.

With the agreement of the district superintendents, the survey was personally administered by the researcher at a school administrators' meeting to all principals (N=39) who volunteered to participate in the study. Those who returned the questionnaire were invited to participate in the next phase of interviews for more in-depth conversations about the change they had wrought in their schools. If they were interested they were able to include their contact details in the survey for later contact.

Once the questionnaire was completed, the superintendents' list of leaders and the list of leader participants who volunteered as part of the questionnaire were reviewed. Interview participants were purposefully selected to be representative of successful change within elementary, middle/junior high, and secondary school settings as well as metropolitan, urban, and rural schools. From those identified by superiors and those self-identified, sixteen principals were contacted and invited to

participate with in-depth semi-structured interviews. Both separate (Catholic) and public districts were represented.

Phase Two.

Semi-structured interview.

Phase two included the in-depth, semi-structured interviews with principals (N=16) in each of the schools and explored the leaders' perceptions of change wrought within a shortened time period. The interviews were conducted personally by the researcher using the semi-structured interview schedule which included both quantitative and qualitative items. The interview included reflection on past events, allowed for follow-up questions, and ranged in length from 45 minutes to two to three hours.

The approach of the constructivist paradigm, which entailed that principals were able to describe their construction of their reality of the change process within their context, allowed the principal to tell his/her story of success sharing his/her insights into the change processes particularly how this occurred and was possible within the shortened time frame. The data collected from the units of analysis in qualitative research involved the analysis of the words and texts (common words or phrases from the participants) to determine central themes. The themes were placed in categories relating to the topics of the research. The analysis of the interviews was reviewed many times, in an iterative process to identify and compare similarities and differences.

Phase Three.

Focus group interviews.

In order to explore a 360 degree perspective of the change that purportedly occurred it was useful to include interviews with other key stakeholders in the school who had participated or been affected by the change, namely, teachers, parents, and students. After the semi-structured interviews took place with the school leaders (N=16), eight leaders in three districts (with schools representing rural and metropolitan) allowed the researchers to follow up with focus group interviews with their school community stakeholders (see Appendix D). This meant that there were in effect eight case study school sites which provided this 360 degree in-depth exploration of the change process. The participants were all volunteers who had responded to the invitation to be involved in telling their story about the change. These individuals were given the choice of a small group or individual interview. This flexibility of choice was done to help the participants feel more comfortable (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Creswell (2008) described the primary purpose of focus groups was to collect the shared understanding of a phenomenon or issue, as well as to acquire views from specific individuals about a shared event.

Of the sixteen principals interviewed, focus group interviews were conducted with the teachers, students, and parents of each of their school communities. That is, each change event in each of the 16 schools was examined from the perspective of the principal and his/her stakeholders. In each school, invitations were extended inviting volunteers to participate in focus group interviews so that they had the opportunity to tell the story of the change from their perspective. Times and locations were chosen to

accommodate the schedule of the focus group participants. In almost all cases, these were conducted at the school. A series of questions related to leadership and effective time-sensitive organizational change were asked and each of the participants took turns within the focus group conversations. Focus group questions mirrored those used with the principals in order to facilitate the triangulation of different data sets. Focus group responses were recorded by the researcher typing verbatim responses which were projected onto a wall in the room with an LCD projector. This process enabled member checking to be undertaken and for feedback by the participants so that any necessary corrections or clarifications of meaning to be made immediately within the interview.

With more than one individual present for the focus group interviews, different perspectives surfaced giving the researcher additional feedback to consider as explanations of a phenomena and/or to provide answers to their questions. This was consistent with the method literature on the dynamics of focus groups (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The focus group interviews varied in duration and were largely dependent on the time available and the amount the respondents wished to discuss. They ranged from one hour to three hours. One advantage of the focus group interview process was the efficient use of time and money involved in comparison to individual interviews. The researcher recognized that one potential disadvantage was that dominant respondents had the potential to take over the conversation or influence less definite individuals thereby swaying the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). To avoid this possibility, each focus group participant was given a number which helped to give the participants the opportunity to take turns

when first answering the questions. This meant that the first participant to answer would rotate from person number one to the last person numbered in the group. This demonstrated a fair and respectful process for everyone to contribute and was not partial to any of the participants.

Data Collection and Analysis.

Data processing and analysis is an important component in a research study due to the need to maintain rigour and credibility within the processes adopted (Creswell, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In mixed methodology it is important to decide which component is predominant or if there will be equal weighting ascribed to each method, that is, the quantitative and qualitative forms (Creswell, 2008; Gay et al., 2009). In this study the largely quantitative questionnaire was the first data collection device which informed the analysis of the interview data; however, neither were deemed to be predominant as such. Therefore, the researcher aimed for a balanced approach to data analysis remaining mindful of the limitation and advantages of each of the data types. In this study the quantitative results were used to inform qualitative research and qualitative results informed the quantitative data (Creswell, 2008).

The questionnaire data were processed using MS Excel in order to generate the simple descriptive statistics for each item. The Likert scale items were analyzed in relation to the frequency of response predominantly for the "agree" and "strongly agree" items. This enabled the reader to identify the level of agreement and therefore facilitated the ranking of items in order of importance for the identification of major themes. The open-ended response items were thematically coded which were then compared with the leaders' interviews.

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The leaders' interviews and the focus group interviews were analysed separately and then later compared once the themes emerged from each of the data sets (see Appendix F). The interviews were all directly transcribed verbatum while the interview was in session (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). This was possible as the resarcher's typing skill was honed to the extent that she was able to maintain transcription while the interview was ongoing without undue editing of the content. The advantage that this presented was that the respondent(s) were able to read the notes as they were transcribed and to make any modifications to the wording or intent as the interview progressed ensuring excellent "member checking" (Gay et al., 2009, p. 409). Therefore, once the interview was concluded the interview transcript was complete. The researcher also maintained a tape recording to ensure that nuances of tone and emphasis could be noted at a later date and also facilitated a check by the researcher that no important points had been missed due to the complexity of maintaining the notetaking and running the interview.

The researcher chose not to use a qualitative data processing package such as NVivo or similar as she felt that this would potentially distance her from her data. Hence, she chose to use MS Word functions such as color coding, shading, and tracked changes to make notes of potential themes. The researcher read through each interview twice prior to determining individual themes. Therefore, the analysis process represented an "iterative thematic coding" approach whereby the researcher read the interview, ascribed themes and then re-read to check for further themes or refinement to themes to emerge (Creswell, 2008). Initial coding themes were checked by a doctoral-peer through a process of "inter-relater reliability" (Gall, Gall, & Borg,

2007, p. 578). This meant that the coding themes by the researcher and her student-peer were identified and then checked for similarities and differences. This processes yeilded close alignment between the researcher and her peer's codes. Once the codes were established coding for the complement of the sample was completed with a high degree of confidence of the accuracy of the themes. The iterative coding process was repeated across the leaders' interviews, the teachers, students, and parents interview data sets.

Once the quantitative and qualitative data were processed and analysed for the leaders and various stakeholder groups then the quantitative and qualitative data were integrated for greater meaning and clarity. Additionally, the stakeholder data were triangulated with the leader data to check that the veractiy of the various accounts tallied while recognising the differences in stakeholder perspectives represented.

Triangulation

A mixed method was selected to allow the researcher to confirm themes by examining the same phenomenon from different perspectives, namely, the leaders', teachers', students', and parents' perspectives about the change that had been implemented in their school. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) described this approach as "triangulation … the use of multiple methods, data collection strategies, and data sources in order to get a more complete picture of what is being studied and to cross-check information" (p. 603). Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) defined triangulation as "the use of multiple data-collection methods, data sources, analysts, or theories as corroborative evidence for the validity of qualitative research findings" (p. 773). Gall, Gall, and Borg's definitions took the rationale for using triangulation a little further

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with their emphasis on validating the findings through multiple data sources or corroborating the accounts from different perspectives which was important in this study considering that the change was being examined largely through self-report data although some evidence was also collected through document analysis of artifacts produced during and as a result of the change. When considering the best of both methods, quantitative research helps to establish facts and explanations for consideration in future predictions and generalizability, and qualitative research helps to develop the understanding of concepts such as cultures, multiple realities, and interpretations from the participants. Therefore, Gay et al. complimented the mixed methods approach in that a quantitative and qualitative questionnaire and interview (by having both qualitative and quantitative items and questions) and document analysis contribute deeper explanations for numerical data and allow for cross-checking and validation from different data sources.

Triangulation in mixed method research.

Gay et al. (2008) indicated triangulation is an ongoing process in mixed methods research but is particularly important during data analysis where cross-checking is possible. Patton (2002) described the logic of triangulation which recognizes that one method cannot provide a sufficient explanation and is "vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method" (p. 556) instead of multiple methods which offer various types of data and more rich explanations. Four types of triangulation explained by Patton (2002) included:

- Methods triangulation (different data methods) – this refers to using different methods to explore the same issue (e.g., interviews and questionnaires);

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- Triangulation of sources (different data sources) – this is where you include different participant groups (e.g., teachers and principals to explore a school phenomenon);

- Analyst triangulation – using more than one analysts to review findings sometimes referred to as inter-rater reliability; and

- Theory/perspective triangulation (different perspectives or theories for interpretation)

The focus of the researcher when using triangulation is to test for consistency rather than similar results. Patton (2002) noted that inconsistencies are important to uncover as this information can be instrumental for further investigation and essential to the outcome of the research. Inconsistencies may not be a sign of poor credibility but rather the opportunity of observing a greater awareness for understanding of the researcher, participants, and the phenomenon. When triangulating qualitative data, checking for consistency can be addressed by cross-checking (different times and ways). Cross-checking of information can be conducted by comparing observations with interviews, information exchanged in public and private, consistency of repeated information, different views of individuals, and interview, document and written responses.

Triangulation in this study.

Triangulation of data between each of the instruments was used in the data collection (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The two instruments included the questionnaire as well as the semi-structured interview schedule and to a lesser extent the documents collected from the schools about the change process. The information acquired from

these allowed for triangulation not only across the instruments but also with information found from the literature review conducted prior to the research.

Triangulation was found between the type of questions selected for both the questionnaire and the interview. This included uniform and rating-type questions (quantitative approach), as well as open-ended and exploratory type questions (qualitative approach) in both the questionnaire and interview instruments. The results of these questions were triangulated and compared (Creswell, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). For example, the questionnaire included specific items related to the length of time it took to complete the change process. This theme was also included into the interview schedule in all instruments, specifically, those for the school leader, teachers, students, and parents. This enabled a cross check to occur between the principal's initial response in the questionnaire and his/her later more in-depth conversation in the interview, and it also enabled cross stakeholder validation of the perceptions of these various groups in relation to whether or not this change initiative had indeed been successfully completed in a time-sensitive manner. This was important considering the leadership literature indicated that complex change required more than three year. As may have been expected although there was considerable alignment in participant responses related to the time-sensitive nature of the change, there were differences between the specific details from stakeholder groups in that estimations of the total amount of time taken to complete the changes were sometimes different depending on their awareness of the commencement of the change, the accuracy of their memory of the process commencement, and their perceptions of the completion of the event or process. For example, some indicated that completion was

signaled by a celebration, while others indicated it was upon receipt of feedback; hence, the slight variability in accounts of duration. What was not contested though, was that the change had been successful and had been completed in time-sensitive manner as defined in this study's parameters.

Triangulation was also possible from exploring different stakeholders' perspectives about the same change phenomenon. Confirming that time-sensitive organizational change was possible was done by examining the accounts from various school community stakeholders, and the leader, and their views about the change were triangulated with the data from the leaders' responses from the questionnaires and interviews. Even though there was considerable alignment between the principals' data and their stakeholders, there were some differences across the groups as would have been expected dependent on each group's level of participation and their level of readiness to accept the changes and their role in the change process. For example, not all teachers had fully bought into the change and some were coming to terms with the change process and what it meant to them. Additionally, some student and parents had lesser knowledge about the change due to their more peripheral role in the change process and the lesser amount of information and communication that had been delivered to their stakeholder group. For example, there were some teachers who indicated they were not that aware of the change and when questioned about why they had lesser knowledge they indicated they had only recently transferred into the school or had been on leave during the initial establishment of the change process.

Triangulation of these various types of data served to validate the research as well as establish credibility in the accounts that informed the research findings. Not all

accounts were expected to be identical as the different stakeholders were likely to have engaged with the change from different angles and with different responsibilities but there was sufficient similarity in accounts which meant that verification of the change duration and encompassing processes was possible.

Validity and Reliability

Validity.

Opie (2004) described validity as a degree of measuring a test for its accuracy in content which, in turn, is able to produce appropriate interpretation of scores or findings. Gay et al. defined validity as:

> the degree to which a test measures what it is intended to measure; a test is valid for a particular purpose for a particular group. In qualitative research it is the degree to which qualitative data accurately gauge what the researcher is trying to measure. (p. 603)

In other words, validity is ensuring that your instrument items and questions are going to be understood the same way by all respondents and that the questions directly relate the research questions. Gay and his colleagues (2009) described four types of validity: content validity, construct validity, criterion-related validity, and consequential validity (pp. 134-139) which are outlined below.

"Content validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended content area" (p. 134). Criterion-related validity compares results of scores between tests which are sometimes used to predict future results. These forms of validity were not deemed directly relevant to this research. Consequential validity which is determining

if the test is likely to have adverse consequences for participants was addressed by the ethical considerations in this study.

Construct validity is considered most valuable because it determines the extent that the test measures the intended purpose. This may include a number of observable measurements which together contribute to the validity of the construct. The measurements can confirm the strength of the validity. This form of validity related to whether or not the questionnaire items actually measured what the researcher is seeking to know. This aspect of validity was checked through the piloting of the instruments to ensure that the items and questions were clear and that respondents uniformly understood the intent of the items.

The validity of questionnaires and rating-type items in interview schedules can deteriorate through poor directions and items that are unclear, contain inappropriate explanations, or use vocabulary and wording which may not be consistently understood. Poor analysis methods, straying from the process, or cheating, reduces validity and calls into question the overall credibility of findings.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) indicated that there were significant differences in understanding the concept of validity in qualitative research. They noted that "criteria of internal and external validity are replaced by such terms as *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*" (p. 158, italics in original). They stated "validity in qualitative research has to do with description and explanation and whether or not the explanation fits the description. In other words is the explanation credible … we may cross-check our work through member checks and audit trails" (p. 393). It is important to note here that this researcher undertook member checking during all interviews where the notes

were projected up and the interviewee could clarify the notes and ensure that the intent of the notes truly represented their thoughts, experiences, and actions. Additionally, the researcher undertook inter-rater reliability checks when performing her analysis of open-ended data and developing thematic codes. A doctoral colleague assisted in this inter-rater reliability check by coding the same small sample of interviews and then these two coding frames were compared for similarities and differences to provide an overall reliability check.

Reliability.

Gay et al. (2009) defined reliability as:

the degree to which a test consistently measures what it is measuring. The more reliable a test is, the more confidence we can have that the scores obtained from the test are essentially the same scores that would be obtained if the test was readministered to the same test takers. (p. 139)

Reliability was defined in Oppenheim (1992) as "the purity and consistency of a measure, to repeatability, to the probability of obtaining the same results again if the measure were to be duplicated" (p. 144) while Wolf (1993) indicated that it was "concerned with the precision of the measurement" (p. 125). It was important for the researcher to recognize that although an instrument may be reliable, it may not always be valid for the purposes of the research. For this researcher, the development of the questionnaire was very carefully constructed to meet all the considerations and advice within the method literature. Additionally, considerations were included as a checking process to eliminate any doubt of a respectful research process. The checking process

included reviews of the researcher by the supervisor during the description, interpretation, theoretical development, and evaluation of the research.

Self-report methods.

The information that was gathered, predominantly by means of the questionnaire and individual and focus group interviews, and was dependent on the participants' abilities to provide honest and accurate responses. As nerves can play a part in influencing accurate recall, the researcher took care with informing the participants of the assurances of confidentiality and anonymity. Indeed, participants did not appear too concerned about providing the requested information, rather viewed the opportunity as a chance to share their participation of the time-sensitive change success. Even though self-report data can be perceived to be risky in providing accurate information (Howard, 1994), the fact that this study was examining a change was not perceived by participants as particularly sensitive or risky, hence, they readily volunteered their responses. Additionally, the use of mixed method with multiple data sources and varied stakeholder participants enabled the researcher to be reasonably confident that the validation of the accounts and reliability of the data obtained were high due to the authenticity of the statements and the coincidence of accounts.

The Sample

Purposeful sampling was the predominant sampling approach utilized in this study, although there was some simple random sampling of leaders for interviews. Creswell (2008) described purposeful sampling as "a qualitative sampling procedure in which researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the

central phenomenon" (p. 626). Gay et al. (2009) referred to this type of sampling as "purposive" and defined it as "the process of selecting a sample that is *believed* to be representative of a given population. *Also called* judgement sampling" because the researcher uses his/her judgement to decide if the individual has the requisite experiences or characteristics that are under examination in the research (p. 600, italics in original). The school districts were initially selected through a purposeful sampling method in that the researcher desired to include rural, metropolitan, and remote schools in order to have the opportunity to explore if there were any significant differences between change processes in these contexts. Principals and their schools were mainly purposefully selected as these leaders needed to have conducted a significant change process within their school within the prescribed short time frame (0-3 years) in order to be included into the study. Random sampling was performed with the list of successful change agents that the superintendent had supplied as there was a surplus of names on their lists. Gay et al. defined simple random sampling as "the process of selecting a sample in such a way that all individuals in the defined population have an equal and independent change of being selected for the sample" (p. 602). It was deemed optimal to have a mix of self-identified principals as well as a selection of those who had been identified by their superordinate to ensure a more objective sample. The principals were also considered for inclusion based upon the type of change initiative they had implemented in their school. Frequently it was the change event rather than the leader that was considered as the most relevant factor for inclusion into the study. For example, it was deemed valuable to include both people and program changes and also to ensure representation from elementary, K-Grade 9, and senior secondary schools due to the likely differences in the contexts and cultures

in these different school settings. The demographic data presented in this section were drawn from both the demographic sections in the questionnaires and the interview schedule.

The initial demographic questions were asked first to establish a rapport with the principal and the stakeholders. Demographic information sought included current information of the participant such as characteristics of the school, teaching and school jurisdiction experience. Less in-depth demographics were collected for the focus groups and the data presented here indicated mainly the numbers of stakeholders who participated.

Table 3-1 shows the gender of leaders in this study. There was representation of both males and female in the elementary, middle/junior high and senior high school divisions, however, there were more males than females who participated in the questionnaires.

Table 3-1:
Gender

Gender	**Number of responses**	**Percentage**
Male	25	64
Female	14	36
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Participants were also asked to identify the type of school jurisdiction in which their school community was located. Surprisingly, this proved to be a complex question for some schools as their answers varied from urban to rural to metropolitan settings. This was primarily due to the participants view depended on a number of factors related to: changes of district boundaries, recent growth of the community,

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identity of the community as a "hub" for servicing smaller communities in the surrounding area, transportation changes, and were also influenced their personal views of size and impact of the school. As a result, an additional type of school jurisdiction has been added to reflect those school leaders who selected both rural and metropolitan items.

Table 3-2:
School Jurisdiction

School Jurisdiction	Number of responses	Percentage
Remote	1	3
Rural	9	23
Metropolitan	25	64
Rural/Metropolitan	4	10
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Table 3-2 indicates the school type and its rural or urban jurisdiction. Leaders and their schools were purposively selected for interviews based upon the effectiveness of their time-sensitive change initiative and the type of change initiative. In this research, questionnaires and interviews were conducted in both public and separate districts.

Table 3-3:
School District/School Workplace

School district	Number of responses	Percentage
Public school	15	38
Separate school	24	62
Total	**N=39**	**100**

The separate (Catholic) school districts represented just over 62% of the total district and the public school districts represented 38% of the total district. Private or charter districts were not included in this study.

Table 3-4 displays each of the school types including elementary, middle or junior high, and senior high school types, as well as combined kindergarten to grade 9 schools, and kindergarten to grade twelve schools. An additional category which is identified as "other" included unique school types such as middle-senior high or junior-senior high schools which represented the variability in school types within Alberta.

Table 3-4:
School Type

School Type	Number of responses	Percentage
Elementary	14	36
Junior High/Middle	3	8
Senior High	5	13
K-Grade 9	8	21
K-Grade 12	3	8
Other	6	15
Total	**N=39**	**100**

There were more elementary schools (36%) in the sample with K-9 schools (21%) begin the second most predominant in the sample. Thirteen percent of the sample was senior high schools with 8% being junior high or middle schools. Fifteen percent were different or "other" school types.

Responses to the question "How large is your school?" are shown in Table 3-5. This was deemed to be an important inclusion as change efforts may be influenced by the size of the school.

Table 3-5:
School Size

Student Population	Respondents	Percentage
Less than 100	0	0
101-200	3	8
201-300	11	28
301-500	11	28
501-1000	7	18
1000+	2	5
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Over half (56%) of the schools' populations ranged from 201-500 students. Eleven schools ranged in the 201-300 population range and 11 schools ranged in the 301-500 population range. Senior high schools consisted of larger populations of approximately 1000+ students. There were no schools with less than one hundred students and only three schools with 200 students or less.

Leaders.

The questionnaire included current information about the leaders' teaching, administrative, and district school leadership experience. These items included:

- Participants' number of years of experience in the education teaching profession;

- Length of time in the leader's current location;

- Number of years of experience in a formal school leadership or administrative position;

- Number of years of experience in a district leadership or administrative position teaching duties in addition to their leadership role;

- Additional time that was spent teaching than identified in the scheduled timetable; and

- Percentage of teaching time in addition to their leadership role.

The leaders' responses to the number of years of experience in the education teaching profession item are shown in Table 3-6

Table 3-6:
Years of Experience in the Education Teaching Profession

Years of experience	Number of responses	Percentage
0-1	0	0
2-3	0	0
4-6	0	0
7-18	13	33
19-29	19	49
30+	7	18
Total	**N=39**	**100**

It was interesting that none of the sample were novice educators (novices being considered to have between 0-5 years of teaching experience), indeed, all of the leaders indicated that they had taught for at least seven years in the education profession. Almost half of the leaders' (49%) indicated that they had taught for 19-29 years. Seven (18%) of the 39 principals indicated that they had taught for over 30 years.

Participants' responses to the "length of time at the current school/work location" are displayed in Table 3-7.

Table 3-7:
Length of Time at Current School/Work Location

Length of time	Number of responses	Percentage
0 - 6 months	2	5
7 months -1 yr	2	5
1 - 2 years	5	13
2 - 3 years	7	18
3+ years	22	56
No response	1	3
Total	**N=39**	**100**

More than 50% of the participants (22 out of the 39 principals) indicated that they had been at their current school location for more than three years. Thirty-one percent of the principals had been at their current location from 1-3 years and only 10% of the principal leaders had been at their school for one year or less.

Table 3-8 displays the number of years of experience in a formal school leadership role.

Table 3-8:
Years of Experience in a Formal School Leadership Role

Length of time	Number of responses	Percentage
No experience	0	0
Fewer than 5 years	6	15
5-9 years	10	26
10-19 years	18	46
20+ years	5	13
Total	**N=39**	**100**

The majority of respondents had at least five years of experience as school leaders. Just under half (46%) of the sample had between 10 and 19 years of experience as school principals, with over a quarter (26%) having between five and nine years of leadership experience. Five principals were highly experienced with 20 or more years while only 6 had fewer than five years of leadership experience.

Table 3-9 displays the number of principals who had teaching duties in addition to their leadership responsibilities.

Table 3-9:
Teaching Duties

Duties assigned	Number of responses	Percentage
Yes	27	69
No	12	31
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Curiously, 70% of the sample of survey respondents indicated they had teaching duties in addition to their leadership role. This may have been influenced by the higher numbers of elementary and rural schools in the sample.

Linked with the preceding table was the item which asked if the principals'
teaching time was more than that specified in the formal timetable (see Table 3-10).
This item was designed to explore if the principals were assuming more teaching
support roles for their teaching staff.

Table 3-10:
Teaching Time - More than Specified in Timetable

More than specified	Number of responses	Percentage
Yes	15	42
No	21	58
Total	**N=36**	**100**

Over 40% of leaders indicated that their teaching duties were more than those
specified in the timetable with 58% indicating that they tended to only teach the
amount that was allocated in the timetable. The higher percentage that indicated they
did not teach more than that allocated in the timetable would also include those
principals who did not have a teaching load at all.

Along the similar theme of teaching principals, **Table 3-11** asked principals to
estimate the percentage of the time they expended in teaching duties.

Table 3-11:
Percentage of Teaching Time

Timetabled percentage	Number of responses	Percentage
0%	3	13
1-10%	6	25
11-25%	5	21
26-50%	6	25
51%	4	17
Total	**N=24**	**100**

One quarter of the respondents (25%) indicated they taught between 1-10% of their time while another 25% of respondents indicated that their teaching time amounted to between 26-50% of their overall duties. This was a large percentage of overall time engaged in teaching considering the complexity of the principalship. Four principals even indicated that 51% of their duties involved teach rather than administration.

Table 3-12 displays the results indicating the years of experience in a formal district leadership role.

Table 3-12:
Years of Experience in a Formal District Leadership Role

Length of time	Number of responses	Percentage
No experience	20	51
Fewer than 5 years	8	21
5-9 years	6	15
10-19 years	4	10
20 + years	1	3
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Not surprisingly, over 50% of the participants did not have experience in a formal district leadership role. As the years of experience increased, the number of principals in a formal district leadership role decreased leaving only one participant with 20+ years of experience. It was surprising though that there were 19 principals who did have formal leadership experience at the district level but who had clearly moved back into the principalship role.

Table 3-13 displays results from the item that queried if respondents had previous involvement with change initiatives in their current school.

Table 3-13:
Previous Involvement with Change in Current Location

Previous involvement	Number of responses	Percentage
Yes	15	42
No	21	58
Total	**N=36**	**100**

Over 40% of leaders had experience with a change in their current school location. This may indicate that the complement of the sample had been parachuted into their current school to initiate change or were new to the school and had experience with change in another school.

Table 3-14 explored how many respondents had previous experience with implementing change in other schools or through other roles.

Table 3-14:
Previous Experience in Conducting a Change Implementation

Length of time	Number of responses	Percentage
Yes	36	92
No	3	8
Total	**N=39**	**100**

A significant percentage of leaders (92%) had previous experience in conducting a change implementation. Only eight percent of leaders reported that they had no had previous change experience. This indicated that the majority of these experienced principals were experienced change agents.

The next section outlines the demographics of the stakeholders who participated in this study (see Table 3-15).

Stakeholders.

Of the 16 principals who participated in the in-depth interviews, eight extended the invitation to the researcher to make his/her school a case site for the study. The other eight principals were happy to personally be interviewed but were not prepared to allow the researcher into their school for a number of reason, for example, the timing of the interviews conflicted with specific school events such as the Provincial Achievement Test examinations were being conducted hence inclusion in the study at that time would have created significant disruption to the school. Hence, eight schools were included for stakeholder focus group interviews. Of the eight schools, a total of 68 stakeholders, namely, teachers, parents, and students, participated in the focus groups. There were three secondary high schools, three K-8 or 9 schools, and two elementary schools included in phase three. In total there were 21 teachers and four Vice Principals, 21 students, and 22 parents who volunteered to share their perspectives of the change initiative, the leadership involved in instituting the change, and the impact of the change on the school and its community. There were also four vice principals in the secondary schools who participated in the interviews.

Table 3-15:
Stakeholder Participants in Focus Groups by School Type

Stakeholder Group	Elementary School	Secondary School	K-Grade 8/9 School
Teacher	5	10	6
Student	6	8	7
Parent	6	8	8
Vice Principal		4	
Total	**17**	**30**	**21**

Chapter Summary

This study was oriented within the pragmatic paradigm, that is, the researcher utilized the best methods to answer the research questions in the most effective and efficient manner. The mixed methods approach was considered the best choice for research of educational leadership and time-sensitive organizational change because it offered the best of both methods, namely, the advantages of questionnaires and interviews, while enabling a reduction in the biases and disadvantage of each. Questionnaires were administered to school leaders in four school districts in Alberta which represented varied demographics such as rural, metropolitan, and remote, and also elementary, middle/junior high, K-Grade 8/9, and secondary schools. The questionnaire was designed based upon the research questions and was piloted with doctoral peers who were also school leaders who had enacted a change within their school setting. The interviews utilized an interview schedule that was similar to the questionnaire in that it employed both rating-type and open-response questions. Therefore, both instruments were mixed method in design. The study contained three phases in data collection: phase one included the instrument design, piloting, and administration of the questionnaire; phase two included conducting of the one-to-one

interview with school leaders; and phase three included the conducting focus group interviews with school stakeholders, namely, teachers, students, and parents.

The data processing of the questionnaire was supported using MS Excel using descriptive statistics for each item. Open-ended response questions in the questionnaire were thematically coded. Interview data were coded using an iterative coding approach with initial codes confirmed through an inter-rater reliability check. Leader interviews were coded, followed by the stakeholder focus group interviews and then the data from all sources were triangulated and written up.

Validity and reliability were taken into account throughout all phases of the design and data collection, for example, through the wording clarification, piloting of the instruments, member checking, and inter-rater reliability checks.

The next chapter presents the results from the questionnaires, interviews with leaders, and the stakeholder focus groups. The document analysis was simply used as a device in the triangulation of these various data sets.

This study explored time-sensitive change in schools in Alberta, Canada. In particular, change was examined from the perspective of the leader as change agent but also included stakeholders' perspectives, namely, teachers, students, parents, and more peripherally that of superintendents. The study was situated within the pragmatic paradigm and encompassed mixed method design. This chapter provides a description of the paradigmatic orientation, methodological design, as well as an explanation of the sampling frame and procedures undertaken to complete this study.

A mixed method design was used for this research study and included the use of questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and focus groups. The types of questions used in the study were open-ended and exploratory (qualitative) as well as rating-type and uniform questions (quantitative). Additional methods that were incorporated were collecting documents about the change initiative and processes. This mixed method model was referred to by Gay et al. (2009) as the QUAN-QUAL model. This model was:

> also known as the triangulation mixed methods design, [whereby] quantitative and qualitative data are equally weighted and are collected concurrently throughout the same study – the data are not collected in separate studies or distinct phases, as in the other two methods. (p. 463)

This study explored how Canadian principals perceived change particularly when it was implemented in a short time frame, specifically three years or less. It also examined the consequences (both positive and negative) that resulted from creating change in shortened timeframes, in addition to the elements which facilitated faster-paced change and how change occurred within an optimal (shorter) timeframe. Data collection through focus group interviews examined how closely the leader's perception of the success of the change initiative aligned with his/her staff, students, and parent stakeholders, the level of challenge encountered in the change process, and the 'best practice' method to bring about the change. In addition, the internal and external supports required during the change process were explored.

Ethical considerations and appropriate practices were given careful attention when working with study participants. Additionally, the limitations and delimitations,

the demographics of the sample, the timeline of the research, and the stages of the research design are presented.

Chapter 4 - Results

Introduction

The results of this research study are presented in this chapter with the data from the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, as well as focus group interviews. The *first section* reported findings of the first research question which explored how Canadian principals perceived change particularly when it was implemented in a shorter time frame, that is, under three years. These findings included positive and negative consequences resulting from changes, pre-planning and organization of time-sensitive change and elements which facilitated faster-paced change.

The *second section* reported finding of the second research question which explored stakeholders' perceptions of the success of the change. Leaders' perceptions of the success of the change were compared with stakeholders' perceptions for triangulation purposes. Stakeholders' perceptions included the level of challenge, best practice, internal and external supports, and perceptions of the success of the change process.

Please note: To facilitate visual identification of the qualitative comments, *italics* have been used and different "voices" are separated by the use of quotation marks.

The data in this research is presented using the mixed method approach. This consisted of data collected in quantitative and qualitative form from the questionnaires as well as data collected in quantitative and qualitative form from the interview process. The mixed method allowed the researcher to mix not only the research

techniques but also the methods, approaches, concepts, or language used within the study to better understand the problem. Studying the same phenomenon through the quantitative and qualitative data approaches also allowed the researcher to collect data over an extended period of time and monitor any implementations which would be useful for future reference and research. The researcher confirmed that data by looking at the information from different perspectives for triangulation purposes.

Focus group interviews of volunteer participants (representing members of staff, students, and parents within each of school communities) occurred after the semi-structured interviews had taken place with each of the school leaders. This provided a more encompassing perspective of the impact that the change had on the school community. Participants were given the choice of sharing in a small group (ranging from 2-4 individuals) or sharing privately. The focus question types included Likert scale rating questions as well as open ended questions. The data collected was then analyzed and coded for the purpose of triangulation with school leader's account of the change and presented in a mixed method format.

It was important that extreme caution was used when collecting the data from the stakeholders to prevent disruption of the school routine. One school district was not able to easily accommodate the interviews as the other three districts. This was primarily due to a number of working parents who found it difficult to volunteer as well as student preparation of exams at the time of the available school visit. At times, these circumstances caused a slight decrease of interested parent and student volunteers. This chapter will conclude with a summary and review of the results.

The Change

Sources of change.

Leaders identified various sources of change initiatives which included district and school based level as well as those mandated from external sources. School based initiatives were those initiated by staff, students, or members of the parent community such as an organized parent group identified as a school council. Community stakeholders included local church parishes affiliated with the schools or community groups which served the needs of students such as immigration support groups. As well, change initiatives also included principals personal choice as well as those initiated from Alberta Education (AISI). In some cases, leaders (37%) indicated multiple sources for the change. This was evident in both the questionnaire as well as interview responses where one participant described:

> *"I chose the change because I did homework on the school by asking staff and central office to identify where they are at and then that told me what they needed." "This was 90% my passion and the 10% was board directed who saw our accountability pillar."*

Table 4-1:
Source of Change Initiative

Source of Initiative	Number of responses	Percentage
Personal	20	27
School based	20	27
District	17	23
Alberta Education (AISI)	7	9
Community	6	8
School Council	4	5
Total responses	**74**	**100**

The three main sources for change initiative included personal choice (27%), school initiated (27%), or district initiated (23%). Additional sources of initiation were launched from Alberta Education, local community and school council. During face-to-face interviews, leaders similarly described their personal drive for change. Reasons for change included a need or a personal desire. One leader described the source of change as a personal choice during the interview saying *"I chose to do this. It wasn't forced upon us and we were curious about this."* Other surveyed leaders indicated that the change was determined from a school based or staff initiative. One interviewed leader described the source of the change as being mandated from senior executive. This mandate was communicated during their job interview *"I found out about this in a job interview and the change that was necessary. I was asked to make the change during the interview."*

Timeframes – mandated or chosen.

When leaders were asked to describe the time frame for change to occur, leaders indicated that timeframes were sometimes mandated and other times they were created by the leader or/and change participants. Mandated timeframes were often externally driven such as district representatives, Alberta Education or other agencies.

Over 50% of externally driven timeframes were designated a one year or three year completion time. During the interviews, leaders reported that in most cases the three year time frame was related to the AISI (Alberta Initiative School Improvement) project funding which included an attached three year funding. Forty-four percent of the responses indicated that they were not externally driven. Table 4–2 represents the length of mandated implementation time from the questionnaire.

Table 4-2:
Length of Implementation Time When Change was Mandated

Length of Implementation time	Number of responses	Percentage
< 3 months	0	0
< 6 months	1	2
1 year	11	28
2 years	0	0
3 years	9	23
3 +	1	2
No response (not externally driven)	17	44
Total	**N=39**	**100**

One leader felt that the mandated change required more than the three year time frame as the mandated change implementation appeared to still be evolving at the end of three years. In contrast another leader indicated that the mandated change was effectively completed within six months. A little less than one-half of the leaders (44%) were not imposed with a mandated time frame. It was interesting to note that none of the leaders reported a two year completion time frame.

Why do leaders choose to institute change?

The questionnaire as well as the interview allowed leaders to report their reasons for their choice of implementation. These included:

- A need for change through school site observation

- A need for change through communication with school representatives

- A personal desire for school change

- A personal challenge

Leaders also described their motivation from previous change success with current or previous schools locations. Table 4–3 described the reasons why leaders choose to initiate a change.

Table 4-3:
Reasons for Choosing Change Initiative

Reasons for change process	Number of responses	Percentage
Need	7	27
Desire	7	27
Right thing to do	4	15
Academic success	5	20
Previous success	3	11
Total	**26**	**100**

In addition to choosing change as a result of a need or desire, choosing the change initiative simply appeared to be the right thing to do for some of the leaders. Doing the right thing resulted in "what was best for kids" in the pursuit of enhancing student outcomes.

Types of change: People or program.

The type of change initiatives varied from district to district as well as from school to school. Two-thirds (67%) of the surveyed change initiatives were identified as *program* changes. Examples of program changes included those which were "curriculum related" such as reading and writing, English as a second language, special education teaching, curriculum, technology, fine arts, and religion programs.

One third (33%) of the surveyed change initiatives were **"*people*"** related changes. Examples of **"*people*"** related changes included those involving a shift in peoples' attitudes, behavior and culture within the school community.

Timeframes for successful change.

The total length of time for the successful change implementation to occur ranged from a number of weeks, a number of months, to three years or less. Participants were also invited to describe their perception of the sufficiency of the timeframe for externally-driven change implementations. Table 4–4 presents the change completion time from leaders' perceptions.

Table 4-4:
Change Completion Time: Leaders' Perceptions

Completion time	Number of responses	Percentage
Years (3 yrs or less)	21	54
Months	13	33
Weeks	3	8
No response	2	1
Total	**N=39**	**100**

As seen in Table 4–4, more than one-half of the surveyed leaders (54%) indicated that they were able to complete a successful change in three years or less while 33% reported that they were able to complete the change over a period of months. At least 8% of leaders indicated that they were able to complete the change in a number of weeks. One percent did not respond.

Stakeholders comprised of teacher, student, and parent focus groups in each of the school communities were asked their perspectives of the change completion time.

Teachers (52%), students (81%), and parents (79%) perceived that the change implementations were completed within one year. A one year time completion perceived by stakeholders was significantly faster than those perceived by the leaders.

Teachers (5%), students (14%), and parents (11%) perceptions indicated a two year time completion frame. Fourteen percent of teachers reported a three year time frame for change completion while neither students nor parents indicated a three year completion time. The percentage of participants who did not respond varied from 29% (teachers), 5% (students), and 11% (parents). One possible explanation for a no response answer may be that some participants were uncertain of the length of change completion.

Stakeholders described the high speed of the change during the focus group interview process. Comments from the teachers reported recognition of instant change within a matter of minutes saying "*In the first 80 minutes on the first day during the grade level assemblies, it was demonstrated how things were going to be and we all believed her.*"

Parents also reported feeling this shift with one parent remarking *"Immediately, he takes initiative seriously and walks the talk and talks the talk."* It was surprising to discover that this shift was also evident with the students. One elementary student described the change as "*Change happens fast ... basically you hear about it and it is already started.*" It was evident that leaders and stakeholders strongly agreed that time-sensitive (less than three years) can occur with stakeholders perceiving a faster completion time the leaders.

Enough Time?

The questionnaire asked leaders to indicate the time frame sufficiency on a Likert scale ranging from 1-10. Using the Likert scale of 1-10 (with 1-4 indicating insufficient time and 5-10 indicating sufficient time) 80% of leaders indicated the time frame was sufficient to create the change. Stakeholders strongly supported the view that the time frame was acceptable for the change to be completed. Teachers (81%) indicated a percentage similar to the leaders' perception. The students and parents however responded 100% in support of an acceptable time frame for change to occur. It is significant that stakeholders, particularly students and parents, strongly indicate the sufficiency of time for change to occur.

The rate of change.

Sixty-nine percent of the interviewed leaders indicated that the speed of change was a positive influence for successful change. Although 31% of the leaders chose not to respond, none of the leaders indicated a negative influence due to the speed of change. One leader described the speed as a necessary element *"the speed had to happen fast so people would not see 'same old, same old' ... it had to happen quickly."* Another leader indicated that speed was helpful to ensure that the change process would continue *"The speed of change was good because it is so easy to slip out."* Although these leaders complimented the speed of change, at least one leader indicated that although the speed was influential, it would have been difficult to increase the speed to create an even more successful change. *"I do not think that this could have been accomplished any faster because the buy in was necessary and the credibility on the part of administration is necessary."*

Time consuming tasks.

As part of the questionnaire, leaders were invited to offer open-ended responses when describing what tasks were most time consuming when making the change. Time consuming tasks include reassuring staff and providing professional development, developing agendas and planning, collecting data for the change initiative, and arranging necessary physical preparations. Table 4–5 presents time consuming tasks of change leaders.

Table 4-5:
Time Consuming Tasks

Time Consuming Tasks	Number of Responses	Percentage
Staff Reassurance/PD	18	60
Developing Agenda/planning	5	17
No response	3	10
Collecting data	2	7
Physical preparation	2	7
Total	**N=30**	100

As seen in Table 4–5, tasks made up 60% of the time. These tasks included the time spent supporting staff by reassuring them of the change decision as well as providing professional development to prepare them prior and throughout the change process. Additional tasks included the preparation and planning change agendas, collecting data necessary, and the physical preparation (such as arranging particular space and set-up for students). Ten percent of the survey participants did not respond.

Outcomes of Successful Time-sensitive Change

Indicators of success.

When identifying the indicators change success, multiple answers were selected by leaders. One indicator of success was recognition (reaction and involvement) of the recipients who embraced the change. Other indicators included the support demonstrated for sustainability as well as positive feedback received as a result of the change. Table 4–6 lists the various responses given for success indicators.

Table 4-6:
Indicators of Success

Indicators of Success	Number of Responses	Percentage
Recipient (embrace) involvement	24	39
Goals achieved/Support for Sustainability	18	30
Positive culture/Feedback	19	26
No response	3	5
Total	**N=61**	**100**

The most evident indicator (39%) was the involvement of participants who embraced the change. The goals that were accomplished during the change and the support for sustainability of the change represented 30% of the responses. Additional responses included the positive culture that had been created as a result of the change as well as the positive feedback received. There were 5% who chose not to respond.

Effective change.

The effectiveness of time-sensitive change was very significant from the results of both the questionnaire as well as the interview. All of the interviewed leaders (100%) and well as almost all of the surveyed leaders (95%) indicated that the time-

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sensitive change implementation was effective. Two percent indicated that the change was not effective. Three percent did not respond.

Stakeholders' perceptions of effective change.

Stakeholders' (teachers [100%] students [100%] parents [95%]) strongly supported the view that the change implementation was effective. One teacher felt the shift from the first staff meeting stating *"First staff meeting ... because we weren't being lectured to ... no decisions made but all about getting a feel of getting our input and taking time to consider possibilities."* A parent described this by saying *"We can see and feel the effectiveness."* Leaders were asked to elaborate on the positive and negative consequences of the effective change implementation.

Positive and Negative Consequences

As part of the questionnaire and interview process, leaders were asked to indicate the positive and negative consequences as they related to the:

- Type of change implementation that they were reporting;

- Outcomes of the successful change process including positive and negative consequences;

- Effectiveness of the speed;

- Foreseeability of the change; and

- Criteria that they determined as indicators of success in the change initiative.

The following results of the questionnaire analysis are presented in conjunction with the results of the interviewed participants. This will assist for triangulation of the leaders' responses. Some leaders indicated multiple responses. Focus group data

comprised of teachers, parents, and students responses will also be presented to strengthen triangulation with the leader participants.

Positive outcomes.

All 39 leaders who completed the questionnaire indicated that positive outcomes were achieved as a result of the change. Multiple answers of successful outcomes were selected by the leaders and these answers were categorized into three specific areas which included:

- Timely goals achieved (64%);

- Increased positive culture/positive feedback received (32%); and

- Sustainability – evidence and observations of the change (4%).

Interviewed leaders also reported similar success as indicated in Table 4–7.

Table 4-7:
Positive Outcomes of Change Initiative

Positive Outcomes	Number of responses	Percentage
Passion for learning	11	19
Confidence	11	19
Communication	10	17
Academic Success	8	14
Collaboration	6	10
Buy In	4	7
Relationships (soft skills)	4	7
Celebration of Learning	3	5
Consistency	1	2
Total	**N=58**	**100**

Leaders indicated four significant positive outcomes as a result of the change which included increased passion for learning (19%), confidence of the

participants (19%), increased communication among the participants (17%), and improvement of academic success (14%). One measure used for academic success was provincial achievement tests. One leader indicated *"Each year the results got better and the teachers were more comfortable."* Additional positive outcomes reported included the buy in from staff, the positive manner in which staff treated each other (soft skills), increased celebrations for learning, and consistency of best practices which were created and developed through the course of the change.

During the focus group interviews, the stakeholders were asked to describe the positive and negative aspects of time-sensitive change. One teacher described the positive implementation of a new fine arts program:

"All of these changes have been positive for our school .The kids are learning at a higher level. The staffs are very open to sharing ideas and materials and that just makes us stronger. The parents love the arts that we are doing and we haven't had any negative feedback."

One student described a positive outcome as a result of the change occurring very quickly. She described this as *"I think that it was good that the changes happened so fast because it made us realize that we can make things happen ... it was action ... reaction!"*

One parent identified a positive outcome for time-sensitive change by describing the shift of culture:

"Yes, because immediately there was a greater sense of calm and positive interaction with administration, staff, and students. Because of this, I

sense that there was willingness and almost a sense of hope that these

changes were not just cosmetic but would remain over the long term."

When the leaders' responses were compared to the teachers, a significant number of teachers (43%) reported that the positive outcome of the change was positive atmosphere. Teachers' noted the increase of academic quality (24%) and the evidence of passion and collaboration (24%). Nine percent chose not to respond.

One teacher described the change in the culture of the staff by saying ...*"There was joy! You would walk in the door and there wasn't yelling but laughter ... the staff liked each other and enjoyed each other's company."* Another teacher commented:

> *"The students became alive in their purpose to come to school. Our*
> *school was more than a depository when they could do more than just pick*
> *up knowledge and then leave. It became more positive, more student led,*
> *more student voices, more student action."*

Students perceptions of significant positive outcomes that resulted from the change was the passion and collaboration (52%), the positive atmosphere (33%), and the academic quality (14%) which showed less significance in comparison. One nine year old student recognized that the change implementation to improve writing may not have proved successful for every student saying ... *"because most kids are really good writers now but some may still not care about writing."*

Parents' responses identified the positive atmosphere (43%). One parent's interview comment suggested *"I started finding a real school spirit which created a*

change in the atmosphere in the school. The kids started caring about one another and the school. It was a pride thing."

Additional positive outcome from the parents included increased academic quality (29%), change participants support of each other (14%), increased passion for learning (7%), and increased involvement for future initiatives such as fundraising (7%).

Stakeholders as well as leaders indicated multiple positive outcomes as a result of the change. Specific outcomes identified by leaders and stakeholders were passion for learning, academic success, positive atmosphere and celebrations of learning. Stakeholders also noted the collegial support and fundraising efforts for sustainability of the change.

Negative outcomes of change initiatives.

Interviewed leaders were asked to identify any negative outcomes as a result of establishing successful time-sensitive change. Leaders (13%) indicated that as a result of the successful change, the district supervisors and other school leaders sometimes doubted or questioned the positive change. Additional negative outcomes as a result of the positive change included feelings of being overwhelmed and exhaustion of the leaders and staff (13%) with the change process. Leaders (6%) also identified individuals who tried to *"sabotage"* the change process. One leader described the mixed feelings they experienced at times as a result of negativity from the local community saying *"The principals of the other schools were not jumping up and down ... some may have had mixed reviews and besides our own change, we were doing another change with the neighbourhood concept."*

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Another leader described the positive feedback from the stakeholders as a direct indication of the successful change saying *"I do not think that there is anything negative that has come out of this because of the response by all of our stakeholders...the students, the parents and the teachers are so on board."* Only 31% of the total leader participants indicated negative responses.

Participants' initial reactions.

Interviewed leaders were asked to describe the participants' initial reactions to the change initiative. Leaders (50%) reported the participants' initial reaction to the change as positive and while 43% of leaders' responses described the participants initial reaction to the change as negative. Six percent did not respond.

Negative reactions of participants were those hesitant or resistant to the change. This required strategies to motivate hesitant or resistant participants that included:

- Increased communication to support the participants;

- Conscious inclusion of hesitant participants;

- Providing professional development opportunities for participants to strengthen knowledge and develop required skills;

- Allowing the participants ample opportunity to engage with the change process;

- Demonstrating ongoing examples of success (proof);

- Introducing new staff who would bring fresh ideas and a newcomer's energy; and

- Providing different perspectives and insights.

Interviewed leaders responded with multiple answers and numerous examples when describing the evolution of the successful transition. One leader commented:

"The teachers will be able to give you samples of proof where the writing has come! One of the students today said 'Writing is so much fun!' He has huge behaviour issues and in the end he said that! When I first came there were some staff that were requesting leaves and now no one has asked for a leave because they feel that they are a team!"

Leaders used various strategies to motivate hesitant or resistant participants. These encompassed the provision of on-going communication and support, inclusion of the participants as a valued member of the change process, arranging professional development, moving forward with the change to allow participants to engage at their own time, providing proof of change success, and introducing new members of staff to provide new energy and ideas. Table 4–8 presents the motivation strategies used by leaders for hesitant and resistant participants.

Table 4-8:
Motivation Strategies used for Hesitant or Resistant Participants

Motivation strategies	Number of responses	Percentage
Communication Support	7	43
Inclusion	5	18
Professional Development	5	18
Move ahead/avoid/let go	4	14
Proof of success	1	4
New staff	1	4
Total	**N=28**	**100**

Over 40% of the total responses indicated that resistant or hesitant participants were motivated through strategies of communication. Inclusion of reluctant participants (18%) and professional development opportunities (18%) represented a

similar percentage. Some leaders (14%) simply 'let go' (fired) or avoided resistant individuals to give them ample time to engage with the change process. Other motivation strategies included providing examples of success for the participants as proof of positive results. Leaders also brought new staff to support the change process.

Stakeholder perspectives of satisfaction with the school change.

Teachers, students, and parents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the change implementation. The Likert scale was used to indicate a satisfaction level of 1-10 with 1-5 indicating an unsatisfactory rating and 6-10 indicating a satisfied to highly satisfied rating. All of the stakeholders (teachers [81%], students [100%] and parents [95%]) indicated a satisfied to highly satisfied rating. One of the interviewed stakeholder's satisfaction responses included: *"I would give it a 10 so far as the effort put in by administration for it to work smoothly."*

At times, it was noted that the participants' may not always be aware of the change process. Stakeholders were asked whether or not they were aware of the fact that a recent significant change had taken place. Eighty-six percent of the teacher participants, 77% of the students, and 95% of the parents' responses indicated that they were aware of the specific change. Five percent of the students indicated that they were not aware of any change. At least 18% of the students did not answer.

Pre-planning and organization for time-sensitive change.

This section will present leader's rationale for initiating time-sensitive change within their organizations. As a result only the leaders' responses will be reported in this section. Leaders' were either given a mandated time frame or chose their own time frame for change completion. During the interviews, leaders were not always aware that their time-sensitive change was considered significant in comparison to the current research. Also included in this section:

- Leaders' previous experience as a change agent;

- Pre-planning before the change implementation; and

- Order and priority of tasks involved.

The elements of pre-planning, organization, and prioritization of the change are steps that the leaders addressed **before introducing the change to the participants**. The leaders' **reflections and perceptions of the change** were the views of the leader after the change implementation was completed.

Leader's previous experience and involvement as a change agent.

The questionnaire indicated that 92% of the leaders had previous experience in conducting a change implementation leaving 8% of the leaders who indicated no previous change experience. All surveyed leaders responded to this question. Previous involvement with change in the current change location was a contributing factor with 95% of the leaders having had previous involvement with change in the same location and 5% having no previous involvement. All surveyed leaders responded to this question.

Lead-in time.

Three questions involved the amount of notice given to complete the change. This question asked if there was any advance notice to implement the change, the amount of advance notice given prior to the change, and the length of time for completion of the entire change.

Sixty-nine percent of the surveyed leaders indicated that advance notice was given and 23% indicated no advanced notice. Eight percent did not respond. When asked as to the amount of advance notice, leaders were asked to respond to this information in terms of weeks, months, or years. Some of the leaders found it difficult to identify exact dates and times but were able to locate definite time periods of initiation and completion.

Table 4-9:
Amount of Advance Notice

Amount of advance notice	Number of responses	Percentage
Weeks	3	7
Months	22	56
Years	1	3
No response	13	33
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Table 4–9 indicates that more than one half (56%) of the leaders were given a period of months for advance notice. Seven percent indicated that they had only weeks for advance notice. A much smaller percentage (3%) indicated that they had years of notice.

Planning and Preparation

Prior-planning and preparation for change was evident in the data. Leaders were asked if pre-planning was used in the change implementation and 94% of the leaders indicated that they had pre-planned and 6% indicated no pre-planning. All of the leaders responded in the survey question.

Leaders were asked to describe the types of pre-planning that was involved. The responses included:

- Planning schedules for the change participants;

- Preparing a calendar timeline and agendas for meetings;

- Meeting with participants to establish relationships;

- Building a change task force;

- Arranging for funding possibilities;

- Implementing surveys to acquire background knowledge;

- Reviewing policies that have been in place; and

- Arranging for professional development.

Please note: Multiple responses were given to this open-ended question. The following table identifies the types of change pre-planning used by the leaders.

Table 4-10:
Types of Pre-planning

Types of pre-planning	Number of responses	Percentage
Meetings with change participants	20	32
Planning agenda	13	21
Preparing Professional Development	9	15
Researching change topic	8	13
Building of task force	7	11
Conducting surveys	3	5
Arranging funding	1	2
Reviewing policies	1	2
Total	**N=62**	**100**

Table 4–10 indicated the most significant responses (32%) that leaders reported was the time required to meet with change participants in group meetings as well as on an individual basis prior to the change. Time spent arranging the agenda, professional development, researching the change and building a task force ranged between 11-15% of the leaders' pre preparation time. Less significant tasks (5% or less) included conducting surveys, reviewing policies and making arrangements for funding.

Amount of pre-planning.

The amount (%) of pre-planning time ranged from 25% (or less) - 100% (see Table 4–11). One leader described the pre-planning involved by inquiring about the required change saying *"I chose the change because I did homework on the school by asking staff and central office to identify where they were at and that told me what they needed."*

Table 4-11:
Amount of Pre-planning

Amount of pre-planning	Number of Responses	Percentage
Less than 25% pre-planning	17	44
50% of pre-planning	9	23
75% of pre-planning	10	26
100% pre-planning	2	5
No answer	1	3
Total	**N=39**	**100**

The questionnaire asked leaders how much pre-planning they conducted. More than one half of the leaders (54%) indicated that they pre-planned 50% or more of the change implementation. There were also leaders (44%) who planned less than 25%. Three percent did not respond.

Task sequence.

Leaders were asked if there was a specific order of tasks in which they implemented the change initiative (see Table 4–12). This included leaders who had an order to tasks and those who did not have an order to the change tasks.

Table 4-12:
Order of Tasks

Order of tasks	Number of responses	Percentage
Leaders who had order to tasks	32	82
Leaders who do not have order to tasks	6	15
No response	1	3
Total	**N=39**	**100**

A significant number of leader participants (82%) indicated that there was a specific order of tasks that were established in bringing about the change. Fifteen percent indicated that there was no order of tasks. Three percent did not respond.

When asked to indicate the tasks that were involved, the leaders were also asked to list the order (chronologically) of each of the tasks. Table 4–13 indicates the first, second, third, and fourth order in which leaders addressed the tasks.

Table 4-13:
Change Implementation Tasks - Chronological Order

Tasks in implementing change	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Total	Percentage
Communication with participants	11	3	10	3	27	23
Surveying participants	8	7	8	3	26	21
Professional Development						
Developing task force	6	7	5	1	19	15
Staffing						
Proposal/Agenda	9	1	1	0	11	9
Test drive Implementation	0	1	4	5	10	8
Creating Time and Support	2	2	1	4	9	7
Visioning/planning	2	4	1	0	7	6
Access Resources/Funding	1	2	2	1	6	5
Physical changes		1		1	2	2
No response	0	0	0	0	6	5
Total	**39**	**28**	**32**	**18**	**123**	**100**

The four major tasks chosen as a first order selection included communicating with participants, surveying participants' needs and arranging professional development activities, developing a task force and agenda. It was interesting to note that these tasks were also evident in the 2nd and 3rd order selections. Additional tasks included creating plans for vision, time, support, and funding. In some circumstances

time was required to make physical changes as well as to test drive implementation procedures.

Task prioritization.

Surveyed leaders were asked if there was a particular priority of the tasks that they used to implement the change (see Table 4–14). Eighty-seven percent of the participants indicated that they had a task priority in bringing about the successful change that they had established. Ten percent indicated that there was no task priority. Three percent did not respond.

Table 4-14:
Task Priority

Priority of Tasks	Number of responses	Percentage
Participant Support/ Involvement	19	22
Communication	17	20
PD Research	16	19
Planning a task force	10	12
Visioning	9	11
Set Agenda	9	11
No response	5	6
Total	**N=85**	**100**

Leaders' (60%) responses in the questionnaire included the support, communication, and research development for the participants. Building a task force, sharing a vision, and setting an agenda represented 30% of the responses. Six percent did not respond.

Stakeholders' perspectives of the process and priorities of change.

When teacher participants were asked to provide their perceptions of the change process, all of the teacher participants indicated that a process was involved. When describing the change process, 44% of the teachers agreed that communication with the change participants was involved as part of the change process. Other teacher responses included the use of:

- Pre-planning;

- Developing a vision with the change participants;

- Developing professional development plans in support of the change;

- Creating strategies for staff involvement; and

- Monitoring and driving the change.

The specific priorities that teachers perceived during the change process were the leaders' focus on the people (change participants) which represented the majority of the responses. One teacher described this priority: "*She* [leader] *always put people first. The model that she appeared to follow was the principal was on the bottom and it was the kids that were on the top ... 'the inverted pyramid'"*. Additional priorities of the change process reported by teacher focus groups included planning professional development, allowing flexibility of the change process, and providing technology needs.

When focus groups of students were interviewed about the change process 19% of the student responses credited the staff as being the driver or processors of the change. The students seemed to be aware of and reported the principal leader's previous success (14%) and the flexibility (10%) of the principal leader who directed

the change as it evolved. The professional development influence (5%) was also perceived as factors of success by the students. Some students (14%) did not recognize a plan or process that was used to create the change but thought that there may have been some sort of plan that had been in place.

When asked to identify the specific priorities used during the change, students perceived a different emphasis indicating that they perceived the "expectations of the change" to be a program priority (30%) rather than a "people priority" (15%). This was significantly different when compared to the responses of the teachers who indicated the "people" were the priority. However, 40% of the student responses did indicate that there was a level of support in place for the change and 5% indicated communication as a priority. Ten percent of the student responses indicated that the change "*just sort of happened*!" During the focus group interviews, one secondary student was able to articulate the element of uncertainty when asked to provide an open-ended response to the change process. *"It depends on your perspective ... some* [change decisions] *seemed like they just happened but for others, it was obvious that there was a plan. If you see it on the outside, you may not realize that there was a plan."*

Another secondary student commented "*I don't know ... some of them* [change decisions] *may have happened over the summer ... maybe they* [staff] *got together after June and started talking about these things.*" When referencing the change of school culture shift in a school, one student replied "*I don't know that there was a specific priority ... maybe one of them was getting to know people and gain their respect.*

One secondary level student pinpointed the principal leader as the key person involved with the change process and prioritization. *"She definitely knew what she was doing and there was a method to her madness. I never seen a sheet or anything but organizing people is a challenge and she had people working for her. She was very organized!"*

Students from elementary schools were also able to describe the change process during focus group interviews. One division two student described the expectation of everyone's participation. When asked as to the specific priorities in the process to implement the change the student responded by indicating that all participants needed to be involved saying *"I think it is everyone in the school ... not just the students but the teachers and the VPs'* [Vice Principals] *and the secretaries and the janitor and the substitutes."*

When parent participants were questioned as to whether or not they perceived a process was involved with the change initiative, 76% of the parent participants reported that they perceived a process, 10% of the participants perceived there was not a process and 14% did not answer. Change processes identified by the parents included:

- Communication of the leader throughout the change process (43%);

- Development of relationships with the participants (21%);

- Support of the change participants (14%);

- Pre-plan of the change (14%); and

- Implementation of smaller changes (multi-implementation) in preparation for the greater change (7%).

When identifying leaders change priorities during the pre-planning stage, the parents reported developing trust (50%), buy-in (30%) with the school community, in addition to the leader's focus (20%) on various tasks of the desired change outcome.

During the parent focus group interview one parent commented *"He came in and wanted to collect the facts for himself. He did know his end goals."* Another parent commented *"I think he knew what he wanted to do and made it happen."*

Parents were asked for their perception of specific priorities of the school change. These responses aligned with the leaders' priorities of supporting the change participants. When asked the priority focus of change, one parent simply answered "*Yes, the kids*", while another parent commented "*Accepting of the whole family ... the child is taken as a whole child ... academically, socially, psychologically."*

Reflections About Time-sensitive Change

Elements for inclusion and exclusion.

Interviewed leaders were asked to reflect on the elements that they felt were necessary to include for successful change as well as those elements to exclude when making a change within their organization. From the total responses the six essential elements identified as necessary to include for time-sensitive change success were:

- Support for the change process (30%);

- Funding for the change process (26%);

- Buy-in for change from participants (22%);

- Communication to the participants throughout the change process (13%);

- Planning time for the change (4%); and

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- Vision of the change (4%).

Although support is considered essential, at least one interviewed leader indicated that support may not always be present. This leader commented about the absence of support and suggested that one should continue whether support is in place or not saying "*Sometimes you have to do this whether you have support or not because you know that it is right for kids.*"

When considering elements to exclude when creating time-sensitive change, only two responses were reported. One response recommended that the element to exclude were the "*removal of some staff duties*" to allow participant capacity for the change. The other response recommended the "*removal of staff*" that were resistant and refused to engage with the change process. Ultimately this required the leader to either relocate or replace these individuals. One leader described this best by sharing the following example of a situation when *"removal of staff"* would be recommended:

> *"one person in particular who chooses not to buy in , even though it is best for kids, because he is retiring. So he is part of the team, he has done what he has to do when the children are regrouped, but in discussions, he is usually a doubter. He is counting days and has been doing that for two years."*

Task force.

Surveyed leaders were asked if they used a task force when implementing their change. Table 4-15 indicates the number of leaders who chose to initiate a task force as part of the change process.

Table 4-15:
Leaders' Use of Task Force

Use of Task force	Number of Responses	Percentage
Yes	23	59
No	14	36
No answer	2	5
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Responses from the questionnaire indicated that almost 60% of leader change agents used a task force. The number of participants used in the task force ranged from 1-10+ participants. One interviewed leader indicated:

> *"I am a real people watcher so I can read the staff quite well. I am very aware of who my leaders are because I see the influence that they have on others socially, in decisions that are made in their classrooms that flow into other rooms. I select those people to be the first on board and I work with them and then I send them forward to work on others. By the time I come to the staff as a whole, I already have the message out there, and I have them already talking and starting to come my way."*

The number of individuals ranged from 1-2 per task force to more than 10 individuals as part of a task force team. Table 4–16 indicates the number of individuals used in a task force as part of the change.

Table 4-16:
Number of Individuals on Task Force

Number of individuals in task force	Number of Responses	Percentage
0 individuals	0	0
1 - 2 individuals	4	10
3 - 5 individuals	15	38
6 - 7 individuals	5	13
8 - 10 individuals	2	5
10+ individuals	9	23
No answer	4	10
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Thirty-eight percent of surveyed leaders reported having a task force of 3-5 individuals. The second most common number of task force was 10+ individuals (23%). Ten percent of the leaders did not answer. All leaders chose to have at least one individual that they identified as part of their task force.

Support

The support level of the change implementation was determined by the use of the Likert scale (1-No support – 10-highly supported). Leaders were asked to indicate the level of support by choosing the number which best described the support they experienced. Seventy-four percent of the leaders determined (by indicating a number of 6 or higher) that they felt supported by the district throughout the change process. Eight percent felt that they were not supported (indicating a number of 5 or lower). Eighteen percent did not answer.

Amount and types of support.

Leaders selected various and multiple types of support. The types of supports included accessing additional staff and resources, receiving financial support, having the support of colleagues, receiving support through recognition and encouragement and having support through the goodwill upon the leaders' request. Table 4–17 lists the support types and responses from leaders who completed the questionnaire.

Table 4-17:
Types of Support

Types of support	Number of Responses	Percentage
Resources (Staff)	26	22
Financial	26	22
Collegial support	24	21
Recognition	20	17
Goodwill	15	13
Other	4	3
No response	1	1
Total	**N=116**	**100**

Staff resources, financial and collegial support were support types which represented 65% of the answers. Additional answers (33%) were recognition support, goodwill, and other supports such as those which were anonymously donated.

Leaders were then asked to indicate, via open-ended questionnaire, additional information involving the type of supports that were given. Additional supports included those from senior administration, government funding, resources of professional development and time as well as district and community support.

Table 4-18:
Additional Types of Support

Types of support	Number of responses	Percentage
District	11	23
Senior Administration	9	19
Funding (Government)	7	15
Resources (Time, PD)	6	13
Community	1	2
No response	14	29
Total	**N=48**	**100**

Senior administrative and district support represented 42% of leader's total responses. Funding support represented 15% of the responses. Thirteen percent of the responses indicated support of resources such as time and professional development. Twenty-nine percent of the leaders did not respond.

Stakeholders' perspectives and priority of support.

As part of the focus group sessions, teachers indicated various factors which supported the change process. The amount of internal and external support that was required during the change process included:

- Staff buy-in;

- Central office support;

- Professional development support;

- Parent council support;

- Communication of student success; and

- Presence of faith with the change participants.

The positive supports of change as perceived by the teachers were:

- Support from administration central office (25%);

- Government support of the AISI (19%). One teacher commented *"The AISI projects forced us to pick a project that we could improve our schools"*;

- Staff buy-in (19%) A teacher complimented *"The resilience of this staff is amazing!"*;

- Funding (13%);

- Support of the government (6%);

- Support of the parents (6%);

- Distinct need for the change in the school (6%); and

- Time-sensitive change plan was well organized (6%).

When teachers were asked to prioritize the supports of the change, 70% of the teachers' responses indicated the support of the leader towards the change participants. Ongoing communication of the change to the participants (10%), support from the entire administration team (10%), and strong desire and focus of the change participants (10%) were additional supports. One teacher described the support of the principal when initiating the change saying:

> *"The principal looked at what we were doing first and that we were already on the path towards change. He lived with us first ... he would say ... how are you normally doing this?"*

Another teacher commented:

> *"My impression was that she always kept kids in the forefront ... but she knew the teachers were on the front line and if they were happy and supported they would be better teachers."*

Students recognized a number of supports with the change process. These included supports extended from administration and district office (18%), parental support (18%) and the leader's experience with previous success (18%). However, 47% of students' responses were attributed with the student buy in for the change. Students' responses also indicated teachers support (6%) and the students' family approach to the change (6%). When students were asked to prioritize the factors of support with the change, 38% of the responses described the students' attitude and excitement towards the change process and teachers buy-in (29%) and support (17%). Administrative support (4%) was less evident with students than the teachers. Finally 13% of the responses revealed elements of passion such as the spirit of excellence, desire, faith, focus, and vision.

Parents indicated a number of practices conducted by the school leader that they perceived as supporting the change process. These practices consisted of the leader's communication, supporting relationships, initiating small changes first and preparing a plan in advance. Parents also recognized the support provided by the district office (36%) and school council (21%) as instrumental in making successful change. Examples included financial support from the district office and fund raising initiatives of the school council. Professional development (21%), staff buy-in (14%), and evidence of student success (7%) were noted as additional factors contributing to the change process. One interesting response contributing to the success of the change process was the faith of the participants (7%). Participants identified faith as the source that provided the tenacity required to complete the change process.

Parents were able to clearly articulate their perceptions of support for the change. When describing the support of the district office, one parent said *"He was very proactive to be empowered to make changes in the school. I think he does that by communicating and listening to the principals."* When describing the support of the staff, the comments included *"amazing teachers,"* and *"comfortable and happy teachers."*

Parents also identified the top priorities that they perceived to support the change. At least 31% of the parents' responses indicated that the leaders' vision, desire, faith and focus was a top priority for successful change. Communication (25%) was also considered a first priority. Other priorities included the focus on curriculum (25%), teaching staff (13%) and professional development (6%).

When describing the support for the teachers, one parent said *"She focussed on strength in relationships with fellow teachers in the school and gained their support and trust. She knew that she could not do it if she did not have them on board."*

Instrumental People

As part of the questionnaire, leaders were also asked to indicate significant individuals who were instrumental throughout the change process as well as the type of relationship that they held with the leader. Table 4–19 identified individuals who were instrumental to the leader as part of the change process.

Table 4-19:

Individuals Instrumental in the Change Process

Instrumental Individuals	Number of responses	Percentage
Teaching staff	35	20
Principal	31	19
Vice/associate principal	28	16
Central/District staff	23	13
Students	20	11
Support staff	16	9
Mentor	10	6
Colleague/Friend	8	5
Community members	5	3
Other	0	0
Total	**N=176**	**100**

Nineteen percent of leaders' responses indicated that they as the principal leaders were instrumental in the success of the change initiative. Leaders also indicated that teachers (20%) and their administrative team (16%) were also significant.

Leaders identified their family members as being a key mentor or friend throughout the change process. One leader described his wife and brother as being significant during the interview process saying "*My wife is my rock … and my brother and I are attached at the hip.*"

When teachers were asked to report key individuals associated with the change, 71% of the teachers identified the leader of the school as key. Nineteen percent of teachers responses indicated themselves as instrumental to change and 14% of the responses made reference to the school district. One teacher described her principal by

saying *"[Principal's name] pushed for us to go to sessions and supported us to go to any session in writing."*

Only 18% of the students' responses referenced the principal leader as key to making the change. Students chose teachers (29%) as most significant and gave reference to themselves as instrumental change participants (18%). Additional responses of students included counsellors (18%) and parent council (12%).

Parents were asked to identify particular individuals who played a role in the change. The two strongest responses indicated principals (46%) and the teachers (41%) as significant role players related to change. These two answers consumed 87% of the responses. Additional responses (representing the other 13%) included parents, students, support staff, and the school board. The parent participants indicated that the leader held a very strong influence with the change process.

Engaging the disengaged.

Interviewed leaders were asked to identify the barriers or limitations that they experienced as part of the change process. Getting the buy-in and positive attitude from staff, dealing with staff turnover, sustaining the vision and lack of funds were identified as some of the responses. Table 4–20 reports the leaders' responses of barriers and limitations.

Table 4-20:
Barriers/limitations of Change

Barriers/Limitations	Number of Responses	Percentage
No Buy In/Attitude	5	38
Learning New approach	4	31
Vision	2	15
Staff turnover	1	8
Lack of funds	1	8
Total	**N=13**	**100**

The most significant barrier or limitation appeared to be the difficulty in getting buy-in from staff and creating the attitude necessary for change. Almost 40% of the responses were as a result of this limitation. Thirty-one percent of the responses were due to the learning required for the new change initiative. The remaining responses were due to the staff turnover, lack of funding and inability to sustain the change vision.

When questioned about the tasks that were most time consuming with the change, leaders indicated that reassuring the staff and developing professional development opportunities consumed 60% of the time. Developing an agenda and planning time consumed 17% of the time. Additional time consuming tasks (7%) included collecting data and necessary physical preparations.

During interview sessions leaders were asked how they motivated individuals who were hesitant or resistant to the change process. Leaders described several strategies for motivation. These included providing support through communication, professional development, and inclusion. Other strategies included bringing in new

staff members, ongoing communication of successful feedback as well as providing reflection time for participants who did not wish to engage in the change process.

Leadership Development

Leaders reported skills and behaviours during the interview session that they would consider developing for future change initiatives. These responses were divided into two categories; those which were interpersonal skills and those which were intrapersonal skills. Interpersonal skills and behaviours included conflict resolution and staff cultural changes. Intrapersonal skills and behaviours included personal confidence building, risk-taking, vision, planning, and communication.

Of the total answers, 50% of the leaders' responses indicated staff supported the development of the following capacities, such as, understanding staff culture, conflict resolution training, and managing resistance individuals. The other 50% focused on personal development such as building of confidence, taking risks, research work, communication skills, and creating a vision.

Leadership attributes.

Predictors of success.

All leaders who were interviewed indicated that they were able to foresee the success of their change. One leader explained that this was a result of prior success and commented *"Foreseeable? ... absolutely, I felt that because I had had prior success with this program with other schools and because I was so familiar, I felt that I could guide the teachers and help them to be successful with this program."*

Another leader's explanation of foreseeability was a result of the mindset of the staff and school community *"Foreseeable? Yes! Absolutely, because it is the mindset of the staff and the school as a whole...nothing is beyond our reach."*

When asked to indicate the foreseeability during the questionnaire, 63% of the leaders indicated that the change was foreseeable and none indicated a "not foreseeable" response. Thirty-eight percent did not respond to the question.

Leaders' confidence when implementing change.

Leaders were asked to indicate the level of confidence in bringing about the change. The Likert scale was used ranging from 1-10. All leader participants (100%) responded that they were confident when bringing about the change initiative, rating their confidence between 5 and 10 on the Likert scale. It is interesting to note that more than 90% of the participants indicated their confidence level in 8-10 rating on the Likert scale.

Important leadership behaviours to ensure success.

When leaders were asked to indicated what type of leadership behaviours that they perceived were particularly important to ensure successful implementation, they offered several responses as indicated below. Thirty-two percent of the responses specified the importance of role-modelling as many leadership qualities as possible. Other responses specified particularly qualities of being supportive (24%), positive (20%), communicative (14%), a team-builder (6%), and confident (4%).

All teachers, students, and parents who responded indicated the principal as being a strong influence of time-sensitive successful change. Teachers (71%), students

(100%), and parents (100%) agreed that the change was a success due to the influence of the principal. Twenty percent of the teachers did not respond.

Reflections on self as a leader.

Personal leadership skills.

Interviewed leaders were invited to share their personal leadership skills which they felt contributed to the success of the change initiative (see Table 4–21). These were face-to-face open-ended questions. Leaders were very passionate in describing their personal experiences. They described how they developed their leadership skills and prior personal experiences they had that impacted their leadership success. Specific individuals in their life who influenced the development of these skills were noted as well as the source from which they drew their personal leadership strength. Leaders described this source as a resource or *"place they go"* when they felt they need to refuel their strength.

Answers from the leaders were coded and categorized to those which related to:

- Interpersonal collaborative skills;
- Interpersonal support skills;
- Intrapersonal values;
- Intrapersonal beliefs of strength; and
- Communication skills.

Table 4-21:
Leadership Skills

Leadership Skill	# Responses	Percentage
1. Interpersonal qualities (Collaborative)	13	37%
Key words:		
Team/capacity/collaboration//inspiration/role-modelling/being proactive		
Group relationship/ motivation		
2. Interpersonal Qualities (Support based)	9	26%
Supportive – Encouraging communication		
Optimistic, hope, positive social justice,		
3. Intrapersonal (Values)	5	14%
Tenacity/efficacy/confidence		
Drive for excellence/		
4. Intrapersonal (Beliefs)	8	23%
Faith/balance/belief/passion/inner motivation/pride/love		
Total number of responses from 16 interview participants	**N=35**	**100**

Relational qualities (collaborative) skills.

Thirty-seven percent of the leaders' responses related to collaborative work with individuals. This included the capacity to work with a team, inspire, motivate, and role-model in a group setting. Leaders described their leadership skill by stating the following:

> *"I think that I have really good people skills and we have more fun than you can imagine ... people see that I am in there with them."*

> *"Building relationships and building the team. I got that from watching other leaders."*

"On the surface, I think that I am friendly, personable and one key aspect that I have when I look around the table; I have an ability to connect with people."

"I would have to say relationships and believe that is fundamental of anything with students to learn, for parents to bring them along, and for staff to listen and communicate well."

"You need to be viewed as a team and to be working together so that there is no sabotaging the change."

"I generally get off my ass and help them with it … because they need me and it is important to them and they would not have asked me if it wasn't important to them."

Interpersonal qualities.

Leaders shared their Interpersonal qualities that helped to support individuals associated with the change. They described themselves as optimistic, hopeful, positive, encouraging and being able to communicate well. They also described themselves as having a strong *"social justice bone"*.

"My strongest quality is my passion. I've always had a social justice bone. My greatest satisfaction comes in bringing out the best in people … whether coaching or teaching or administration … it is all the same."

"In schools, having a passion for certain parts of the curriculum in how we teach kids."

"I have always tried to make people better around me."

"I think that there were probably two in particular that make me successful … my own personal level of motivation and desire to achieve excellence as well as my interpersonal skills and relate to a variety of people from a

variety of situations and make things meaningful to each of them. I like to do whatever I am doing to the best of my ability."

"My belief in anything is that change is a prerequisite for improvement. When change is needed, it is because something is worn out, no spark or interest, or no engagement. I think it is my passion and desire to … I set high expectations the norm is not good enough … what can we do next to make it even a better place to be. I am never totally satisfied. My interpersonal skills has allowed me to do that when you build those relationship with the staff, it allows you to continuously set those expectations … if you don't have that, the staff will kybosh?"

Intrapersonal values.

Some intrapersonal responses that leaders shared included their confidence, tenacity, being self-reflective, having self-efficacy as a drive for excellence. Leaders described these values as being essential for successful time-sensitive change. During interviews leaders shared these responses.

"I think that I have very strong intuition and I am very persuasive."

"I am a self-talker … lots! The message that I give is "how do I do this in a positive way as an optimistic person?"

"I am constantly reflecting what is going on in this school and constantly trying to make things work. This is what gives me my day. I could have retired 2-3 years ago but I have no intention of retiring. This is my strength, knowing that it is good for kids."

"I think that there is two … being positive is one when there is sometimes nothing to be positive about … and never giving up!"

Intrapersonal beliefs.

Leaders also indicated their intrapersonal beliefs. This described their faith, personal balance, beliefs, inner passion and motivation, as well as the source of their pride and love. Some of their belief statements included:

"One of my belief statements is everything happens for a purpose and everything happens in its own time."

"It is my faith in my beliefs and my beliefs in my faith that gives me the strength to do whatever I need to do"

"I am very much a servant leader and it gets me boosted to do whatever else I have to do."

"I believe that I am a servant leader … and I try to foster others to lead and give them the capacity. Leadership is a group thing and not a "me" thing. I know I have to steer the ship sometimes but the more we can do it together the better. To draw strength, I go to the Kindergarten class for a high 5 or a hug."

"My style comes from my life from the journey that God has put me on … I have learned to love a lot of different people."

"Two things … God first and my faith, and exercise!"

"Sometimes I call it triangulation of life … Spiritually, physically, and mentally! I can usually pick up on what it is … If one of those is broken, then it is not good. Anyone can be successful if those links are really strong."

"Leading by example and never ask what I would not do myself. I learned it from my parents, specifically my Mom … I go back to my faith and to my family."

Development of leadership skills.

During semi-structured interviews leaders were asked where their skills were perceived to be developed. They were also asked if there was a prior experience or particular individuals which had influenced the development of these skills.

The majority of leaders' answers indicated that the leadership skills were developed from administrative mentors (47%). The second highest response of leadership skill development was family (27%). One leader commented *"I don't think that I have ever shared this with anyone and I am going to be choked up ummmm. I wish my Dad was here ... I believe that the one person very responsible in developing that in me was my Dad."* Additional responses where leaders developed their skills included resource materials, self-taught through experience, God-given, and developed through sports experience.

Sources of strength.

After having asked the leaders where they felt they had developed their skills, they were asked to identify where they drew their source of strength. Many of the leaders interviewed found this to be a particularly emotional question. These heartfelt answers, which were sometimes accompanied with tears, were very obvious.

The three most common responses that leaders indicated as their source of strength were family (29%), their faith (24%), and their colleagues (24%). Additional sources of strength were drawn from their friends (14%), the students in their school (5%), and from physical exercise (5%). One response that leaders shared during the interview included:

"When I am empty, I need a physical time break with friends and family and talk to my mentors and colleagues about what they are doing. I need to pray about it and just remember that my blessing will always outweigh the burdens the job can bring your way."

Barriers/Limitations

Level of challenge.

Both the survey and interview questions gave leaders the opportunity to describe the level and source of difficulty experienced throughout the change process.

The Likert scale was used, along with open-ended and selection type responses, to ask individuals to select a number ranging from 1-10 (1-indicating not difficult at all – 10-indicating very difficult)

When asked to indicate the level of challenge, 67% of the leaders indicated a level of difficulty ranging from six to ten. Thirty-one percent indicated a score of five or less meaning that the change experience was not difficult for them. Three percent did not answer.

When asked the reason why the leaders rated a very difficult level, leaders were invited to elaborate their answers in an open-ended format as part of the questionnaire. The responses included difficulty in creating the required attitudes and convincing the participants of the value of the change. The pressure of a mandated change created difficulty as well as limited planning time required. When new staff arrived into a new change environment, it was difficult to bring new staff on board and up to speed with transitioning to the new change process. Twenty-eight percent of the leaders did not respond.

Teacher focus groups were also asked to comment on the level of difficulty. The same focus group questions were asked of the teachers as well as the parents and students. A total of 21 teachers participated as part of the focus group interviews. Some of the questions resulted in multiple responses and this is differentiated by indicating either 'total participants' or 'total responses'. Forty-eight percent of the teacher participants indicated that the change initiative was highly challenging. One teacher commented *"Nothing comes easy; it was hard work on all our parts."* Another teacher indicated *"It was challenging because there was no precedence for this ... no book to go to, nowhere to go to"*. Twenty-nine percent indicated that it was not challenging. Twenty-four percent did not respond.

Students did not appear to find the change implication as challenging. Using the Likert scale again to indicate the level of challenge towards the change, 58% of the students indicated a level between 6-10 which suggested a 'not at all' level of challenge. Forty-one percent indicate a level between 1-5 with a level one indicating a highly challenging level of change.

A total of 19 parents participated as part of the focus group interviews. Parents were asked the level of challenge towards the change process using a Likert scale. The level of challenge was indicated using a scale of 1-5 and 6-10 to indicate the level of perception. (1-indicating highly challenging – 10-indicating not at all challenging) Parents who did not answer the question were also represented. Parents were asked to identify the level of challenge towards the change process. Although 53% of the parents did not choose to respond, perhaps due to less direct involvement of the change, 32% of the parents' responses indicated that that the change was not

challenging at all. This rating ranged from 6-10 on the Likert scale. Eleven percent

felt that there was a high level of challenging and at least 5 % indicated that there were

mixed feeling in their response.

One parent responded *"In a parent's view, I did not think it was hard at all but*

I am sure for the team ... it was probably challenging." Others were clear about their

perception of difficulty saying *"It was highly challenging but the school community*

lost the trust of the teachers and the students." One parent's response indicated that

the beginning of the change was highly challenging but then the level of challenge

transitioned to not being challenging at all.

Table 4-22:
Explanations of Difficulty

Difficulty Explanation	Number of responses	Percentage
Establishing values/attitudes	11	28
Pressure of Mandated change	1	3
Limited Planning time	9	23
New staff arriving	1	3
No response	11	28
Rationalizing to participants	7	18
Total	**N=40**	**100**

Explanations of difficulty.

Complexity of change.

Leaders' were asked how complex the change was for them to implement from

a leader's perspective. The majority (82%) of the leaders' responses indicated that the

change was extremely complex and 15% indicated that the change was not at all complex. The Likert scale (1-10) was used. Level one indicate a not at all complexity level while level 10 indicated an extreme complex level. Two percent did not respond.

When leaders were asked how complex the change was for the recipients, the same levels of complexity were used. Sixty-four percent of the leaders indicated that the recipients found the change extremely complex while thirty-one percent of the leaders indicated that they perceived the recipients did not find the change complex at all. Five percent did not respond.

Explanations of complexity from leaders' perspectives.

Explanation of complexity from leaders' perspectives included the shift of change philosophy, developing trust and buy-in of change with the participants, support new staff members who are not familiar with the change initiative, and developing the routines for the change. Table 4–23 presents the complexities experienced by leaders.

Table 4-22:
Complexity

Complexity	Number of Responses	Percentage
Change of thinking/philosophy	15	35
Developing trust/Buy in	8	19
Supporting participants/new staff	6	14
Scheduling/routines	5	12
No response	10	23
Total	**N=43**	**100**

Leaders were asked to provide explanations as to why they felt the change was complex (see Table 4–23). At least 35% of the responses indicated this was due to the task of changing the philosophy of the current practice. Developing trust (19%), supporting both new and current participants (14%), and developing new routines and schedules (12%), represented 45% of the total complexity responses. Twenty-three percent did not respond.

Sustainability, Transferability, and Repeatability of the Change

Leaders were asked how sustainable they perceived the change will be in the future. Again the Likert scale was used (1-10) with 1-5 indicating a not sustainable level and (5-10) those indicating a sustainable level. The leaders overwhelmingly indicated a 92% perception of sustainability. There were no responses which indicated a "not sustainable: response". Eight percent did not respond. This strong indication of leaders' sustainability perception appeared to be similar to the teachers' responses who indicated an 86% response of sustainability although 14% did indicate a "no sustainability" rating. All teachers responded. Students gave a 71% indication of sustainability, 5% of "not sustainable" and also created a 14% category of "not sure". Ten percent did not respond.

Parents indicated an 84% of sustainability, 11% as "not sustainable", and 5% did not respond. When leaders were asked what considerations they made for supporting the change for sustainability, interviewed leaders expressed their efforts of providing ongoing professional development plans, key sources of communication, a staffing plan, long range plans for the change process, and the trust of the individuals

who would continue to implement and support the change process. Table 4–24 demonstrates the number and percentage of responses when respondents were asked about the considerations for sustainability.

Table 4-23:
Considerations for Sustainability

Considerations for Sustainability	Number of Responses	Percentage
Professional Development Education	6	32
Communication	6	32
Staffing	3	16
Future planning	3	16
Trust people	1	5
Total	**N=19**	**100**

The more common considerations for sustainability included arranging professional development to provide on-going knowledge of the change initiative, as well as on-going communication to plan for change sustainability, and guiding the directions for the future.

Factors for sustainability.

Leaders expressed the success of sustainability when change became embedded into the organizational culture. Factors for sustainability included having the change as part of the culture, consistent leadership, ongoing support, proof of the effectiveness of the change, district endorsement by having the change mandated, annual fundraising events, and time to plan and assess the change. Table 4–25 presents the factors of sustainability for change.

Table 4-24:
Factors of Sustainability

Factors of Sustainability	Number of Responses	Percentage
Must be part of culture	8	20
Consistent leadership	6	15
Support	6	15
Examples of proof	6	15
District mandate	2	5
Annual fundraising	2	5
Time	1	2
No response	10	24
Total	**N=41**	**100**

Consistency of the leadership team (administration), support of the participants and examples of success demonstrating proof the positive results each represented 15% of the responses. Surveyed leaders indicated that when the district mandated (5%) the change and annual funding (5%) were in place to support the change initiative, the sustainability of the change was enhanced. When time (2%) was set aside to focus on sustainability, leaders indicated that successful strategies were put in place as a result.

Leaders were asked if they had documented the change. Some leaders chose to document the change while others did not. A few leaders were uncertain as to whether or not documentation was taken and by whom. Table 4–26 presents the documentation of change.

Table 4-25:
Documentation of Change

Documentation	Number of Responses	Percentage
Yes	21	54
No	14	36
Unsure	2	5
No response	1	3
Total	**N=39**	**100**

Fifty-four percent of the leaders indicated the change plan had been documented while 36% did not document their change. A few leaders (5%) indicated they were unsure as to whether documentation had taken place by someone during the change process. Three percent did not respond.

Transferability.

In terms of transferability of this change to other schools, leaders were asked whether this change initiative had the potential of being directly transferred to other schools and 92% of the surveyed leaders 67% of the teachers, 94% of the students, and 89% of the parents indicated that this change initiative had the potential to be transferable. There was a low representation of uncertainty with leaders (3%), teachers (9%), students (0%), and parents (0%) indicating whether transferability would be successful.

Willingness to repeat change.

Leaders were very willing to initiate another effective and time-sensitive change. All leaders responded with 97% of the leaders indicating they would be willing to repeat while only 3% said that they would not repeat the initiative. All of

the teacher participants responded and 71% of the teachers were willing to be involved in another change initiative. Twenty-nine percent of the teachers did not respond. There were no teachers who indicated that they would not be willing to repeat the change initiative in the future. The student participants strongly responded with 95% indicating that they would be involved in such a change initiative again with 5% indicating that they would not be involved. As well, 89% of the parents indicated that they would be willing to be involved in another change initiative and 5% indicated that they would not be involved.

Advice to leaders.

Leaders were asked what advice they would give to other leaders about time-sensitive change. The advice that leaders would give regarding time-sensitive and effective change were categorized through Intrapersonal and Interpersonal levels. The intrapersonal section included advice related to personal confidence, passion, vision, and positive attitude. The interpersonal skills included listening, being supportive, being collaborative and practising communication (see Table 4–27).

Table 4-26:
Advice to Leaders

Advice from leaders	Number of Responses	Percentage
Intrapersonal skills –	25	47
confidence, passion, vision, positive		
Interpersonal skills –	28	53
Listen, supportive, collaborative, communication		
Total	**N=53**	**100**

The following leaders' quotes best summarize their advice and suggestions to future leaders as time-sensitive organization change agents.

"Whatever you do…do well"

"Know your vision … confidence that you can implement change … getting staff on board by creating excitement and showing them that it works … seeing results … working together … supplying resources and opportunities."

"Have your research supported, short for buy in from a majority of the staff even though it might not be from everybody, keep your vision clear and what the end result is going to look like. Support your staff in every way possible."

"Be passionate; be sensitive to the personalities that you are working with, find people to go with you. Once you choose those people, listen to them carefully because they are your liaison to how things are really going out there. Be flexible so that people feel supported and part of the change this is happening. Make sure that they are changing instead of the change happening to them"

"Build on your strengths and focus on kids and what is good for them. You have to decide where you want to take the school and work collaboratively with everyone."

"Keep the glass half full! You can make a difference. There are going to be issues and problem that occur. Keep that understanding in your heart that you can be a catalyst for making a difference and it is a critical endeavour … involve the stakeholders. Give them a voice and help them be part of the change."

"It's a messy process, not as linear as we like it to be, and that is ok."

"Be accessible and visible ... you cannot be behind this door. Understand what the goals are and the roadblocks that exist ... you say "Ok, I got the issue now, what do you think is the solution ... ideas please?"

"The bottom line is ... when you make a decision ... what's best for kids! Leaders love to build legacies but it is not about the legacy. The best leader is like a good official. They don't over control the game and don't let too much go ... they are balanced, and when they walk into a gym the coach only worries about what they are doing with the team."

"That's one thing ... to make everyone feel worthy, valued, and feel important and part of the education team."

"Be open, listen, empower others!"

"Common vision, Common goals, Common mission and purpose ... this means all stakeholders have to have the same values and belief that is going to be one of the best schools in Alberta."

"My advice would be listen and learn from the experience of the individuals in the building. Be sensitive to their concerns. But don't relent in the pursuit of your vision. You may have to change paths along the way and the route you take to get there may have twists and turns, no doubt, but remain focussed on that final destination."

Leadership Change Frameworks

Appendix F presents an overview of the 39 leaders that were surveyed. Sixteen of these leaders also participated in an in-depth semi-structured interview with the researcher. Focus group interviews were also conducted with stakeholders of eight of these school communities.

Each column in the chart explains an aspect of the change process which describes the key events of the successful change process. The first column indicates the type of school in which the change was initiated; this being elementary, middle/junior high or senior high school. It also identifies the type of school and states the approximate student population thereby indicating the extent or magnitude of the change process. The type of change is also stated as either a mandated by external authority or leader initiated change. The leader has identified the change as being a program or people focus change, although it is important to note that the leader often described the people and program focus as interwoven in many cases.

The second column describes the intended change outcome, aim or goal articulated by the leader. In some cases the leader found that it necessary to conduct more than one implementation (multi-implementation) to achieve the intended outcome. Certain impediments that were particularly challenging as part of the change were stated by the leader. Because almost all of these leaders have had previous change experiences, the leaders were able to easily describe the challenges, processes and strategies that were used to conduct the change. This included those steps that were conducted in the pre-planning stage as well as the implementation and follow-up process. Committee development, meetings, and organization of funding were some of the tasks listed in this section.

The leader's acceleration of change momentum was the reflection and discovery of key events or stages throughout the change process when the leader perceived a kinetic (change) acceleration of the momentum. This was also identified

as a time when the leader felt assured of the success of the change. Leaders described these times as crucial to the change process as it created reassurance of success.

The evidence of success included all of the aspects that were used to measure the success of the change. This includes statistical measures such as test scores and surveys as well as feedback documented by the staff, students, and parents of the school community. It also included recognition of awards and celebrations of the change success. All changes were met within the time frame that was set for the change to occur, whether this was set by the leader or an external source such as the school district or community stakeholders.

The last column provided a general description of the successful change agent involved with these initiatives. This includes the leader's gender, the amount of teaching and leadership experience, and the previous change experience. Each leader gives an indication of the confidence they had throughout the change process as well as the number of individuals they arranged as a task force for the change. Each leader also describes a support plan which they put in order which was based from their colleagues, family, or friends. The leaders' indication of pre-planning and if the case, whether there was a particular priority and order to the plan is also stated.

Elementary schools.

The type of changes that appeared to be most accomplished at the elementary level were program changes. In most cases the program changes were supported by the Alberta Initiative of School Improvement program (AISI) which was provincially funded over a three year period.

Elementary changes included reading, writing, fine arts, technology integration and language implementation. In some cases more than one initiative was implemented (multi-implementation) at the same time for the purpose of preparing the essential conditions for change to occur. Some examples of these implementations included staff professional development to support the staff confidence and future change of teaching practice. Other initiatives involved staff leadership initiatives such as professional learning communities. These types of change were defined as a people change as it required the staff to shift their thinking approach from a "me" to a "we" approach.

The leaders described people types of changes as most critical due to the complexity of the school culture at the time of the change. When asked to indicate the types of impediments that the schools were experiencing, the leaders described not only extremely reluctant staff members but in some cases staff that were *"scared spitless"* with the implementation. This was the first change initiative of this type not only for the school but for the entire district in some cases. The leaders' describe these philosophical people changes as those which would create a new culture of practice for the entire school community. The trust required was pertinent to these changes as in one case the change required a shift of authority to a new committee of individuals. Buy in to the change was needed from new staff members who were most unfamiliar with the change process, which meant they needed to be inducted into the rationale and process of the change as well as into the operational collaborations with current staff.

Change processes for leader included significant amounts of pre-planning, (ranging from 25-75% by most leaders). Pre-planning often had an order and priority

to the tasks that would be conducted. Some of the first tasks were confirming or planning funding requirements, collecting data to measure the students' level of learning, and targeting strategies for implementation. Data was also collected for evidence to convince staff of the need for change. Elementary leaders often chose a task force of approximately 3-5 individuals who would become involved with professional development activities in the pre-planning stages and then support the drive for the change throughout the process.

A team leader was often introduced to the staff as the "lead teacher". This individual was often recognized as a visible sign of support to the staff. Together with the leader, plans were created collaboratively and potential roadblocks to the change were discussed as a proactive measure should challenges occur. Celebrations were usually held when goals were achieved and supports were implemented when individuals struggled with the change process.

Elementary leaders identified particular moments during the change process as an indication of acceleration for change success. They described this as the tipping point of change. The moment when the participants collectively recognized the "need" for change was one example of this tipping point. It was at this moment when participants were able to identify with the vision of the leader and align their focus with the leaders' goals or vision.

Several leaders felt that when the staffs were able to physically see the results of change success, whether this was from a physical, intellectual, spiritual, emotional or social perspective, the momentum of the change process shifted to a high speed of evolution. The presence of the leaders' support system or plan was also recognized.

In some cases this was individuals from Central office or members from the board of trustees who demonstrated their support. In other cases it was members of the community who cheered the change by creating media attention or recognition during school events. The physical presence of support for the change was significant. This may have transpired with the introduction of a lead teacher, coach or guest author, through funding support, or the evidence of a calendar or schedule where time was pre-planned

Evidence of results provided proof of the change success for the leaders. Leader's described many factors of success which helped to create the change culture for sustainability. Evidence included increased scores of testing at the pre and post levels as well as Provincial achievement tests. Increased student engagement and motivation for program growth was also noted. Program agendas were being scheduled in advance for improved plans in the future. Increased attendance and enrolment to schools, positive parental and student satisfaction feedback from surveys, decrease of behavioural issues, consistency in practices and student exemplars were among the many sources of evidence for success.

What is the description of these change agents? In many cases, these individuals are either male or female with commonly 19-29 years of experience in the education profession and 10-19 years of experience as a school leader. They have had previous experience with significant change and hold a very high confidence level for success with the change process. These leaders have chosen a task force of approximately 3-5 individuals unless they have purposely decided that this decision was not necessary for change to occur. In most cases a support network was created

through their task force, district, or personal means. Much of the change was pre-planned and order and priority was planned for the change process.

Elementary/junior high (K–grade 8-9) schools.

The types of changes that were identified by Elementary Junior High changes included program and people changes such as technology implementation, balanced literacy programs, reading and writing, school improvement, excellence initiatives, behaviour implementation, and school initiatives to improve the culture and climate. Leaders described these changes as people and program focussed changes primarily because of the necessary philosophical shift for the participants in order to change their current teaching practice. This would require a constant presence on the part of the leader as well as the expectation of staff to support the students with the new change approach for learning.

The change process for leaders at the K–grade 8-9 level had both similarities and differences when compared to the elementary change process. Funding support was still evident at the K–grade 8-9 levels; however, the need for physical plant changes to prepare for the change as well as additional time to work with the designated coach or team leader was more evident. Progress reports and feedback sessions appeared to be a necessary practice. Accessing feedback from the students was more common at this level. As well, a higher reporting process was identified to parent and school council and community stakeholders. In some cases individual meetings with teachers three times a year were required to identify goals and practices. Stakeholder reporting sessions were also evident in several K–grade 8-9 change situations. Success indicators were identified for this purpose. Higher task forces

were noted in some cases (more than 10 individuals is some situation) at this level not evident at all in some situations.

The acceleration of change momentum point for K–grade 8-9 leaders was achieving strong support and buy-in from the staff, admin team and central office personnel. If available, support from other schools was also welcomed. Much like the elementary leaders, communication for the need of change was crucial. Perhaps the continuous support from various levels and being available to staff was identified as the acceleration of change momentum point. Proof of success of the change as well as the time for staff to plan and explore various techniques was key for the change. A clearly articulated vision and a common language were noted as evident in various changes.

Evidence of successful change was recognized through the new culture developed as a result of the change, the staff, student, and parent survey results, and the new language being spoken by the participants. The implementation goals as well as expanded leadership, reduced number of behavioural referrals and increased enrolment during the change were also evident. The use of rubrics to measure the change was noted as one measure of success. Award winning recognition of success was also recorded.

The descriptors of K–grade 8-9 change agents were predominantly male and include the 19-29 years of experience, 10-19 years of leadership experience as well as previous change experience. Confidence level remains high as well as the support system that the leaders have built. The task force size for the K–grade 8-9 leaders

tends to be larger in size with numbers up to 10+ and the amount of pre-planning ranges from 25-100% with both a priority and an order to the process.

Senior high schools.

The types of change at the senior high level appear to be more people focussed as well as people and program focussed changes. There appears to be a multi-program implementation process to achieve the culture that the leader seeks.

Leaders describe a difficult change for the participants involved and this shift of thinking and practice appears to be the impediment for several cases. One leader described this as the key piece for success due to the fact that the staff required time to heal from previous negative experiences. Another challenge was the number of stakeholders and the difficulty in including this large number of individuals in the change process.

One of the key processes for leaders at the Senior High level is the necessary training of staff that will be empowered to implement the change. This is a core group of individuals who will support the change and may require pull out or special development sessions as a result.

The acceleration of change momentum point for secondary leaders varied from school to school. Some leaders included daily presence and communication by the leader as well as visible support from the district leaders. Leaders agree that communicating the need to the participants is key to increase the momentum for change. Empowering the staff is also important for the change. Recognition for the

participants is significant with the presence of a highly supportive superintendent or excellent role models.

Stakeholder Change Frameworks

Elementary schools

Initial responses from stakeholders varied at the elementary level. In some cases stakeholders appeared to embrace change however there was the odd exception of hesitant or resistant participants.

Staff, in particular, were not always convinced of the change initiative and at times parents indicated that they did not like the change depending on the nature. Once change practice was embedded into teacher and student practice, these individuals were more cooperative and positive. The staff expectations included to attending inservice meetings and providing extra support for students The participants considered themselves the implementers of change even though they may not have been comfortable with the change themselves. Parents were encouraged to provide the role of fundraising and volunteering with the school as part of the change process. Students were automatically engaged as part of the learning process. Some students were unaware of the change, therefore readily accepting the process as a natural occurrence.

Once the change process began and positive results were evident, buy in for the stakeholders improved dramatically. Parents indicated appreciation and support. They remained positive and more cooperative of the process. Staffs indicated that their desire and enthusiasm increased with visible signs of success from their students. The

students' excitement and willingness also improved with their own success of the program change.

When asked to identify a tipping point (influence) from the stakeholders, teachers, students, and parents indicated various elements which signified successful change. Some of these elements included basic necessities such as the resources and organization of the program change. Stakeholders identified the "team approach" as crucial to change. Such team contributions include the staff support to drive the change, the parent involvement as a support for change and the students' willingness to accept the process. The change successes were the visible signs that were evident.

These signs included the transformation of attitude towards change from the staff. Staff that appeared very negative in the beginning were now transformed to becoming lead drivers of the change. There was an increase in the number of involved parents to demonstrate continued support of the change. Student work exemplars were evident as part of student led conferences as well as being recognized in awards celebrations. Professional development for the change initiative and continued planning for the change for sustainability became part of the culture. Finally, students themselves were able to articulate the positive change and describe their increased learning. This learning was also evident in the improvement of the results of their provincial achievement test scores.

Stakeholders' perceptions of the change success included the leader as well as other significant factors. They described the change as being appropriate for the school and one that produced high quality learning for the students. The leader of the

school was identified as the lead driver and vision of the change. It was interesting that the parents described the change as one that was inclusive of the whole family.

The leader was able to provide flexibility with the change process when necessary and the leader worked with the administration and staff throughout the change process. A positive tone was created with a well-organized plan and planning time for the participants. This process created a culture of learning.

Junior high/middle schools.

Junior high stakeholders agreed with the elementary stakeholders that the team approach helped to create buy in and assist with embracing the change. As well, they described staff members who were very negative or scared "spitless" of the change initiative.

The expectation of the stakeholders was to work as a team. The staffs, much like the elementary teachers, were expected to drive the change process. This required working the change into the school plan and strategizing processes of accountability for the change. Also included were:

- Identifying their own past weaknesses;

- Discovering ways to improve practice;

- Completing student assessments; and

- Encouraging parents to support the plan.

All stakeholders were requested to learn the change process and gain familiarity of the change plan for support purposes.

Stakeholders responded to the change by working and supporting each other together. A common language used by all stakeholders was created and the high support of the leader was a significant factor during the change process. The leader was identified as one who consistently communicated feedback of the change and provided support where needed.

Stakeholders also described the tipping point (influence) from the stakeholders' perspective. They noted the engagement and the confidence of the change from the students. The parents described an increased comfort level with the school atmosphere which presented a setting of everyone working together. Staff however, at times described exhaustion with the process of pioneering the change.

Various measures of success were noted. Assessments were practiced for sustainability purposes and parent and school council support continued with fundraising for resources such as reading materials. An expectation, other than a choice, of the students to learn was evident with the change process.

Evidence of the change process included the student engagement and PAT achievement and exemplars of work, teacher and parent satisfaction surveys, additional learning options and approaches. Noted in more than one occasion was the common language and various learning styles that were developed with the change initiative. A strong communication system for all stakeholders was also key as well as a translator for miscommunication. This was often described as a team leader or liaison. This process was the culture of the school.

Change with junior high stakeholders included a strong vision from the leader and transparency in communication. It also includes consistency and high support for

students and families. The stakeholders describe a highly supportive and organized leader who is extremely confident and establishes a physical presence among the stakeholders. They note a tremendous team effort and common language and describe "great people being capable of great change".

Senior high schools.

Senior high school stakeholders experienced some hesitancy and resistant. Some described this as "everybody's guard was up" and others described the tone as skeptical.

Still others were apprehensive but willing to try the change. At the high school level students were also encouraged to take on leadership roles. The staff was expected to role model the change by following through the process of taking risk for new school leadership tasks for the students. School council was encouraged to support this process from both a financial as well as participatory perspective.

Although stakeholders were extremely slow to respond to the change, the buy in was quickly evident when there was evidence of a support person or team leader. This created a positive atmosphere and feedback from staff, students, and parents. Stakeholders were more supportive of the leader as a result.

The strongest support for tipping point change from the stakeholders' perspective was largely due to a resilient and flexible staff. When a tipping point is evident, students embrace more responsibility and communication with parents increases. The stakeholders' are given continuous input throughout the change process and follow through of support individuals such as team leaders are evident.

The response from stakeholders was to prioritize the necessary tasks in order to achieve what was necessary. Central office provided the capacity to designate this initiative as a district initiative. As a result many examples of success were evident such as:

- Students' attendance increased;

- More clubs, programs;

- Parents feel school is more safe increased commitment and excellence;

- School surveys;

- School attendance;

- Reduction of discipline issues;

- Changing mindsets and change hearts;

- Staff team approach presence in staff room;

- Student attendance;

- Increase trust among stakeholders;

- More evidence of programs for students;

- Accountability;

- Test results;

- Increased attendance; and

- Increased participation.

Senior high school stakeholders recognized that ongoing change was part of the culture and strong leadership was crucial. Leaders had to create recognition of the need for change and then proceed to involve the participants. Leaders had to be highly

supportive of staff and students and had to provide immediate support and follow-up through the process as they were key to success and making a difference.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the results from this doctoral study. The findings related to the nature of the change, whether or not the changes were mandated, leaders' rationale for instituting change, the types of changes that had been successfully wrought in these schools, and the timeframes in which these changes had been completed. The issue of time, particularly shorter time frames for change were presented, including the presentation of time consuming tasks.

The outcomes of time-sensitive change including the indicators of success – the effectiveness of the changes – were explored from leaders' and stakeholders' perspectives. The changes included both positive and negative consequences which were largely linked to participants' initial reactions, stakeholders' perceptions of satisfaction, in addition to the pre-planning considerations, and the influence of leaders' prior change experience.

Pre-planning and preparation, task sequence, and drawing upon key individuals to assist the change process either as influential people or as members of task forces were presented.

Leaders' advice to other leaders about how to successfully implement significant change was explored. They indicated the aspects that were essential for inclusion and what should be excluded. They also examined the issue of hesitancy, resistance, and barriers, and provided advice about how to reduce the impact of these

negative elements. They also discussed the pros and cons of sustainability even though many of them had not overtly documented or considered this as an essential factor in the change process. Most indicated that transferability was possible, with due consideration to contextual and participant differences.

The change initiatives were considered from the perspective of the elementary, K–grade 8-9, and senior high schools contexts with the findings about each of these being presented.

The following chapter, Discussion, presents an exploration of the key findings in relation to the scholarly literature.

Chapter 5 – Discussion

This study examined leaders' perceptions of time-sensitive change, that is, successful change accomplished within three years or less. It also explored the pre-planning and organization of time-sensitive change, and those elements that facilitated faster-paced change, with the positive and negative consequences resulting from the changes. The other aspect of this study was the exploration of a range of stakeholders' perceptions of the change. This chapter provides a discussion of key findings and themes emerging from this study related to the literature on leadership, organizational change, time, and the context of change. Four major findings of this study included:

Time-sensitive changes can be successful, necessary, and effective even when complex and difficult.

Complex time-sensitive changes requires, as part of the change process, essential elements to be successful and some of these elements were found to be common across leaders and different change initiatives.

Time-sensitive change elements were perceived to be sustainable, transferable, and repeatable; and

Leaders of successful complex time-sensitive change exemplify strong intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and usually have substantial leadership and/or previous change experience.

Key Findings

The first and most significant finding of this study was that time-sensitive change was perceived by leaders and their stakeholders as successful, necessary, and

effective even when complex or difficult. Leaders reported change success whether the changes had been mandated by the district, ministry of education or deemed necessary by the principal. Leaders were highly confident of their ability as change agents and were also perceived to be successful by educational stakeholders such as the parents of the school community.

Time-sensitive change is necessary.

Time-sensitive changes were reported by leaders and stakeholders as necessary in this study. Leaders in this study were often aware of the various changes to which Canadian education had been subjected to over time and in relation to changes in response to global pressures (Scott & Webber, 2001). They were also familiar with the various interpretations of time, mindful of the importance of the efficient use of time, planning, and understood the ways that time was negotiated for exchanged services as described by Woodilla et al. (1997). Change requests were driven from district supervisors, school council representatives, community members, faculty members, or a combination of these various sources. Mandated changes were usually launched from district supervisors or authorized by Alberta Education. Requested new initiatives in this study were mainly in response to poor school attendance and student academic reports, as well as, initiatives for future developments such as changing demographics. This endorsed Burke's (2008) thoughts that change was necessary to move an organization in new direction to ensure relevance and currency of organizational practice, and Fullan (2005) agreed that change was essential for shifting low performing schools as being complacent with poor performance was not acceptable. A common initiative presented to schools with a three-year funded

opportunity was the implementation of Alberta Initiative for School Improvement (AISI). This endorsed most of the literature on leadership and organizational change where many authors identified that change was inevitable and, in many cases, necessary in order for an organization to remain responsive to society's demands (Fullan, 2005; Webber & Scott, 2008; Scott & Webber, 2012; Senge, 2006).

Leaders in this study accepted the duty of making change as part of their leadership role. Sergiovanni (2009) stated that change is an unavoidable task for leaders who had an obligation to create change for improvement of student learning and the enhancement of school cultures. Leaders in this study personally initiated changes when deemed necessary and these changes were usually identified during initial school site visits or during leaders' transfer periods from one school to another. Fullan (2008) pointed out that expectations from stakeholders and an increasing need for complex change had resulted in a higher demand for capable leaders who were able to bring about change. Leaders in this study had a personal desire for pursuing needed school changes and viewed this as an opportunity to challenge themselves in their leadership role and pursue something new to assist student learning. Gray and Streshley's (2008) report of highly successful principals identified the principals' desire to improve student performance, to accept the challenge of experimenting with something new and interesting, as well as their personal interest of keeping up with the pace of change as key motivations for effective leadership. One leader in this study epitomized these points stating:

> *"My belief in anything is that change is a prerequisite for improvement. When change is needed, it is because something is worn out, no spark or interest, or no engagement. I think it is my passion and desire too … I set*

high expectations. The norm is not good enough ... What can we do next
to make it even a better place to be? I am never totally satisfied."

Leaders chose to make changes because *"it was simply the right thing to do"* to promote student academic success. They described this as their philosophy that drove their rationale and desire for change. The literature described the role of the leader as someone who wished to serve and help others rather than simply managing them (Greenleaf, 1977; Schwahn, 1998; Tucker & Russell, 2004). Northouse (2010) along with Avolio and Gardner (2005), and Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, and Dickens (2011) described this genuine attitude of doing what is "right" as "authentic leadership", initiated when leaders use change and challenging opportunities to strengthen their values and personally test their leadership growth. Leaders in these findings welcomed opportunities to learn as a result of their change experience and become stronger leaders for their students. This is comparable to Williams (1997) who stated that "people and organizations do not merely endure change - they seek, sponsor, and enjoy change as a continuing process of lifelong learning" (p. vii). Therefore, change is generally a necessary and constructive process in educational contexts.

Time-sensitive change as successful.

Leaders reported, and stakeholders agreed, that they were successful with implementing time-sensitive changes within a three year period. The completion time of the change for some leaders occurred within a period of months rather than years and, surprisingly, a small percentage of leaders reported their change as completed within a period of weeks. The stakeholders in this study were perceived as important validation perspectives to verify whether or not others shared the view of the success

of the time-sensitive change. Stakeholders were acknowledged in the literature as being important participants in education, having a responsibility for the success of students, and providing important support for change initiatives (Burke, 2008; Lezotte & McKee, 2006; Senge et al., 1999).

The majority of stakeholders perceived that leaders had accomplished the change in faster timeframes to that specified by the leaders. However, some stakeholders, particularly students, may not have been fully aware or knowledgeable as to when the change had been initiated or when it was completed. Evans (1996) pointed out that change means different things to different people and perhaps this may have been the case in these findings in that stakeholders may have trusted the leader's timeframe of the change. Kouzes and Posner (1997) identified correlations between people's trust in their leader and evaluations of the leader's effectiveness. In these findings the strong relationships and trust established with the leader may offer another explanation of participants' perceptions of the faster completion timeframes.

Considering that most change literature indicated that much longer timeframes were required for significant or complex change to occur, the success of rapid change was a surprising and unexpected finding. For example, Burke (2008) stated that large organizational change could take years to implement new behaviors and to modify attitudes and beliefs in participants. Senge (2006) indicated that a five to ten year timeframe was required to understand the culture of an organization and to bring about change. Horsley and Horsely (1998) emphasized the *process* of systemic change, rather than an event, and indicated that systemic change initiatives could only begin to

become established in a three to five year time frame. Thus, for this researcher, the finding in this study that rapid change *was* possible was a significant finding.

Although Burke (2008), Horsley and Horsely (1998), and Senge (1999), indicated that a much longer period of time was required to bring about change, the literature did provide some current evidence of rapid change success. For example, Mourshed, Chijioke, and Barber's (2010) McKinsey Report of the world's most improved schools stated that rapid change *was* possible; however, the timeframe they reported for *district* change was around six years while this doctoral study found that *school* change was possible in three years or less. It must be acknowledged that district change would likely be more complex and more time consuming than change at the school level. The anticipated timeframe process of educational change according to Fullan (1988, 2005) ranged from three years for an elementary school, six years for a high school and eight years for change to take place in a district depending on its size and complexity. Fullan (2010) later indicated that more intensive and thorough use of the change knowledge could accelerate the process:

> When motion leaders learn the skinny [those who utilize essential change knowledge], they can greatly accelerate the pace of progress. Simplexity once again – a small number of things done well and in concert multiplies the effect and has built-in consequences of its own that literally get results fast and lay the foundation for even more. (p. 54)

In this later work, Fullan (2010) admitted "Effective change cannot be accomplished overnight but skinny change agents [those who utilize the essential change knowledge] can accomplish quality implementations with high impact in

remarkable short timeframes – much shorter than we hitherto thought possible" (p. 7). Hence, there does appear to be a shift in academic thought about the pace of time-sensitive change that is possible in schools, indicating that successful change can be wrought in shorter timeframes than previously posited and this study endorses this shift in expectations for change.

Time-sensitive change as successful even when complex and difficult.

Leaders in this study reported that time-sensitive changes were successful, even when they were complex and difficult. Despite the challenges associated with carrying out mandated or self-selected changes, leaders in this study embraced their roles as change agents and recognized the tremendous impact that the change success would have for their change participants. These leaders did not draw attention to their personal success associated with the change, but instead celebrated the change accomplishments by recognizing the efforts and successes of others involved with the change process. Fullan (1988) recognized that change is not an easy task for leaders and stated that the capacity for a leader to make change was limited. Fullan also stated the difficulty with finding successful principal change agents saying "fewer than one in ten" leaders are capable of significant changes (Fullan, 1988, p. 7). Leaders in this study did not perceive themselves as being rare like the "one in ten" successful principal change agents that Fullan described, rather, they considered themselves to be one of many who had a passion and desire to do the right thing for student success. Leaders did recognize that there were a number of challenges associated with their change initiatives such as the many assigned tasks and interruptions which required daily attention and which distracted them from engaging more fully with the change

processes. Hardy (2008) also indicated that leaders simply do not have the capacity to address the bigger issues such as reform or long term goals due to a continuous struggle with the daily number of assigned tasks.

Writers in the field of educational change acknowledged the complexities of educational change in response to the demands of a fast-paced society (Burke, 2008; Andy Hargreaves, 1994; Leithwood, 1994; Reeves, 2004; Schwahn, 1998; Sergiovanni, 2009; Williams, 1997). In discussing the context of contemporary education, Darling-Hammond (2004) acknowledged the challenges with which leaders were confronted, such as having to accommodate various circumstances in relation to their student and community needs, problems and social expectations, and the constant shift of accountability measures that emerge as a result. In these findings, leaders recognized similar challenges and complexities for their participants as well as for themselves in working with different school locations, communities, participant groups, and stakeholders. Alberta Education (2009) and Shapiro (2004) insisted that there was no single 'recipe' for change due to the fact that organizations and changes were different even though there may be similar dynamics to the change processes. Although leaders in this study recognized that organizations and changes were different and complex, they pursued the change implementation with confidence and belief that success was still possible endorsing Leithwood and his associates' (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Leithwood & Strauss, 2009) findings about the importance and tenacity of leaders in pursuing enhanced student outcomes.

Change implementations in this study involved program, people, or a combination of both. Program changes were viewed as more easy to implement than people changes; however, people changes were frequently necessary to facilitate the change which resulted in a new culture. Schwahn and Spady (1998) reported that people viewed change from their personal perspective and refused to change unless they shared a reason for change, had ownership of, and support for the change, and perceived that their leaders were serious about the change. Similarly, Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, and Hall (1987) also reported in their CBAM model that change is perceived from a largely individualistic perspective, namely, How is this going to affect me? In this current study fear or previous negative experiences with change demotivated the participants from engaging with the current or new change. Leaders reported extremely reluctant staff members who were "*scared spitless*" with new implementations. This endorsed Schwahn and Spady's (1998) contentions about participant reluctance if they have not experienced previous successful change initiatives.

The findings in this study indicated that complexity was increased when the change was designed to shift participants' belief systems or previous philosophies, in addition to developing new routines and developing professional supports. Diverse cultures, changing demographics, and new languages of the change also contributed to the complexity in some situations and provided additional challenges for leaders. Burke (2008), however, indicated that multi-implementation changes were also necessary in organizations if the changes were too complex for one intervention. This suggested another approach which leaders may consider for time-sensitive change.

People changes were viewed as more complex in these findings and the literature offered several perspectives; according to Senge (2006) people changes that involved altering the prevailing culture could take twice as long as one might expect. Holcomb (2001) stated that any change process was likely to influence the organizational culture, and indicated that change happens according to the people within them. Fullan (2008) described culture as things that people commonly agreed upon or perceived as the way things were done in their organization, while Knights and Willmott (2007) identified participants' behavior as that which determined the culture of the organization. Evans (2001) delivered grim hope for cultural change in schools stating that the task of changing a culture was highly unlikely because of the level of complexity associated with cultural changes. Deal and Peterson's (1999) view, and leaders in this study would agree, that leaders could change culture but only with careful assessment of the people and context and understanding of change processes. They would also agree with the importance of understanding and engagement of individuals and groups. Additionally in these findings, leaders' careful assessment was included as part of the pre-planning stage which will be discussed later in this chapter. The complexity issue in this study endorsed Scott and Webber's (2012) views about the increasing nature of the complexity of schools and societies, highlighting the need for leaders to be proactive and entrepreneurial to deal with the changing nature of their school demographics and the need to ensure all students are successful.

Time-sensitive change as effective.

In this study, leaders and their stakeholders indicated that a timeframe of three years was not only sufficient, but indeed, an expedited approach to change proved to

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be a positive influence on the success of the change. This increased speed provided participants with the necessary momentum to become engaged with the processes of the change and to remain motivated to make the change happen. One parent described the impact of the change as:

> *"We can see and feel the effectiveness! because immediately there was a greater sense of calm and positive interaction with administration, staff, and students. Because of this, I sense that there was willingness and almost a sense of hope that these changes were not just cosmetic but would remain over the long term."*

Parents also reported that they perceived change to be sustainable. Burke (2008) noted that maintaining change momentum was "critical because the natural movement toward equilibrium has to be countered" (p. 266). The change participants in this study perceived a rhythm to the change process which helped to keep them engaged and give them inspiration and hope for success. Burke stated that leaders were challenged to find ways to reward the participants, celebrate achievements, and maintain momentum. He continued that living systems survive because they adapt to change therefore "To maintain momentum … the change leader must constantly monitor the organization's external environment, being alert to change forces that require adaptation to ensure survival" (p. 267). This has direct linkages to Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky's (2009) adaptive leadership theory which indicated that leadership had to be responsive to the environment, participants,   and the change demands.

Celebrations were common events reported in this study and were established to recognize student accomplishments and for all participants to celebrate their efforts

in the change. Hargreaves (1994) suggested providing more flexibility for teachers to control their own time. By acknowledging participants, individuals in this study were inspired with feedback of success and chose to use their time wisely to continue striving for the achievement of continued success. Lambert (2003) empasized the necessity for making good use of time. Feedback from stakeholders reported more positive relationships, increased passion for learning, increased confidence and buy-in to support student academic success when there was time to genuinely engage with the changes.

The leaders in this study agreed with Reeves (2002) who indicated that the rapid pace of change was needed to create potential positive impact on students, communities, culture, the economy, and the world. This was endorsed in this study where stakeholders expressed high support of the implementations as well as their leaders' change agency.

Common Essential Change Elements of Time–sensitive Change

Popper's theory of evolutionary epistemology (as cited in Magee, 1985) identified a 'survival of the fittest' approach that can be related to the leaders in this study who sought to develop or identify optimal practices in pursuit of students' best interests and success. Leaders' time-sensitive best practices in this study involved the use of essential common elements as part of the change process. These identified elements were common among the leaders and included a self-assessment and reflection period prior to the change, establishing a vision for the change, pre-planning the change, identifying successful change indicators for change acceleration, and

considering sustainability measures. The following section describes these essential elements that were common in the management of change.

Leaders reflection prior to the change.

Leaders in this study reflected on their skills and experiences before they pursued the change implementation. They also assessed the resources that were available and in place to develop capacity in their participants to be able to handle and implement a change. In their work exploring teacher change, particularly in relation to instructional strategies, Joyce and Calhoun (2010) identified the need for support of each individual through mentorship of new teachers and in peer-coaching teams in order to effect significant change. They identified the need to provide time within the school day for teachers to work together on developing lessons and resources that enabled them to engage with the change, integrate the new instructional strategies into their regular practice, and engage in professional development opportunities that introduce them to the new approaches, practise the strategies, and to discuss and debrief their experimentation efforts. In this study, professional development opportunities, physical presence, and interaction of the leaders with the participants, and engaging in ongoing conversations with teachers and various members of the school community were identified as helpful to participants in managing these rapid changes.

Each change assessment was personally initiated by the leaders and varied in relation to the context of their school settings. The change assessment usually involved leaders self-reflecting on their previous leadership and change experiences, the identification of task force membership with ideal individuals to role model and

drive the change, and the identification and allocation of key resources and strategies that were most effective to influence change participants. This reflected Marzano, Waters, McNulty's (2005) descriptions of the activities that effective transformational leaders undertake in establishing and implementing change.

Vision of change.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) described leaders who have a vision for their organization as those who have "an image of an attractive, realistic, and believable future" (cited in Northouse 2010, p. 89). A change vision was necessary and common to the leaders' success in facilitating time-sensitive change and many authors in the literature recognized a leadership vision as a key element required for successful change (Schlechty, 1990; Schwahn, 1998; Sergiovanni, 2009; Siccone, 2012). Leaders in this study viewed a change vision as important to inspire confidence and promoted useful constructive collaboration with participants that focused them on the desired change. The initial change vision that leaders created was shared with participants in this study and continued to be developed through their collective efforts. Kurland et al. (2010) also identified vision as a powerful tool to inspire, motivate, and engage others to become involved and committed to the organizational change process. In these findings, leaders clearly articulated their vision for the change process and related outcomes for their participants. Successful leaders were described in the literature as those who not only created a vision (Lezotte & McKee, 2006; Quinn, 1996), but successfully communicated it with the purpose to inspire staff and community member buy-in (Burke, 2008). Participants viewed their leaders as the visionary of the change and one who provided the impetus for the change process.

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Successful change in this study also involved aligning the school vision with the organizational structure and staff. Siccone (2012) warned if the leader's vision was not accompanied by an action plan, doubt could arise in the change participants due to the lack of action of the leaders rather than the change itself. Freedman (2009) described outstanding principals as those who stuck to their vision and were not affected by uncertainty or shaken by unplanned results; similarly, leaders in this study focused on their visionary goal, determined their change conceptualization, identified how to effectively implement the change vision and did not waver when challenges arose.

Communication.

Communication was recognized as an essential component to positive change (Greenleaf, 1977; Schlechty, 1990; Williams, 1997). Scott and Webber (2008) stressed continuous communication and feedback as essential responsibilities of leadership which facilitated the direction of the implementation goals and continued focus towards success. This was true in these findings where leaders used various communication types, such as active listening, to detect areas of concern and needs for change, written documents to communicate the change plan and schedules for the participants, presentations by the leader and task force to articulate the vision and to provide feedback on ongoing implementation efforts, one-to-one conversations to encourage resistant individuals, and verbal communication to praise and drive the change plan. Communication, participation, and role modeling were identified by Nevis, Lancourt, and Vassallo (1996) as "strategies of influence" that were essential in change (p. 43). Hughes and Mighty (2010) identified strong communication skills as

necessary to encourage continued teaching success, reward good teaching, and promote good practice. In this study, demonstrating good communication skills created credibility and fostered trust between participants and leaders.

In these findings the timing of communication varied with each change circumstance and site. Levin (2009) emphasized that participants must be informed prior to the change and communication must remain consistent throughout the course of the change; while Fullan (2010) indicated that communication during a change implementation was more important than communication prior to the change in order to solve problems and strengthen the common vision. Leaders in this study were highly sensitive to the timing of communication and identified when the appropriate timing of communication would be most beneficial to the participants. Their timing emphasis varied according to their perception of the change, the participants' level of readiness, and the need for information.

One of the key sources of communication for leaders in this study was the timely and consistent feedback to participants in order to accelerate the speed of the change. Woodilla and his associates (1997) emphasized the importance of the time patterns developed as a result of the participants' work. In this study, it was evident that timely feedback developed a pattern for continued inspiration for the participants to maintain or increase their efforts with the change initiative. In this study, informal feedback, such as, student observations and parents' comments were important, as well as were formal assessment results and provincial achievement tests. Chenoweth and Everhart (2002) suggested multiple sources of information for feedback to determine if a change process was showing signs of success or had been deemed successful upon

completion. Through timely feedback, leaders could advise participants where adjustments to the rapid change process were required and rally their efforts towards the change goal. Williams (1997) viewed that accurate, clear, concise, and timely communication was essential to the participants when the pace of change sped up. Feedback, an aspect of communication, therefore expedited the change process and contributed to its effectiveness.

Pre-planning.

Pre-planning was another essential and common element to the rapid change process. Although the amount of pre-planning varied among leaders in this study, they recognized this as a significant element. Aspects of pre-planning also included an order and priority of tasks for the change process.

Leaders completed various tasks as part of their pre-planning phase. Hargreaves and Fullan (2009) stated if leaders of organizations wished to create significant changes in a short period of time they needed to establish clear expectations with a few selected tasks so that participants did not become overwhelmed. Chenoweth and Everhart (2002) reminded "remember, any educational change design model cannot be simply dropped into any school setting. Rather, you must pay particular attention to your own unique school context and history" (p. 26).

For Hargreaves and Fink (2006), mindset, culture, and direction were identified as aspects that influenced improvement. Leaders in this study also pre-planned with a set of priorities and an order of necessary tasks for the purpose of ensuring clear expectations and to build participants' capacity for the change. Their selective pre-planning tasks included exploring strategies, collecting and analyzing data for

garnering support for the change, organizing physical renovations, acquiring requisite funding, creating buy-in from participants, planning the change agenda and schedules, effectively communicating the initial change vision, and working with staff to co-create a fuller, more detailed vision. Similar tasks were identified with Dufour and Eaker's (2004) major elements of support which included a focus on short- and long-ranged tasks, shared decision-making, and communication and interaction on achievement.

It was interesting that leaders in this study were highly aware of time-consuming tasks, and identified that creating connections with participants as one of the most time-consuming pre-planning tasks. This strongly endorsed the literature that efforts to collaborate and build relationships with participants helped to ensure success but consumed significant amounts of time (Fullan, 2007; Senge, 2006). Lussier and Achua (2004) emphasized the importance for the leader to become acquainted and establish relationships with change participants to achieve the change objectives and Northouse (2010) recognized leaders who were involved and worked with their participants were successful in creating an environment which promoted high levels of motivation.

Building a task force.

Leaders in this study reported the use of a task force as instrumental to the success of the change implementation and included the development of a task force within their pre-planning processes. Many of the task forces included school stakeholders, namely, teachers and parents. Ministries of education frequently encourage educational stakeholders to share the responsibility of education, and be

involved in the process of change (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002; Alberta Education Advisory Committee, 2011; Leithwood, 1994; Alberta's Education Partners, n.d.). Lambert (2003) described parents as a key support to leadership by participating in the school community and acting as advocates of education to other parents. This study's findings concurred with Lambert's premise of the importance of parents, and found that stakeholders contributed to the program of change and were essential in creating and maintaining the change focus, so much so that many leaders included parents in their change task forces. As well, many leaders included their district leaders and community stakeholders as key support networks throughout the change process and readily discussed the additional support they had received from all education stakeholders such as their staff, parents, community, and from the collegial support of fellow principals. Burke (2008) acknowledged that leaders needed to build teams when making change happen within their organizations but also noted that the teams may vary in number and size which was also true in these findings. Task force duties included leading committees, facilitating discussions, and reporting feedback to the leader on the change processes and how the staff were reacting and engaging with the change. Lezotte and McKee (2006) noted the importance of leaders identifying individuals within the organization who were most influential. This was similar to what one leader in this study indicated:

> *"I am a real people watcher so I can read the staff quite well. I am very aware of who my leaders* [within the staff] *are because I see the influence that they have on others socially, in decisions that are made in their classrooms that flow into other rooms. I select those people to be the first on board* [with the change] *and I work with them and then I send them forward to work on others. By the time I come to the staff as a whole, I*

already have the message out there, and I have them already talking and starting to come my way."

This comment epitomized how leaders identified teacher-leaders within their staff and utilized their talents to work in the task force with their colleagues to drive the change. These leaders were also sensitive to the amount of aggression that they used when making changes and Senge (1994) agreed that leaders must able to identify when the right temperature is established for change readiness. Considerations that leaders addressed for readiness included establishing prioritization of time for the change task and professional development resources for support.

Change success indicators as change acceleration.

Identifying if the changes reported in this study were successful was an important consideration as many scholars are doubtful of the likelihood of success when timeframes were shorter than five to ten years, particularly with a complex change agenda (Fullan, 2007; Senge, 2006). Similarly, leaders in this study recognized the importance of identifying indicators of successful change. Examples of indicators when change was successfully evolving included the participants' acknowledgement for the need for change, being receptive to change data and feedback, being receptive with the change task force, and demonstrating interest for sustaining the change. At times, a new "change vocabulary" was created among the participants and this provided a common language connection which leaders welcomed as another indicator of the change success. Change success indicators provided confirmation for leaders in this study that the change agenda would be completed and successful.

Indicators of success also represented opportunities for the leader to thrust the pace of the change to a new level of speed, an aspect that this researcher has described as "change acceleration." This in turn provided additional momentum for the change which endorsed Burke's work on momentum. Conner (1992) identified the presence of relationships as the temperature gauge of participant readiness resulting in a direct link to the speed of change. This meant that as a result of the leaders' efforts to create strong relationships with the participants, the participants were ready to buy-in to the change. Other opportunities for "change acceleration" were evident with the presence of key individuals (superintendents, trustees, community leaders) who openly expressed support of the change and praised participants for their involvement. The endorsement of the change agenda by these significant or prestigious individuals created a reinforced impetus for the change which acted as a change accelerant. Physical presence to the participants by the leaders was pointed out by Gray and Streshly (2008) as one way of developing a positive environment which was crucial is change contexts. Being physically present assisted in building trust and promoted a collaborative learning environment, to monitor the change process and continue demonstrating support and praise for the participants. In addition to being physically present, leaders were able to identify opportunities for timely feedback and impromptu celebrations for the participants in order to rally them to continue with the change.

Time-sensitive Change Elements can be Sustainable, Transferable, and Repeatable

Sustainability.

In this study, leaders desired to sustain the change provided it was the type of change that needed to be sustained, such as improving instructional practices. However, a detailed plan was not always evident to accompany the leaders' intentions for sustainability. This is one aspect in this study that did not appear to be addressed by leaders with the same level of detail and pre-planning as the other elements.

Lezotte and McKee (2006) identified trust as a key element for sustainability and Covey (2004) identified trust as the "glue" that holds the organization together. In this study, trust was developed throughout the change as a result of the collaboration between the leaders and participants and was a significant factor for sustaining the change and creating positive change environments endorsing Lezotte and McKee's (2006) and Covey's premises. Williams (1997) described the bonds of interconnectedness and interdependence that were created through the change process where all individuals transform their thinking and perceptions towards more trusting relationships. The participants in this study were generally comfortable with each other and with the change, recognized the positive outcomes that resulted, and were prepared to continue practices for sustainability of the change when these were deemed necessary and/or important. Parents in this study also reported the importance of participant collegiality to support change sustainability. Parent commitment toward support of sustainability frequently involved fundraising efforts to ensure the required resources were maintained and available to school.

Repeatability and transferability to other contexts.

Despite the complexities involved with change, it was interesting to find that when leaders and stakeholders were asked if they would be willing to be involved in another similar change, both groups indicated the affirmative. Leaders usually had previous change experiences either with an identical or similar change. As a result they indicated from their experience that the change was repeatable with slight changes. Repeatability was not always direct as there were contextual and participant differences such as student demographics and various staff cultures that required consideration. One leader indicated his desire to repeat the change and explained that he was also able to foresee success saying:

> *"Foreseeable? Absolutely! I felt that because I had had prior success with this program with other schools and because I was so familiar, I felt that I could guide the teachers and help them to be successful with this program".*

Transferable.

Leaders perceived that elements of the change could be transferable to different settings and offered the elements that they perceived successful as possible considerations to be used by future leaders. However, specific elements for transferability considerations were difficult to determine because leaders did not document transferability plans of these successful elements. The different change contexts, and leaders and participant groups, would make it extremely difficult to determine all the factors necessary for change. Shapiro (2004) cautioned that dynamics also unfolded over time which had to be included in understanding the unique behavior of a system. The completion timeframes varied with each leader in

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this study, and this non-uniformity had added a degree of difficulty for attempts for the purpose of comparisons. Avey and colleagues (2008) recommended transformational leaders as those who could be most capable of accelerating change; however, even the most transformational leaders still require the skill of recognition and understanding of the uniqueness and contextual circumstances in each change situation.

Leadership Skills and Experience

The leaders in this study reported that they had a number highly developed skills and attributes as well as substantial experience which influenced their success with the change. As well, they identified the importance of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and their teaching, administrative, and leadership experience as elements of the success of their change initiatives. One leader in this study described this saying:

> *"I think that there were probably two* [elements] *in particular that make me successful … my own personal level of motivation and desire to achieve excellence, as well as, my interpersonal skills that* [enable me to] *relate to a variety of people from a variety of situations and make things meaningful to each of them. I like to do whatever I am doing to the best of my ability."*

Northouse (2010) described leaders who were highly aware of their knowledge and personal strengths as "authentic" which he identified as essential to the success of change agents and this was clearly demonstrated in this study. Likewise, leaders in this study were highly aware of their personal strengths of collaboration with their participants, particularly during periods of change resistance.

Intrapersonal skills.

Intrapersonal skills are the inner qualities of an individual that were essential to successful rapid change implementations in this study. Intrapersonal skills in this study included the leaders' personal philosophies and beliefs about themselves, as well as their metacognition and awareness of their own reactions. Intrapersonal qualities included the leaders' level of hardiness, confidence, self-efficacy, and passion for leadership and change (Eid, Johnson, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2008). It also included their ability to garner trust and respect from their participants and develop a vision for each of their school's future (Sergiovanni, 2005). Leaders indicated they drew their strength from within themselves, along with optimism and hope, to provide a positive and encouraging outlook for participants in the pursuit of their change goals. Snyder (2002) noted a highly developed sense of hope as an essential ingredient of leadership during challenging times. In this study, leaders indicated they needed to know themselves and understand their own reactions and responses in order to be able to manage the external environment and challenges in their change agent role effectively.

Effective leaders in this study were successful in creating effective changes. Siccone (2012) described effective leaders as those who acted responsibly and with integrity. This was true in this study in that leaders felt highly responsible for the change efforts and processes and accepted the responsibility for those involved with the change initiative. Lezotte and McKee (2006) described effective leaders as those who clearly understood relationships with others and facilitated them through patience, persistence, and faith in the followers and the cause. Lezotte and McKee's sentiments were similar to the leaders in this study who, despite the challenges, persisted

throughout the change process, supported their participants by being personally present as often as they were able, and demonstrated their professionalism to the stakeholders throughout the change process.

Leaders described these skills as "natural" or "God-given" and were recognized as personally unique to each leader with the change success. One leader described his beliefs saying:

"I believe that the attribute that made this possible is the belief that if we have issues and problems ... why would we whine and not do anything about them? There is going to be problems and we need to possess an attitude of optimism and hope and efficacy. The one person very responsible in developing that in me was my Dad."

Leaders could describe the qualities that were instrumental facilitating their leadership through the change process. Some also identified their personal strength from their faith experiences, the love for and from their family. One leader defined their leadership change approach from faith and family saying "*leading by example and never ask what I would not do myself I ... learned it from my parents, specifically my Mom ... I go back to my faith and to my family*".

Principals described the sense of humor that they had as useful to diffuse tense situations. They also indicated their ability to persevere as crucial in challenging periods. Their intrapersonal skills also provided them with the strength to deal with participants who were resistant and/or overwhelmed. Eid, Johnson, Bartone, and Nissestad (2008) identified leaders who accepted stressful and painful experiences as

normal when in the midst of change and challenges as well as those who held a high sense of life and work commitment as effective change agents.

The confident views of leaders in this study about the success of the change remained unaltered throughout the change process, even through periods of difficulty, and their confidence increased as a result of the positive outcomes. Even though leaders in this study were confident with the speed of the change, they were also highly sensitive to their participants' comfort level. This was gauged through data collections of careful observations, feedback and ongoing communication to and from the participants. Leaders monitored the successes and frustrations of their participants throughout the change and sensed when it was best to implement strategies to drive the change or provide additional supports to build capacity for the participants. This sensitivity was alluded to by Senge's (2006) commentary where he indicated that to avoid discomfort for the employees of the organization and risk a negative attitude towards the change, leaders needed to be cautious regarding the speed they expected for the change process as considerable speed could be interpreted as aggression towards participants. Conner (1992) noted that a human being speed factor of change was determined by the speed allowed by the individual who was viewed as the gatekeeper of change. The speed was dependent on the participants' ability to accommodate the severity of the change, the ability to manage disruptions and distractions of change and the level of flexibility of the participants. One leader in this study expressed caution concerning any increased pace of change for the participants saying "*although the speed was influential, it would have been difficult to increase the speed to create an even more successful change.*" Therefore, there appeared to be a

potential self-limiter point where the particular change could be expedited to a certain point but no further, and if it was pushed faster, there would be consequences in terms of burnout, disengagement, or a lack of effectiveness.

Interpersonal skills.

Interpersonal skills such as listening to participants, working with them during the change process, encouraging them during times of doubt, and celebrating their accomplishments were identified as essential to establishing positive and productive relationships, and facilitating interactions with individual participants as well as with the work of teams for the change process. Burke (2008) described interpersonal skills in terms of communication and encouragement of participants saying:

> A part of leadership in an organization change effort, then, is to stay the
> course, to continue to encourage people, to exude energy and enthusiasm
> for continuing down the change path, and to find ways to continue
> communicating the message. (p. 263)

Shapiro (2004) described various participant change attitudes including those of indifference as well as support, resistance, or contemplation of what the change will do for them. Shapiro emphasized dynamics and patterns of behavior which evolve over time; an important consideration when understanding an organization. In this study there were some participants who were resistant to the change processes. Principals had to demonstrate creativity in implementing strategies that would motivate their resistant staff and assist them to move from feeling discomfort with the change, to strive for excellence, and to support them throughout the change process. Leaders found it necessary to be personally engaged with the participants and to

demonstrate effective presentation and communication skills throughout the change process. One leader in this study indicated that he was able to connect with individuals saying "*On the surface, I think that I am friendly, personable and one key aspect that I have when I look around the table; I have an ability to connect with people.*" Participants perceived the change approach as one of collaboration, built through relationships established by the leader.

Leadership Experience and Development

In most cases, the leaders in this study were experienced teachers and who also had considerable leadership experience which had honed their skill set. Their leadership skills may have been from previous school leadership or through teacher leadership activities. This experience in combination with their interpersonal and intrapersonal skills enabled them to be effective in their leadership for change. This previous experience also contributed to their high confidence levels. Even so, some of these experienced leaders indicated that they would be seeking further leadership development to hone their change agency. Scott and Webber (2008) supported the view that leaders required time to grow through reflection, collaboration, and through formal and informal learning. Individual needs of effective leaders varied with different challenges and settings, therefore leadership development would vary accordingly. Leaders in these findings indicated that they would consider seeking professional development in areas such as: conflict resolution training and managing resistant individuals, and opportunities that would strengthen the culture of the organization. They also expressed interest with developing their own personal

development in areas of self-confidence, risk-taking, communication skills, data collection, and vision development.

Summary

It is apparent that the leaders in this study agreed with Burke (2008) and Fullan (2005) that change was necessary to improve their organization. Leaders recognized that change was essential in keeping up with the demands of society (Webber & Scott, 2008), to improve student performance, and to challenge themselves with new experiences and opportunities (Gray & Streshly, 2008). They made these commitments because it was the right thing to do (Northouse, 2010) and embraced change as part of lifelong learning (Williams, 1997).

Leaders in this study perceived that they could make significant time-sensitive changes that were complex and difficult. This did not appear to be supported in the literature which stated that change was complex and would take many more years than three to accomplish, if at all possible (Burke, 2008; Horsley & Horsley, 1998; Senge, 1990; Fullan, 1998, 2005; Evans 1996;) More recent literature indicated that this perception was shifting to recognize that change could happen faster than previously thought (Fullan, 2010).

Each leader had their own circumstances and recognized they had to understand the change environment, particularly when establishing relationships and buy-in with the change participants. Holcomb (2001) warned that organizations changed through the people that are within them. Alberta Education (2009) and Shapiro (2004) also recognized that even though there may be similar dynamics within

settings, there was no particular recipe for change. Common elements of change included leaders' reflection, vision, (Sergiovanni, 2009; Siccone, 2012, Kurland et al., 2010), communication (Burke, 2008, Greenleaf, 1997; Scott & Webber, 2008), pre-planning with an order and a priority, and creation of a task force (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002; Lambert, 2003)

Leaders also perceived that change elements could be sustainable, transferable, and repeatable. A significant element for sustainability was identified in the literature was trust, as this created interconnectedness and interdependence which transformed the collective after the change, thereby embedding the change into the context (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Because time-sensitive change was not supported, factors of transferability and repeatability were not identified.

The importance of interpersonal and intrapersonal skills was recognized in the literature as well as in the research study. Qualities included being authentic (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; Northouse, 2010), having a high sense of hope, (Snyder, 2002), being responsible and having integrity (Siccone, 2012), and having patience, persistence, and faith in others and the purpose (Lezotte & McKee, 2006). Leaders in this study agreed that confidence, being a people person, having the right attitude and doing things for the right reason were necessary for success. They also determined that having leadership and/or previous change experience was helpful to draw common elements for success.

The most significant finding determined in this research study was that leaders and stakeholders identified that time-sensitive changes were possible in shorter timeframes than were previously identified within the literature. Several change

factors were common when comparing previous scholarly literature and the work of this study. The works of Burke, Senge, Sergiovanni, Fullan, and Reeves, and others indicated in the literature the need for, and the complexity of change, the importance of the leader as being instrumental to change, the need for the leader to have a change vision, and commitment and support for change participants.

The leaders and participants of this study recognized these common elements as essential. They also identified participant involvement and inclusivity as key to establishing buy-in for change. Capacity building for the participants involved providing ongoing feedback, organization of tasks, encouragement through time and communication (Darling-Hammond, 2004). Also essential was the provision of resources, training, and professional development (Joyce & Calhoun, 2010). Leaders in this study highlighted positive indicators throughout the change where they were able to shift the change process to a higher speed of production and quickly provide positive feedback to reassure leaders of the change success. Finally, sustainability measures were considered by leaders and stakeholders; however, written documentation was not provided. Leaders' considerations of sustainability included developing consistency for the implementation through staffing, documentation, and building the change into the culture of the school plans.

Chapter six, conclusion, provides a summary of the study findings and presents a model that has been created as a result of this study. The new model "The Rapid Change Model" provides a framework that can inform the work of change agents in schools who are charged with establishing time-sensitive change.

Chapter 6 - Conclusion

This research reported on the main findings from a doctoral study that examined the perceptions of school leaders and their stakeholders (teachers, students, and parents) about the success of various time-sensitive changes (three years or less) that had been implemented within their school context in Alberta, Canada. The findings of this research work provided distinct evidence that time-sensitive change **is** possible within a three year timeframe. As a result, a model for consideration when implementing time-sensitive changes as well as a summary of eight key findings will be provided in this chapter. Key findings included first, faster-paced changes are frequently demanded by system leaders which means principals are expected to be able to bring about the required changes in shorter timeframes to those articulated in the literature, that is, in under five years. Second, faster-paced changes are possible. Third, faster-paced changes can be successful and effective even when the changes are complex and difficult. Fourth, common elements of change were identified among the change leaders. Fifth, leaders considered plans for sustainability of the change, however, the requirement for sustainability was largely dependent on the nature of the change. Sixth, previous leadership, administrative and change experience of the leader were important for success of the leader. Seventh, the leaders' intrapersonal and interpersonal skills were viewed essential to the success of the implementation. Eighth, common factors which accelerated the change process (termed in this study as *rapid change accelerators*) were identified as instrumental for rapid change success. The findings led to the major conclusion that leaders were able to implement rapid organizational changes successfully within a three year time frame.

1. Rapid changes are frequently expected or demanded

Demands on leaders were a common occurance and these expectations were considered part of the leadership role. Leaders anticipated that these demands were frequently driven by the ministry, the district, the stakeholders and by their personal intentions.

Drivers for change were as a result of the changing demographics of schools due to immigration and migrating populations in Alberta, a crisis within the community such as teacher dissatisfaction with the previous leadership in the school, general malaise with school cultures, the increasing populations of special needs students, grappling with the complexity of inclusion and differentiation, the advances of technology, and expectations of the community for more effective integration of these into the educational processes.

2. Faster-paced change is possible

Principals reported successfully leading rapid change initiatives within a three-year time frame in their school. Some of the changes were completed within a much shorter period, that of a few months. A small percentage (8%) of leaders reported change initiatives that were completed within a period of weeks. Leaders reported that the time frame of three years was not only sufficient, but proved to be a positive influence on the success of the change. The increased speed provided participants with continual momentum and helped to enhance the evolution of the change process. Stakeholders strongly supported leaders' views that three-year timeframes for completion of change programs were acceptable and echoed the benefits of these rapid changes. Stakeholders (98%) perceived that the changes had occurred in even less

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time than the completion times reported by the principal, however, stakeholders may not have been fully knowledgeable of the exact change initiation and completion dates.

Athough leaders deemed rapid change as both possible and viable, at least one leader indicated that continued increases in the pace of change may have resulted in a breaking point with no continued success; therefore, a balance must be created for optimal change pace to avoid burnout or breaking points.

3. *Faster-paced change can be successful and effective even when the changes are complex and difficult.*

Principals indicated that many of the change initiatives were both complex and difficult; however, leaders were still successful with planning, implementing, and evaluating these intiatives within three years or less. Leaders indicated that their decisions to proceed with needed changes were the result of doing the right thing for students even though it was difficult for them and their staff. Difficulties included the feeling of uncertainty of strategies in new situations and lack of resources.

4. *Common elements of change were identified among the change leaders.*

Common elements were identified as imperative for success with rapid change. These included: leaders need to self-reflect on their own capacities to support the change and to conceptualize the rationale for change, establishing relationships with participants to gain buy-in, communication with participants, creating a vision for change, pre-planning, creating a task force, and providing support throughout the change process.

5. ***Leaders consideration of sustainability, however, sustainability was dependent on the nature of the change.***

Sustainability of the change initiative was frequently considered as a desirable outcome but was not always included in the planning process of the change initiatives. Depending on the type and context of the change situation, leaders determined whether or not the change could or should be sustainable. Plans for sustainability were determined through formal and informal conversations with participants and through the volunteer efforts of participants who recognized the need for sustainability of the change. Considering the depth of planning that had occurred to establish the change initiative this lack of overt consideration for sustainability appeared to be anomalous. This conundrum may have arisen as a result of the constant transitioning of school leaders and other key personnel who supported the change which tended to destabilize the change.

The following factors were identified as potential influences for sustainability (see Figure 6–2). These included providing evidence and feedback of the successful change to convince participants to continue with the new practice, creating ways to embed the change into the lives of the change participants, providing continued resources for the change, extending leadership support for the change, perhaps through continued professional development, and maintaining the vision of the change.

6. ***Leaders' previous administrative and change experience was important to the success of the change.***

Leaders in this study had ample experience as change agents either as leaders or as informal leaders in schools. Leaders (92%) reported previous change experience

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with their current or former school placements which contributed to their confidence as successful change agents.

Leaders who held previous experience as teachers, leaders, or change agents brought confidence and determination to the change process. They quickly recognized that rapid change was a requirement and were not fearful of the change process, rather approached the change as an opportunity to learn and support others.

7. ***Intrapersonal and interpersonal skills were crucial leadership qualities for those pursuing rapid change.***

Interpersonal skills were key to establishing relationships with change participants and leaders' intrapersonal skills provided various genuine qualities that distinguished leaders as being unique. Leaders reflected on their own thinking, beliefs, skills, and were aware of skills and qualities that made a difference to them in their change agency. Some qualities were common to the majority of these successful change agents: a high level of confidence, passion, and determination to bring about change. Leaders were relentless in their drive towards change and this drive influenced others in the school. Additionally, leaders identified an inner strength which they perceived was derived from their family, faith, spirituality, or passion for life. This personal strength was viewed as central to change agency and personal resiliency, especially when encountering difficult circumstances.

The interpersonal skills of the leaders were important to building strong relationships and supporting the stakeholders' ownership for change. Effective communication facilitated relationships between participants, which was crucial in supporting the change vision and processes. Leaders remained visible throughout the

change, provided data, feedback, direction, and were inclusive of the participants throughout the process of the change.

Interpersonal skills were particularly essential when working with individuals who were resisting the change agenda as these individuals required on-going attention, communication, understanding, and patience.

Leaders were relentless in their pursuit of change and this also included pursuing their own personal professional development. They identified areas of leadership development they would pursue in preparation for future change initiatives, including: conflict resolution training, dealing with resistant individuals, developing confidence and self-efficacy, developing risk-taking strategies, supporting the development of a positive culture, and creating a vision.

8. *Rapid change accelerators were identified as instrumental for change success.*

Rapid change accelerators were actions by the leader reported as influential in increasing the momentum of the change. Rapid change accelerators included motivational strategies, such as using key individuals to rally the change, using feedback for immediate proof of success to participants, and opportunities to modify the direction of change, and using celebrations to identify key efforts towards the change and to unite the change participants and inspire them to pursue the change.

Change agents in this study were pivotal to the success of the change, particularly, when changes needed to be wrought at a faster-pace. Change agents were reported as individuals with previous change and/or leadership experience. Additional factors of change agents included the strong intrapersonal and interpersonal skills, commitment, and dedication to their profession or vocation.

The Rapid Change Model

In recent years, many principals have been expected to bring about significant change in their school context faster than previously expected. These changes, driven for various sources, encompassed educators' teaching and assessment practices, new curriculum programs, school culture, programming, and/or school operations. Many questions have been raised as to whether or not fast-paced change is possible, viable, desirable, effective, and sustainable. Leaders and stakeholders' accounts of successful changes and how these were wrought will be of interest and informative to current and aspiring school and district leaders, policy makers, scholars, professional developers, and other educational stakeholders to provide insights into faster-paced change initiatives, the leadership approaches required to establish successful time-sensitive change, and the implications for various stakeholders participating in the change process.

Emerging from the findings of this study, a model for rapid change was designed (see Figure 6–1) which identified key elements requisite for the success of a time-sensitive change initiative. The components of this rapid change model include considerations of: the demand and need for change, leader metacognition and self-evaluation, visioning, the rapid change process, monitoring and evaluating measures, and finally if required and appropriate, considerations of sustainability. The purpose of this model is to inform future change efforts of K-12 change agents and stakeholders. The model depicts a sequential and systematic process which is evidence-based, research-informed and encompasses insights from leaders and stakeholders, such as, teachers, students, and parents.
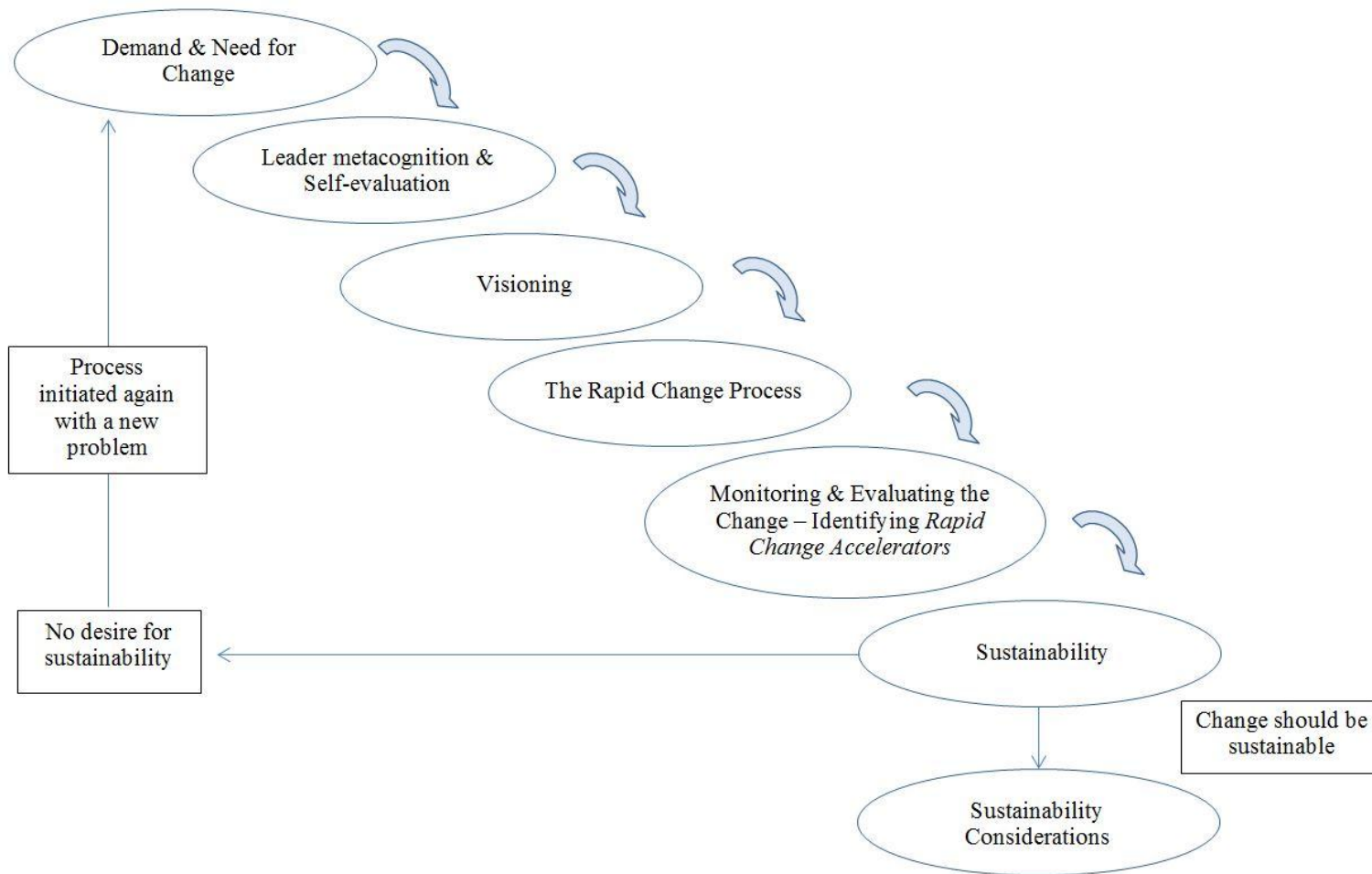
Figure 6-1: Rapid Change Model

Demand and Need for Change

As part of their leadership role, rapid change leaders must be prepared when they become frequently charged with expectations to make change happen fast. Demands for rapid change should not be viewed as a surprise or an insult. When considering the trends in the literature as well as the findings of this study, it is evident that leaders in contemporary schools are being expected to make changes, and in many cases, significant change in much shorter timeframes than their predecessors. These expectations may be mandated by the education ministry, school boards, and stakeholders. Leaders also make personal decisions to consider rapid changes as part of their leadership responsibility to do what is best for their school community.

Education ministries.

As defined in the School Act, provincial legislation and policies expect the principal to deliver instructional leadership, education programs, conduct teacher evalutions, provide opportunities for students to meet standards of education set by the minister, manage, maintain order and discipline, promote co-operation between the school and community, supervise evaluations of students and carry out duties as assigned by the district (Alberta Education, 2012). Given these responsibilities, leaders are often presented with mandated new changes with time-sensitive deadlines, sometime due to funding provisions or political circumstances (as in the case of Premier Redford's announcement cited in Chapter 2) are examples of required changes.

School boards.

New policies, services and programs developed by school boards are often channelled through the principal to implement within each of their schools within the district. Changes may be necessary as a result of the opening or closing of a school, language programs, support programs, and technology advancements. Although district change policies may be mandated for all of the schools in the district, the implementation process may vary significantly for each principal. Different school circumstances may require the principal to identify particular strategies for success that are suited to his/her context.

Stakeholders.

In addition to achieving the school goals and garnerging support for the success of the students, the leader is responsible for implementing required changes, in collaboration with the stakeholders, which involves generating relationships with school members and overcoming challenges that may occur. Teachers, students, and parents are key stakeholders who must work closely with the school leader to create a culture of collaboration and support for rapid change. This is critical for students as their success depends upon the true partnership between educators and the community stakeholders. Because parents also serve as a school council body that advise the principal, the leader must make every effort to provide time and attention to collaborate on change initiatives with these groups, as well as, to balance other tasks and activities such as funding, professional development, resources and change agenda.

Professional obligation.

Principals hold personal demands for "doing the right thing" as part of their leadership role and describe this "vocation" as a responsibility to do what is needed for the best interest of student success. Because of these strong values, it is natural for leaders to quickly recognize when change is necessary. Therefore, the decision to pursue a rapid change for student improvement is often instinctive and self-initiated. Improvement initiatives may include literary and numeracy programs, curriculum programs such as language, special education, and early language learning, as well as physical renovations, significant staffing changes, and programs that are supported by the school community. Significant changes may also be required due to the financial shifts at the school, district or ministry level.

School leaders must also assess the effectiveness of their current school operations, identify records of student success, assess the necessary changes, and communicate the urgency of the needed improvements to ministry, school boards, and stakeholders of the school community.

Leader Metacognition and Self-evaluation

A key component for creating rapid change is the leaders' metacognition and self-evaluation of the change. This includes reflective time wherein the leader contemplates the type, importance of, and personal reasons for their commitment to the change. In addition, this provides an opportunity for the leader to assess his/her intrapersonal and interpersonal strengths and experience to enhance the success of the change.

Personal reflection time.

Although the reflection time may vary from leader to leader depending on the nature and circumstance of the change; several relevant factors can be determined by the leader in preparation for the rapid change process. The leaders' personal reasons for pursuing the change must be determined. The leader may see the change as a personal challenge that they wish to pursue or perhaps an opportunity to experience another success as a result of previous change experiences. A personal self-assessment assists the leader in recognizing areas of weakness or needed expertise in preparation for the change initiative.

Awareness of type of change.

Changes may involve people changes and/or program changes. Most changes include both program and people changes; with people changes being viewed as more complex, but also essential for the necessary buy-in and cultural shifts before program changes can occur. People changes may involve creating relationships with disgruntled staff, addressing participant fears about the change, and providing support for the change. Leaders who conduct program changes often need to conduct discussions with the participants to motivate them to engage with the change. Larger schools populations may involve more complexities with people changes due to silo effect created by various departments and committees within these larger institutions.

Awareness of leadership and change experience.

Leaders are more likely to experience success if they have previous change experience. This experiential expertise tends to facilitate the necessary confidence and

skills needed to pursue a new change agenda. Similarly, previous teacher and administrative leadership experience can provide the requisite skills, attributes, and knowledge as well as those nurtured by mentors and trusted colleagues.

Awareness of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills.

Leadership skills, both intrapersonal and interpersonal skills, are crucial to a change. Intrapersonal skills are frequently portrayed as natural, and sometimes described as "God given," and these skills encompass inner determination, hope, confidence, and drive for success. Interpersonal skills are necessary for constructive interaction with participants and for the building of positive relationships that include trust and respect and which result in a strong network and culture of collaboration. Interpersonal skills can be developed through experience and mentorship as well through leadership development opportunities.

Recognition of personal support system.

It is important for leaders to develop strong personal and professional networks upon which they can call in times of stress. Leaders seek their personal source of strength through family, friends, mentors, and colleagues which is particularly important and valuable in challenging times and when experiencing fatigue. Additionally, many leaders find they are able to draw strength from the support of their superordinates or their faith which provides comfort in times of difficulty or crisis. Their faith foundation and spirituality can be described as central for continuing strength and renewal. These relational networks and existential supports are essential in maintain personal resilience and efficacy.

Consideration of task force.

It is recognized that leaders cannot bring about change alone and unaided. Hence, leaders must consider establishing a task force who will provide distributed leadership focused on implementing the change agenda. When selecting a task force, leaders need to be extremely careful in the selection of individuals for the task force as these are key influencers of the change and are frequently representatives of the leadership vision. The size of the task force is largely dependent on the size of the school population, that is, larger schools require more leadership for change, and leaders need to work closely with these task force members and assign duties according to their expertise. Strong relationships amongst the task force team are critical as these members are expected to be competent and effective in fulfilling the activities and change processes as delegated by the leader.

Visioning

Seed to shared vision.

A rapid change vision is fueled by a leader's energy and passion to create improvements to student requirements, as well as, to foster positive learning cultures. The leader's initial inspirations and considerations for change are considered the "seeds" for a new vision. This seed vision develops the "core" of the vision which is then further developed in collaboration with change participants. A shared vision with community stakeholders often requires multiple changes to groom a positive culture in preparation for the new change. Community buy-in, commitment, collaboration, flexibility, and patience are also critical in creating and sustaining a school vision, mission, and goals for success.

Application of vision from previous change.

Vision is crucial in conceptualizing what can be. Information learned from previous challenges and experience of barriers and impediments can assist leaders to prepare appropriate and more successful strategies for change. Leaders must consider and devise strategies for dealing with resistant individuals, building participant capacity, and for creating sustainability of the new change. Leaders must remain mindful of the usefulness of ongoing feedback to participants about the success of the change efforts in order to continue to motivate the collective. Timely celebrations with participants to recognize achievements of goals, promotes positive culture and fires them for continued success.

The Rapid Change Process

There are common elements in successful rapid change initiatives. Although not all of the elements may be useful in all of the change implementations, leaders may find these factors as valuable when implementing rapid change.

Pre-planning – Order and priority.

Mandated changes are frequently associated with little advance notice. Even so, in the time of preparation, leaders are best served if they pre-plan the change and meet with the change participants. Pre-planning tasks include creating agendas and schedules, arranging professional development activities, collecting data and undertaking research to inform change efforts, identifying needed renovation and building requirements, creating a communication plan, and constructing the type of task force team that would be necessary. Leaders must also prioritize the order of

these tasks to ensure an optimal sequence for streamlined activity. Participant communication strategies, mutual sharing of vision and continued development of this change agenda, and plans for inclusivity of participants, are recognized as the highest priority tasks.

Data collection.

Pre-planning also involves collection of various types of data to provide participants with a rationale and drive in support of the change. Data and evidence can help leaders to confirm the imperative of the change and to develop participant commitment towards the change. Sources of data leaders can collect in advance of the change implementation include surveys, formal and informal interviews, conversations with participants and stakeholders, current and historical statistics and assessment, and the costing of renovations and resources. Data collection can also continue during the change which will then act as ongoing feedback on the success of the initiative. These data may include check lists, observations, feedback from stakeholders and change participants, and formal and informal testing of student improvement. Ongoing feedback through formal and informal testing, observations and communication with students, teachers, and parents can inform leaders in their decision-making.

Building a task force.

Establishing a task force is essential for a leader to demonstrate the drive behind the change and allows the development of leadership capacity within the school community. Task force members generally assist in orchestrating the change, contribute to sustainability consideration, and are provided with professional

development and training in order for them to more effectively support the change participants.

Communication.

Communication of positive feedback, proof, and evidence of successful change is essential in a change process. Effective and consistent communication with the participants is critical in fostering positive relationships, promoting buy-in for the change, developing a shared vision, and contributing suggestions for sustainability of the change process. Communication strategies include private and group conversations, telephone calls, emails, letters, and meetings and daily walkabouts. This is particularly crucial for creating buy-in and developing support and motivation for resistant participants.

Resistance of change participant -Building capacity.

Many participants welcome change and embrace opportunities to be involved in the process; however, a small minority of participants resist this process and demonstrate doubt, fear, and reluctance to engage with the process. Resistant individuals frequently express feelings of being overwhelmed and exhausted and on rare occasions, are known to sabotage the change process. Effective strategies for building capacity of resistant participants include ongoing support and consistent communication. Inclusion of these participants is essential otherwise the change will be placed in jeopardy or at the least, delayed.

Leaders should provide time for reflection or space for the participants to engage with the change where they can address anxieties associated with the change.

In many cases, resistant individuals will gradually re-engage with the change and buy-in can be achieved, however, if these resistant individuals continue their efforts to derail the change then further engagement represents unnecessary time wasted which should be avoided.

Monitoring and Evaluation of Change – Identifying Rapid Change Accelerators

There are specific factors that can influence the speed of the change process. These factors are considered significant to the leader as opportunities to accelerate the process, given the appropriate conditions of the change participants. This requires flexibility, risk-taking on the part of the leader, and careful monitoring and evaluation of the change process.

Immediate and consistent feedback – Rapid change accelerator.

Immediate feedback from the leader to change participants is instrumental in accelerating the rapid change process. This valuable information provides the participants with current and regular updates reassuring them that they are on track or can assist them to efficiently redirect their efforts to better align with the change goals.

Proof of plan – Rapid change accelerator.

A change plan for participants accelerates buy-in and garners support for the change. The change plan appears to be an indicator of proof of the leaders' commitment and organizational skills for the change. It also provides a snapshot of how the participants' role has been conceptualized and it extends an invitation for continued conversation and collaboration.

Key individuals of support-rapid change accelerator.

Leaders can utilize key individuals as a support for the change agent as well as being drivers for the change. Examples of key individuals of support are district supervisors, trustees, and professional development experts in the change topic. These individuals can make occasional visits to rally the participants' change. Inclusion of key individuals tends to engender more immediate buy-in to the process.

Celebrations – Rapid change accelerator.

Celebrations for participants are opportunities to assemble, share accounts of success, and to applaud their successful efforts. These gatherings are considered an important component to the rapid change process. Recognition of all participants should be extended as well as particular individuals who contributed outstanding dedication and effort. A culture of unity and community can quickly develop that increases the momentum of the change.

Recognition of a new language and culture – Rapid change indicator.

Change initiatives commonly involve the creation of a new culture and potentially a new vocabulary shared among the participants. New change terminology and phrases used by the participants is a common indicator that change is happening. Another indicator of change is where participants practice a casual or informal "lingo" they perceive as providing inspiration and support to each other. This may include hand gestures for support or humorous greeting to one another.

Sustainability

Making decisions about whether or not to sustain a change is a crucial component for a change agent. Not all changes should be sustained as many are short-term designed to bring about a needed alteration and then once completed the collective moves on to the next problem, initiative, or indeed rests and celebrates their efforts for a time. Sustainability though may be crucial to the ongoing success of the students in the school; however, sustainability is not guaranteed and can easily fail. For example, if the leader is transferred, key task force members step down or move, or funding fails the change may fail or may even be reversed. Therefore consideration must be given to sustainability. Figure 6–2 outlines four components that leaders can consider when examining sustainability issues: professional development of teacher and change agents to ensure continuing participant commitment; leadership support from school and district leaders; ongoing resourcing of the change; and maintaining the visionaries within the school.

Indicators for sustainability include ensuring teacher and staff commitment and continued support for the change which encompasses long-term professional development plans, independent efforts of stakeholders for stronger communication strategies, and the inclusion of sustainability support of the change in long-range school plans. It is useful if task force participants volunteer to assume leadership roles for the sustainability of the change which maintains the visionaries within the school. These individuals keep the historical knowledge of the rationale for change, the process of change, and the outcomes of the change which is important in the event of a change of school leadership. Support from the district level is also essential. This is

most evident through the development of new policies that emerge from the change as well as increased funding and support for the change.

Documenting change is important for sustainability of the change and is also valuable for guiding future change initiatives. Using these documents, leaders can share sustainability recommendations with their change participants in anticipation that their leadership role may change or for long range planning with staff. Frequently, funding is associated with sustainability efforts, hence long-term plans for annual fundraisers and celebrations are a common element of sustainability consideration. Sustainability efforts involve ongoing testing for progress at the pre-change and post-change levels, analysis of provincial achievement test results, considerations for improvement through annual school plans, and continuous reviews for effective strategies for student engagement, motivation, positive attendance, and behavior. The leader's vision and continued support of the participants are necessary and should be evident through planning time and professional development.
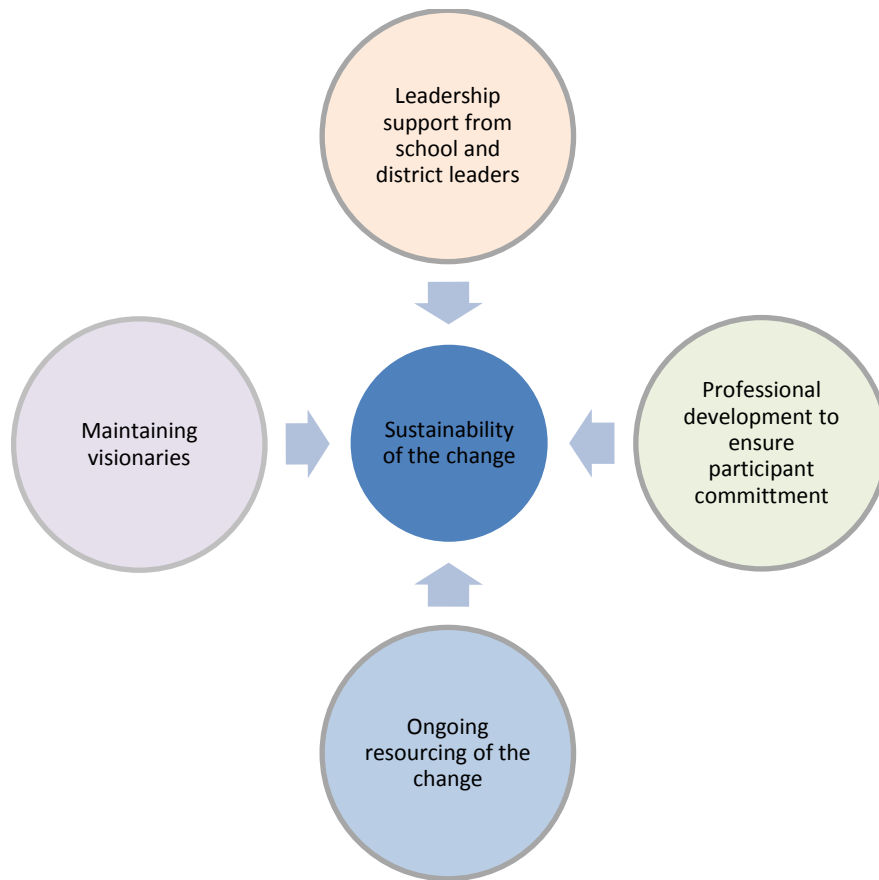
Figure 6-2: Sustainability Considerations

Decisions about Sustainability

The decision to sustain a change implementation is dependent on the initial intention for the change, in addition to the future needs and potential benefits of the change. If this change does not need to be sustained, then leaders may choose to not pursue the sustainability considerations. Successful leaders frequently implement changes they have lead or experienced in their previous work lives, which provides a measure of repeatability to the change process; however, nuances of new contexts must be taken into account. Previous change experience also facilitates a leader's efficacy with future change initiatives. Implementing previous successful changes can

also aid the pace of change as the lesson learned from one context may streamline the processes in another similar context.

Implications Related to Theory

This study of time sensitive change revealed a number of findings that were significant in that they contradicted current theory or endorsed it. The most significant aspects that presented a contribution to the knowledge base is in regards to whether or not fast paced change was possible in all schools including senior high schools. The findings revealed that time-sensitive change (0-3 years) was not only possible but in many cases was more desirable or more viable. This was largely explained as due to the increased participants' and change agents' motivation and momentum that had been achieved due to the imperative to effect the change quickly. This finding was contrary to Fullan's (2007) and Senge's (2006) postulations that change required many years, particularly changes that represented high levels of complexity or those that required people and/or organizational culture to change.

Much of the educational literature that discussed reforming schools, instructional practice, or cultural change provided little pragmatic direction for school leaders in relation to the "how to institute change" (Fullan, 2005; Hargreaves, 2007; Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006). This research has yielded a pragmatic model for rapid change offering essential aspects and key considerations that can inform change agents' cognition and decision making, as well as, proposing a range of suggested approaches to implementing a change agenda. It also highlights the key skills and leadership capacities essential in promoting effective relationships that facilitate

change behaviours, all of which can be learned through leadership development opportunities (Scott & Webber, 2008). Therefore, unlike many popular leadership texts this research provides tangible and useful advice to leaders who are juggling the many demands on them including the imperative for change.

Time was the core of this study. Conceptualizations of time ranged in the literature; however, what predominated was an underlying perception that time was an educator's enemy (Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006; Raywid, 1993; Woodilla, Boscardin, & Dodds, 1997). And yet, in this study time was frequently perceived to be a commodity like any other that was utilized in the pursuit of positive change. Time was traded, negotiated, and seriously considered within change decision-making processes rather than perceived as a hopeless or hostile construct. In some situations time was perceived competitively much like how athletes perceive the improvement on their best time as an important performance indicator, wherein indicators of the success of educational change within a shortened prescribed timeframe were also celebrated as a significant achievement.

This research identified a number of components which in effect accelerated the change process termed "rapid change accelerators." These included providing immediate and consistent feedback which had the capacity to influence the motivation and directions of participants; the development and implementation of a "change plan" which clearly articulated the conceptualization of the roles of all participants, the process, and key performance indicators; the selection of key individuals who can support the change process – those who can provide advocacy for the change and encouragement regarding participants' efforts; and the need for including celebrations

of success with participants and recognition of key change agents which reinforces positive engagement with the change initiative.

There were many aspects that endorsed current understandings about change. These included the importance of leadership in leading change initiatives (Fullan, 2005; Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010; Leithwood & Strauss, 2009; Mulford, 2008). Additionally, the importance of effective, timely, and consistent two-way communication by the leader was specifically emphasized in this research as an essential strategy (Burke, 2008; Siccone, 2012). Establishing positive and constructive relationships with teachers and other school stakeholders was also highlighted as crucial to the success of change programs. Therefore, a leader's intrapersonal and interpersonal capacities underpinned the likelihood of success of time-sensitive change (Scott & Webber, 2008).

Implications for Further Research

It has been stated in much of the change literature that in order for leaders to create successful change, it takes significant time. Leaders in this research determined that this may not be the case in particular change situations. However, this study was completed within the province of Alberta, and so exploring rapid change in other provinces, and even extending into the national and international contexts could provide a global perspective of time-sensitive educational change. This would enhance collaboration of leaders and stakeholders to consider common or similar strategies for time-sensitive change.

Leaders offered various indicators that were perceived as opportunities to accelerate the speed of the change. These indicators have been identified in this study as *rapid change accelerators*. Continued research to explore success with various accelerators of change would assist in determining which are most effective in various change settings. Leaders would then be able to best prepare for future changes using this knowledge and perhaps be able to support the momentum of the change or increase the speed of the change with the participants within their context.

This research study has referenced the support of stakeholder throughout the change process. Stakeholders have an extremely important role from building the vision for change, right through to the celebration of the success of the change. Further research of stakeholder involvement with the change process in different educational settings would clarify the importance of their role in a rapid change process.

Conclusion

This thesis explored time-sensitive change predominantly from the perspective of leaders, but also included a range of stakeholders who encompassed those can directly influence, and can be impacted, by any changes introduced into a school, namely, teachers, students, and parents. Time-sensitive change was defined as a significant and potentially complex change that was completed within three years or less. This current research was designed to explore a gap in the literature that indicated that complex change required between five and ten years, particularly, if undertaken in secondary schools. The research questions explored how Canadian

school leaders perceive change when implemented in shorter time frames to that indicated as usual in the literature. The research also enabled the examination of how a leader's change perspective aligned with the stakeholders who were impacted by the change as change can be contentious. This question was designed to overcome potential bias through triangulation of accounts even though these were largely self-report data sets. The consequences of the change were investigated in terms of positive and negative dimensions particularly reflecting the faster-pace of the change. Finally, the leaders were asked to provide advice to other leaders who may be charged with bringing about rapid change.

This study was underpinned by the pragmatic paradigm which posits that there should be alignment between the methods and the research questions. This premise implies that mixed methods are most likely to provide optimal data collection to best answer the study purpose and questions. This current research employed questionnaires and interviews using a semi-structured schedule. Questionnaires were administered to principals in four school districts in Alberta which represented elementary, middle/junior high, and secondary schools in urban, rural, and remote contexts. The total sample included 111 participants, with four superintendents, 39 principals (39 who returned questionnaires with a subset of 16 who participated in an in-depth interview), 25 educators (encompassing 21 teachers and 4 vice principals), 21 students, and 22 parents. Eight schools yielded a 360 degree stakeholder perspective, which meant that interviews and focus groups were conducted with leaders, teachers, students, and parents to examine their change in greater depth.

There were four key findings in this study. The most significant and compelling was that time-sensitive change was possible, frequently necessary and/or mandated, was successful and effective even when these changes were complex and difficult. The second finding indicated that complex time-sensitive changes required essential elements, many of which were common to different change implementation efforts, in order to be successful. These elements included: *pre-planning* to establish the rationale for the change, the order and priority of processes, and initiating positive relationships with the change participants; *collecting data and information* that could inform the change agenda and guide decisions (evidenced-based decision making); *creating a task force* who would be charged with the responsibility to support the leadership vision and establish the requisite processes to institute the change in collaboration with participants; maintaining regular *communication* patterns with all stakeholders in order to facilitate streamlined processes, to motivate participants, to share information and provide feedback on the progress of the changes, and to celebrate the participants change efforts and outcomes; *addressing resistance to change* through a range of strategies whereby ideally the disengaged and disenfranchised can be re-included in successful change processes. The third major finding was that time-sensitive change can be sustainable, transferable, and repeatable in other school settings, however, sustainability needed to be considered and planned for. The fourth key finding indicated that leaders of successful, complex, time-sensitive change needed to have honed intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and were previous leadership or change experience was an asset in faster-paced change scenarios. The intrapersonal skills included metacognitive skills and the capacity to

evaluate their personal strengths that would promote change effectiveness. The interpersonal skills were communication skills, relational acumen, visioning capacity, and political acumen to be able to access the needed supports for the participants in the change.

This model, entitled "the rapid change model," emerged as a potential guiding framework that can be used by leaders who are similarly required or simply perceive the imperative to institute time-sensitive change within their school context. The model includes six main components 1) knowledge surrounding the identification of needed change and demands; 2) leaders' metacognition and self-evaluation for change; 3) change visioning; 4) the change process; 5) monitoring and evaluating the change process; and 6) 'sustainability' and 'sustainability considerations' if deemed important.

Time in this study was pivotal. This was because the pressures on school systems and particularly on it leaders are increasing and becoming more complex. It is unsurprising that there has been a decrease in the time given to change agenda, not only in this research, but also within the established scholarly literature as many educational and political stakeholders are demanding reforms to schooling in response to society's concerns for its young children and youth. Time was conceptualized in this study as problematic, pragmatic, an accelerator of change momentum, and a commodity similar to that of resources and professional development. Depending on the circumstance, the stakeholder, and the stage of the change process conceptualizations of time were different. This meant that perspicuous leaders could and did 'use time' in various ways to: drive change agenda, influence the dynamics of school cultures, support participants, reward productive behaviors, and to facilitate

streamlined and more effective changes in school operations and instructional practices – all with the view to enhancing student outcomes. Indeed in this study, time was not always perceived as the universal enemy of educators, rather, in many cases was viewed as a mechanism to propel the change agenda forward thereby creating positive motivation for engagement with the change and its resultant outcomes.

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UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

March 11, 2010

Dear Superintendent:

It was a pleasure to speak with you on the telephone and I thank-you for your time and consideration for Elk Island Catholic Separate Regional Division to participate in this study. As a doctoral student with the Graduate Division of Educational Research at the University of Calgary, I am presently conducting research of leadership and efficient and effective time-sensitive organizational change in Alberta. This study of leadership and time-sensitive organizational change has received formal ethics approval to undertake data collection with principals of schools within the province of Alberta, having complied with the stringent guidelines laid down by the University of Calgary Ethics Committee. This is an invitation which seeks your participation as a member of one of the educational communities selected a part of the study.

The purpose of this research project is to explore leaders' perceptions and experiences related to implementing time-sensitive (efficient) and effective (successful) change initiatives and processes. The aim of this study is to identify school leaders' beliefs, attitudes, and practices in relation to bringing about a change in the time frame of 3 years or less. Additionally, I will explore any barriers or limitations that principal leaders have experienced with the change process. As school change affects the entire school community, this research will also explore the successful change initiative from the perspective of teachers, parents, and students. The main emphasis will be on the leadership required to bring about successful time-sensitive change. This research data will add to the body of knowledge in terms of current perceptions of time-sensitive change within the demands of contemporary organizational requirements.

Involvement of your school district will consist of the following components:

- Permission to invite all principals in the district to complete a written questionnaire (perhaps during a district meeting).

- The recommendations of those schools within your District which have been successful in establishing time-sensitive (3 years or less) organizational change. This would include a representation of an elementary, middle or junior high, and senior high school participants .

Participation in the research will be completely voluntary and each individual should feel no pressure whatsoever to accept this invitation.   Should you accept this invitation to participate in this study, I believe that the results of this study will present important benefits for the educational community in this province, including your district. These benefits include:

- *The participating districts would be provided with overview summary report to support district decision-making processes. This information may be used reflectively for best practice in future change implementations.*
- *The participating schools would be provided with feedback about their change initiative in a summary report to support school decision-making processes.*
- *The ministry decision-makers may find the results valuable to support future leaders as change agents.*
- *Current awareness of leaders' best practices with regards to change implementations may be included in professional development planning.*
- *Current research may inform leaders to better understand the process of facilitating effective and efficient change practices in shorter timeframes (less than 3 years).*

Thank you for considering my invitation to participate in this important research. If you wish further discussion or clarification regarding this project, please feel free to contact me.

My contact information is as follows:

Linda Dudar

64 Wood Crescent S.W.

Calgary, AB T2W 4B6

Tel.# 403.238-0461 (H)

Tel.# 403.701-2283 (C)

E-mail address: linda.dudar@cssd.ab.ca

lmdudar@ucalgary.ca

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Linda Dudar, University of Calgary

Questionnaire

Exploring Efficient and Effective Change Initiatives from Leaders' Perspectives

This study explores leaders' perceptions and experiences related to implementing time-sensitive (efficient) and effective (successful) change initiatives and processes. The researcher is particularly interested in change processes and initiatives which have been undertaken and successfully brought about in the time frame of 3 years or less. When formulating your responses, please identify from your experiences in leadership within education a recent change that fits this criterion. Your input is extremely valuable and will add to the knowledge of change initiatives and processes. Your responses are totally confidential.

Definitions about "change" in this study

Change in this study is identified as encompassing formal and informal initiatives and implementations – mandated (frequently policy driven) and school- or leader-determined (school- or leader-based options).

*The focus of the this study is examining "efficient and time-sensitive change" and this refers to the **speed** of a change process – specifically that which has been completed in 3 years or less*

*"Effective change" refers to a change that has been **successful** according to your criteria*

Educational Leader survey

Current information

1. Current workplace (Select all that apply):

Elementary ☐

Junior high/middle ☐

Senior high ☐

K-Grade 9 ☐

K-Grade 12 ☐

School district / central office ☐

Other (*please* *specify)*:
_____

2. Leadership position held (Please select as many checkboxes as appropriate)

Superintendent/assistant superintendent ☐

Principal ☐

Supervisor (eg., curriculum, resources) ☐

Leadership position ☐

Please specify: _____

4. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Years of experience in the education **teaching** profession:

0-1 years ☐

2-3 years ☐

4-6 years ☐

7-18 years ☐

19-29 years ☐

30 + years ☐

5. Length of time at this school/work location:

0-6 months ☐

7 months – 1 year ☐

1 – 2 years ☐

2 -3 years ☐

3+ years ☐

6. Your school jurisdiction is in a community that is:

Remote ☐

Rural ☐

Metropolitan ☐

7. Your workplace is a (*Please select one checkbox only*)

Public school district ☐

Separate school district ☐

Private school ☐

Charter school ☐

8. How large is your school?

Up to 100 students ☐

101-200 ☐

201-300 ☐

301-500 ☐

501-1000 ☐

1000+ ☐

9. Number of years of experience in a formal **school leadership** or administrative position *(please select only one checkbox)*

No experience at this level ☐

Fewer than 5 years ☐

5-9 years ☐

10-19 years ☐

20 + years ☐

10. Number of years of experience in a formal **district leadership** or administrative position *(please select one checkbox only if applicable)*

No experience at this level ☐

Fewer than 5 years ☐

5-9 years ☐

10-19 years ☐

20 + years ☐

11. Do you have teaching duties in addition to your leadership role

Yes ☐   No ☐

13. If Yes to Q.11 – please specify the *timetabled* percentage of your time spent in teaching

0 % ☐

1-10% ☐

11-25% ☐

26-50% ☐

12. Do you spend more time teaching than that specified in the timetable?

Yes ☐   No ☐

51%+ ☐

317

Time: Efficient and time-sensitive change (0-3 years)
Definitions about "change" in this study

Change in this study is identified as encompassing formal and informal initiatives and implementations – mandated (frequently policy driven) and school- or leader-determined (school- or leader-based options).

*The focus of the this study is examining "efficient and time-sensitive change" and this refers to the **speed** of a change process – specifically that which has been completed in 3 years or less*

14. Have you been involved with implementing an efficient and time-sensitive organizational change in your current location? (Remember: "*Efficient and time-sensitive" refers to a change which was completed in 3 years or less*).

    Yes ☐   No ☐

15. If you answered yes to Q. 14. please indicate how the change was initiated. *(select as many checkboxes as appropriate)*

    In compliance with Alberta Education   ☐

    In compliance with district/central office   ☐

    Personal decision   ☐

    School-based/Staff initiative   ☐

    School council   ☐

    Community stakeholders   ☐
    Other (please specify) : _____

16. In the space provided, please describe the type of change implementation that you are reporting about.

    ----

17. Have you previously conducted an efficient and time-sensitive change implementation?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If the change initiative was requested in compliance by Alberta Education or District/Central office please complete the following questions. If not, please move to question 23

18. If this was an externally driven change in compliance by Alberta Education or District/Central office, how long were you given to implement the change?

Less than 3 months ☐

Less than 6 months ☐

1 year ☐

2 years ☐

3 years ☐

3+ years ☐

19. Were you given advance notice to implement this change?

Yes ☐   No ☐

20. How much advance notice were you given?

Weeks ☐

Months ☐

Years ☐

21.   How long did the entire change take to complete?

Weeks ☐

Months ☐

Years ☐

In the following items, please rate on the scale your perceptions of the change

22. The time frame I was given was sufficient to bring about the change?
insufficient time   Sufficient time
          1….2….3…..4….5…..6…..7…..8…..9…..10

Effective leadership change

"Effective change" refers to a change that has been __successful__ according to your criteria

23. My level of confidence in bringing about the change?

   Not confident   Highly confident

           1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

24. The level of district support for the change implementation? (if applicable)

   No support   highly supported

           1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

25. Please indicate the type of support provided

Resources (staff)   ☐

Goodwill   ☐

Recognition   ☐

Collegial   ☐

Other   ☐

26. Please indicate in the space provided additional information involving the type of support you were given.

----

27. Was financial funding required for this change initiative?

      Yes   ☐   No   ☐

28. Was financial funding ***provided*** for this change initiative?

      Yes   ☐   No   ☐

29. Did you initiate a task force as part of the implementation?

Yes ☐ No ☐

30. How many individuals were in your team or involved in the time-sensitive change task force?

0 ☐

1-2 ☐

3-5 ☐

6-7 ☐

8-10 ☐

10+ ☐

31. Did you undertake any prior planning before initiating the change process?

Yes ☐ No ☐

32. Please indicate the types of planning that you may have included.

Inservicing ☐

School plans ☐

Meetings ☐

One to one conversations ☐

33. Approximate what percentage of the change process was pre-planned.

Less than 25% ☐

50% ☐

75% ☐

100% ☐

34. Please rate your perception of the level of difficulty in instituting this change.
Very easy   Very difficult

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

APPENDIX C

Name:

School:

Elementary   Junior High   Secondary

Location: **Urban   Rural**

Type of School: _____

Principal Interview Questions

Title of Effective and Time-Sensitive Change:

Duration of Time to complete this change:

Reason for change implementation:

1. Describe the positive and any negative outcomes of the change? Discuss whether or not the **speed** of the change influenced these outcomes? Were they foreseeable **prior** to making the change?

2. Why did you choose this particular change process? What elements (necessary factors) were essential to be **included or excluded** when making an effective, time-sensitive change?

3. What kind of **leadership behaviors** do you believe were particularly important to ensure successful implementation? Why?

4. What personal leadership skills contributed to the success of this change initiative? Why? How did you develop these skills strengths? *(what prior experiences or people have influenced the development of these skills)*? How, and from where, do you currently draw **your** source of leadership strength (support)?

5. How have your participants reacted to the change processes and why? How did you motivate hesitant or resistant participants?

6. Are there leadership skills or behaviors that you may consider developing for

future time-sensitive initiatives as a result of this experience? Why?

7. Can you describe any **barriers** or **limitations** that you experienced with the change process and how you overcame these?

8. What considerations have you made to ensure **sustainability** of this change? Why did you select these?

9. What advice might you give a leader who about time-sensitive and effective change?

Focus Group Questions

Teachers, Parents, Students

Demographics section

School: Elementary   Junior High   Secondary

   Urban   Rural

Type of School: _____

Number of Years related with this school

Relationship other than parent role with school: (Example: school council, volunteer,)

Parent Focus Group Interview Questions

a) Will you please describe your relationship with the school?

b) From your experience with this school, can you please describe your level of satisfaction with this school? ®

   i) Highly Unsatisfied   Highly Satisfied

   (a) 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

   ii) Please explain why you rated it that way

c) Are you aware of any recent _____ change or implementation?
   Y N

d) Can you describe this change?

e) Do you believe that this change was effective? ®

   i) Highly Ineffective   Highly Effective

   (a) 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

   ii) Please explain why you rated it that way

f) How long did the change take to be completed?

   i)   Was this time frame acceptable, and why?

ii) Can you describe the impact of this change?

iii) Can you identify any particular individual(s) and the role they played in making the change?

iv) How influential was the leader in this change?

v) Do you believe there were other factors supporting the change?

vi) Prioritize the importance of the factors you identified…

g) From your perception, how challenging has it been to implement this change? ®

Highly Challenging   Not at all Challenging

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Please explain why you rated it that way

h) Did there appear to be a particular process in place to create the change, if so please describe this?

i) Were there specific priorities in the process to implement the change, and if so what were these (in order)?

j) How sustainable do you believe this change will be?

Not at all Sustainable   Highly Sustainable

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Please explain why you rated as sustainable (5-10)

Please explain why you rated as not sustainable (1-4)

k) Would you willingly be involved in this type of change again, please explain your response?

Y   N

l) Would you recommend this change to other schools, and why/why not?

APPENDIX E

Exploring Effective, Time-sensitive, Change Initiatives from Leaders' Perspectives

Overview

This research study has been initiated with the intention to inform educational leaders about time-sensitive change within school districts of Alberta. This study explores educational leadership practices that support effective and efficient organizational change implementations, and how these changes have affected the school community. It also will examine the constraints that leaders and their school community encounters in their faster-paced change implementation processes and how these can be ameliorated. This study will include sample groups of leaders, teachers, students and parents in data collection to ensure all key stakeholders' perspectives are represented. The data that will be collected will be used to inform a PhD project under the auspices of the University of Calgary.

Phase one (Questionnaire):

After obtaining approval from the superintendent to conduct this study within his or her district, the first phase will commence with the administration of the questionnaire for principals. It is anticipated that the researcher will aim to personally invite the principals to participate in a district-wide meeting. Districts that will be selected will represent metropolitan and rural, and elementary and secondary demographics. The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect a "snapshot" which will provide the researcher with current information about time-sensitive change initiatives from the perspective of the principals in these districts. Surveys are the preferred instrument for gathering information on practices, perceptions, and issues across large populations. The questionnaire will also invite principals (and their school community) to self-nominate or recommend colleagues (snowball sampling) who have been successful in bringing about a time-sensitive change to participate in an interview. Those principals who express interest in the study will be invited to have their school community participate as well in phase two and three. The interview questions will be informed by data collected in the questionnaire. The total length of time to complete the questionnaire is anticipated to be approximately 20-25 minutes.

Phase two (Follow-up interview):

Phase two involves the interviews with leaders. Purposeful sampling and snowball sampling of leaders will occur from those who responded to the invitation in the questionnaires. Principal interviews may be conducted through face-to-face conversations or by telephone. Principals representing elementary, junior/middle, and senior high schools from each district will be purposefully selected for the interview process based upon the nature of the change initiatives described in the questionnaire. The quantitative and qualitative approach of interviewing will serve to address specific areas of principal's leadership and time-sensitive change, as well as allow for open-ended responses in exploratory-type questions. Potentially, additional evidence such as documents, notes, and records which describe the change process may be included as part of the data collection (if available). The interview with each participant is anticipated to last approximately one hour in length dependent on the respondent's comments and willingness to participate.

Phase three (Focus group interviews):

The third phase will consist of focus groups with members of the school community, for example, teachers, parents, and students. Consent to invite these groups will be sought from participating leaders. Parental consent will be needed prior to establishing student focus groups. The focus group interviews will provide data which will be instrumental in triangulating the perceptions that the school members have about the change with the other stakeholders' perspectives. It is anticipated that one focus group (consisting of 6-8 individuals) will be conducted with each stakeholder group. The interviews with each group are anticipated to last approximately one hour in duration dependent on the respondent's comments and logistical constraints (school timetabling).

Potential Benefits for Participating in this Study

It is anticipated that Exploring Time-sensitive Change Initiatives from Leaders' Perspectives will inform policy makers, school boards, and faculties of education about the perceptions of change for the purpose of the following:

The researcher, the participants, the research community and society, at large would have opportunities to benefit from the following:

- *The researcher would use the information as part of the doctoral theses study as well as potential future studies.*
- *The participants would be provided with feedback in a summary report through the district. This information may be used reflectively for best practice in future change implementations.*
- *The research community will gain the recognition of current change implementations as well as an opportunity to provide feedback to other community members in their focus group.*
- *The district has an opportunity to use the summary reports to provide future decision making processes for leaders.*
- *The ministry decision-makers may recognize information which would be valuable to support future leaders as change agents.*
- *Current awareness of leaders' best practices with regards to change implementations may be included in professional development planning.*
- *Current research may inform leaders to better understand the process of facilitating effective and efficient change practices in shorter timeframes (less than 3 years).*

APPENDIX F

Leadership Change Framework

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#12 **Senior High** **1000+** **Public** **People & Program** **Mandated change (1yr)**	Multi-Implementation - Assessment process -Reporting practices -New curriculum -Family of Schools -Student leadership School reorganization *Significant shift of thinking towards philosophy of teaching	Develop core group Core group discussion (common experiences) Develop common language Provide Professional Development Conduct Research Action Research Follow-up Support	Leader's plan in place School and staff recognized the **need** for change. (Circumstances were "ripe")	Change outcome achieved **(1 year)** Implementation in place Assessment practices Recommendations to other schools requested Satisfaction surveys-Parents/Students /Teachers Community awareness FNMI (First Nations Metis Inuit) student data-completion rates	Male Leader 30+ (teaching experience) 20+ (leadership experience) Previous change experience Confidence level-9 Task Force -3-5 Support plan 10 Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#19 **Senior High School** **Catholic** **1000 +** **People and Program Mandated Change (1year)**	Implementation of student spirituality program *Multi-stakeholders Created major complexity	Brainstorming session with Stakeholders Idea formation Action orientation Meeting plan Evaluation	Persistence of remaining solution oriented Implementation of faith formation leader	Stakeholder's sustained involvement Students attendance/ involvement in school liturgies (surveys) (Change Goal met) 1 year	Male Leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-10 Task Force 8-10 Support plan 10 Preplanning - 25% Priority of Plan No Order of Plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#22 **Senior High School** **Catholic** **1000** **(Interviewed)** **Mandated Change (3years)**	Staff Cultural shift- staff to work as team Students outcomes used as measure of success *Staff healing Negative jokes and feedback	Listen to staff needs Hire additional staff to reduce class size Search for funding (resources and technology) Remain student focussed not curriculum focussed	Continuous support from Central Office Consistent communication- Talking /Talking Relationships	-Student attendance -Volunteering of staff for school activities -Staff attendance at prayer -Change Goal met (1-2 years)	Female leader 30+ years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence Level-10 Task Force- committee in place Support plan level-10- Preplanning 75% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#20 **Senior High School** **Catholic** **500 students** **People change**	Implementation Leadership Roles *Shift of thinking and practice to produce staff empowerment	Identification of need For leadership Identification of lack of empowerment Meetings (opportunities of practice for success) High support- encouragement/ dialogue	High support from District Superintendent Administration- Role -modelling leadership excellence	Positive staff Evidence of Leadership roles Positive feedback (Appreciation) Change Goal (1 yr)	Female Leader 30+ years of teaching experience 5-9 years Leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-10 Task Force- 1-2 Support plan Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#36 **Senior High school** **Catholic** **300 students**	Alberta Initiative for School Improvement Initiative-Assessment for learning	Meet (AISI) Consultants - develop plan Pull out sessions for teachers Meeting with staff Mentorship program provide professional development for volunteer leaders Hire support staff		Broader array of assessment practices Student demand great variety of assessment practices and now challenging teachers Change Goal (3 years)	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Task Force- 10 + Support plan Preplanning 75% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#21 **Junior Senior High School** **Catholic** **1000 students** **People change**	Implementation to improve Diploma Exam results *Removing barriers to success Time frame give for change was one year!*	Strategic planning Cultural research of school Diagnosis of issues Implementation of solutions Dispelling myths of results Ongoing examining	Dispelling rumours about impossible improvement Leadership and staff were key	Improvement of 150 spots on Fraser Report 2 consecutive Garfield Western Nominations for greatest improvement in Diploma exam results (Acceptable and Excellence) Change Goal met (1 year)	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Task Force- 3-5 Support plan Pre-planning 75% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#34 **Senior/Junior High School** **Catholic** **300 students** **Program/ People change** **Mandated (3yrs)**	School Improvement Implementation (as a result of weak Accountability Survey) -Staff/student leadership program for improved School climate and culture *Pedagogy shift Negative previous experience caused two previous leaders to quit	Principal meets with key staff Empowers staff Committee formed Facility change Continuous feedback and communication	Leader's vision was made clear Staff were empowerment District Financial support District personnel presence at key functions	Staff/Students /Parents-visible and involved Accountability pillar -survey results Change Goal met 3 years	Male Leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years Leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-10 Task Force- 3-5 Support plan Preplanning 25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#39 **K-12** **Catholic** **(interviewed)** **300 students** **People change** **Choice Change** **3 years**	Implementation of new discipline practice *New philosophy Parent bullying of power	Leader's assurance of competence to district Implementation of change to staff and delivery to students Consistent feedback to staff (hard effort)	Daily grinding of implementation	(Change Goal met) 3 Years	Male Leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level 8 NO Task Force Support plan Pre-planning 75% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#1 **Junior High** **Middle** **500 students** **Public** **Program & People Change**	Grade reconfiguration Special Ed Implementation	Resources Funding Recognition Goodwill Collegial Task Force (10+)	Evidence of C. Office Admin Team and Staff all in support of change	Sustain Measures created Change Goal met (3 years)	Male leader 19-29yrs teaching experience 10-19 years leadership Pre-change experience Confidence level-10 Task Force (10+) Support plan Pre-planning-50% Priority/ Order of Plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#8 **Junior High/Middle** **Catholic** **1000 students** **Program and People Change**	Positive Behaviour Support Program *Supporting staff to address student behaviour differently	Funding Implementation team in place Training with admin support	Information available for research based practices Support from other schools	Part of the school culture and embraced by school community New terminology spoken Staff survey results Change Goal met (3 years)	Male leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-Change Confidence level-9 Support plan Task Force -6-7 Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of Plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#9 **Junior High/Middle** **1000 students** **Program and People change**	Implementation of severely Behaviour challenged students into a regular Program *Several students had not attended regular school settings for years. (culture shock)	Funding Visioning process Physical changes Staffing and follow-up visioning Committee Follow-up and success indicators	Physical changes to classroom building (decision for change was made after budget was set)	Implementation goal met Office referral Data Suspension Data Individual Program Plan goals met **Change Goal met- (1 year)**	(M) 19-29 years 10-19 years Pre-Change Confidence level -7 Support N T (3-5) Pre-planning-25%- Order/Priority

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#16 **K-9** **Catholic** **1000 students** **(Interviewed)** **People /Program** **Mandated change (1yr)**	Multi-implementation -Fine Arts -Sports Excellence Academy -Coaching for Learning Initiative *Major increase of enrolment Culture routines affected. Staff left Anxiety	Information sessions Staff meetings Focus group formed For roles and responsibilities School observations in similar schools Stakeholders sessions	Use of Backward design model Vision/ mission clear Identification of change success increased momentum and importance Implementation of facilitator	Common vision/goals/language Implementation of research practices Positive energy New leadership expansion Increased enrolment Change Goal met (1 year)	Female Leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence Level-6 Support plan Task Force 8-10 Pre planning 25% Order/Priority of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#23 **K-9** **Catholic** **1000 students** **(interviewed)** **People change** **Mandated change (1year)**	Cultural shift *Making all staff accountable Major learning curve for staff to achieve goals	Accountability survey review- Council/Parents Acquire PD funding Develop goals with staff Individual teacher plan (meet 3 times) Report- parents and council	No specific recognition of tipping point	Accountability survey improvement	Male Leader 7-18 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-9 Task Force-3-5 Support Plan Preplanning-25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#27 **K-9** **Catholic** **200 students** **Program Change** **Mandated Change** **Interviewed** **3 years**	Balanced Literacy Program Implementation All Stakeholders expectation to be involved	Develop team Establish vision Develop goals Leader -Support for time and encouragement for risk taking Provide resources	School time for planning was key!	Common language Evidence-Sharing of best practices Continued effort Students feedback Change Goat met (1year)	Male Leader 19-29 years teaching 20+yrs leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Task Force 3-5 Support plan-9 Preplanning 25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#30 **K-9** **Catholic** **300** **Program and People change**	Assessment for learning *Accepting new process and shifting responsibilities to students	Develop criteria process Protocol	Education to Teachers, students and parents Allow time to explore and adapt new techniques methods and processes	Increased student and parent involvement in assessment evaluations goal setting developing strategies Change Goal met 1 year	Male leader 9-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level- 8 Task Force-10+ Support plan Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#35 **K-9** **Catholic** **500 students** **Program plan** **Mandated change**	Education improvement plan	Research resources/PD Simplify plan from admin and focus group Common goals aligned with district Inservices PD Development Feedback from students Celebrate change Reflect for future	Getting all stakeholders to believe that the change is the best thing for the school.	All Stakeholders involved Common vision created purpose values and goals Change Goal met (3 years)	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience Less than 5 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level- 8 Task Force 10+ Support plan Preplanning Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#25 **Elementary/JH** **Catholic** **300 students** **People and Program Changes**	Moving into Excellence Teaching teachers the strategies needed *Change was MAJOR for some teachers	Discussion of roadblocks Plan established Presented to school team Presented to staff Time to think over summer Mission Vision Values and Goals created Monthly progress report	New language needed to be learned by students. Overcome resistance	Rubric in place Evidence of student improvement with international testing PAT excellence improvement Student and Parent surveys Board Trustee recognition Culture is evident Change Goal met (3 years)	Female leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-9 Task Force-3-5 Support 10 Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of Plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#28 **Elementary/JH** **Catholic** **200 students**	Balanced Literacy *Change Implementation	Professional Development for administration and teachers Implementation Lead teacher request for support More Professional Development for those who struggle	Team work beginning with admin Well planned by the district	Total teacher and student implementation in place Change Goal met 1 year	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience Less than 5 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-5 Task Force -0 Support plan-9 Preplanning Priority of plan/No Order

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#32 **Elementary/ JH** **Catholic** **500 students**	Servant leadership Initiative	Team meetings Scheduling Conference Audit culture Identify leader Schedule activities	No tipping point	Award winning recognition of the school Fewer discipline problems Positive atmosphere Public awareness Parental feedback Change Goal met -1 year	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level 8 Task Force- 3-5 Support plan Preplanning Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#29 **K-8** **Catholic** **500 students**	School Improvement Reading writing numeracy *Difficult for people to change practices	Track student data Targeted strategies Identify current philosophy	Building of skill set and foundation through AISI Lead teacher Identification of success achieved buy-in	Ongoing evolution of improvement With reading and writing Numeracy is still ongoing Change Goal -3 years	Female leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level- 9 Task Force- 3-5 Support plan Preplanning - 75%-100% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#24 K-8 Catholic 300 students Program/ People (Interviewed) Mandated 3 years	Balanced Literacy Implementation= Reading and Writing *Staff had to change their way of doing things to align with framework.	Change of timetable Pre and Post testing (create culture of assessment) Collaboration time Additional time provided Support coach in place	Implementation -school coach for 1st and 2nd year -district coach for 3rd year. (AISI)	Improved student academic sores/writing engagement Evidence of teachers utilizing program Change Goal met (3 years)	Male Leader 19-29 years teaching experience 20+ years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-9 Task Force-0 Support plan-9 Preplanning 100% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#26 **K-8** **Catholic** **300 student** **Interviewed** **Program** **Mandated** **(1 yr)**	Implementation Technology with lesson planning *Extreme discomfort level with technology	Acquire grants for funding Present Vision to staff Present research and related benefits- Action research Space preparation for change Acquiring user friendly links	Establish importance of change to convince and establish new culture of belief Consistent and continued support	Increased student achievement/engagement Teacher feedback of lesson improvement Change Goal met (1 year)	Male leader 7-18 years teaching experience Less than 5 leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-9 Task Force-3-5 Support Plan Preplanning - 25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#2 **Elementary** **Public** **500 students** **Program/** **People Change**	Personal & Vision/Staff Leadership Program for students *Establishing core values/mission/vision as a staff* Change of philosophy	**AISI** program Funding Buy-in all PD Local school visits Resource books Committee created	Senior Admin encouragement Acquired Trained facilitator	Active student participation by stakeholders Part of culture Motivation for program growth Sustained Change Goal met (3 yrs)	Male leader 30+ yrs teaching exp 20+ yrs leadership exp Prechange exp Confidence level- 8 Task Force- committee Support plan No Pre-Planning

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#3 Elementary Public 300 students Program Change	School schedule reorganization *Transportation *Child care *Accumulation of time in school calendar with other schools*	**AISI** program Staff required Funding Goodwill	AISI "Lead" teacher in place Calendar and agenda set by CO	Evidence of focus on issues Agenda set in advance Evidence of interaction Change Goal met (weeks)	Male leader 30+years teaching experience 10-19yrs leadership experience Pre/change Confidence level-7 No Task Force Support plan Pre-planning-75% No Priority No order

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#4 **Elementary** **Public** **200 students** **Program Change**	Instructional technology Complex for recipients- brand new limited knowledge *	Resources Staff support Task force	Funding provided Mentor in place Central Office support	Change Goal met (1 year-2yrs)	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-6 Support plan Task Force-3-5 Pre-planning-25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#5 **Elementary** **Public** **300 students** **People and Program (interviewed)** **Mandated Change-3yrs**	Fine Arts Implementation Staff Implementation of art *No funding *Major doubt of staff	Book study Research & data Staff surveys Staffing requirement Building confidence and comfort PD/training Artists in residency	Staff PD field trips to other schools were significant for change Implementation of "Lead" teacher	Change Goal met (3 years) Implementation sustained Support plan in place Student achievement Annual fundraiser	Female Leader 7-18 years teaching experience Less 5years leadership experience Pre/change Confidence level-8 Task Force- 3-5 Pre-planning-25% Priority of plan Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#6 **Elementary** **Public** **300 students** **People change** **(Interviewed)**	Multi-implementation Professional Learning Communities Model Integration of Special Education *Switching mindset from me to "we" *Segregation to inclusion Barriers: New staff	Acquire AISI funding Discussion with staff Exploration with staff Professional Development for staff Trial run with staff/students Implementation	Professional development opportunities increased momentum Professional Learning Community teams in place as a result of Professional development	Testing processes sustained Provincial Achievement Tests improvement Survey/student and staff Change Goal met (3 years)	Female Leader 19-20 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Support plan Task Force -10+ Pre-planning-50% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#7 **Elementary** **Public** **1000 students** **People change**	Shift from a Christian private to a Christian alternate program within public setting Release of operation to new board *	Society Meetings School profile Draft of agreement New Facility Funding	Understanding in place and trust established in releasing operation to new board *	Growth rate Evidence 50-60 students/year Relationship (strengthened) Extended leadership capacity Change Goal met (3yrs)	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Support plan Task Force-10+ Preplanning-50% Order/Priority of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#10 **Elementary** **Public** **500 students** **People and Program change**	Philosophy of FSL curriculum *Implementation of reading philosophy for teachers - students philosophy for learning to continue when teacher is not present	Committee to research change Proposal presented Funding (**Alberta Initiative for School Improvement**) Purchase of support material Plan for time Teacher weekly grade meetings Lead teacher time	Planning Time- Teacher-weekly time to plan Lead teacher time Assessment time Funding	Curriculum in place All teachers –evidence of guided reading leading student led conferences Data of teachers' classroom implementation Change Goal met (1-2 years)	Female leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-9 Support plan Task Force- 3-5 Preplanning- 75% Order/Priority of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#11 **Elementary** **Public** **300 students** **Program change**	Improvement of Students Achievement *Low socio-economic area Literacy based approach with several initiatives	Team PD conference Empowering coaches to support staff Sharing w staff Plan to proceed Inservicing staff Creating release time together Analysis time Feedback/ next step planning	Success of release time in first year of change Once staff saw results, trust increased and enthusiasm grew	PAT results/ analysis Interviews Surveys Confidence& Staff capacity Positive atmosphere Student exemplars **Change Goal met (3 years)**	Female leader 19-29 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-8 Support plan Task Force -10+ Pre-planning-25% Order/Priority of plan

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School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#13 **Elementary** **500** **Public** **Program change**	Implementation of a School wide Balanced Literacy Program *Shift of philosophy to the way that was to the way it will be	District **AISI** funds and program Admin planning Teacher inservices Identification of student reading levels Guided reading Ongoing collaboration	Solid pre-planning Personal support Proof of student improvement	Students data of moving towards student grade reading levels Change Goal met (3)	Female leader 7-18 years teaching experience Less than 5 years leadership experience Pre change experience Confidence level-7 Support plan Task Force- 3-5 Pre-planning 75% Order /Priority of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#14 **Elementary** **Public** **500 students** **(Interviewed)** **Mandated** **Program change (3 yrs)**	Writing improvement implementation for students (all grades) * Changing the previous teaching style, learning, and evaluating the program	Convince need for change Introduce program Professional Development requirements Provide resources Observation of similar programs Implementation Observation and feedback	Awareness of need Arranging of Author Inservices for staff Awareness of change success increased momentum	Student test results PAT results Student exemplars School atmosphere Staff buy in Change Goal met (3 years)	Female Leader 30+ years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level -8 Support plan Task Force 6-7 Preplanning 25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#15 **Elementary** **Catholic** **300 students** **Program and People change**	Multi-implementation approach Staff leadership Health and wellness *Change of thinking of practice, thinking, and routine. Building confidence in staff	Individual meet with staff Set clear staff directions Explore-positive/negative Identify pressures Research successful practices Pace speed of change as necessary Revisit, revise, celebrate	Everyone supports team after total input Immediate change necessary High support from Community, Parents and Central office	Community involvement Positive feedback-parent surveys Teacher lead roles increased Improved lunch eating habit routines Increased PE time **Change Goal met (Several weeks)**	Female leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level-10 Support plan 10 Task Force- 6-7 Preplanning-25% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
# 18 **Elementary** **Catholic** **500 students** **People and program change**	Change of teaching approaches to French Immersion *Reading strategies Radical change for teachers.	Grant application Professional Development Investigate other districts in process Guest presentations Provided resources Provided support	Great need- Teachers were thirsting for change to make a difference for kids Funding paid for all expenses	Consistent practices throughout all classes not only in our school but implement in district as well Results in Reading and Achievement Teacher confidence **Change Goal met (1-2 years)**	Female leader 7-18 years teaching experience 10-19 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level Support plan Task Force- 1-2 Preplanning 50% Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#31 **Elementary** **Catholic** **300 students**	Multi implementation School Based Bullying Prevention Program Music Program	Grant funding Preliminary presentation	All Stakeholders involved	Data- decrease of student bullying referrals Increase in self-esteem Student and Parent satisfaction feedback **Change Goal met (3 years)**	Male leader 19-29 years teaching experience 20+leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level 7 Support plan Task Force 10+ Preplanning Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#33 **Elementary** **Catholic** **500 students**	Preschool Implementation for all three and four year old students. Precedent for future First time implementation ever For district	Formation of Parent Group Society Required funding paperwork Teacher recruitment Placement of students Initiation	Formation of parent society Acceptance and support of principal	Attendance increasing- new parents to school Positive feedback from parents High retention rate of students to ECS **Change goal met** **(1 year)**	Male leader 7-18 years teaching experience 5-9 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level 8 Support plan Task Force Preplanning Priority/Order of plan

School Change Type	Change Goal/Aim Key impediment*	Change Agent Processes	Leader Tipping Point	Evidence Measures	Change Agent
#38 **Elementary** **Catholic** **300** **Interviewed** **Mandated** **Program change** **1-2years**	Assessment for learning program integrated into teachers practices *Very reluctant staff and resistant Previous Leadership change was necessary	Acquire Alberta Initiative for School Improvement funding Prioritize necessary changes Share best practices Invite staff to lead Initiate School wide involvement Provide leader's support and mentorship	Continuous support from Central Office Stakeholders ready for change - appreciated	Student evidence/ Engaged Increased knowledge of purpose/ expectations of assessment Change goal met (1 year)	Male Leader 7-18 years teaching experience Less than 5 years leadership experience Pre-change experience Confidence level- 8 Support plan 10 Task Force 1-2 Preplanning 75% Priority/Order of plan