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Title of Study: CHANGE: HOW THE LEARNING OF TEACHERS ALTERS WHILE IMPLEMENTING AN EDUCATIONAL MANDATE

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Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate how the learning of teachers change during the implementation of a mandated educational reform. Fullan's (1993) lens of learning embedded in his paradigm of dynamic change, Bandura's (1986) construct of self-efficacy from his Social Cognitive Theory, and Constructivist Theory, in conjunction with Hope's (1999) tenets of skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, were used as lenses to focus the study. The methods of this study used to examine teacher and administrator perspectives about what teachers learn during implementation of a reform initiative and employed to compare the reasons how individual teachers change their practice as they change their learning included long interviews, observation, and perusal of teachers' artifacts. The study records the respondents' reactions and reflections about changes in individual learning resulting in change in teacher practice. The change reveals those factors that impact change in teacher learning while implementing an educational mandate.

Findings and Conclusions: Data obtained from interviewing two groups: male and female primary school classroom teachers to include specialist teaches and two administrators, suggested that there is a need for teachers to change their learning while implementing an educational mandate. The need for change in teacher learning is expressed as a need for multifaceted staff development, covering the necessary intent of the reform through the lenses of collaboration, a shared vision of decision making, and teacher accountability for implementation in order to maintain interconnectedness between teacher self-efficacy and teacher learning. For those educators who collaborate willingly, who share and discuss policy and procedure, substantial change in individual teachers' practice does occur. Teachers make their personal meaning as they construct new realities about how they are to perform during implementation. Implementation of service learning will elevate the relevance of Constructivist Theory in relationship to Change Theory because both emphasize methodology necessitating change in traditional, informative education. Reform efforts must become embedded in new institutional forms that support teachers' professional growth in the development of professional learning communities administered by leaders who facilitate proactive change in teachers' personal as well as collective learning.

ADVISOR'S APPROVAL____

CHANGE:

HOW THE LEARNING OF TEACHERS ALTERS

WHILE IMPLEMENTING AN

EDUCATIONAL

MANDATE

Dissertation Approved:

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CHANGE:

HOW THE LEARNING OF TEACHERS ALTERS

WHILE IMPLEMENTING AN

EDUCATIONAL

MANDATE

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DEDICATION

For two men who value the art of writing,
James Shapey and James Carroll

James Shapey, my English teacher in twelfth grade at Wayland Central High School, guided me in the principles and techniques in the art of writing. I thank you.

James Carroll, the only person to both understand and to appreciate my written thoughts, assisted me in developing my creative writing for pleasure in time of dreadful warfare. I salute you.

Most of all, for the only woman to tell me to do my homework
Iris Una La Bell

Mom, I have always admired your interest in books, your countless hours of reading to me when I was young, and your continual support in my education. I love you and I miss you.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

I. DESIGN OF THE STUDY……………………………………………………….….1

Statement of the Problem………………………………………………….….3
Purpose of the Study……………………………………………………..…4
Theoretical Structure………………………………………………………..…5
Procedures……………………………………………………………….…8
Researcher……………………………………………………………..…9
Data Needs and Sources………………………………………………..…10
Data Collection…………………………………………………..…...11
Interview Questions……………………………………………..……12
Data Analysis………………………………………………..……..13
Significance of the Study…………………………………………..……13
Theory…………………………………………………………..…14
Research…………………………………………………………....14
Practice…………………………………………………………..……15
Summary……………………………………………………………………16
Reporting……………………………………………………………………...16

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE………………………………………………17

Service Learning………………………………………………………………18
Definition of Service Learning…………………………………………….20
Rationale for Service Learning………………………………..………21
Early Acceptance of Service Learning……………………………..22
Opposition to Service Learning……………………………………....23
Implementation Issues…………………………………………………..25
Perceptions of Service Learning…………………………………........28
The Nature of Learning…………………………………...……………...31
Change………………………………………………………………………...35
Resistance to Change…………………………………………………41
Change and the Nature of Reform……………………………..……..44
Changing Teachers’ Practices…………………………………………48
Definition of Staff Development……………………………….…………..49
Characteristics of Effective Staff Development……………………….…...51
Social Cognitive Theory……………………………………………………...52
Constructivist Theory………………………..……………………………...54

Motivation ……………………………………………………………..……..55
Motivating Adults to Learn……………………………………….…………...56
Definition of Motivation………………………………………………………57
Theories of Motivation……………….………………………………………57
Beliefs and Professional Growth…………………….…………………….…61
Definition of Teacher Beliefs…………………………….…………………..62
Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs………………………………………………....68
Reasons to Change Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs……………………….....69
Role of Teacher Educators in Affecting Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs………………………………………………………………......71
Commitment …………………………………………………………..……..73
Summary……………………………………………………………….……...79

III. METHODS……………………………………………………………….…..81

Study Design…………………………………………………………………..81
The Researcher………………………………………………………………...83
Researcher Bias…………………………………………………….…………86
Respondents and Their Context……………………………………….……87
The Actors…………………………………………………..………87
Setting…………………………………………………………….…...88
The Respondents…………………………………………….…………..89
Data Collection Procedures……………………………………….………...90
Data Analysis………………………………………………………………92
Accepted Limitations of Computer Analysis……………………………….…92
Verification………………………………………………………………....93
Internal Validity…………………………………………………………94
Triangulation………………………………………………………..94
Member Checks……………………………………………………95
Peer Reviews………………………………………………………..95
Long Term Observations……………………………………….....96
External Validity……………………………………………………………96
Reliability…………………………………………………………………...97
Ethical Considerations………………………………………………………..97
Summary……………………………………………………………………98

IV. DATA PRESENTATION…………………………………………………100

Selection of Respondents…………………………………………….………101
Introduction of Respondents……………………………………………….....101
Specialist Teachers……………………………………………...……102
Classroom Teachers…………………………………………………….103
Administrators…………………………………………………….……106
Respondents and Setting the Stage…………………………………………..108
Topics Discussed with Administration Prior to Conducting Interviews……....109
Reasons for Becoming a Teacher………………………………….....……110

Respondents Who Left Another Career to Teach……………………….110
Respondents Who Desired to Teach since Childhood………………….112
Respondents Who Were Influenced by Parents to Teach………………112
Views Concerning Pre-Service Training Regarding Mandates………………...113
No Pre-Service Training Related to Mandates…………………………113
Pre-Service Training Related to Mandates…………………………….…114
Embedded Awareness of Mandates during Pre-Service Training…...…115
Awareness of Service Learning……………………………………...……115
Teachers with Pre- and Post-University Service Learning Experience...116
Teachers with University Service Learning Experience…………..……116
Teachers with No Awareness Prior to Initial Implementation………….117
Administrators' Awareness of Service Learning……………………….118
Teaching and Service Learning…………………………………………..…119
From Teacher to Facilitator……………………………………….……120
From Teacher Isolation to Teacher Collaboration…………………...…120
Administrators' Views on Collaboration……………….………………122
Application of Learning…………………………………………….……123
Learning Reflected in Lesson Plans……………………………………....128
Learning Reflected in Teacher Observations……………………………..129
Views Concerning Skills and Service Learning………………………………..130
Respondents with Positive Views………………………………………131
Respondents with Negative Views…………………………………...…132
Views Concerning Motivation and Service Learning………….………………133
Views Concerning Beliefs and Service Learning………………………………135
Teachers Whose Views Beliefs Pre-Date Implementation……………..135
Teachers Whose Beliefs Were Altered during Implementation………..136
Teachers Whose Beliefs Remained Static…………………………...138
Role of Administrators' Beliefs during Implementation……………..…139
Views Concerning Commitment and Service Learning………………………..141
Teachers with Positive Views……………………………………..141
Teachers with Weak or No Commitment to Service Learning…………142
Administrators' Views Concerning Commitment to Service Learning...143
Views about Success in Changing Learning during Implementation…………..143
Teachers Whose Learning Changed and Why………………………….144
Teachers Whose Learning Changed Little, If Any, and Why…………..148
Changes in Administrators' Learning…………………………………...149
Role of Collaboration in Changing Individual Teachers' Learning………...…150
Views Concerning Support for Implementation………………………………..151
Teachers' Views Regarding Support for Implementation……………...152
Administrators' Views Regarding Support for Implementation……….154
Summary ……………………………………………………………………156

V. DATA ANALYSIS……………………………………………………………..156

Fullan's Paradigm of Change……………………………………...………155
Lesson One……………………………………………………………...156

Lesson Two……158
Lesson Three……159
Lesson Four……160
Lesson Five……161
Lesson Six……163
Lesson Seven……164
Lesson Eight……166
Hope's Tenet of Teachers' Skill……167
Definition of Staff Development……167
Effect of Prior Beliefs and Experiences on Teachers' Learning……168
Respondents' Perceptions of Provided Staff Development……168
Roll of Collaboration in Staff Development……171
Acquisition of Teacher Skills and Change in Teacher Practice……174
Role of Administrative Support in Teacher Learning……178
Teachers' Views and Beliefs Regarding Administrative Support……178
Hope's Tenet of Motivation……180
Definition of Motivation……181
Role of Motivation in Participation in Service Learning……181
Hope's Tenet of Teacher Beliefs……188
Definition of Beliefs……188
Social Cognitive Theory……189
Respondents' Awareness of How Mandates Influence Self-Efficacy……189
Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs……190
Hope's Tenet of Teacher Commitment……197
Respondents' Commitment to Implementation……198
Constructivist Theory……201
Respondents' Views of Construction of Meaning……201
Transformational Learning……203
Summary……206

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY, RESEARCH, AND PRACTICE……208

Study Summary……209
Problem……209
Conclusions……210
Fullan's Lens of Learning……211
Hope's Tenets of Skill, Motivation, Beliefs, and Commitment……216
Skills……216
Motivation……218
Beliefs……220
Commitment……222
Social Cognitive Theory……222
Constructivist Theory……223
Implications for Research, Theory, and Practice……224

Research……………………………………………………………...225
Theory…………………………………………………………..…226
Practice………………………………………………………….…228
Commentary…………………………………………………….……229

CHAPTER I

Design of the Study

Tyack and Cuban (1995) contend that the purpose of public education is a kind of trusteeship, preserving the best of the past, thereby allowing wise choices to be made in the present and effective planning in the future. If we seek to create a better future, that future is to be created for all Americans and that future is to be realized not only through the educational processes in schools and universities but also through the communities that we build (Weah, Simmons, & Hall, 2000). Service is a necessary and foremost component of such community building (Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, & Geschwind, 2000), a part of providing students the best education possible (Sewall, 1997). Therefore, based on existing proof that what has been done in the past simply is not working for current students and is not to work in the future, educators redefine what they do (Glazer, 1992; Stephens, 1997).

Aristotle's contention that a vital mission of any democratic society is to prepare the next generation for citizenship has merged with the modern conviction that it is the duty of schools to provide links between schools, home, and community (Finn & Vanourek, 1995). Since the turn of the Twenty-first Century, educators in America have thought deeply about how to create citizens who willingly participate in their own

communities as well as on the national level (Billig, 2000). Ralph Tyler, an early leader in education, touted the incorporation of service into the curriculum (Hope, 1992).

A new phenomenon in education is service learning, a method of experiential education engaging students to process activities dealing with both human and community needs in a school environment specifically established to enhance student learning and development (Chaplin, 1998; Jacoby, 1996). The current thrust for service learning as an integral component of education may have had its origins in the 1980's, when educators and parents both began to voice concerns about the values children were reflecting (Baldauf, 1997). Contemporary political leaders began to echo the ideas of Dewey (1916) as they contended that an active citizenry is essential if performance is to be improved (Bush-Bacelis, 1998). Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA) and the Peace Corps, started in the 1960's, are government-sponsored volunteer programs. In 1989, President Bush presented his Thousand Points of Light idea regarding volunteer service at a meeting of governors in Virginia, and in 1990, he signed a bill that funded the National and Community Service Act that provides service learning for grades K-12 (Finn & Vanourek, 1995). State education agencies were provided funds through Learn and Serve America in 1993 when President Clinton signed into law the National and Community Service Trust Act (Miller & Neese, 1997). Contained within the 1994 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act were approximately twenty individual programs either encouraging or underwriting service learning (Finn & Vanourek, 1995). Hoping to provide a moral compass through calling for a return to volunteerism, community service was added as a graduation requirement by many school boards, with Maryland being the first (Baldauf, 1997). "In 1992, Maryland's board of

education made volunteer work a requirement for students before graduating from high school" (Finn & Vanourek, 1995). In 1998, the school system servicing military and civilians working for the government overseas, known as the Department of Defense Education Activities, became the second 'state' to require service learning as a graduation requirement" (DoDEA, 99). The city of Philadelphia has tied service learning to promotion and graduation requirements (Hornbeck, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

In today's world of education, nothing is ever static. Teachers are the ones responsible for, and the ones in the best position, to implement change (Hope, 1999). According to Fullan (1993), teachers must be at the center of change and must pursue the purpose of change. In short, educators have to believe in a change in order for it to take root (Hope, 1999; Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). If anything is to be remembered, "it is that you cannot make people change. You cannot force them to think differently or compel them to develop new skills" (Fullan, 1993, p. 23).

Ownership of the change required by an educational mandate, such as service learning, generally is not in the hands of those required in implementing the mandate (Fullan, 1993; Tenenbaum, 2000; Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). Teachers have no power; they have not been granted the respect and allocated practical responsibility to have a voice in determining what and how they will learn and act (Sarason, 1996; Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) during implementation. This situation causes frustration, fear, initial rejection, and resistance because if one is not amenable to taking

the journey into uncertainty necessary in implementation of a mandated change, nothing is changed (Fullan, 1993).

An explanation for the resolution of the need for teacher involvement in mandated change may best rely upon Fullan's (1993) explanation of the need for changes in learning that are reflected in changes in individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999). "Deep ownership comes through the learning that arises from full engagement in solving problems" (Fullan, 1993, p. 31). As problematic situations are resolved, those people involved begin to see the shape of the entity being created through their personal struggles, and once engaged, others also become activated through collaborating with fellow educators, thereby adding to the chain reaction—change (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). This is the fundamental situation upon which the change paradigm rests because, "Each and every teacher has the responsibility to help create an organization capable of individual and collective inquiry and continuous renewal, or it will not happen" (Fullan, 1991, p. 39).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate how individual teachers learn during the implementation of a mandated educational change. Using Fullan's (1991, 1993) change paradigm's lens of learning and Hope's (1999) tenets of skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, the research provided insight into how individual teachers' learning changed while implementing an educational mandate through the generation of answers to the following questions:

1. What and how do teachers learn during the implementation of an educational mandate?
2. In what ways does this learning reflect changes is skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment as defined by Hope (1999)?
3. What other realities are revealed about teacher learning and mandated change?
4. How useful is the lens of learning for understanding the phenomenon?

Theoretical Structure

"To become experts in the dynamics of change educators must become skilled change agents" (Fullan, 1993, p. 4) as reflected through the lens of learning in the theory of change. Teachers need to be motivated to implement mandated educational change (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). Pinder (1988) relates that motivation was "the set of internal and external forces that indicate work-related behavior, and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Ambrose, 1999, p. 1). Emmert and Taher (1992) find that fulfillment of intrinsic needs was one of the best predictors of attitudes. Therefore, it is the internal aspect of motivation that is crucial to the application of the change paradigm because Fullan (1993) contends that a new mindset about educational change is needed. "To change a culture requires more than new laws, it requires new insights" (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001, p. 241).

Commitment in teachers' belief systems is paramount to understanding how change occurs in teachers' learning during implementation. "Commitment is the

affirmation, choice, or decision made in one's career, values, politics, or personal relationship within the context of questioning as defined by relativism" (Lieberman & Miller, 1991, p. 48). The National Center for Education Statistics, a federal agency responsible for data collection, analysis, and distribution concerning education in the United States, conducted a study regarding commitment of teachers to their teaching careers (National Institute for Education Statistics, 1997). The study found that schools with high levels of faculty influence also had high teacher commitment (National Institute for Education Statistics, 1997), thus complementing the work of Sarason (1996) regarding the role of meaningful involvement in affecting change. Collaboration is not an individual process; it is shared (Fullan, 1993) and it "is exemplified when school staff members come together on a regular basis in their continuing attempts to be more effective teachers so that their students can become more successful learners" (Leonard & Leonard, 2001, p. 7). Gallego, Hollingsworth, and Whitenack (2001) argue that educators learn about themselves as they learn with others, emphasizing that it is through these critical relationships that opportunities for understanding and development of different perspectives are created, inferring that collaboration influences commitment.

When teachers engage in a behavior, they also interpret the outcomes, use this knowledge to develop beliefs about their involvement in similar situations, and behave according to the beliefs created (Pajares, 1996). "The potent evaluative nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted and subsequent behavior mediated" (Pajares, 1996, p. 1). Bandura (1986) considers the concept of *self-reflection* important in the development of beliefs because thinking and behavior change, and in so doing, result in *self-efficacy*, "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and

execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (Pajares, 1996, p. 1). Self-efficacy beliefs influence the level of motivation that is to be attributed, how much commitment is to be granted when confronting obstacles, and how knowledge is available to any given situation (Pajares, 1996).

Borko and Putnam (1995) contend that it is critical to expand and elaborate knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs because they are an important component of ongoing learning. Anderson (1984) reports that structure is the essence of knowledge. Knowledge directly influences teachers' thinking, and their thinking impacts upon their actions in the classroom, so for teachers to be able to change what they believe, they have to expand their knowledge systems (Borok & Putnam, 1995). One way to encourage changes in teachers' instructional practices is to provide adequate training prior to implementation and continued staff development during the course of implementation (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Guskey, 1997; Knapp, 1997) with opportunities for continual teacher collaboration embedded within the teachers' learning processes (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001).

Teachers, who are the primary agents of change (Fullan, 1993), have a profound influence on their students. We know that young people learn by observing adults, from whom they learn guiding beliefs (Krystal, 1999). Bandura and McDonald (1963) test the effect of adult modeling on moral behavior, finding that models alone are as effective in altering children's moral judgments as the experimental conditions combining modeling with social reinforcement (Fullan, 1999). Therefore, teachers, who are the leaders of service learning programs, who interact with administrators as well as with other teachers in workshops, and who deal with personnel at various community service learning sites,

must not feel isolated (Fullan, 1993; Goodlad, 1994; Tyack & Cuban, 1995, Sarason, 1996). According to Krystal (1999), in their new roles as facilitators while implementing service learning, teachers are no longer simply purveyors of knowledge who have to cajole students to work and to respond (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). They, in fact, implement Dewey's (1916) philosophy that intellectual study is not to be separated from practical study or from social problems confronting society because it is first-hand knowledge and visible commitment that carry the most profound messages to students (Sewell, 1991). Teachers are rapidly becoming the primary models of values, among which is found service (Goodlad, 1994).

Procedures

The explanatory case study method is "an ideal design for understanding and interpreting observations of educational phenomena" (Merriam, 1998, p. 2). Yin explains that the objective of a case study supplies "competing explanations for the same set of events and indicate how such explanations may apply to other situations" (Yin, 1984, p. 16). The qualitative research technique of case study methodology is employed to collect date concerning the factors that impact on changes in individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment.

Researcher

I am a country girl, a farmer's daughter who realized early that there was great satisfaction in caring for other living creatures. The practice of extending assistance was

constantly reinforced in my Catholic school education. As a student in the 1960's, I was exposed to the rhetoric of John F. Kennedy, the War on Poverty of Lyndon B. Johnson, and the equity prose of Martin Luther King, Jr. With such powerful mentors, I went to college to become a teacher because I believed that teachers are committed to the premise that it is their responsibility and duty to provide the best possible education for their students. After graduation, I became a Volunteer in the Service to America (VISTA), mainly because I felt the obligation to pay society back for being a recipient of substantial National Defense Loans that I did not have to repay.

Life-changing ideology was my summary of my experiences as a VISTA Volunteer. Not only did I satisfy my duty to "repay" my school debts, but I also acquired a universal philosophy that I could make a substantial difference in the lives of others beyond the realm of classroom education. After three years of working in rural Alabama, I packed my skills and very few belongings into two suitcases and one box as I headed out for a new life in Germany. There I worked in the Education Center in a special program in which I assisted members of the Armed Forces acquire a high school diploma. This job taught me not to take any sort of education for granted. It reinforced my childhood learning that of all of God's creatures possess needs.

Next, I was hired to pilot the newly adopted Minorities Studies course to be taught in Kaiserslautern Junior High School. It was through learning the course content that a serious void in my awareness of others' backgrounds and needs came into perspective. I felt that, having taught such a course from its inception, it was my responsibility to make such controversial content acceptable to parents of the 1970's. I had inspired countless students in their ability to soothe others in trouble, to understand

why people are different, and to tolerate differences in others. This teaching experience had ingrained within my framework a vision of service as it existed within an educational context and the community in which such learning took place.

In 1989 the Eastern Bloc rapidly lost its cement as national governments toppled. One such nation to undergo political change was Romania, "my" Romania. Since one could enter to assist the hundreds of thousands of orphans, I had been doing so. With my personal journeys over, I took a busload of students there each year, for it was now their time to work tirelessly in the name of others. It was now the students who wrote the petitions, organized the fundraisers, solicited and packed the donations, and kept the records. Therefore, I had come full circle. I started as the wee child, learning on my father's farm. I was now the teacher, mentoring other citizens of America living abroad as they searched and inquired, learned and believed, implemented and changed the forces within themselves. Hence, my research examines the changes that occur as service learning finds its place within the educational framework of a primary school in rural England.

Data Needs and Sources

Considering the research questions carefully, data needs were to find out what learning had taken place as teachers implemented an educational mandate. Given the problem, data needs also included a search for what factors relate to a change in individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment regarding a mandated educational change.

Data sources included teachers involved in a service-learning program. The selected teachers were those currently incorporating mandated service learning in the form of a community service project into their respective content areas as evidenced in their lesson plans. I chose to conduct my research in a British primary school because the education mandate of service learning was currently being implemented within the British school system; hence, the site was representative. Teachers were selected based upon their involvement in the service learning/community service program.

Data Collection

The long interview was employed to gather data because "it gives us the opportunity to step into the mind of another person, see and experience the world as they do themselves" (McCracken, 1988, p. 9). Through long interviews, teachers revealed many diverse realities, realities about themselves as people as well as educators (McCracken, 1988), thereby disclosing subtle change forces (Fullan, 1993).

Strategies for collecting data encompassed the use of participant interviews—which were taped and transcribed—along with classroom observations and teachers' artifacts. Through the interviews, issues concerning service learning implementation emerged from the participants. From these issues, patterns of change in individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment were identified. By conducting classroom observations, I was able to verify the issues identified through the interview process and from examining the teachers' artifacts and lesson plans for teaching service learning. I interviewed teachers currently involved in a service learning project at their

school. Observations of respondents during implementation took place in individual teacher classrooms, during implementation teacher planning time, and in a general meeting including the headmistress and the study's teacher respondents. Activities being provided to students were determined through directly observing respondents.

I examined teachers' artifacts to view the framework as well as the issues of skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment under study. Data from interviews and classroom observations were reviewed to determine teachers' perceptions on how implementation was affecting their learning—as well as change—and to extrapolate change forces occurring in the personal development of teachers.

Interview Questions

The interview questions for data collection were semi-structured (Merriam, 1998) in order to grant the interviewees freedom of ideological and expressive expansion. This open-ended format allowed for dialogue and interaction. A series of questions presented as Interview Protocol as Appendix A, guided the respondents to remember the past, analyze the present, and predict the future (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Fetterman, 1989), thereby releasing insight into what factors impacted change in the individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment to find information for these overriding questions:

1. Talk to me about implementing a mandated change, i.e. service learning.

   a). How and when did you learn about service learning?

   b). What have you learned about service learning?

2. How are you applying this learning? If necessary: Please comment on your skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment regarding the mandate.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the data was organized into theme-related categories and subcategories as suggested by Merriam (1998) due to the semi-structured nature of the research questions. The researcher constructed categories and subcategories based upon concepts and terms presented in the data.

Themes emerging from the data were compared with Fullan's (1993) lens of learning to determine any impact on individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) regarding an educational mandate. Combining the techniques of interviewing and observing produced comparisons of information that lent support to the study of change. In addition to enabling comparison to occur, the observation methodology extended the data gathering process by revealing influences cloaked in the personal interviews. The database was much expanded through a simultaneous analysis of the identified issues of skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999). Analysis granted comprehension of the factors that influenced teachers' willingness to embrace an educational mandate.

Significance of the Study

Education is basically accepted as a universal right of everyone in America; yet the disparity in quantity and quality across the nation was enough to have the government initiate top-down mandates incorporating service learning as an effort to raise student achievement (Billig, 2000; Hornbeck, 2000; Tenenbaum, 2000). Top-down, bottom-up mandates paid little heed to the basic conservative nature of public school education because, "You can't mandate what matters" (Fullan, 1993, p. 21).

Theory

Theoretically, this study will use the lens of learning in Fullan's (1993) theory of change to enhance existing theory regarding the impact change forces had on the individual teachers' belief systems regarding educational mandates. This theory provides a medium to investigate the dynamics of change, a medium which confirms that individual teachers' learning during implementation of an educational mandate provides effective changes within schools.

It is important to know how belief systems affected teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) because it is through alterations in belief systems of teachers, essential for personal learning (Fullan, 1993; Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitehead, 2001), that change for everybody in the classroom was obtained. Tyack and Cuban (1995) noted that there was a growing recognition among educators that schools cannot address children's cognitive needs in isolation from the different circumstances of their lives. Hence, "The teacher who works for the *status quo* is the traitor" (Fullan,

1993, p. 14) to students of today who will be their replacements in the future. If so, then change is not only inevitable (Fullan, 1993); it is imperative.

Research

This study makes a significant contribution to the research base by analyzing how individual teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) might change during the implementation of an educational mandate. It is important to know how teachers' belief systems affect their ability to change in today's dynamic educational arena (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitehack, 2001) since students are feeling more alienated from their teachers who teach them in the traditional manner of the past (Sarason, 1996). As the role of teachers has changed drastically in recent years from provider of knowledge to facilitator of learning, this research offers a current view of how change inspires and spearheads further change.

Practice

The findings from this study provide additional knowledge to practice (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) in the area of change that affected teachers' belief systems concerning skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) that impacted on the educational setting. By providing additional knowledge, practitioners better understand that, because teachers are in the business of making improvements, they need to have positive images for their driving forces (Fullan, 1993). By analyzing their

intentions, teachers are able to learn new patterns of practice, thereby enabling them a broader spectrum of possible choices (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) as they answer the simple question all teachers ask: "What difference am I trying to make personally" (Fullan, 1993, p. 13)?

Summary

This study presented the problem of educators having to learn in order for change to take place. The purpose of the study was to view how learning changes individual teachers' belief systems while impacting upon their skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) in implementing an educational mandate.

Reporting

Chapter II contains a review of literature related to the study. Chapter III encompasses the methodology for the study. Chapter IV presents the data. Chapter V analyses the data. Chapter VI includes the summary, conclusions, implications for research, theory, and practice, and commentary of the study.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

> "Reforms convey certain values and world views. They communicate a vision of what it means to learn, and what it means to be educated; they communicate a vision of schools and teaching, of students and teachers. They are to greater or lesser degrees compatible with the organizational structures and cultures in which persons work. In these crucial ways, powerful reform ideas engage teachers in a broader consideration of the educational enterprise both in and beyond the classroom" (Little, 1994, p. 1).

This chapter provides literature reviews concerning the nature of learning, change in relationship to educational mandates, and changes in practice that impact upon teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) while implementing educational mandates. Service learning, the focus of a mandated educational change, begins the review and is followed by an informed awareness of the nature of learning. Next, Fullan's lens of learning (1991, 1993) provides the pivotal framework in understanding the components of change as applied to teacher learning. Bandura's concept of self-efficacy provides a link between change theory and change in teacher practice as defined by Hope's (1999) tenets of skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment

as teachers infuse the construct of making personal meaning. Therefore, the chapter also presents literature reviews concerning teacher skill development, teacher motivation, teacher beliefs, and teacher commitment.

Service Learning

Call it what you prefer—volunteerism, community service, or service learning; it is not a novel concept (Tang & Weatherford, 1998). Yet the increasing appeal of service learning appears to have arisen from the meeting of familiar beliefs. Dewey (1916) believed in showing respect and in listening to and giving attention to each other; in creative thinking; in devising creative courses of action to solve shared problems; in following through by putting into action creative solutions. Organ (1988) discusses the importance of participating in institutional citizenship and assisting others, concluding that such actions not only foster increased efficiency and improved effectiveness in schools but also extend to society as well.

Since the turn of the Twenty-first Century, educators in America have thought deeply about how to create citizens who will willingly participate in their own areas as well as on the national level (Sandler & Vandegrift, 1993). "A 1916 American Political Science Association committee, for example, urges schools to have elementary-age children cooperate with civic organizations on projects such as sprucing up empty lots" (Stealthier, 1999, p. 1). So this idea from the past has blended with the modern notion that "by learning that they can make a difference in the lives of others, students discover their power to control their own lives" (Kennedy, 1991, p. 772). Service learning is

important for students, and in good institutions it is not a new phenomenon (Moore, 1994).

The current thrust for service learning as an integral component of education may have its roots in the hard-driving 1980's, when educators and parents both began to voice concerns about the values the children were reflecting (Baldauf, 1997). In 1989, President Bush presented his Thousand Points of Light idea regarding volunteer service at a governors' meeting in Virginia, and in 1990, he signed a bill that funded the National and Community Service Act for providing service learning for grades K-12. State education agencies were provided funds through Learn and Serve America in 1993, when President Clinton signed into law the National and Community Service Trust Act (Miller & Neese, 1997). Boyer (1987a) recommended and provided a structure for adding the requirement of a new Carnegie unit for service learning, thereby recognizing student benefits of service learning. By increasing the national high school graduation requirements, Boyer (1987a) commented that "such a service program would tap an enormous source of talent, let young people know they are needed, and help students see a connection between what they learn and how they live" (p. 45). Hoping to provide a moral compass through calling for a return to volunteerism, community service was added as a required subject by many school boards (Baldauf, 1997).

Kohn (1991) analyzes the function of schools in creating good people, caring people, finding that student-to-student interaction is rarely integrated within the school curriculum and that "students are graduated who think that being smart means looking out for number one" (p. 498). He further stresses that schools should be assisting students to view themselves as responsible and caring individuals and that "helpfulness

and responsibility ought not to be taught in a vacuum but in the context of a community of people" (Kohn, 1991, p. 501). Adding substantial support to Kohn's premises, Romano and Georgiady (1994) point out the abject need for middle schools to participate in service learning by promoting students' social skills, skills that would lead to development of greater self-responsibility based on their maturity levels. The need for students to learn to work with others for a common goal that is above and beyond one's own interests is suggested by Allen, Splittgerber, and Manning (1990). Firmly believing in a strong middle school philosophy, one that stresses both academic as well as affective development, Johnson & Notah (1999) corroborate Clark & Clark's (1994) contention that "an integral part of the responsive middle level school and its efforts to create successful learning experiences for all of its students" (p. 169) is embedded within service learning programs.

Definition of Service Learning

For service learning to achieve its greatest potential as an instructional component of the curriculum, a common definition must be adopted. Service learning, usually including a community service component, is a structured learning process (DoDEA Service Learning Manual). The Alliance for Service Leaning in Education Reform (1993) defines service learning as an instructional strategy:

- by which young people learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet the actual community needs and that are coordinated in collaboration with the school and community;

- that is integrated into the young person's academic curriculum or provides structured time for a young person to think, talk, or write about what he/she did and saw during the actual service activity;
- that provides young people with opportunities to use newly acquired academic skills and knowledge in real-life situations in their own communities; and
- that enhances what is taught in school by extending student learning beyond the classroom and into the community and helps foster the development of a sense of caring for others. (p. 71)

Unlike mandated community service that centers around the use of community service by the judicial system for random acts of vandalism or drunk-driving and often perceived as punishment for criminal activity, Burns (1998) suggests service learning's framework provides strategies that are linked to the adopted curriculum.

Rational for Service Learning

John Dewey (1938) is recognized by advocates of service learning (Boyer, 1983; 1987b; Johnson & Notah, 1999) for developing the concept of experiential learning. It is first-hand knowledge and visible commitment that carry the most profound messages to students (Sewell, 1997, p. 2). The commitment to service is encompassed in the scholarship of application as discussed by Ernest Boyer (1990) in Scholarship Revisited: Priorities of the Professoriate. However, Boyer (1995) does not limit the scope of application to universities because in another volume, The Basic School: A Community of Learners (1995), he stipulates that character may be developed through service

learning, urging that service be thoroughly integrated throughout every single portion of the school curricula.

We know that young people learn by observing adults, from whom they learn values and beliefs (Krystal, 1999). Bandura and McDonald (1963) tested the effect of adult modeling on moral behavior, finding that models alone were as effective in altering children's moral judgments as the experimental conditions combining role models with social reinforcement. Therefore, teachers, who have such a profound influence on their students, who are the leaders of service learning programs, who must interact with administrators as well as with other teachers in workshops, and who must deal with personnel at the various service learning sites, must not feel isolated (Darling-Hammond, 1998). They, like the students that they teach, must be connected to their communities (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994).

The nurturing component of service learning also infects teachers because "in their new roles as facilitators, teachers are no longer simply the purveyors of knowledge who have to cajole students to work and to respond" (Krystal, 1999, p. 3). The most dramatic way teachers' spirits are uplifted is in their personal change of attitude—toward many of their students and toward teaching per se (Krystal, 1999). Service learning, with its built-in structure for preparation, action, reflection, and demonstration/recognition, provides a solid foundation for teachers to plan and to implement instructional service learning activities or projects (Burns, 1998).

Early Acceptance of Service Learning

Eric Hoffer (1992) addressed the issue of preparation for the future by suggesting that learners inherit the earth while those considered learned find themselves excellently prepared for a world that no longer exists. In 1985, Maryland, in the vanguard of the trend for service learning, "mandated that all school systems offer elective courses and programs involving volunteer work and community service. Today an elaborate service infrastructure is in place throughout the state" (Finn & Vanourek, 1995, p. 48). While many high schools encourage community service work, mandatory volunteerism is rapidly becoming the norm as service learning programs spread across the land. "According to a 1994 survey, 37 percent of US high schools are either operating or planning programs in which students are required to perform a specific number of hours of community service in order to graduate" (Finn & Vanourek, 1995, p. 46). One powerful instrument for increasing school participation in service learning has been the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1994), the distributor for the majority of federal school monies because by the end of 2000, all schools must offer service learning. The fact that Southern University took a futuristic approach in 1990 by making service learning an integral component of its academic program is unique in higher education (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994). By 1992, the university had created the Center for Service Learning, a beacon guiding the development of the various service learning projects designed to assist the surrounding communities.

Opposition to Service Learning

Mandated volunteerism? “If you’re thinking 'oxymoron’, you’re not alone. Parents have derided the Orwellian netspeak of forced community service being labeled as ‘volunteer’ work and have fought such programs in the courts. High school students faced with the task of juggling studies, sports, extra-curricular activities, and work have complained that the programs violate labor and minimum-wage laws” (Flynn, 1997, p. 12). Can school districts legally require high school students to perform volunteer work? Three federal appellate courts—one in New York, one in Pennsylvania, and one in North Carolina—have answered yes when “students and their parents sued school districts, arguing that mandatory community service requirements violate individual rights under the Constitution” (Simpson, 1997, p. 22). At issue in Pennsylvania was a school board policy requiring high school students not only to perform sixty hours of community service between ninth and twelfth grades but that they also prepare a report in which they describe and evaluate their service experience. Several parents and their children “asked a federal court to declare the program unconstitutional and stop its enforcement as the plaintiffs claimed that the policy violated the Thirteenth Amendment’s prohibition against slavery and involuntary servitude” (Simpson, 1997, p. 22).

All courts that heard these arguments have rejected them; courts support service-learning programs, ruling that students, even though mandated to serve, choose their projects (Hirsch, 1996). The courts ruled that mandated volunteerism through service learning does not approach anything like the degradation, the abject horror, and the total inhumanity of slavery; therefore, “service learning, with its requirement for community service, does not violate the Thirteenth Amendment” (Hirsch, 1996, p. 50).

Mandatory volunteerism has become the latest education reform in public schools. Parents in a New York case argued "that the requirement of 40 hours of community service violate their fundamental parental right to direct the upbringing and education of their children" (Simpson, 1997, p. 23). The Second Circuit Court of Appeals ruled that, "Parental rights are not fundamental rights under the Constitution; that it is entirely proper for public schools to teach values, to inculcate in students the values and habits of good citizenship, including the value of volunteer work" (Simpson, 1997, p. 23).

The Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals, agreeing with the Second and Third Circuits, upheld a North Carolina school district's community service requirement; the United States Supreme Court refused to review any such cases regarding the legality of mandated, school-wide service learning programs (Cloud, 1997). Therefore, mandatory service learning was enforceable.

Implementation Issues

A review of the literature also identified problems other than legal challenges to effective, successful service learning programs. "Barriers are both practical and perceptual: practical in that appropriate resources and training may be unavailable, and perceptual in that some people doubt the value of such programs" (Burns, 1998, p. 40). Practical barriers for service learning arose when appropriate resources may have been unavailable, when community agencies were unwilling to assist the schools, and when students needed to work to help sustain their families (Burns, 1998). Cloud (1997)

expressed concern about Chicago's move toward required service learning raising a new set of complications. " Can struggling urban schools afford to build good community service programs—ones that count hours, find worthwhile volunteering opportunities, and make sure the students aren't toiling at filing cabinets" (Cloud, 1997, p.76)?

Service learning provides the possibility of ensuring purposive, rational action and communicative interaction for students in "inner-city schools, where students are asked to shove aside family duties and needed jobs" (Cloud, 1997, p.76). Also, according to Ogbu (1981), patterns of school failure cannot be properly understood without focusing on the relationship of groups to the wider social structure and the history of oppression of such groups. Ogbu (1981) endorsed a "multilevel approach that looks not only at the process of classroom interaction, but also at the role of the family, the neighborhood, and the political-economic system" (p. 111). Service learning coordinators for inner-city schools had to deal with all phases of their students' environments in order to establish a viable, educational, equitable, service-oriented experience (Cloud, 1997). Through service learning, with its emphasis on self-esteem, students in sprawling urban schools will hopefully glean a high level of satisfaction through helping others in their seemingly helpless communities (Cloud, 1997). Participation in service learning, if successful, might alter the destiny of many underprivileged students (Ogbu, 1981).

As with any mandated educational reform of any significant impact on beliefs and practices of teachers', a primary implementation issue will be teacher training (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Such radical reform must provide staff development that not only illuminated those factors responsible for increasing the transfer of learning (Slavin, 1997)

but also an informed awareness of those environmental factors proven to either encourage or prevent changes in teachers' classroom practices (Guskey, 1997; Knapp; 1997). "Teachers are more likely to carry on with new practices if they see positive results in their students. New practices are likely to be abandoned (or not attempted at all) in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects on student learning" (Helsel-DeWert & Cory, 1998, p. 2). Staff development, according to Sparks (1994), was deemed successful only if changes in teachers' instructional practices benefited students. One way to encourage changes in teachers' instructional practices was to provide adequate training prior to implementation and continual staff development during the course of implementation (Guskey, 1997; Knapp, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998).

Another practical pitfall to effective service learning did not involve funding directly; however, indirectly, inadequate consideration of any one of the four components—preparation, action, reflection, and demonstration/recognition—caused serious confusion, maybe even chaos, in the implementation process of service learning (Cloud, 1997). Without developing each of these components, the goals of service learning were not attained (Jacoby & Associates, 1996) so financially strapped school systems needed to consider these criteria carefully and realized that there were grants and much federal money available (Cloud, 1997). "The notion of educating our youth about the needs of the community is a principle that receives lip service, but this provides a mechanism for bringing our kids and our community together" (St. Louis Business Journal, 1997, p. 42A).

Perceptual barriers to effective service learning were difficult to overcome because they revolved around personal prejudices and opinions. Jacoby and Associates

(1996) and Flynn (1997) stated emphatically that those implementing service learning programs totally refrain from exerting influence for their personal political party and/or individual political ideology.

Perceptions of Service Learning

Perceptions of what constitutes excellence in education varied widely. "Perhaps more troublesome is the dumbing-down effect (service learning) has on students. The more classroom time students spend on housing and feeding the homeless, cleaning littered streets, and performing acts of social justice means less time for American history, calculus, Shakespeare, and any other topic that will enrich the lives of students and create productive members of society" (Flynn, 1997, p. 13). "Most troubling of all…is that our schools, which are performing so poorly in their core mission of transmitting basic skills and essential knowledge, are now diverting time, energy, and money to nonacademic matters. Schools that can barely teach the fundamental skills and information needed by every citizen are now being used by government and adult activists to shape students' attitudes and assumptions about citizenship itself" (Finn & Vanourek, 1997, p. 48).

Refuting this position, Baldauf (1997) reported that instead of detracting from skills learned in the basic school curriculum, service learning actually extended them because "sometimes the best learning takes place outside of the classroom dealing with real problems" (p.12). Having students perform community service helped them apply lessons learned in the classroom (Boyer, 1987b, 1993). Citing a number of studies,

Shalaway (1991) showed that students who work at community service projects displayed increased respect for adults and felt comfortable working with them, thereby facilitating learning.

Institutions of higher education perceived service learning as an integral component of their students' formal education. Tulsa Technology Center's 1,000 students volunteered their time to activities that ranged from adopting elementary school classes to collecting food and money for the needy (Swekosk, 1998). Drury College students tutored at high schools, worked at a residential treatment program for troubled adolescents, and volunteered in community programs like Head Start, programs beneficial to the community and to those receiving the help (Moore, 1994). The Southern University System became the first public institution in the state of Louisiana requiring its students to have 60 hours of community service for a graduation requirement (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994). These institutions perceived service learning as a method by which young people learned and developed through active participation in thoughtfully organized experiences led by qualified adults (Boyer, 1983; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). They not only perceived service learning as bringing young people into their communities to make positive changes (Boyer, 1990, 1995), but also as a bridge that helped them connect school knowledge to the real-life which exists outside the school itself (Jacoby & Associates, 1996). Most importantly, they perceived that service learning enabled "the development of self-esteem, the cornerstone for ego development, which translates into good mental health and a productive life" (Krystal, 1999, p. 58). Maslow's higher order needs may be satisfied when students help others (Porter, 1961;

Tang & West, 1997; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). Extending this perception, Tang and Weatherford (1998) provided insight into how a person's social, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs were met through assisting others. Furthermore, Lott, Michelmore, Sullivan-Cosetti, & Wister (1997) perceived that service learning made good, average, and not-so-average students more equal contributors to class discussions because if "they are more actively involved in generating the content of the course, service learning participants become more engaged learners so their knowledge becomes important to others" (p. 40).

Service learning is a method by which young people learned and developed through active participation in thoughtfully organized experiences led by qualified adults (Boyer, 1990, 1995; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Krystal, 1999). Perceiving that service learning brought young people into their communities to make positive changes and helped them to connect school knowledge to the real-life which exists outside the school itself, Krystal (1999), Vice-President of National Helpers Network, Inc., prepared middle school students to tutor at local grammar schools. In concluding the year's program, she asked the students what they got from their experiences. "I got respect" and "I got a good feeling that I was able to teach the children some reading strategies" and "I felt important"—but most revealing was "My teacher saw a part of me she never saw before"—exploded from the students (Krystal, 1999, p. 59). Each participant's response reflected growth, embodied self-confidence, and portrayed a level of self-esteem not to be denied as truly powerful; each individual's response was positively productive in

substantiating the citizenship goal in any school's mission statement (Boyer, 1995; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Krystal, 1999).

Service learning provided positive experiences that contribute to student academic achievement and also served "to foster civic responsibility, solve social problems, and give students a greater sensitivity for the needs of humanity" (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994, p. 98). Therefore, those aspiring for successful service learning implementation need to be aware of the nature of learning as it applies to adults (Knowles, 1973, 1984) because teachers are ultimately responsible for changing their practice (Fullan, 1993) as they provide service learning opportunities to students.

The Nature of Learning

The concept of adults as learners can convey various meanings to different people. Knowles (1973, 1984), the first to attempt a comprehensive theory of adult education, used the term andragogy, the art and science of helping adults learn, to explain his theory of adult learning that is based on the following main assumptions (Knowles, 1989):

> "Adults need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it; have a self-concept of being responsible for their own lives; come into an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from youths; become ready to learn those things they need to know; are life centered (or task centered or problem centered) in their orientation to

learning; and are responsive to some extrinsic motivation…the more potent motivators are intrinsic motivators" (p. 83-84).

Imel (1989) found that those responsible for teaching adults should use a teaching style different from those used with pre-adults. Beder and Darkenwald (1982) support this stance stating that, "Informed professional opinion, philosophical assumptions associated with humanistic psychology and progressive education, and a growing body of research and theory on adult learning, development, and socialization" (p. 143). Teachers of adults have to view that there are differences in how adults learn (Fidishum, 2000).

Since educational reform's primary focus is seeking to improve student outcomes via strengthening teacher instruction (Finley, 2002), it follows that effective staff development encompasses the nature of adult learners and their respective needs when providing learning opportunities (Butler, 2001). Complementing this premise, Smith (1982) offered six conditions essential for learning, conditions under which adults learn best:

- They feel the need to learn and have input into what, why, and how they will learn.
- Learning's content and processes bear a perceived and meaningful relationship to past experience, and experience is effectively utilized as a resource for learning.
- What is to be learned relates optimally to the individual's developmental changes and life tasks.
- The amount of autonomy exercised by the learner is congruent with that required by the mode of method utilized.

- They learn in a climate that minimizes anxiety and encourages freedom to experiment.
- Their learning styles are taken into account. (p. 47-49)

As adult learners came to grips with reform, teachers were challenged to learn new theory, methodology, and policy (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Boyer, 1990, 1995; Finley, 2002), using their special needs and strengths to increase the level of learning taking place (Butler, 2002).

Reformers now were aware of the severe consequences of neglecting teacher learning (Finley, 2002). If everyone benefited from learning (Richardson, 2000), and if "ultimately educational change depends on what teachers do and think" (Fullan, 2001, p. 117), nothing mattered more, according to Sweeney (2000), than teachers' skill because children benefited from having teachers who were well trained (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Fazio, Levine, & Merry, 2000). Teachers were able adult learners; therefore, Butler's (2001) descriptors of adult learners were applicable in that:

- Adults learn throughout their lives.
- Adults exhibit a variety of learning styles
- Adults learn best when new learning is demonstrably tied to or built upon past experiences
- Adult learners' stages of development profoundly affect their learning.
- Adults are motivated to learn by changes in their situations and learn best when new learning applies in practical ways and/or is relevant to the changes in their situations.
- Adult learners, consciously and unconsciously, control what is learned.

- Adults tend to be problem-centered rather than subject-centered learners and learn best through practical applications of what they have learned.
- Adult learners must be treated as adults and respected as self-directed persons.
- Adults learn best in non-threatening environments of trust and mutual respect.
- The optimum role of the adult learner in the learning situation is that of a self-directed, self-motivated manager of personal learning who collaborates as an active participant in the learning process and takes responsibility for learning.
- New learning is followed by a period of reflection to facilitate integration and application of new knowledge and skills.
- Continued learning depends on achieving satisfaction, especially in the sense of making progress toward learning goals that reflect the learner's own goals. (p. 3)

"Professional development that links theory and practice, that creates discourse around problems of practice, that is content-based and student-centered, and that engages teachers in analysis of teaching can support the serious teacher learning needed to engender powerful student achievement" (Darling-Hammond Bell, 1998, p. 29). As a concept, learning permits many definitions, one of which contends that learning is situational (Smith, 1982) in that:

- When learning refers to a product, the emphasis is on the outcome of an experience: the acquisition of a particular set of skills or knowledge.
- When learning describes a process, the emphasis is on what happens when a learning experience takes place: how learners seek to meet needs and reach goals.

- When learning describes a function, the emphasis is on aspects believed to help produce learning: how learners are motivated, what brings about change. (p. 34-35)

Understanding this conception of learning generated an appreciation for effective staff development because it served as an instrument for learning (Butler, 2001) since it was an "active process of transmitting new knowledge, values, and skills into behavior" (Smith, 1982, p. 45). Fullan (1991, 1993) stressed the urgency of understanding that learning necessitates some degree of change because it was through altering teacher practice that productive changes in student achievement occurred.

Change

Varying significantly from one site to another, the change process does not have a certain methodology to apply to guarantee success, and yet there appear to be some very essential understandings that relate to success. A systemic approach to change and teachers' empowerment, resulting in heightened self-efficacy, all assisted by the emergence of a change culture within the school (Summary Review of Literature, 1996), was a good beginning.

Change was a process, not an event (Hall & Loucks, 1977; Fullan & Park, 1981; Fullan, 1991, 1993), involving restructuring of teacher practice, aimed at increasing student achievement (Fullan, 1991, 1993, 1998). For teachers it meant re-examining the processes associated with learning (Guskey, 1997; Knapp, 1997; Slavin, 1997; Darling-

Hammond, 1998). Change was a demanding, exhausting, and time-consuming proposition (Huberman, 1992). Darling-Hammond (1990) contended that:

> "…the process of change is slow and difficult. It requires perseverance, and it requires investments in those things that allow teachers, as change-agents, to grapple with the transformations of ideas and behavior, time for learning about, looking at, discussing, struggling with, trying out, constructing, and reconstructing new ways of thinking and teaching" (p. 240).

Fullan (1992) supported Darling-Hammond's (1990) view by contending that new understandings, for most people, occurred only after they had delved into something. "In many cases, changes in behavior precede rather than follow changes in belief" (Fullan, 1991, p. 25). Central to the success of the change process, Fullan (1991) offered that for "all substantial beliefs, rationales, or philosophies…those involved will have to come to understand and believe the new assumptions and ideas that underlie that reform" (p. 2).

Fullan (1991b) emphasized that change in practice is crucial for educational reform to occur. Viewing reform as multidimensional, Fullan (1991b) explained three elements to consider when implementing innovations: "the possible use of new or revised materials; the possible use of new teaching strategies; and the possible change beliefs" (p. 38). Each dimension must be accessed if desired outcomes were to be achieved because "real change involves changes in conceptions and role behavior" (Fullan, 1991b, p. 38), thereby corroborating the earlier work of Joyce and Showers (1988). Fullan (1991b) continued his line of reasoning with the notion that alterations in practice omitting changes on these dimensions were insignificant. Guskey (1997), Knapp (1997), and Slavin (1997) all attested to Fullan's theory regarding change in teacher practice.

Understanding the nature of Fullan's (1991b) three dimensions of change increased the likelihood that the process of change occurs. First, if a change involved new or revised materials, then teachers used the tangible items such as updated computer software or curriculum adoptions. Secondly, in so doing, dimension two involved different skills, practices, and implementation strategies to include pedagogical style (Guskey, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998). The significant element of this dimension, according to Fullan (1991b), was the realization that skill acquisition took time, thus clarifying the importance of continuous staff development (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1998). "The only ones who can make the fundamental changes necessary to increase their effectiveness are the teachers themselves, but they need both the support and encouragement of enlightened professional development programs" (Yero, 2002, p. 4). Thirdly, Fullan (1991b) continued, the internalization of the purpose and the reasons for a change were the key to a successful reform because, in terms of the definition, the main problem of change was that it was a process of re-doing and re-thinking. Because change was a learning process (Watts, 2003), "The key to being an outstanding teacher lies in the mind—in the largely unconscious thought process that motivate and support a teacher's external behaviors. Reformers expend tremendous amounts of time and resources with only marginal returns because they don't reach to the core of teacher quality—the minds of individual teachers" (Yero, 2002, p. 2).

It is important for education to develop a change capacity because there is a moral purpose in education (Fullan, 1991; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). According to Fullan (1993), "The moral purpose is to make a difference in the lives of students, regardless of

background, and to help produce citizens who can live and work productively in increasingly dynamically complex societies" (p. 4). Venturing in "search for understanding, knowing there is no ultimate answer" (Senge, 1990, p. 282), Fullan (1993) presented a new paradigm of dynamic change, consisting of eight basic lessons.

In Lesson One, drawing upon the findings of McLaughlin (1990) that skills, commitment, and creative thinking were what matter for complex goals of change, Fullan (1993) posited that, "You can't mandate what matters…because almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behavior, and beliefs of understanding" (p. 22). Hope (1999) supported Fullan's (1993) contention that productive changes required skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment. "If there is one cardinal rule of change in human condition, it is that you cannot make people change" (Fullan, 1993, p. 23).

Lesson Two of the change paradigm stated that, "Change is a journey, not a blueprint…because you don't know what is going to matter until you are into the journey" (Fullan, 1993, p. 24). Change, as a process, produced uncertainty coupled with anxiety and fear, and led eventually to learning to handle difficulties, and stressed the need for a risk-taking atmosphere (Fullan, 1993).

Considering "problems are our friends" (Fullan, 1993, p. 25) was Fullan's way of explaining the weave connecting inquiry to conflict. Lesson Three stipulated that creative solutions were the result of extensive inquiry, focused on resolving conflict, bringing deeper change (p. 26). "We need to value the *process* of finding the solution—juggling the inconsistencies that meaningful solutions entail" (Fullan, 1993, p. 28).

To achieve the "I can see clearly now" (p. 28) status in the change process, Fullan (1993) expressed the view that, "Vision and strategic planning come later…because

premature visions and planning can blind" (p. 28). Lesson Four emphasized that, due to the necessity of vast reflective experience, "Vision emerges from, more than it precedes, action" (Fullan, 1993, p. 28). Integral to successful change, via the evolution of active participation among leaders and staff was the creation of a *shared* vision (Fullan, 1993), a vision "vital for the learning organization because it provides the focus and energy for learning" (Senge, 1990, p. 206). A shared vision cannot be preconceived because "Ownership cannot be achieved in *advance* of learning something new since deep ownership comes through the learning that arises from full engagement in solving problems" (Fullan, 1993, p. 31). Hence, the cornerstones of shared vision were moral purpose, inquiry, mastery, and collaboration (Fullan, 1993), all of which were change skills.

Lortie's (1975) interest in teacher isolation and its effects on students, teachers, and the learning organization concluded that resistance to reform was reflected in the conservative atmosphere isolation fosters in the educational setting. Isolation inhibited complex change, then, because the process required numerous "people working insightfully on the solution and committing themselves to concentrated action together" (Fullan, 1993, p. 34). Rosenholtz (1989), supported later by Fullan and Hargreaves (1991), contended that, through collaboration, schools resolved problems more effectively than conservative schools steeped in isolation. However, a potential side-effect of excessively pursued collaboration constitutes what CXRM Films (1991) called group think, a situation in which the lone dissent is squelched, unbridled acceptance of any resolution desired, and total group conformity became the norm. Fullan (1993) elaborated on the notion of 'group think', stressing that those who collaborate too tightly

miss both learning opportunities and danger signals. "The freshest ideas often come from diversity and those marginal to the group" (Fullan, 1993, p. 35). Lesson Five postulated that, "Individualism and collectivism must have equal power…" (Fullan, 1993, p. 33)…"because you can't have organizational learning without individual leaning, and you can't have learning in groups without processing conflict" (Fullan, 1993, p. 36).

Senge (1990) offered a framework for Fullan's (1993) understanding of why, in the change process, "Neither centralization nor decentralization works…because both top-down and bottom-up strategies are necessary" (p. 37). In conjunction with Fullan's (1993) paradigm of change's Lesson Six, Senge (1990) enriched our understanding of achieving uncontrolled control, stating that:

> "While traditional organization requires management systems and team learning, and the ability to develop shared visions that control people's behavior, learning organizations invest in improving the quality of thinking, the capacity for reflection and shared understanding of complex business issues. It is these capabilities that will allow learning organizations to be both more locally controlled and more well coordinated than their hierarchical predecessors" (p. 287).

According to Fullan (1993), there must be a simultaneous influence between top-down and bottom-up frameworks within any learning situation for change to occur.

"The best organizations learn externally as well as internally because connection with the wider environment is critical" (Fullan, 1993, p. 38) formed Lesson Seven in the change paradigm. Here Fullan (1993) reinforced the connection of individual moral purpose to a larger social good in which all students of a school benefited from changes

in the learning environment. Also important to this concept was Fullan's (1993) belief that awareness of environmental expectations and tensions gave learning organizations insight into upcoming community needs. Lesson Seven's basis of helping others to see a worldly connection "is a moral purpose and teaching learning opportunity of the highest order" (Fullan, 1993, p. 39).

Connecting his change paradigm to moral purpose, Fullan (1993) highlighted his contention that every single teacher held the responsibility of actively producing a learning environment that was accepting of individual as well as collective inquiry and constant rejuvenation. This was so because "every person is a change agent since change is too important to leave to the experts" (Fullan, 1993, p 39). Deep change, lasting change, resulted when individual teachers exerted their sense of agency as they sought school improvements supporting their active and reflective planning and practice as their learning changed (Frost, 2000). Fullan (1998) reiterated the importance of the roles of individual teachers as agents of change, linking them with any impending reform, with the school, and with the community to extend their capacity to work as change agents as expressed in Lesson Eight to complete his paradigm of change.

Resistance to Change

Fullan (1991b) postulated that embedded in change, a sense of uncertainty shrouded those personal experiences needed to occur if professional growth were the result of reform. Removing this veil of ambivalence enabled mastery of whatever was required for a successful innovation, yet this was a difficult task (Sarason, 1990). The

polarities between desiring certain reforms and actually laying the foundations for them to occur were vastly different (Valencia & Killion, 1988). A potent barrier to change was resistance, a fearful response to change (Marshak, 1996), commonly occurring as a response to forms of change likely to produce personal impact (Friend and Cook, 1996). Even though the origins of resistance may not be clear, Karp (1984) and Fullan (1993) contended that resistance to change is natural, normal, and ever present. Subduing resistance requires that those charged with conducting teacher education and staff development identify, comprehend, and curtail resistance before it emerges as an impediment to the change process (Fullan, 1993; Gutskey, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998; Jonas, 1998). Hartzell (2003) summarized reasons why people, especially teachers, resisted change:

- A teacher's role in the classroom is based on childhood experiences in school. These conceptions form a teacher's world, one that is defended against onslaughts of fleeting changes foreign to one's personal comfort zone.
- As learners, teachers are predisposed to particular styles of learning which emerge into preferred teaching styles. Habitual in nature, teachers resist change as it creates dynamic tension (Fullan, 1993) that makes the educational setting far less predictable.
- Teaching is a conservative profession (Fullan, 1993), and as such, teachers feel threatened because of a lack of belief in their skills to proceed successfully. It is easier to remain stable than to change.

- Territoriality in isolation traditionally permitted educational domains to become havens for teachers, especially those in need of a sense of control. Change involving sharing and collaborating directly affect the need to feel in control.
- Change in content and/or best practices can relegate a teacher to the status of "not knowing," a stage significantly below their present position as "knowledge source." Hence, teachers resist voluntarily lowering their own professional standing.
- Work provides individuals with opportunities to secure "achievement, autonomy, status, recognition, and respect". If teachers have these needs met, why disturb the equilibrium by changing the environment if these needs will be affected adversely?
- Teachers often have unsettling experiences with colleagues at work. Because of this, they resist change based on "who else is involved." Teachers resist changes that force them to work with colleagues neither valued nor respected. (p. 1)

Because change can appear to be threatening, can cause great anxiety, and can produce immense work, convincing people to change was a very difficult pursuit indeed. Gutskey (1997), Slavin (1997), and Darling-Hammond (1998) contended that the time intensive process of change necessitated personal commitment as well as exterior support. Fullan and Miles (1991) explained change as "a process of coming to grips with new personal meaning…a learning process. It requires the participants to alter their purposes, develop commitment to new ways, to unlearn old beliefs and behaviors" (p. 10). The change process also enhanced the construction of new learning (Thompson, 2001).

Change and the Nature of Reform

Reform equates to personal change in what people think, know, do, and how they do it (Fullan, 1991, 1993). Reform is not easy; it is hard work and can be painful, according to Mizell (1997), who also added that staff development appeared to be a rare, positive technique to illicit change in teachers' thinking, knowledge, and actions. "Staff development is important because it can help educators prepare themselves, and enlist the support of their colleagues to change what they think, what they do, and how they do it to benefit the education of students" (Mizell, 1997, p. 2).

As teachers rethought their vocation by devising new classroom procedures designed to increase student achievement, they constructed different as well as unfamiliar teaching methodologies (Nelson & Mammerman, 1996). At the same time, teachers learned the new skills needed for reform as they simultaneously unlearned beliefs and practices used throughout their teaching career (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Yet, as staff development's umbrella unfolded, it not only protected acquiring new information and techniques for usage, but it also covered teachers' reflection on their practice as well as the formation of new beliefs about teaching (Nelson, Hammerman, & Prawat, 1992). Staff development must, according to Dilworth and Inigl (1995), expand as well as support the continuous acquisition and integration of new knowledge, skills, and learning in teaching environments if reform, resulting in change, is to succeed (Darling-Hammond &McLaughlin, 1995: Gutsky, 1997; Slavin, 1997; Helsel-DeWert & Cory, 1998).

Lieberman and Miller (1990) offered that the knowledge and commitment of teachers, combined with the development of a collaborative work setting and the staff development for teachers (Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998), were necessary to the realization of educational reform. Such reform was becoming more focused on improving teacher instruction to increase student learning. The teacher was presumed to be "the last link in the chain of influence from policy to learning event…as well as a target of policy" (Knapp, 1997, p. 233). Policy reform, Knapp (1997) continued, did not result in initiating or supporting mechanisms necessary for long-term teacher learning. Cohen (1995) reported that policy coherence did not equate to coherence in teachers' practice because, according to Cohen and Ball (1999), conditions were rarely adequate for teachers to learn the content, skills, and beliefs related to policy implementation. Hence, a barrier to implementing the changes in teacher practice and learning advocated by policies was inattention to staff development (Thompson & Zeuli, 1999). "The strategy of pushing for coherence in educational policy with the expectation that aligned policy would result in better teaching and learning proved less effective than hoped, the focus has shifted to teachers and their preparation, high-quality teaching, and teacher learning" (Finley, 2002, p. 1).

The problem of policy extended further than just supporting acquisition of new skills or knowledge for teachers (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Staff development encompassed the need for teachers to critically reflect on what they do in order to create new knowledge and beliefs about content as well as pedagogy and its relationship to students as learners (Prawat, 1992). Reform efforts, then, must become

embedded in new institutional forms that support teachers' professional growth (Fullan, 1991, 1993).

Long-term investment in the structure of education accompanied the goal of staff development's providing continual learning opportunities for teachers. "Questions at the heart of such inquiries about school effectiveness and student learning constitute the basis for transformative learning—learning that enables teachers to change…" (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995, p. 6). The success of change rested upon the local needs of teachers and learners, not upon solutions and mandates from above (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995). Educational mandates needed to consider the nature of teachers' learning prior to their reaching the school level for implementation (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Boyer, 1990, 1995; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1998).

Fullan (1993) discussed two premises for the failure of educational reform: what needs altering was a complex problem, and those strategies being applied neglected topics that truly made a difference, i.e., "Changing formal structures is not the same as changing norms, habits, skills, and beliefs" (Fullan, 1993, p. 49).

Fullan's (1993) lens of learning emphasized that, "Every person is a change agent" (p. 39). Terp (2000) restated Fullan (1993) by emphasizing that change occurred only through people as they sought conditions necessary to implement change, such as:

> "a clear, strong, and collectively held educational vision and institutional mission; a strong, committed professional community within the school; learning environments that promote high standards for student achievement; sustained professional development to improve learning; successful partnerships with

> parents, health and human service agencies, businesses, universities, and other community organizations; and a systematic planning and implementation process for instituting needed changes" (p. 1).

Peterson (2002) reported that culture, "that history and underlying set of unwritten expectations" (p. 1), not only shaped the total school but also impacted heavily upon people's thought processes, feelings, and actions, thereby determining the degree of success in extending staff and student learning. Fullan's (2001) contention that re-culturing preceded change is borne out by Peterson (2002), who related that staff development's quality and success were dependent upon the character of a school's culture. Peterson (2002) summarized the ideas of Hord (1998) and Fullan (2001), clarifying common components of school cultures that could be designated as professional learning communities. His summary included:

> "a widely shared sense of purpose and values; norms of continuous learning and improvement; a commitment to and sense of responsibility for the learning of all students; collaborative collegial relationships; opportunities for staff reflections, collective inquiry, and sharing personal practice" (p. 1).

Peterson and Deal (2002) extended Fullan's (1993, 1998, 2001) ideas of enriched school cultures inclined to proactive change. They offered that a common professional language, shared success stories, continuous staff development of quality, and time to celebrate milestones in improvement, collaboration, and learning were integral to professional learning communities—to schools. Peterson (2002) supported Hope's (1999) ideology in that commitment, motivation, skills, and beliefs were positively

reinforced in educational settings where the culture enabled learning for staff and students, stating that:

> "Professional cultures foster teacher learning…Developing and sustaining a positive, professional culture that nurtures staff learning is the task of everyone in the school. With a strong, positive culture that supports professional development and student learning, schools can become places where every teacher makes a difference and every child learns" (p. 6).

Changing Teacher Practices

"History teaches us the power of a transforming idea, an alteration in world view so profound that all that follows is changed forever. Such a paradigm shift is now rapidly transforming the discipline of staff development" (Sparks, 1994, p. 1). The types of changes that everyone from parents to the President of the United States (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001) imagined for students will become a reality only if the needs of teachers were addressed effectively (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998). Regardless of restructuring, reforming, or outright re-culturing, Guskey and Huberman (1995) stipulated that it was critical to begin with updating and enlivening teachers' professional skills. They made it clear that as new knowledge and findings about the learning process were revealed, educators must expand their professional knowledge to keep pace with current conceptual and teaching skills. Guskey and Huberman (1995) suggested looking deeper than what may be lacking in pre-service training—to consider the structure of staff development (skill development) in education.

Definition of Staff Development

> "Staff development is a process designed to foster personal and professional growth in skills for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organizational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous responsible self-renewal for educators and schools" (ASCD Yearbook on Staff-Development, 1981, p. 1).

Sheinghold (1992) questioned how to help instructors teach using methodology they were never taught and how to create learning environments remarkably different from the ones in which they studied. How, inquired Sheinghold (1992), can staff development instill confidence within teachers that were, according to Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998), servicing their clientele in ways that made a difference in student learning?

It is well-documented that teachers learned by doing, researching, reflecting, collaborating, analyzing student work, and sharing as they increased their theoretical knowledge (Lieberman & Miller, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Mizell, 1997; Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998; Banicky & Foss, 1999; Butler 2001). Yet teachers also must delve into inquiry, connected with collaboration, in supportive environments in order to learn deeply from their experiences (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Richardson (2003) supported Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin's (1995) postulate that the inquiry approach enabled participants to establish goals, experiment, discuss, and learn with colleagues. "…The inquiry approach, grounded in the constructivist theory of learning" (Richardson, 2003, p. 403) impacted upon the change process. Richardson (1994) stated that students gained in reading achievement when teachers, working with inquiry

methodology, changed their teaching practices. Positive results encouraged teachers to continue with new practices; without such results, teachers were likely to either not attempt or totally abandon new practices "in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects on student learning" (Helsel-DeWert & Cory, 1998, p. 2).

An informed understanding of the tenets of staff development as viewed by Guskey (1986), Lieberman and Miller (1990), and Fullan (1991, 1993) answered the very important question regarding what we know about the learning of teachers that could result in improved staff development. Synthesizing the results of much research on the topic, Darling-Hammond and Ball (1986) presented five assertions relevant for improved teachers' learning via staff development:

- Teachers' prior beliefs and experiences affect what they learn.
- Learning to teach to the new standards takes time and is not easy.
- Content knowledge is key to learning how to teach subject matter so that students understand it.
- Knowledge of children, their ideas, and their ways of thinking is crucial to teaching for understanding.
- Opportunities for analysis and reflection are central to learning to teach. (p. 16)

Little (1993) advocated that a successful staff development program equips teachers, both as individuals and a collective unit, to shape, support, and critique reform. Enriching this view, Dilworth and Imig (1995) stated that teachers must be exposed to "expanded and enriched professional development experiences" (p. 1) connected to student achievement standards; these experiences ought to be ongoing, site-specific, teacher-generated, with a focus on the whole school (Lieberman & Miller, 1990; Butler,

2001). After reviewing hundreds of studies about staff development, Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998) refuted the accepted myths that “anyone can teach” and that “teachers are born and not made” (p. 3), concluding that teacher expertise was one of the critical determinants in assuring student achievement.

Characteristics of Effective Professional Development

Darling- Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) stipulated that staff development’s primary focus must be on strengthening teachers’ abilities to better comprehend the interrelationships between teaching and learning and of their students per se. They contended that effective staff development considers teachers’ needs as learners as well as teachers. Their view of staff development was characterized as follows:

- It must engage teachers in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection that illuminate the processes of learning and development.
- It must be grounded in inquiry, reflection, and experimentation that are participant driven.
- It must be collaborative, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on teachers’ communities of practice rather than on individual teachers.
- It must be connected to and derived from teachers’ work with their students.
- It must be sustained, ongoing, intensive, and supported by modeling, coaching, and the collective solving of specific problems of practice.
- It must be connected to other aspects of school change. (p. 1-2)

Butler's (2001) research, illuminating key process elements of effective staff development, added credence to the assertions of Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998).

Social Cognitive Theory

Understanding Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory not only laid the foundation for Fullan's (1993) lens of learning but also gave insight into Hope's (1999) tenets of teachers' skill, motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, and commitment. Bandura's perception of Social Learning Theory (Bandura and Walters, 1963; Bandura, 1977a, 1978, 1986, 1989) stressed the role cognition plays in human social experiences and what influence cognition had on behavior. His version of social learning theory introduced the notion of modeling, better known as vicarious learning, as a form of social learning (Bandura & Walters, 1963) strongly connected to the structure of service learning (Jacoby & Associates, 1996). Embedded in the Social Cognitive Theory was the essential concept that people possessed self-beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs that provided self-control over their individual thoughts, feelings, or actions (Bandura, 1986; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002). "What people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25) as well as what they learned (Fullan, 1993). Since self-motivation was not a spontaneous occurrence (Bandura, 1986), the factors of self-efficacy, feedback, and time conspired to determine the degree of self-motivation that exists (Bandura, 1986, 1989). Self-efficacy profoundly impacted a person's decision to behave in a given fashion, since feedback enabled a person to re-evaluate their efforts and goals to make them more attainable, impacting self-efficacy in the process (Pajares, 2002). Time from start to

success definitely affected self-motivation since most people aspired for immediate goal resolution (Bandura, 1986, 1989; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002), and this was an important consideration when implementing an educational mandate such as service learning.

Bandura is synonymous with the Social Cognitive Theory, a theory used to identify methods in which behavior can be modified or changed (Bandura, 1986). Due to the strong emphasis on human cognition, Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory suggested that the mind was an active force in reality construction. This view corroborated both Fullan's (1993) lens of learning and constructivist learning theory as it encoded information selectively, acted out behavior based on values and expectations, and imposed structure on its own actions (Jones, 1989). As individuals gain in experience and maturity, their cognitions changed over time (Bandura, 1989). Understanding the processes involved in construction of reality enabled human behavior to be understood, predicted, and changed (Fullan, 1993; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002).

Johnston, et al. (1997) stated that the most significant contribution of Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory was that it illuminated how children were socialized into a given society, how children learned to accept the values and standards of their society. Brown (1999) related that the Social Cognitive Theory had been used in the study of moral and value instillation among children. Therefore, a deeper understanding of how teachers' learning changed while implementing an educational mandate such as service learning, a mandate steeped in values clarification and community socialization (Gray, et al., 2000), was necessary for change to occur.

In addition to being familiar with the Social Cognitive Theory, a realization that teachers created their own new understanding as they constructed new meanings

extended our understanding of how the Constructivist Theory enhanced Fullan's (1991, 1993) lens of learning. Combined with an awareness of teachers' beliefs, motivation, skill, and commitment in relationship to teachers' learning, Hope (1999) also enriched our understanding of Fullan's (1993) paradigm of change.

Constructivist Theory

The Constructivist Theory contended that knowledge was individually constructed (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et al., 1991; Wilson, 1996). As a theory of learning, constructivism was integral to Fullan's (1993) lens of learning. Meaningful active learning required experiences (London, 1988). In order for constructivism to materialize and transfer to community environments, i.e., via service learning, "Learning must be situated in a rich context, reflective of real world contexts" (Bednar, et al., 1991, p. 91-92). Richardson (2003) defined constructivism as:

> " the learning theory that suggests that human knowledge is constructed within the minds of individuals and within social communities. The theory states that individuals create their own new understandings based on the interactions of what they know and believe with the phenomena or ideas with which they come into contact. It is a descriptive theory that describes the way people actually <u>do</u> learn; it is not a normative theory that describes the way people <u>should</u> learn." (p. 404)

Service learning provided such a context for constructivist learning environments because unique problems must be solved, information coded and tabulated, resulting in personal understanding and meaning, the essential components of the constructivist

theory (Brown, Collins, & Dugid, 1988; Fosnot, 1996). According to Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999), such learning only took place if teachers received adequate training to incorporate the skills necessary to pursue this avenue of education and if teachers' skills related to their being motivated to participate. They inferred that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs reflected their ability and motivation to perform. Teachers used their skills, motivation, commitment, and beliefs (Hope, 1999) to construct new meaning so that they can commit to changes (Fullan, 1993) in their teaching practices that were necessary to implement a mandate for service learning as a constructivist component in their curriculum (Boyer, 1995; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). A constructivist approach "is not change merely for the sake of change. This is an orientation that continually examines practices, student learning, goals, and achievement and allows us to adjust practices to more clearly meet our goals" (Richardson, 2003, p. 404). As teachers rethought their vocation by devising new classroom procedures designed to increase student achievement, they constructed different as well as unfamiliar teaching methodologies (Nelson & Mammerman, 1996). At the same time, teachers learned the new skills needed for reform as they simultaneously unlearned beliefs and practices used throughout their teaching career (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). This significant aspect of constructivist theory added depth to Fullan's (1993) paradigm of learning.

Motivation

Finley (2002) reported that in the early 1990's teachers were not really involved much in the role that reform occupied. Yet, in order for reform to succeed, change must

occur in teachers' practice in classrooms (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Guskey, 1997; Slavin, 1997).

Motivating Adults to Learn

Wlodkowski's (1985) literature review of motivation discussed the following factors as having an impact on teachers' motivation to learn:

- Attitude: the learner's combination of concepts, information, and emotions about the learning that results in a predisposition to respond favorably.
- Need: the current condition of the learner, experienced as an internal force moving the learner toward the goal.
- Stimulation: any change in perception or experience of the external environment that prompts the learner's action
- Affect: the learner's emotional experience (feelings, concerns, passions).
- Competence: the learner's sense of effectively interacting with the environment.
- Reinforcement: the learning event maintains or increases the probability that the learner will achieve the appropriate response. (p. 2)

A better understanding of what motivates teachers to learn assisted policy makers in securing the "two cornerstones of the reform agenda: a learner-centered view of teaching and a career-long conception of teachers' learning" (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995, p. 7). Motivation was vitally important in determining the outcome of any given endeavor. It naturally dealt with the learners' desire to become involved in the learning process as well as with the reasons for the learners' active or passive

behavior in learning situations (Lumsden, 1994). For schools to focus on measures that assisted learners to become motivated, to foster successful learning, was one of this century's greatest challenges (Tuckman, 1999). Marshall (1987) stated that motivation was the meaningfulness a learner attributes to academic tasks, irrespective of being intrinsically interesting. Motivation to learn was typified by extensive, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Ames, 1990).

Definition of Motivation

Frith (1997) defined motivation as "the internal drive directing behavior towards some end. Motivation helps people overcome inertia. External forces can influence behavior, but ultimately it is the internal force of motivation that sustains behavior" (p. 1). Motivation addressed why a learner would or would not attempt to perform and can be defined as "the influence of factors such as needs and preferences on the continuation of behavior" (Rothstein, 1990, p. 370).

Theories of Motivation

Basic to Mayo's (1924-1927) Hawthorne experiments on human behavior were his findings that work was social and collaboration was not accidental; it required planning and development. The Hawthorne Effect represented the gains that any organization, schools included, harvested when people were given attention and concern. The effect, then, was better performance (Accel-Team.Com, 2001). McGregor's (1960) XYZ Theory explained how simple human nature could be. Theory X understood people

to be unmotivated. Theory Y contended that people desire to learn and work. Theory Z, known better as Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory, contended that people were born with good qualities, which may, over time, dissipate.

Maslow's (1954) widely recognized humanistic theory of motivation postulated that human behavior was controlled by both internal and external factors. He believed that needs were the same in all cultures; that they were unchanging and genetic in origin; that needs were arranged in a hierarchy; and that as basic needs were met, other higher needs emerged. Based on this theory's conception of motivation, it was essential for learners to fulfill their deficiency needs; therefore, it was critical for teachers to provide students an environment that was infused with safety and a sense of welcome for all, one that augmented learners' self-esteem (Sass, 2001).

Because motivation, a core construct in human behavior, permeated everything we do (Driscoll, 1993), current research on motivation focused on enriching instructional design by identifying techniques that were effective motivationally, by improving classroom operations, and by meeting the needs of an ever-increasingly diverse student population (Wlodkowski, 1981). Researchers concerned with learning motivation were using some of the same constructs, and their related theories, that have been identified as effective in industry to develop models of motivation that augmented the teaching and learning environments in schools (Small, 1997).

Creating a systematic model for designing instruction that was motivating, Keller's (1983) ARCS Model of Motivational Design was extensively employed because it analyzed the components of motivation necessary in instructional environments (Driscoll, 1993). Simple, yet persuasive, the ARCS Model was rooted in a number of

motivational theories (Keller, 1983, 1987a), making it highly relevant in education (Driscoll, 1993). When integrated, attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) motivated learning because these ARCS conditions were sequential (Driscoll, 1993), requiring maintenance to keep learners on task in order to prevent loss of motivation, and therefore, of learning. If relevant content and information satisfied individual personal needs, thereby extending effort and performance, then motivation embedded within the ARCS Model required active variety in instructional activities (Fernandez, 1991).

The ARCS Model of Motivational Design was an easily applied methodology that increased the dawn of motivational instruction (Small, 1997). Keller devised a motivational design process, addressing the four ARCS constructs, to ensure successful compliance to his model of motivation. Driscoll (1993) added that this motivational strategy was used to: “analyze the audience and develop a motivational profile; define motivational objectives; design a motivational strategy relevant to the audience; and test and modify strategy as necessary” (p. 234).

Extending the concepts articulated in Keller’s ARCS Model of Motivational Design, Tuckman (1999) offered a model of motivation for achievement in an educational setting, adding the important constructs of attitude or beliefs, drive, and strategy. Attitudes are individually held beliefs about personal capabilities, and the causes for their outcomes (Tuckman, 1999) and change in behavior were facilitated by the development of appropriate attitudes (Lawrenz, 1984), the “generalizations about things such as causality or the meaning of specific actions” (Yero, 2002, p. 3).

Attitude cannot result in motivation to achieve by itself. Consideration must be given to the value the individual places upon the outcome, resulting in a desire or drive to attain a goal. Kirsch (1982) found that drive to perform a disdainful activity eventually plateaus at a level of monetary reward where even the faintest-hearted subject would pick up a feared snake. Especially among people with high self-efficacy, Maddux, Norton, and Stoltenberg (1996) proved that behavioral intentions were significantly impacted by the value placed on the outcome. The differentiation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) clarified the function of the value of behavior in deciding whether or not to perform the behavior (Tuckman, 1999). People performed when the outcome was desirable and/or was important to them (Overmier & Lawry, 1979). Incentive value affected task choice because people chose to do what they liked, avoiding activities that had little or nor significant value (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992). Enhancing incentive value, then, increased drive, thereby augmenting the level of achievement; therefore, drive was another substantial portion of motivation (Tuckman, 1999).

Tuckman's (1999) third motivational construct was strategy, those techniques used by people to reach their desired outcome. Schunk (1989), Zimmerman (1998a), and Schunk and Zimmerman (1989, 1990) pioneered the thorough connection between strategy and outcome. By employing the strategies of self-observation, self-judgment, and goal setting, Zimmerman (1989) offered structure for the pursuit of valued outcomes. Scaffolding to this structure, Schunk and Zimmerman (1998a) later added self-evaluation and monitoring, strategic planning, strategy implementation, and strategic outcome monitoring, all resulting in a tapestry of achievement woven with the threads of attitude,

desire, and strategy. Complementing the work of Zimmerman, Tuckman (1999) conveyed that:

> "Without attitude, there is no reason to believe that one is capable of the necessary action to achieve, and therefore no reason to even attempt it. Without drive, there is no energy to propel that action, and without strategy, there is nothing to help select and guide the necessary action" (p. 5).

Beliefs and Professional Growth

> "…Defining beliefs is at best a game of players choice. They travel in disguise and often under alias—attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature." (Pajares, 1992, p. 309)

If the goal were to improve both preparation and practice of teachers, Pajares (1992) specified that an awareness and understanding of teachers' beliefs were critical for change to occur. The study of teachers' beliefs revealed insight into the professional arena of teachers' work (Kagan, 1992), and teachers' beliefs could possibly be "the clearest measure of a teacher's professional growth" (p. 85). Beliefs, according to

Pintrich (1990), may well be the foremost psychological element involved in teacher education.

Definition of Beliefs

Beliefs are attitudes that teachers hold concerning anyone or anything job-related, and much research indicated that teachers' beliefs impacted classroom practices (Kagan, 1992). Teacher beliefs were defined as personal constructs that offered an understanding of a teacher's practice (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992; Richardson, 1996). "Beliefs are important influences on the ways people conceptualize tasks and learn from experience" (Nespor, 1987, p. 317). Since beliefs acted as active agents as teachers planned and predicted future events, they were vital in the construction of school culture, which, in itself, impacted teacher beliefs (Cuban, 1990). Because belief systems were dynamic in that they underwent change and reconfiguration as teachers evaluated their beliefs against their experiences (Thompson, 1992), educational effectiveness was enhanced through a better understanding of teachers' belief systems or conceptual bases (Nespor, 1987).

As "…an attitude consistently applied to an activity…" (Cuthberg, et al., 1988, p. 54), teachers' beliefs were the implied assumptions about academic material to be taught that stem from the ambiguities of classroom teaching (Kagan, 1992). Since teachers needed to construct—in addition to impart—meaning, their belief system guided them in forming a congruent teaching style because teachers' beliefs, according to Kagan (1992)

and Nespor (1987), seemed to be relatively stable and resistant to change. Pajares (1992) enriched the understanding of why beliefs were change resistant by contending that:

> "[Beliefs] provide personal meaning and assist in defining relevancy. They help individuals to identify with one another and form groups and social systems. On a social and cultural level, they provide elements of structure, order, directions, and shared values. From both a professional and socio/cultural perspective, belief systems reduce dissonance and confusion, even when dissonance is logically justified by the inconsistent beliefs one holds. This is one reason why they acquire emotional dimensions and resist change. People grow comfortable with their beliefs, and these beliefs become their "self" so that individuals come to be identified and understood by the very nature of the beliefs, the habits they own." (p. 317)

Augmenting the notions of Pajares, Woods (1996) discussed the complexity of changing teachers' beliefs that were solidified with other beliefs by relating that loosely coupled beliefs may be altered, but only after the original beliefs have been changed. Woods (1996) agreed with Pajares (1992) in that beliefs were clustered; hence, changing just one belief cannot happen. "Teacher change can only be encouraged but not mandated" (Kagan, 1992, p. 2), a notion extended by Fullan's (1993) position that, "You can't mandate what matters…because almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behavior, and beliefs of understanding" (p. 22).

Enriching the concept of beliefs, Pajares (1992) offered that attitudes were formed from a cluster of beliefs, causing individuals to act according to what they believed. Ajzen (1985) contended that these belief clusters determined individual values and

behavior. Attitudes relating to behavior, according to Crawley (1988), were the only factor determining whether or not teachers intended to employ a stipulated behavior. Because beliefs concerning educational practice impacted teacher actions (Ballone & Cyerniak, 2001), the interplay between teacher beliefs and educational reform such as service learning necessitated close scrutiny in order to identify and amend potential barriers to successful implementation (Cuban, 1990). A teacher's intention to engage in a behavior is the best predictor of behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Fullan, 1991). Teacher behavior is influenced by educational mandates such as service learning, availability of materials and resources, administrative support, time, and overall impact upon current working conditions (NRC, 1988).

Pajares (1992) contributed an extensive synthesis of the findings on beliefs:

- Beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate even against contradiction caused by reason, time, schooling, or experience.
- Individuals develop a belief system that houses all the beliefs acquired through the process of cultural transmission.
- The belief system has an adaptive function in helping individuals define and understand the world and themselves.
- Knowledge and beliefs are inextricably intertwined, but the potent affective, evaluative, and episodic nature of beliefs makes them a filter through which new phenomenon is interpreted.
- Thought processes may well be precursors to and creators of beliefs, but the filtering effect of belief structures ultimately screens, redefines, distorts, or reshapes subsequent thinking and information processing.

- Epistemological beliefs play a key role in knowledge interpretation and cognitive monitoring.
- Beliefs are prioritized according to their connections or relationship to other beliefs or other cognitive and affective structures. Apparent inconsistencies may be explained by exploring the functional connections and centrality of the beliefs.
- Belief substructures, such as educational beliefs, must be understood in terms of their connections not only to each other but also to other, perhaps more central beliefs, in the system. Psychologists usually refer to these substructures as attitudes and values.
- By their very nature and origins, some beliefs are more incontrovertible than others.
- The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter. Newly acquired beliefs are most vulnerable to change.
- Belief change during adulthood is a relatively rare phenomenon, the most common cause being a conversion from one authority to another or a gestalt shift. Individuals tend to hold on to beliefs based on incorrect or incomplete knowledge even after scientifically correct explanations are presented to them.
- Beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks; hence, they play a critical role in defining behavior and organizing knowledge and information.
- Beliefs strongly influence perception, but beliefs can be an unreliable guide to the nature of reality.

- Individuals' beliefs strongly affect their behavior.
- Beliefs must be inferred and this inference must take into account the congruence among individuals' belief statements, the intentionality to behave in a predisposed manner, and the behavior related to the belief in question.
- Beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student gets to college. (p. 324)

In conjunction with Ajzen (1985) and Kagan (1992), both Fullan (1991) and Pajares (1992) delineated clearly the substantial position beliefs occupied in relationship to behavior and to knowledge acquisition. Fullan (1991) and Ballone and Cyerniak (2001) stressed the importance of understanding teachers' belief patterns in order to augment, and eventually change, teaching practices because what transpired in the classroom connected teacher beliefs to student learning (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Orton, 1996).

Exploring teachers' belief frameworks, Battista (1994) found that the current successful reforms in mathematics education were due to teachers, even though many held beliefs inconsistent with the principles for implementing educational mandates. Such incongruity in beliefs curtailed implementation of educational reforms, therefore halting desired change (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Ballone & Cyerniak, 2001). Thus, teacher belief constructs should be carefully considered when planning teacher development programs in order to successfully implement reform recommendations, especially mandates such as service learning, since "teacher beliefs and desires give rise to, or explain, teacher intentions to act" (Orton, 1996, p. 3).

Fang’s (1996) review of research on teacher beliefs and practices recommended that in-service programs identify teacher beliefs, since such support can be better constructed to meet the needs of participants. Richardson (1996) contended that teachers’ reflection on beliefs and classroom practice was important if instructional change were to occur. “To understand teaching from teachers’ perspectives, we have to understand the beliefs with which they define their work” (Nespor, 1987, p. 223). Supporting Nespor, Underhill (1988) stressed the significance of teacher belief assessment as well as the importance of knowing how to affect them.

So how can change occur in the instructional arena? Nespor (1987) proposed the gradual advance of more relevant beliefs applicable to any given instructional change. Extending the work of Nespor (1987), Dwyer et al. (1992) contend that, “Teachers’ beliefs may be best modified while they are in the thick of change, taking risks and facing uncertainty” (p. 52). Such conditions that imposed change impelled teachers to rethink beliefs about instruction, “ and only by changing beliefs can instructional change take place” (Kagan, 1992, p. 2). Opposing this rigidity of belief change, Cuthbert et al. offered (1988) that beliefs can be influenced, and that they may be changed through socialization, collaboration, altering professional goals, and gains through experiences over time.

What transpired in the classroom connected teachers’ beliefs to students’ learning (Orton, 1996) in that the amount of learning occurring was determined by the degree of engagement in classroom activities (Ballone & Cyerniak, 2001). The concept that the essential change agent in the reform process, teachers (Fullan, 1991), since their beliefs were forerunners to change, was substantiated by Ajzen and Fisbein (1980), Pajares

(1992), and Battista (1994). Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory stressed that individual beliefs predicted behavior, that beliefs signaled individual decisions, and that individual effort was contingent upon expectations of action in order to achieve change. Therefore, to more fully understand change or mandate acceptance, an awareness of pre-service teachers' beliefs was insightful.

Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs

Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory stressed the dynamic relationships between people and their environments. Since self-efficacy beliefs, an integral element of Bandura's (1986) theory, constituted a highly formidable cognitive component of Fullan's (1993) personal agency, they played a keen role when trying to comprehend the complex interactions a person faced when selecting a career (Zeldin, 2000). In support, Hackett (1995) stated that, "There is now persuasive empirical evidence for the role of cognitive mechanisms, perceived self- efficacy in particular, in career choice and development" (p. 234).

In a study examining the relationship of career self-efficacy expectations to perceived career options, Betz and Hackett (1981) concluded that perceptions of self-efficacy significantly impacted an individual's career choice. Extending these findings, Lent and Hackett (1987) reiterated the critical nature of career self-efficacy to both career choice and educational requirements of a given career.

Bandura (1997) related that people contemplated entering a selected occupation based upon their beliefs whether accurate or not. He stated that, "To target personal efficacy to sub skills of occupations can lower the predictiveness of efficacy for beliefs

for the occupations people choose to pursue" (p. 423). Hence, individual perceived efficacy predicted choices people make (Bandura, 1986; Zeldin, 2000).

Zuchner and Tabachnick (1981) contended that pre-service teachers' years as students in the classroom setting formed their beliefs, beliefs that are conservative, beliefs that mainly lay dormant during formal training only to emerge as a potent factor in the novice teachers' own classrooms (Kennedy, 1997). Because not all beliefs were of equal importance to people and " the more important the belief is, the more difficult it is to change" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 3), the tendency was for pre-service teachers to maintain their initial beliefs regarding teaching and learning (Pajares, 1992; Fine & Gullo, 2000).

Reasons to Change Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs

Raths (2000) illuminated two reasons why changing pre-teacher beliefs must be viewed as critical. Pre-service teachers entered their teacher training with the belief "that they have what it takes to be a good teacher, and that, therefore, they have little to learn from the formal study of teaching" (Kennedy, 1997, p. 14). Secondly, Raths (2000) purported that teachers often attributed poor academic performance to "non-school factors, i.e., the child's home, family, peer group, etc. instead of faulty instruction" (p 386).

Shuck (1997) found that educators of prospective teachers did not realize the power and the tenacity of pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes; nor did instructors "sufficiently recognize the influence of these beliefs on their students' learning" (p. 530). Pajares (1992) substantiated this idea by stipulating that it was essential for instructors to

comprehend pre-service teachers' beliefs. How do instructors select those beliefs that matter most (Raths, 2000)? How do they inculcate those beliefs into a learning experience emphasizing the content of teacher education (Anderson & Holt-Reynolds, 1994)?

Based upon years of instructing pre-service teachers, Holt-Reynolds (1994) predicted that the entering beliefs most likely to impact their learning under her tutelage were beliefs about:

- Learning and learners lead to the conclusion that motivation is largely a function of the students' willingness to try and cooperate, especially in secondary education.
- Teachers' instructional roles result in accepting that teachers' personal characteristics are more important than their instructional moves.
- Student activity result in relegating academic activities to a lesser learning plateau than use of the oral or written test for content to be learned. (p. 4-5)

Such initial beliefs needed mediation if future students being taught by these pre-service teachers were to receive an optimum learning experience (Holt-Reynolds, 1994). Pre-service teachers' experiences as students were the origins of many beliefs about school in that they formed notions concerning their abilities as well as ideas regarding how learning occurs (Yero, 2000). Pre-service teachers cannot accomplish tasks beyond their capabilities simply by instructors believing that they can. "Beliefs become the internal rules individuals follow as they determine the effort, persistence, and perseverance required to achieve optimally as well as the strategies they will use" (Pajares, 1998, p. 34). Therefore, those involved in preparing teachers needed to be

proactive at the onset of a program in changing certain beliefs held by pre-service and in-service educators to ensure a degree of success for learning new teaching practices (Raths, 2000).

Role of Teacher Educators in Affecting Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs

Assuming that educators of teachers could and/or would change the beliefs of pre-service teachers, what might the replacement beliefs be? Raths (2000) proposed devising a Likert scale to evaluate beliefs such as:

- "All children can learn."
- Pupils should be treated as clients.
- Children have to be prepared to "read up to grade level."
- Children should be treated equally, as a matter of justice.
- Children should be treated differently; each in terms of his own needs and interests.
- Learning should be fun.
- Diversity in a classroom is strength and not a problem.
- The teacher is accountable for what is learned or not learned in a classroom.
- Children should be given praise and recognition in terms of what they have earned and deserve. (p. 388)

Finding that personal learning and experience were the most influential factors in forming student teachers' views of teaching and learning, Bramald, Hardman, and Leat (1995) paved the way for Norton et al. (2002), who researched important elements that

impacted whether or not pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and teaching altered throughout their training. In this study, pre-service teachers stipulated that their teacher-preparatory coursework outweighed their pre-service learning experience, indicating the effectiveness of the courses taken in affecting beliefs about teaching and learning (Norton, et al., 2000).

At the core of what teacher educators do appeared a question similar to this one: what did we believe should be happening in classrooms, and upon what were these beliefs based (Pajares, 1992)? Recent community expectations have put excessive pressure upon teacher education programs so that student-learning outcomes were improved. File and Gullo (2000) surveyed pre-service teachers at the beginning and end of the student teaching semester. They discovered that students enrolled in an elementary education program with an early childhood education endorsement exhibited more agreement with developmentally appropriate practice than students in an elementary education-only certification program for both research samples. A crucial element of this study is that Fine and Gullo (2002) noted that even though these differences appeared to have their roots during the pre-service period, educators of teachers did possess the abilities to organize their programs to reflect the beliefs that they considered to be most important. Anderson and Holt-Reynolds (1994) suggested that instructors of teachers delve into their personal practices, observe and reflect upon their pre-service candidates as they instructed them, and then formulate theories regarding how the beliefs of pre-service teachers became a mediating factor in what these trainees learned.

Because personal history played a crucial role in constructing the thinking of pre-service teachers (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1994), Short and Burke (1996) contended

that personal history profoundly impacted one's beliefs. Carter (1993) researched the role personal anecdotes played in pre-service teachers' construction of meaning, helping to shift the focus of educational research toward a better understanding of how teachers' biographies acted as change agents in teachers' thinking (Bodycott, 2001). Green and Smyser (1996) described teacher portfolios as a means for teachers to see themselves where they were presently as well as where they were headed professionally.

Mc Aninch (1993) suggested that studying instruction via lenses of their own beliefs and of constructivism might bring about changes in preservice teachers' beliefs. Rathe, Harmin, and Simon (1996) supported values clarification, the process of examining beliefs, considering options and their results, and re-adoption or change in beliefs in order to identify values in preservice teachers. Since teachers' beliefs profoundly guided students' development, it was crucial that pre-service teachers were aware of their beliefs (Yero, 2002).

Commitment

Since student learning, not teachers' cognitions, is the object of education, teachers offer commitment based upon personal ideology of how students learn (Orton, 1996). According to Kant (1959), the issue of commitment was one of will over thought or emotion; teachers exhibited commitment when they willed their beliefs about student learning. What transpired in the classroom connected teacher beliefs to student learning; therefore, teachers willing a conception about student learning provided autonomy in this connection (Orton, 1996). Using Kantian (1959) ideology, Orton (1996) related that teachers acted in accordance with their beliefs in student learning, thus implying "that

teachers need not be at the whim of every trend that promises a fix for student learning" (p. 7). Hence, there existed a conflict for teachers in regards to educational mandates because their commitment was first and foremost to the student as "some commitment to some conception of student learning was what must be willed so as to respect the learner as a learner" (Orton, 1996, p. 6).

Did teachers' professionalism affect career commitment? Not all aspects of the teaching profession were applicable to teachers' commitment. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (1997) identified four characteristics of professionalism that reflected association with commitment: "the reported amounts of teacher classroom autonomy; the reported amounts of faculty policymaking influence; the reported effectiveness of assistance for new teachers; the teachers' maximum end-of-career salaries" (p. viii). Teachers with higher levels of each of these characteristics displayed higher levels of teacher commitment (NCES, 1997).

A major worry of those concerned with the status of the nation's teachers revolved around "inadequacies in the working conditions, resources, and support afforded to school teachers" (NCES, 1997, p. 1). Reversing these negative aspects of teaching, according to Talbert and McLaughlin (1993) and Darling-Hammond (1994, 1995), generated improved motivation and commitment of teachers, thereby increasing student outcomes. However, a further understanding of how professionalism affected teacher's commitment to their teaching careers was needed (Lieberman, 1988).

A primary determinant of the performance of school's staff was the degree of teacher commitment (NCES, 1997). "Commitment is the degree of positive, affective bond between the teacher and the school…reflecting the degree of internal motivation,

enthusiasm, and job satisfaction teachers derive from teaching and the degree of efficacy and effectiveness they achieve in their jobs" (NCES, 1997, p. 2). Educational reformers proposed that a positive first move in the change process was an informed awareness of teacher professionalism on teacher commitment (Boyd, 1992; Fullan, 1998).

Employing the sociologists' research tool known as the professional-model, the NCES (1997) critiqued occupations along the lines of "rigorous training requirements, positive working conditions, high prestige, substantial authority, and relatively high compensation" (p. 3). The more a profession conformed to the professional model, the more professional it was regarded, and steps taken to improve members' status, in keeping with the tenets of the professional model, constituted professional status (NCES, 1997). Therefore, in order to determine the degree of teachers' commitment to change (Fullan, 1993; Hope 1999) it must be explored in relationship to the established characteristics of professions (Wallace, 1994).

Primarily, professions were intellectually demanding occupations with access limited by required credentials received upon completion of formal training (Collins, 1979). The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) stressed the need to improve entry requirements into teaching, thus creating a body of experts in chosen academic disciplines, hence, extending commitment (Darling-Hammond, 1984, 1995). The NCES (1997) found that the degree of effective assistance given to entry-level teachers was related to commitment in that higher levels of teacher commitment resulted from more effective aid.

Spanneberg's (2002) study of mathematics teachers, who participated in an in-service program committed to reform-based teaching and learning, and who encountered

mathematics instruction within a socio-constructivist framework, concluded that courses promoting content knowledge, practical experiences, and classroom support benefited in-service teachers. Professions required a certain knowledge base to maintain the high standards of the group. Mentoring programs or internships "aid new employees in adjusting to the working environment" and "…familiarize them with the concrete realities of their job" and "…provide a second opportunity to filter out those with substandard levels of skills and knowledge" (NCES, 1997, p. 6).

In his description of beliefs about acquisition of knowledge, Perry (1970) contended that people believed knowledge was self-constructed through reason because truth was relative to how individuals interpreted their own personal experiences. Validation of relevant interpretations was supported by evidence (Brownlee, 2001), resulting in commitment to beliefs more valued than others (Kagan & Lahey, 2001).

Boyd (1992), Fullan (1993), Darling-Hammond (1995), and Lieberman (1988) encouraged reform measures designed to bolster coping strategies of new teachers as they adjusted to the multi-level demands of that entry year, one that often resulted in attrition or acute reduction in efficacy. Bandura (1977) related that the more a teacher believed in his/her capabilities, the higher he/she set goals, accompanied with greater commitment to achieving them. People who interacted daily with their profession started to identify with it (Hogg, et al., 1995), creating a convergence of Hope's (1999) principles of skills, beliefs, motivation, and commitment. Identification with an organization instilled greater motivation, encouraged self-efficacy, strengthened commitment (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Peterson, 2002), and caused better performance because of better skills usage (Burke, 1973).

The professional model indicated an expectation for ongoing skill renewal because the "knowledge required of a profession is a prolonged and continual process of learning" (NCES, 1997, p. 6) as members remained current in skills and knowledge of their profession (Wallace, 1994). Federal legislation of Goals 2000 specified intensive support for teachers' professional development (National Education Goals Panel, 1995).

Included among characteristics of professionals, authority in the work place was extensive when considering that employees considered to be professional employees exhibit authority resembling that of management when it relates to decisions concerned with technical and important issues (Hall, 1968; Friedson, 1986). Professionals, as experts in their fields, exerted control and autonomy in the workplace daily. Educators, if they were to be regarded as professionals, advocated reform because teachers who have no voice in school decisions cannot be expected to be highly committed (Conley & Cooper, 1991; Fullan, 1993). "It is when teachers are together as persons, according to norms and principles they have freely chosen, that interest becomes intensified and commitments are made" (Lieberman & Miller, 1991, p. 13). The NCEA (1997) concluded that, "As teachers in their classrooms reported increases in individual autonomy and in influence over school policymaking, teacher commitment increased" (p. 17), …"offering empirical support for reforms implementing the advantages of increased teacher empowerment" (p. 25). Chubb and Moe (1990) related that schools with "substantial school autonomy from direct external control" (p. 183) had a higher percentage of students who achieved academically, thus furthering support for more autonomous teachers. Bandura (1977) pointed out that personal experience with a definite task, such as policymaking, exerted positive impact on an individual's self-

efficacy, thereby extending impact to task commitment, motivation, and ultimate success. Thus, autonomy affected commitment.

Based upon their very extensive research of teacher professional status and its relationship to commitment of teachers to their teaching careers, the NCES (1997) found that the following differences existed among varied types of teachers:

> "Female teachers report slightly more commitment than male teachers; teachers with bachelor's degrees report slightly more commitment than teachers with graduate degrees; white teachers report slightly more commitment than minority teachers; teachers with less experience report slightly more commitment than more experienced teachers; and rural schools report more commitment than both urban and suburban schools" (p. 15).

Kegan and Lahey (2001) discounted the usual explanation of change that claimed that teachers lacked motivation because they were not truly committed to a given reform. Instead, they offered the idea of the "immune system" (p. 1) as a mechanism in comprehending how educators that displayed real commitment to teaching and learning both simultaneously and unwittingly functioned in ways that worked contrary to indicated commitments. Kegan and Lahey (2001) stipulated that educators first identify their complaints in order to identify their "first-column commitments" (p. 1) by answering a set of progressively deeper questions:

- In the first column, teachers list commitments about which they feel passion. These commitments are sometimes revealed by their complaints.
- In the second column, teachers note things they do or do not do that undermine their first-column commitments.

- In column three, teachers identify competing commitments they hold that are the basis of their column two behaviors that are typically forms of self-protection.
- In column four, teachers identify their big assumptions, those things held to be true without questions. Doing so operates the lever for disrupting the immune system (p. 3).

Teachers needed to recognize the origin of their second-column behaviors because these complaints caused the paradoxes that Kegan and Lahey (2001) called the immune system. Identifying these inner contradictions led to self-discovery as teachers reflected on basic assumptions (Sparks, 2002) that major change necessitated altering some basic, underlying beliefs in order to achieve "transformational learning resulting in change" (Sparks, 2002, p. 6).

Summary

Rokeach (1968) offered that individuals determine which beliefs were integral to their ideology and that these crucial beliefs were difficult to change. Tatto (1996) commented that current teacher training did very little, if anything at all, to change beliefs of how to teach diverse learners. Fullan's (1991) contention that ultimately "educational change depends on what teaches do and think" (p. 117) reiterated what Brooks (1984) related in that successful change necessitated a learning process that enabled teachers to construct new meanings regarding the change. This literature review provided an understanding of the educational mandate focusing on implementing service learning and how the mandate affected teachers' learning. An awareness of Fullan's (1991, 1993) lens

of learning offered an explanation of why and how teachers needed to involve themselves in the change process. An understanding of how the self-efficacy component of Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory affected teachers' learning and how teachers infused the construct of making personal meaning, the primary concern of the Constructivist Theory, added to an appreciation of how difficult it was for teachers to learn to change their practice. Hope's (1999) consideration of teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment and clarification were interwoven into Fullan's (1991, 1993) paradigm of change.

CHAPTER III

Methods

This qualitative study sought to identify how the learning of teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate. Fullan and Miles (1991) explain change as a learning process, a process of dealing with new personal meaning. Thompson (2001) states that change "requires participants to alter their purposes, develop commitment to new ways, to unlearn old beliefs and behaviors" (p. 10), that result in an alteration of teacher practice, producing positive student outcomes. The research intended to provide insight into how changes in skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment of teachers resulted in implementation of an educational mandate.

Study Design

A qualitative research design is the most suitable paradigm for this study for numerous reasons. Merriam (1998) relates that data collection in qualitative research is gleaned through fieldwork, requiring the researcher to personally extend oneself by interviewing subjects, while also recording observations of behavior and responses in the personal environments of the subjects. Hence, data collection and analysis constitute the qualitative researcher's major research techniques, techniques that result in a richly descriptive product that establishes meaning via making associations from conversations with those being researched.

Qualitative research is an inductive process in which the researcher builds upon concepts and abstractions embedded within the data. "In interpretive research, education is considered to be a process and school is a lived experience. Understanding the meaning of the process or experience constitutes the knowledge to be gained from an inductive...mode of inquiry" (Merriam, 1998, p. 4).

The problem of how the learning of teachers alters while implementing an educational mandate is well suited to the qualitative design because the focus centered on what the participants perceived to be their realities. The factors influencing the choices made by the participants emanated from perceptions generated within their personal network systems; these same factors were curtailed by personal perceptions of social roles within the cultural context of schools. "Qualitative researchers… are most interested in how humans arrange themselves and their settings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings through symbols, rituals, social structures, social roles, and so forth" (Berg, 1989, p. 6).

The research strategy for this study was the explanatory case study method, extensively used in sociology, psychology, political science, and education (Yin, 1994). The researcher, in a case study, investigates a specific phenomenon, group or system at a specific point in time (Yin, 1989). DeMarrais and LeCompte (1999) relate that, "The construction of meaning is linked to the role that individuals and social structures play in creating meaning...meaning is made by individuals. But society itself also is created by the meanings they make" (p. 22). A holistic approach, according to Merriam (1998), independent of any particular method of data collection and analysis, supports the case study research strategy, usually resulting in a descriptive analysis compiled from

interviews, observations, field work, and document analysis (Creswell, 1994). This was the style for my study.

The Researcher

It was 3,000 miles of train ride from San Francisco to the small, rural town of Wayland, New York, for my pregnant mother. She was resettling with her after-the-war husband, and on May 7, 1947, I was born into a huge extended family of French Canadian immigrants who crossed the border because most of the men volunteered for various branches of the American services during World War II. My earliest memory of sensing social injustice centered around my west coast mother, a Protestant, divorced with two young children, a woman who had no idea of the prejudice that she would face upon meeting my father's staunchly Catholic family.

Even as a young child I became extremely sensitive to the inequalities of life, and I attribute this personal aspect of my upbringing to my quest to help eradicate social injustice whenever I can. As a qualitative researcher, the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1994), I must, according to Creswell (1994), delineate the experiences, values, and biases that might influence the interpretations of research. Thus, I present my life's experiences that have formed my views of service learning.

Many of our earliest experiences shape our later perceptions. As a junior and senior in high school, I volunteered with The Rotary Club to be a camp counselor for handicapped children. In this capacity I was assigned only one child for the session. Even though the child's condition was explained prior to arrival, I was not prepared for

Susie, the first physically handicapped person I had ever met. Through the course of the session, I grew profoundly in tolerance, in ability to overlook differences, in realizing that children can assist others in their communities.

As a child educated in the 60's, I was astounded by my affinity for the philosophy of John F. Kennedy. I can remember hearing him say, "Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country," on television. Perhaps the most profound insight into developing my appreciation for volunteering to help occurred in late April of 1966. The six girls living at the end of the hall on the second floor of Jones Hall were on a secret mission. The campus radio station at the State University of New York at Geneseo was becoming politically active. Tired from preparing for final exams, we sat at a large round table in the library to answer the plea heard on the campus radio station: "Please take a moment to write a letter of support to the young men serving our nation in Vietnam. Send your letters to…" I remember all of us having a letter-deposit ceremony, forgetting the event quickly as it was time to continue our preparation for exams. I also remember my elation when I actually received answers from the four letters I deposited, and to this day one of the not-so-young airmen is my friend. Young adults can make a difference in others' lives.

During my senior year at Geneseo State University two events shaped my present social philosophy regarding active participation to assist "Mother World." First, I did an independent study in Native American law, researching the complexities existing among the federal, state, and tribal legal structures. Secondly, I was permitted to register for a political science course, out of my area of study.

The professor of my Constitutional Law course was a retired Air Force officer with personal connections with members of the US Supreme Court, and he sponsored a trip to Washington, D.C. over Easter vacation for all nine of his students. As I stood in front of the magnanimous Abraham Lincoln, cold only in form and definitely the most influential man in my life's mind, late in the evening, the words of John F. Kennedy replayed themselves. Mingling with the edict of the Emancipation Proclamation, Kennedy's words set the course of my life for the next three years. I declined my teaching position for the fall to become a Volunteer in the Service of America (VISTA). I still experience the fragrance of cherry blossoms and hear John F. Kennedy speak on television when I remember why I joined VISTA.

My last semester at Geneseo State saw me in Latin American history class, taught by Dr. Oro, who took students to study at La Universidad de las Americas in Mexico City every summer. It was my first experience in viewing abject poverty, a happening that better prepared me for my VISTA life.

It was a warm October day when the plane landed in Atlanta, Georgia , where I was to report for training for VISTA before being posted to Wilcox County, Alabama, where 32 VISTA volunteers would spend two years, "unofficially" being used to desegregate the all-black schools of this county. Had this realization surfaced at that time, I would not have endured the prejudice thrust upon me because of my belief in the words of John F. Kennedy. However, since I was very naïve at the time, I remained for three years, learned the most I ever learned, and was the happiest I have ever been as a teacher.

In 1972, I moved to Germany, where I eventually began to work for the Department of Defense Dependent Schools. I transferred to England in 1979, where I presently work. Living in Europe during this expanse of time has enabled me to become involved with numerous international disaster efforts via the Red Cross. The one that I continuously pursue is having students volunteer to work to support an orphanage in Romania. I am assisting my village Lion's Club with their various projects to help those with vision limitations.

In the qualitative research paradigm, it is important to identify and scrutinize my personal assumptions, beliefs, and attitudes that might affect the procedure in which I collect and analyze data. I believe that, as an educator, it is important to enable others to recognize cultural awareness on a global plane, to assist others whenever needed, and to respond to the community in which one dwells, no matter where it is located.

I believe that "contextual factors such as attitudes…are particularly important for change efforts because attitudes influences actions" (Boyd, 1992, p.1) in schools. Educational facilities are complicated institutions comprised of highly interrelated components where change in any one part of such an organism necessitates awareness and understanding of the interconnectedness of all parts (Sarason, 1990). I believe that the focus for change must be at the school level (Krueger & Parish, 1982), where "teachers and students are strongly influenced by the culture of the school, the mores, routines, and conventions about how things are done in their schools" (Deal & Peterson, 1990, p. 6). I believe that taking into account such aspects of context generate enduring change (Boyd, 1990).

Researcher Bias

Because I believe that a moral education, one that includes active involvement in assisting others, ought to be the norm, I would consider this the foundation of my educational bias. Throughout my teaching career, I have participated in numerous mandated educational curriculum implementations, some producing positive student outcomes; some destroying existing high student outcomes; some causing intense resentment leading to active resistance; some given verbal introduction and then let die. In all cases of top-down educational mandates, I have witnessed that it has been at the local school level where successful implementation, curricular modifications (Sarason, 1996), or rejection occurs. My bias is that people do not voluntarily move out of their personal comfort zones. Therefore, my researcher bias points directly to those charged with providing the ingredients needed for mandated implementation. Time, materials and resources, motivation, belief, commitment, and skills (Hope, 1999) are essential if change resulting in teacher learning is the outcome (Fullan, 1991).

Respondents and Their Context

Data was obtained through long interviews with teaching staff, administration, and an Office for Standards in Teaching Education (OFSTED) inspector (similar to a member of the National Certification Association), all involved in implementing an educational mandate at their British primary school. All participants are still involved in their respective fields of education.

Actors

Three categories of actors who were involved in the change process at their place of work participated in my research:

1. Teachers, those expected to alter their methodology and best practices to incorporate changes required for implementing new curriculum.
2. Administrator, the one tasked with overseeing the process of implementation to ensure that changes occurred.
3. Office for Standards in Teaching Education (OFSTED) inspector, the actor responsible for evaluating the degree of implementation of curricular change and making recommendations if needed.

Teachers and the administrator engaged in frequent conversations regarding implementation. The administrator had access to the expertise of the Office for Standards in Teaching Education (OFSTED) inspector.

Setting

King Edward VII Primary School, located in East Anglia, consists of one large, flint stone building and two temporary classrooms, a playground, a small sports field, and a parking lot. The site of the study is nestled below stately oak trees and has the distinction of protecting any stray kittens that might amble out of their own back gardens. There are 19 classroom teachers and specialists, one headmistress, and other auxiliary

positions throughout the facility, one quite representative of such primary schools in England in that it offers the National Curriculum, with educators bound by its tenets. All are experienced with implementing the National Standards of Education.

King Edward VII Primary School is representative of primary schools in England, operated by its Board of Governors and respective local councils. The headmistress suggested that I talk to a group of teachers who had participated in a local program already in operation in the school for two years, and this team had staff members ranging from two years' teaching experience to 30-plus years of teaching. All actors volunteered to answer questions about implementing educational mandates at this instillation.

The Respondents

At the time of this study, all of the respondents were affiliated with King Edward VII Primary School. Only four were native to East Anglia. The others have migrated to the region for various personal reasons. The administrator has been with this primary school for over ten years. Of the eight teachers, six have been employed at the site for over seven years. Two educators were considered "recent arrivals" due to length of time at the school. All respondents were British citizens.

Table 1 presents the participants' demographics. Securing anonymity of the respondents, pseudonyms were used.

Table 1

Respondents

Name	Age	Race	Gender	Years Teaching	Category
Elizabeth	28	White	Female	2	Teacher
Ann	26	White	Female	3	Teacher
Norma	48	White	Female	25	Teacher
Pamela	38	White	Female	15	Teacher
Zoe	42	White	Female	19	Teacher
Alistair	33	White	Male	10	Teacher
Moira	53	White	Female	30	Teacher
Nigel	40	White	Male	7	Teacher
Fiona	58	White	Female	35	Headmistress
Gillian	62	White	Female	13	Inspector

Data Collection Procedures

Events in this study began with gathering background information from the respondents regarding their reasons for becoming a teacher, number of years teaching, subject areas taught, and number of educational facilities where they worked. Respondents were asked to comment on their pre-service training and beliefs about the students that they taught and about educational mandates. Information was collected regarding respondents' views about school support in implementing mandates, to include collaboration, motivation, commitment, and skills. Respondents were asked to analyze and comment on what they did to engage themselves in changing their learning as they implemented an educational mandate and on what they ascribed success in changing their learning as they did so. This study focused on how educators implemented, how administration influenced the implementation, and how teachers' learning changed during the implementation of service learning.

Employing long-interview techniques, the researcher recorded all interviews on a hand-held tape recorder. All respondents agreed to this methodology; no one requested that the interview be terminated or that the recorder be turned off. Microsoft Word was used to transcribe all taped interviews. Following long-interview protocol, each tape was coded for respondents' comments concerning types of training that impacted changes in teacher learning as well as comments regarding beliefs about students and educational mandates, support and skills required for implementing a mandate, collaboration, motivation, and commitment and how these affected their teacher learning. Information dealing with how respondents engaged themselves in changing their learning, combined with what they attributed their success in changing their learning as they implemented an educational mandate, was coded. A record was kept of this action, and all transcripts were kept in a locked filing cabinet. Only my dissertation advisor had access to the data and files.

Arrangements for interviews met the work schedule of the interviewees with only one interview rescheduled. Interviews were held in either individual teacher's classrooms or in the headmistress's office. In all situations the room was cloistered to ensure privacy and a secure atmosphere for the interviewee. Immediately transcribed and reviewed for accuracy, a copy of the respective transcript was given to each participant, and no one offered any changes. Since no copies were made of any tapes, no one received a copy.

Observations of respondents during implementation took place in individual teacher classrooms, during implementation teacher planning time, and in a general meeting including the headmistress and the study's teacher respondents. Notes were

taken, transcribed, and later given to the respondents for clarification. Two teachers added further input, explaining observation content in terms of prior knowledge to said meeting.

Perusal of teachers' artifacts connected to mandate implementation took place prior to classroom observations. Bulletin board presentations, letters to parents explaining upcoming events and instruction, letters to local village businesses asking for various forms of support for the pupils' community service project, responses from both parents and community, and individual teacher lesson plans constituted artifacts for this study.

Data Analysis

Merriam (1998) contends that focusing "…on the culture and social regularities of everyday life" (p. 156) allows ethnographers to derive a classification system from the data as they use terms that are culture-specific (Merriam, 1998, p. 157). In this study, coding and data analysis follow Merriam's (1998) method for constructing categories in that "Categories and subcategories (or properties) are commonly constructed through the constant comparative method of data analysis" (p. 179).

In this explanatory case study, the data was viewed through Fullan's (1993) lens of learning contained in his dynamic paradigm of change, and Hope's (1999) tenets of teacher skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, in conjunction with Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory's construct of self-efficacy and Constructivist Theory's concept of making personal meaning.

Accepted Limitations of Computer Analysis

Recognizing that there is an ethical consideration between data analysis and data management (Merriman, 1998), in this research all analysis of the data followed Merriman's (1998) process of constructing categories. Yin's (1994) case study research protocol of comparing respondents' literature to other literature entrenched in grounded theory was also adhered to in order to extend ethical consideration.

To ensure focus, peer reviews of the analysis were employed. Respondents were requested to check the provided copy of the interview for researcher accuracy and interpretation. No one requested any changes be made to their transcript.

Verification

The purpose of all research is to ethically produce valid, reliable, and trustworthy knowledge. Creswell (1994) stated that having confidence in the quality of research is essential for any consumer in the diverse fields of the social sciences, to include education. Even though the paradigms of qualitative and quantitative research differ, especially in methodology, each paradigm approaches research with quality control in mind, and with clear procedures of how to verify data collection and its interpretation (Merriam, 1998). Questions must be asked of any such research. Are the conclusions of the study based on data? Is the design properly constructed? Is the data analysis logical? The qualitative researcher, according to Creswell (1994) establishes confidence in the

study by verifying the following: the accuracy of the information and its match to reality (internal validity/trustworthiness); the limits of generalization (external validity); and the parameters of replicating the study (reliability). Thus, ethical considerations protected the rights of the participants (Creswell, 1994).

Internal Validity

Internal validity is based on the assumption that what is observed and measured matches reality. This view of reality is problematic in the qualitative research paradigm because here reality is seen as an ever-changing, multidimensional phenomenon. Merriam (1998) reported that reality cannot be matched since it is never the same at any two points in time. According to Yin (1994), the reader must be able to evaluate the quality of research and to follow a “logical set of statements” (p. 32).

Internal validity is a logical, consistent method of making inferences in case study research. Even though direct observations were part of case study research, much of the data is derived from documents and long interviews, requiring the researcher to make inferences (Merriam, 1998). The focus of qualitative research then, was to understand and represent the participant’s perception of reality. Did the researcher’s methodology prompt logical inferences that converge in a clear direction? Did the researcher present the participant’s perceptions and experiences of reality in this study?

To enhance internal validity in qualitative designs, Merriam (1998) and Creswell (1994) outlined several basic strategies. The researcher used triangulation of data, member checks, peer examination, long-term observations, and an examination of researcher bias.

Triangulation: Triangulation allows the researcher to search for converging themes from various sources of information (Creswell, 1994). In addition to promoting quality assurance, the function of triangulation is to promote a complete view of the phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). Data for this study via multiple sources, including interviews, observation, discussions, and documents, were collected and analyzed.

Member Checks: Member check is a procedure for contacting the participants to verify the accuracy of data interpretation, findings, and conclusions. While the researcher is attempting to understand the participants' realities, perception checks are important. As the vocabulary of the interviews unraveled, the necessity of member checks was obvious. Participants frequently used "foreign" British educational terminology and acronyms that were unfamiliar to the researcher upon analysis. Member checks were conducted on an informal, as needed, basis. In most cases participants were contacted either by phone or e-mail to clear up any confusion.

Respondents were also requested to check the provided copy of the interview for researcher accuracy and interpretation. No one requested any changes be made to their transcript.

Peer Review: Peer review allows the researcher to check finding and conclusions with informed colleagues. From both a professional and a personal standpoint, the process of peer examination has proved to be helpful. Two colleagues, fellow doctoral students at Oklahoma State University, have provided feedback and support at weekly meetings throughout the study. These peers were familiar with the goals of my research and with the process and development of the study design from its conception. They also actively participated in the data review, helping locate emerging themes for the

refinement of the purpose of the study. One colleague assisted me in double coding a few of the early interview transcripts, each of us separately searching for codes and themes (Boyatzis, 1998), each of us gaining confidence in gleaning themes from data. Another colleague was of great assistance in helping me follow the innate pattern necessary for this study.

Long-term observations: Observations were made over a six-month period of time to enhance the validity of the findings (Creswell, 1994). Faculty meetings, a Board of Advisors meeting, and teacher grade level meetings were observed between October 2001 and March 2002.

External Validity

External validity refers to the extent to which results of my study can be applied to another setting. Qualitative research designs do not generalize in the traditional (statistical) patterns employed in quantitative research. Instead, qualitative research relies on naturalistic generalizations. A thorough knowledge of a particular case supports the reader's ability to recognize similarities in other contexts (Merriam, 1998). Techniques that augment external validity encompass the use of thick, rich description and the use of a detailed trail of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 1994).

The results of this study are presented in a narrative, using thick, rich description. The in-depth description of my results should guide the reader in deciding whether this study may be applicable or common to other situations. The record of data collection and analysis was maintained to provide an accurate and detailed account of the methods and

decisions made throughout the study. My university advisor, an experienced qualitative researcher, reviewed all aspects of the study.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which a study can be replicated (Merriam, 1998). In qualitative research, where reality is constantly changing, a reliable study is based on the assumption of a static reality. Hence, the traditional procedure for replication needs to be re-interpreted. Boyatzis (1998) sees reliability as "consistency in observation, labeling, and interpretation" (p. 144), achievable through identifying the method of sample selection, data collection, and data analysis. There are times when the reader might need to replicate the study to extend the research or to apply it to another setting (Merriam, 1998). Documentation of observations and notes increases both the replicability and the validity of the study (Merriam, 1998), creating a blueprint of the study for the reader to replicate the study. Additionally, triangulation of data supports reliability as well as the validity of the study (Merriam, 1998).

Ethical Considerations

All researchers have an ethical obligation to protect the rights and needs of the participants. Ethical considerations must be applied to all phases of qualitative research, from data collection to the dissemination of information (Merriam, 1998), and the responsibility of protecting participants' rights continues even once the study is concluded. Therefore, the following safeguards were applied in this study:

1. Participants in interviews were given a written overview of the research to be conducted, including information on how the information would be used. The information was presented several days in advance of interview appointments (Appendix A).
2. Written consent was obtained from interviewees (Appendix E).
3. At observations of general meetings, one of two methods was used to inform participants. Depending on the size and nature of the meeting, either a verbal announcement was made as to the nature and intent of the observation or a written summary, briefly stating the nature of the meeting, was given to the headmistress before a meeting (Appendix D).
4. The specifications and procedures of this study were submitted to, and approved by, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Oklahoma State University (Appendix B).
5. Verbatim transcripts of interviews and all reports are available to the participants for review.
6. All audiotapes, verbatim transcripts, field notes, computer discs, and coding strategies for notes are secured in a locked cabinet for a minimum of two years, after which they will be destroyed.
7. Only my advisor will access the names of the participants in this study.

Summary

This qualitative case study sought to identify how the learning of teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate. To this end, the researcher examined the

perceptions of adults working in a natural environment, a primary school located in East Anglia. As the filter of data in a qualitative paradigm is the researcher, I identified the personal beliefs and assumptions that may have shaped my data collection and its subsequent interpretation. Data was collected though semi-structured interviews with a member of the Board of Governors, teachers, and the headmistress, informal observations of class interactions as well as faculty and grade level meetings, and discussions with an Office for Standards in Teaching Education (OFSTED) inspector, and by reviewing documents. In conjunction with Hope's (1999) tenets of teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, Fullan's (1993) lens of learning provided insight into how teachers' learning changed while implementing an educational mandate. Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) and Constructivist Theory (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et al., 1991; Wilson, 1996) were used to enrich coding and evaluating data. To enhance the study's internal validity, the following strategies were used: triangulation of data, member checks, peer examination, long-term observations, and an examination of researcher bias. To promote external validity, strategies used included the use of thick, rich description and a detailed record of data collection and analysis. To support reliability, a record of documents, protocols, artifacts, and notes was maintained. From sample selection to the dissemination of information, ethical standards were considered in all phases of this study, in accordance with the guidelines of the Institutional Review Board of Oklahoma State University.

CHAPTER IV

Data Presentation

> Service is not just another agenda item. Rather, it is an elegant way to integrate many educational and social reform recommendations. It is a powerful way to engage students in learning which centers around critical community concern and recontextualizes the learning environment so the teacher becomes a facilitator of learning. (McPherson, 1989, p. 11)

Student populations have changed dramatically in recent years because the varied societies in which they live have undergone significant alterations (Kennedy, 1991). Because of rapid social changes, people in general have lost their connections with their communities and have often harbored a sense of isolation (Kohn, 1991). If a sense of community were to endure, young people needed to believe in more than themselves (Kennedy, 1991; Kohn, 1991; Clark & Clark, 1994; Krystal, 1999). Service learning provided an avenue for both teachers and pupils to learn and experience belonging in their local community (Boyer, 1987a; 1990; 1995; Organ, 1988; Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Richardson, 2000). Therefore, teachers must be provided continual opportunities to be knowledgeable, capable, and inspiring (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Dilworth & Imig, 1995; Guskey & Huberman, 1995;

Guskey, 2003). According to Darling-Hammond (1996), "A more complex, knowledge-based and multicultural society is demanding new expectations for teaching" (p. 194). In effect, it was important to know what happened to teacher learning while implementing an educational mandate.

Selection of Respondents

After presenting my research proposal to Fiona, the headmistress of King Edward VII Primary School located in Suffolk County, England, she recommended that I discuss my study with her staff at their next meeting. I met with these teachers, explained the purpose of my research, and asked if they would be willing to be interviewed. I interviewed eight of those teachers who volunteered to assist me. I also interviewed Fiona, the headmistress, and Gillian, a representative from the Office for Standards in Teaching Education, the educational body tasked with the duty of ensuring that schools were meeting the nation's educational provisos. There was a wide gap in the number of years of teaching experience among the respondents, evidenced in the chart provided in Chapter III. There was also a general, but not unanimous, acceptance of the educational mandate, evidenced throughout this reading.

Introduction of Respondents

Of the eight teachers interviewed, three were considered specialists in the curricular areas of art, physical education, and French. The five classroom teachers, who

specialized in either writing, social studies, reading, science, or math while implementing service learning activities at King Edward VII Primary School, worked with the three specialist teachers as a teaching team throughout the project's duration. The domain of reasons for entering the teaching profession, which will be pursued in greater detail in a following section by using statements of the respondents, was mentioned at this time to familiarize the reader with the personalities of the respondents to augment deeper understanding of this study. Length of teaching experience, combined with respondents' bibliographical glimpses, were also introduced here to set the stage for discovering how the learning of individual teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate.

Specialist Teachers

Of the eight teachers interviewed, three would be considered specialists in the curricular areas of art, physical education, and French.

Moira. Moira, a veteran teacher of 30 years experience, has been teaching art and music at King Edward VII Primary School since she left university because she preferred living close to her extended family. Family tradition was upheld when she became a fourth generation music instructor, and her son was receiving training to carry on the family history. Finding satisfaction in teaching music came early in her life because she had some willing friends that would attend her lessons in the playhouse in the back garden.

Moira became interested in art in primary school when she spilled her paints together on a page. She expected to hear cross words but her teacher suggested that she try to make a picture like no one else's. She did, and her teacher hung it on her board

behind her desk for a whole week. Moira felt that art was the essence of expression and did not wish to alter her perspective.

Alistair. Alistair's father had established a very successful business, and he wanted his son to be his replacement. The pressure to conform was so great that Alistair received an advanced degree in accountancy. Yet, he was so unhappy that he actively sought another outlet. Since he had been keen on sports, he volunteered to assist at his local sports club. As he enjoyed it thoroughly, Alistair decided to become a teacher "to escape boredom from a career someone else wanted for me."

Alistair had been a physical education teacher for 10 years at three different locations. All he ever wanted as a teacher was to be left alone to do sports; thus, Alistair was not a team player.

Elizabeth. Elizabeth never intended to become a teacher because she was intent on going to university to study French so that she could work in Paris. That was her dream until travel was drastically reduced due to international political tensions. Her Aunt Jean, a maths instructor, convinced Elizabeth to return to university to become a French teacher. Elizabeth did so, primarily because there were no job openings in her chosen career; yet as a teacher, Elizabeth exuded enthusiasm, commitment to her teaching position, and a genuine ability to work with both pupils and adults as a professional. She participated in service learning while attending university so she was a valued asset during implementation.

Elizabeth, a two-year veteran, was presently in her first year of teaching French at King Edward VII Primary School. She had not given up her dream of working in Paris, but for now she is content to be near her husband's aging parents.

Classroom Teachers

The five classroom teachers, each assuming a role as the specified expert in either writing, social studies, reading, science, or math while implementing service learning activities at King Edward VII Primary School, worked with the three specialist teachers as a teaching/learning unit.

Pamela. On her first day of school, Pamela fell in love with her teacher, and ever since then, her life's goal was to become a teacher. She had been teaching for 15 years and had worked at three different locations throughout England. Pamela thought that she had the ability to make pupils feel what they write and to actually see pictures unfold as they created their own books.

Pamela's teaching experience at her former location left her shattered, disillusioned about teaching, destroyed emotionally, and she seriously contemplated quitting the profession. Her attitude about teaching, as well as about herself and her level of self-confidence, totally changed because of the acceptance of her teaching team, of the team's willingness to share and collaborate with Pamela to ensure that she was a productive member.

Ann. Ann always wanted to be a teacher. She and her older sisters used to spend hours playing school in her back garden. She thought that it might be the most rewarding and fulfilling experience to open others' minds to what she had learned. Ann simply

loved learning and reading to her huge doll collection. When she entered nursery school, her world was complete.

Ann participated in service learning while attending university and offered support to her team's plans for implementation. Ann was bright, bubbly, friendly, and relatively new to teaching. Her only teaching experiences occurred during the three years that she worked at King Edward VII Primary School, where one can find her among the hundreds of children's books that she enjoys sharing with her pupils.

Nigel. Nigel never set out to be a teacher. As a young man, he joined the Royal Air Force, where he became an instructor in survival skills, closely linked to his beloved athletics. He was later selected for parachute training and liked it very much. Nigel had a tragic accident while landing ten years ago, shattering, nearly ruining his legs. This ended his position in the Royal Air Force.

Reconsidering his options, Nigel thought that teaching appeared to be a secure place when he needed security. Nigel had always been good at maths; therefore, he pursued this vein of education. He admitted that his was not a glorious introduction to teaching, but he justified himself with his view that, with a physical handicap, being a teacher would not hinder his acceptance into the profession.

Nigel's experiences in university with service learning and in the Royal Air Force with foreign aid proved invaluably inspiring during implementation of service learning at King Edward Primary VII School, his only site for teaching. For seven years, he was the one who fortified the foundation for teachers' incorporation of service learning's methodology in team lesson plans that were collaboratively designed.

Zoe. Zoe followed her father's vocation into the classroom. Both adored all of those creepy-crawly-critters that make most people squeamish. Her mum thought that she had dropped her as an infant because she craved some vision of a Shirley Temple doll child, but she had Zoe, the infamous "Bug Lady" of King Edward VII Primary School. She carried that name and her love of science to three different schools during her 19 years of teaching.

Zoe enjoyed the level of enthusiasm she found in young pupils, admiring their lack of fear of her passion—insects. Because Zoe had been exposed to the inquiry approach to learning from her father as they made her huge collection of specimens and because of scientific training, she naturally transferred this learning style to her classroom.

Norma. Norma's father still works on a large farm, and her mother still cleans other people's homes. When Norma went to school, she became aware of how her teachers', mostly female, appearance differed from her mum's. Teachers seemed to have things. Norma wanted those things, and she worked hard, determined to get what she considered to be the privileges of teachers.

When Norma was young, excellent pupils could apply and receive a place at university without the cost of today's education. She received such a place, and on that day, Norma received a bud of belief that everyone, no matter what status, had a chance to learn.

From materialistic intent to total dedication to the learning of her pupils, Norma became a recognized pillar of excellence in her local community. She had established many links throughout her region that would prove invaluable later when service learning

became her venue. Norma received her first teaching position in 1977 at King Edward VII Primary School, where her love of her surroundings was apparent in the displays that decorated her classroom. She was respected and trusted, a beacon of light and a fountain of knowledge and experience to both professional and pupil.

Administrators

The two other respondents, Fiona, the headmistress of King Edward VII Primary School, and Gillian, the school inspector who represented the Office for Standards Teaching Education, were administrators, both of whom had not had actual participation in service learning prior to affiliation with King Edward VII Primary School.

Fiona. Finoa's mother inspired her to become a teacher, but it was her father's experiences in Egypt during the 1950's that molded her educational philosophy. He taught Fiona that everyone, including children, should have a chance to learn. Fiona took his message to heart. In 1967 Fiona began her teaching career in Oxford, where she delighted in teaching primary pupils to read. Fiona had been a reading teacher at three locations throughout England and was eventually promoted to headmistress at a troubled school that sorely tested her resolve to continue.

Fiona considered that being an administrator was a continuation of being a teacher. She believed her position as headmistress an extension of any classroom. Each day she aspired to feel good about what she could do for others. If she can assist anyone at King Edward VII Primary School, especially her staff members, to feel good about what they did, then the pupils benefited. That was how Fiona saw her role as headmistress.

Gillian. Becoming a teacher was not Gillian's dream as a child. She wanted to be on stage. During her later schooling, she was selected to attend a summer course for pupils gifted in public address held at Cambridge, an experience that transformed her future plans. After finishing with public school, Gillian attended university, studying dramatics, but during her third year of studies, she married, became pregnant, and withdrew to become a full-time mum.

As Gillian became involved with her children's education, she became captivated by the excitement that she observed as their teachers presented lessons. She conferred with her husband, who urged her to pursue a degree in education, and Gillian began her career as a teacher in 1989, where she taught dramatics in a large public school. She commented that without all of those years of assisting others in classroom settings, she might not have become a teacher.

Because Gillian entered the teaching profession as a mature member of staff, she brought with her a wealth of life's experiences and wisdom that were recognized by her headmaster, who suggested that she consider applying to become a headmistress, which she did. Gillian became headmistress of a primary school in 1995. It was from this position that her positive attitude toward staff and pupils, her ability to organize and follow through, combined with her keen insight into what needed to be done to improve a school made her a prime candidate for assisting more than her school with improvement. Gillian began to work for the Office for Standards in Teaching Education (OFSTED), the agency that inspects schools for compliance to the National Standards concerning education in England. That was how Gillian became involved with service learning at King Edward VII Primary School.

Respondents and Setting the Stage

After the initial staff meeting in which I explained the intent of my research, Fiona, the headmistress, Gillian, the school inspector, and I met in the school's office to further discuss the intent of the service learning program and its relationship to the local community. Fiona explained that, "We are all after the same goal—a deeper understanding of material presented on a topic so pupils are able to make better connections to the world in which they live."

Topics Discussed with Administration Prior to Conducting Interviews

Prior to presenting my proposal to the teachers of King Edward VII Primary School, I met with the administration to set the parameters for conducting my research at the site. Numerous topics were discussed at this initial meeting.

View of the Role of Discussion: We discussed that, in order to obtain the most information from staff members, it behooved me to let the teachers talk. Fiona emphasized, "The staff are used to offering a great deal of input at the school and will expect to be able to express themselves fully." Listen and learn was the advice Fiona gave me.

View of Motivation to Change in Teachers' Practice: Also discussed was the role of educational mandates and their relationship to teachers' motivation to change teaching practice, and according to Fiona:

> A tough decision has to be made about how I go about convincing non-believers that there is a need for staff to see how ideas transcend across curricular boundaries. We teach children here before we teach subject areas, and we need to work together so we can make ideas accessible to others.

View of Beliefs to Commitment: The element of teachers' beliefs regarding service learning and how beliefs related to commitment while implementing an educational mandate was another topic of conversation. Fiona reiterated, "I do consider my staff accountable for following through on implementation once we have worked through our strategies together at in-service and later in committee discussions."

View of Collaboration throughout the School: Finally, we discussed the focus both teacher and student learning held at King Edward VII Primary School during the implementation of service learning. Fiona commented that:

> I not only expect my staff to engage in talks, but I also expect that they work together, that they collaborate and share their excellent strategies, creative ideas, and plans concerning lessons with each other. What better way is there for other staff members to connect their lessons to others' content?

Reasons for Becoming a Teacher

This study procured information regarding respondents' reasons for becoming teachers and insight into recollections of mandates in pre-service training from each interviewee prior to asking for their input regarding the implementation of service learning so that they would be more relaxed and open with their comments. I sought

their reasons for becoming a teacher because I wanted to find out if there were connections between motive to teach and motivation in implementing an educational mandate as a teacher.

Respondents Who Left Another Career to Teach

Never seeking to become a teacher, Elizabeth studied French so that she could be employed in the holiday industry in France. Elizabeth related that, "When I left university, the job market was practically closed. I was advised to reconsider, to return to university to pursue becoming a French teacher."

Also pursuing a career other than teaching, Nigel lived his dream career as a physical fitness and survival instructor in the Royal Air Force prior to a serious accident that left him physically handicapped, unable to meet the requirements needed for his work. Nigel commented that:

> Over time I have come to appreciate the value of what I do now. I enjoy being a teacher because I have learned that pupils want to be involved in their own learning.

It is doubtful that Alistair and Gillian would have become teachers too. Alistair wanted to become involved with sports but was persuaded by his father to pursue his career so he finished his studies with an advanced degree in accountancy. Alistair said that:

> I was not intended for the business world because I wanted to be involved with sport, and gradually I realized that I wanted to become a physical education teacher.

However, Gillian, who was studying drama at university, decided to marry before finishing her studies. She related that:

> When my children entered school, I volunteered and became interested in my children's educational processes. My husband encouraged me to return to university to become a teacher so I went back to university as my children were finishing their various studies.

Respondents Who Desired to Teach since Childhood

Ann, Pamela, Fiona, and Norma wanted to be teachers since early childhood when they played school and adored their first teachers. Ann recalled that, "When I entered nursery school, my world was complete. I had my own teacher. I wanted to become a real teacher like Mrs. Hargreaves." Like Ann, Pamela's goal of becoming a teacher began in early childhood because of her experiences with her first teacher. Pamela related that:

> On my first day of school, I just fell in love with that lovely, smiling lady who took me by my hand and led me into her classroom. When I went home I informed Mum and Dad that I wanted to be a teacher.

Both Fiona's mother and father influenced her decision to enter the teaching profession. She expressed that:

> When I was older, my mother achieved her dream of teaching. My father taught me early on that everyone, no matter what status in life, should have a chance to learn. I think I took this message to heart. I decided I wanted to be a teacher.

Norma's childhood experiences for pursuing teaching as a career differed vastly from those of her colleagues. Norma recalled that:

> My parents worked long and hard for what little we had. I observed that my teachers had nice clothes and shoes and soft hands. They didn't seem to work as hard as my mother, and they had things that I wanted.

Respondents Who Were Influenced by Teaching Parents to Teach

Moira was born into a family steeped in the tradition of being music teachers. She had always been under the influence of parents, grandparents, and aunts and uncles who were music teachers. Moira reminisced that:

> I became interested in art in primary school when I spilled my paints together on a page. I spent longer at university because I studied art because I adored it and music because my family expected me to teach music as well as art.

Daughter of a professor of biology at Oxford, Zoe was indoctrinated as a child to appreciate all forms of living things, and she delighted in stating that:

> I followed my father into the biology laboratory. I am certain that his patience in teaching me about insects directly influenced my becoming a teacher.

Views Concerning Pre-Service Training Regarding Mandates

Becoming a teacher is not an overnight occurrence. It takes years of study and training to complete the course work necessary for a teaching credential. If educational mandates expect teachers to change their hard-won teaching practices, it is important, then, to understand how teachers feel they were prepared for such professional adjustments. Information was gathered about each respondent's views of experience with educational mandates during pre-service training.

No Pre-Service Training Related to Mandates

Norma, Moira, Pamela, Fiona, Allistair, and Nigel related that their pre-service education occurred so long ago that they were unable to recall mandates. Norma stated that, "No, I do not recall the terminology during my training," with Moira adding, "I had a classical education. Who mandates change in the classics?" Pamela supported both Norma and Moira with her statement that, "No. If educational mandates were discussed at university, I do not remember. That was a long time ago!" While Fiona laughed, she stressed that her eventual experiences with the National Curriculum "made me aware of my personal need to avoid becoming complacent in my career. It was then that mandate became part of my daily life as a teacher." Gillian noted that, "Mandates are the reason for my existence, but I did not receive formal education regarding their role as a teacher." Both Alistair and Nigel commented that, "Pre-service learning offered little, if any, instruction, regarding the role mandates occupied."

Pre-Service Training Related to Mandates

Elizabeth and Ann, both recent university graduates, experienced training related to the role mandates would play in their teaching careers. Elizabeth commented:

> I remember educational mandates because I received careful instruction regarding the elements of the National Curriculum. I came to realize that nearly all aspects of education are attached to some form of regulation, meaning change will have to occur in my teaching practices.

Ann added support to Elizabeth when she responded:

> Mandates are additions to education that those who think they know what is missing in education add to the curriculum to make things better.

Embedded Awareness of Mandates during Pre-Service Training

Even though Zoe attended university over 19 years ago, she considered her university tutors to be progressive thinkers and considered that they had implied the importance of top-down educational mandate, commenting that:

> I do not actually remember the term mandate per se, but the revelation that change would be expected, demanded, and forced upon me later made me consider mandates an integral part of my future career. In that aspect, I can say that the philosophical acceptance was embedded.

Awareness of Service Learning

While students are dramatically changing (Baldauf, 1997), teachers tend to be in isolated working situations (Darling-Hammond, 1998), operating on the common belief that ownership of change is not in the hands of those implementing a mandate (Fullan, 1993; Kezar & Rhoads, 2001). Students do not think this way (Boyer, 1995; Krystal, 1999), and teachers need to respond to students' changes by altering how they present concepts (Boyer, 1993; 1987b; Baldauf, 1997). One such teaching methodology to address changing needs of students is service learning (Boyer, 1990; 1995; Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Krystal, 1999). This study gathered information regarding when and how respondents learned about service learning.

Teachers with Pre- and Post-University Service Learning Experiences

Elizabeth and Ann had had service learning experiences in public schooling, university, and as teachers. Elizabeth commented:

> It is as rewarding being the teacher in a service learning project as being the pupil. I was wondering how I would feel on the other side of the lessons involved.

Ann understood the rationale for service learning, adding that:

> Pupils grow so much as they participate in doing something necessary in their community. They just radiate when they see they make a difference. Now I know how my tutors at university must have felt.

Teacher with University Service Learning Experiences

Prior to entering university, Nigel was a member of the Royal Air Force, and in his capacity there, he assisted with numerous community service projects designed as foreign aid relief missions. He was a firm believer in helping others. Nigel had no awareness of service learning in his pre-university schooling, but he participated in service learning projects while attending university, commenting that, "I helped coordinate the numerous university students who were needed to package parcels for the Sudan." He was one of the initial staff members to have been instructed in service learning methodology in 1996 when the former headmaster wanted to make pupils' participation in community service related to the curriculum.

Teachers with No Awareness Prior to Initial Implementation

Norma, Pamela, Zoe, Moira, and Alistair had no prior awareness of service learning, and all of them were introduced to the concepts of service learning by a former headmaster of King Edward VII School. Norma insisted that she "required proof of student success before becoming a supporter of service learning," and she eventually became the driving force in ensuring productive service learning experiences for her school because every teacher interviewed consulted with her. Pamela arrived two years after the staff had worked through its first curricular-related service learning projects. After the provided in-service, staff members assisted Pamela in gaining an understanding

of the critical elements of how to incorporate service learning's strategies into her lessons. Pamela related that:

> I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma because they readily came to my aid when I was beginning with this style of teaching. Since I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project.

Zoe related similar acceptance into the world of service learning, stating that:

> Support and assistance evident throughout the school for this community-learning situation rivaled anything I could have hoped for when I arrived. I couldn't have managed to adjust so well into this school and community without their help.

Alistair and Moira were made aware of service learning at their place of work, and even though the teaching strategies were generally implemented, both teachers were non-compliant in assisting their teaching team to meet the goals that were reached through collaborative effort of the team. "I don't have a positive comment to make here," was Moira's reply regarding her awareness of service learning and her role in its implementation. Alistair defended his avoidance of his role in supporting his team achieve their goals by asserting, "What good does it do to have so many good brains in bodies that are dysfunctional? My results count, too, but it doesn't seem to be appreciated much."

Administrators' Awareness of Service Learning

Administrators Fiona and Gillian never participated in service learning activities in either their formal education or in teaching positions. Fiona related:

> I became aware of service learning at a conference I attended while headmistress of another school. Since my school was already undergoing radical changes, I did not assist with implementation at that time.

Gillian was unaware of service learning when she entered teaching. Later, as headmistress for five years, she did not implement service learning in her large urban school even though she knew of it because she was leading her staff through the implementation of the recently mandated National Standards for schools in England. When Gillian became a school inspector, she realized that:

> I had to become versed in a wide range of programs that did not seem to matter when I was a headmistress. As I broadened my scope of what was occurring within various schools, it was from that viewpoint that I became aware of service learning.

Teaching and Service Learning

Constructivist learning requires active participants who construct their own meaning as they make connections with prior learning, modifying it if deemed necessary (Brooks, 1984; Nelson & Mammerman, 1996; Richardson, 2003). If students are to become constructivist thinkers, teaching must re-conceptualize its position in that the role of the teacher needs to shift from content presentation to assisting students to construct their own understanding of concepts (Brooks, 1984; Richardson, 2003). To do this,

students need to become problem solvers as they integrate information and formulate their knowledge bases (Dewey, 1916; 1938; Boyer, 1987a; Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). Teachers become facilitators as they guide students through this learning process (Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Krystal, 1999). This study gathered information from respondents regarding what they thought that they had learned about teaching while implementing service learning.

From Teacher to Facilitator

Even though Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel were all familiar with service learning as a teaching methodology as they had prior learning and experience in university, it was Elizabeth who revealed insight into the difference in roles of teacher versus facilitator while participating in service learning in that:

> When I became the facilitator, it was not that easy to stand by and watch because I wanted to provide suggestions to speed up the process, but I resisted because I remember how I rejoiced in ownership when I was the participant in university.

Also, Norma and Zoe reflected on their positions as facilitators in the implementation of service learning. Norma learned that:

> I learned to stand back and be the producer and watch the movie play on the big screen. This was so difficult for me because I want control of what learning happens. Now I see how much more learning actually happens when students talk and share and analyze their ideas.

Zoe realized that pupils have to be given time to make sense out of information that they created as they worked through their service learning tasks. Zoe stated:

> When pupils have to discuss and come up with their own decisions and make meaning out of their jumble of information, I enjoy watching. I learned that it is important to keep this mentality while the pupils are processing their own learning. I am an observer.

From Teacher Isolation to Teacher Collaboration

Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, Pamela, Zoe, Alistair, and Nigel related that without collaborating with other staff their participation in service learning would have been less effective. According to Elizabeth, "Teaching my content is one thing. Adapting it to meet the requirements for service learning is quite another. I sought help and got it." Ann insisted that, "Brainstorming and sharing our tactics helped all of us get to know each other and each other's content goals better so that accommodations could be made and agreed upon." Norma related that:

> At first I was opposed to service learning. I collaborated with Nigel, whose patience and expertise clarified for me the benefits of service learning as a teaching practice. Without sharing and supporting, I would have missed out on understanding how pupils process what they learn during service learning.

Pamela beamed, "I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma because they really came to my aid when I was beginning with this style of teaching. Since I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany

them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project."   Zoe declared that, "I learned how to implement the teaching elements of service learning from other staff, especially Norma. People here listened and helped and got on with the task." Reinforcing Zoe's view, Alistair admitted that:

> Even though I am not a firm believer in service learning, people were willing to put up with me as well as help me. I learned that I needed to try to be more supportive of school policy. I realize that I did bugger all. And Norma still urges me to join in the activities.

Nigel commented that, "When Norma came to me for explanation on service learning, I was thrilled!" Nigel was aware of his role as facilitator in assisting Norma learn about service learning, reflecting that:

> I also knew that the head had sent her. I knew that she was the real force in the staff, and her interest showed an inclination to change. I took great care to make the steps accessible to a traditional teaching style so that she could learn to alter her course as she gained in confidence and accepted that she could and should change her beliefs about service learning. From this, I learned that collaboration is highly effective when helping others readjust what they do.

Administrators' Views on Collaboration

Fiona summed up the staff's view regarding teacher learning through collaboration and how participation in the process affected service learning. She stated that, "Without teacher learning, there is no foundation for the initiative. I wanted my

staff to be part of the most important learning taking place—sharing and brainstorming and restructuring what we do to meet our educational goals." Fiona elaborated on her need for her staff to think about what they were doing and why when they were implementing service learning and discussed how she monitored and encouraged her staff to express a school-wide purpose to be reached through an agreed-upon, staff developed procedure. She stated that:

> I realize that my role had changed because I became the facilitator, standing by and encouraging the staff to become the reflective learners that we wanted our pupils to become. I learned more than I can tell you through my staff's efforts to prepare the pupils to help solve a community need.

Fiona also believed that it is difficult to change when everyone involved has different beliefs about how to instruct. "People hang on to their values when they face tensions of moving from their preferred way of doing things." As headmistress, "I felt that I needed to foster an environment that encouraged collaboration among the staff." Gillian concurred with Fiona, offering that, "Learning lasts longer for me when I discuss matters of concern with colleagues. I seek advice often. I feel that collaborating with others for solutions is the best way to expedite solutions that help schools improve their standing."

Application of Learning

According to Anderson (1995), "There are some important understandings that seem important to success in the process of change…[with]…the empowerment of

teachers and the development of a change culture in the school" (p. 9) being among them. Barber (1993) found that dramatic improvements in student attitudes, motivation, and achievement were the results of correlating class work and service to the community. "Through service learning students' psychological investment in learning, understanding, or mastering knowledge and skills, comes from an internal commitment to address a concern…" (Cairn & Kielmeiser, 1991, p. 23). Data was gathered from respondents regarding how they were applying their learning about service learning in order to determine the effectiveness of said learning.

Through observations during collaborative team planning time and within the classroom setting, Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, Pamela, Zoe, and Nigel revealed application of learning during group discussions regarding content instruction concerning service learning implementation. After observing Elizabeth's class while a guest speaker from the local community answered pupils' questions about seeing-eye dogs in both English and French, thus reinforcing her French content, she later commented that:

> Changing my teaching style to accommodate service learning not only made me listen and learn new content, but it also made me share strategies and techniques with other teachers and vice versa.

While observing Ann instruct a service learning-related reading lesson about the varied causes of blindness, it was evidenced that she employed a suggestion made by Norma at a previous discussion meeting in that Ann sought pupils' written reflections more often than their oral reflections. According to Ann:

> I realize that in order to change my learning, I have to think about what I've already learnt. I realize that what I know isn't enough so I listen better to others

as they advise me. I talk things over with my colleagues, and I ask for clarification.

During observations of a teacher planning session, the philosophical beliefs regarding how Norma engaged herself in changing her learning while implementing an educational mandate were solidified when her colleague Alistair directly asked her why she had changed her beliefs. Norma responded that:

> Alistair, you know that I initially resisted implementing service learning in my lessons because I considered it a burden in an already full day. However, I watched Nigel and listened to his pupils' comments about what they were doing and feeling and learning during the service learning. The former headmaster actually referred me to Nigel for guidance, and this infuriated me! Since I felt poorly about the situation, I listened to what Nigel had to say, and I realized that I was denying my students the value of personal reflection. When I transferred his methodology, I was astounded! I didn't think there would be that great a difference in pupils' interest and learning.

Observing Pamela instruct her pupils during a writing activity in which pupils created a list of what they considered the necessary training requirements for seeing-eye dogs revealed the extent of her growth as a teacher, both in personal self-confidence and pupil participation. Pamela, who had been ready to end her unsatisfying teaching career when she began at King Edward VII Primary School, proudly stated that:

> I believe that I have learned to be a more positive thinker because whatever I do in my lessons now has been perused by colleagues who assisted me with needed adjustments. I learned how to accept assistance without feeling inferior because I

> have also learned that I have abilities that help other teachers learn. This new thinking has changed my view of curriculum due to the increased sharing of content. The greatest change in my learning, though, revolves around my pupils. When I now offer experimental activities, which I rarely used before, the balance of who participates shifts. I find that I now reach more pupils, but my happiest realization concerns my pupils who have not produced well in the past. Now that the pupils feel a bit of control over their own learning, they become alive, and actually some become very interesting leaders.

While observing Zoe assist her science pupils unearth various life forms from the school's back garden, she used the inquiry approach to learning. As she and her pupils returned to the building, Zoe constantly answered a pupil's question with a thoughtful question, leading to a successful pupil response. This is the same teaching strategy observed during her lesson regarding the health care offered a dog by a blind person. In discussion after observing the lesson, Zoe commented that:

> I have learned that our service learning project this year has made me more aware of the need to instruct pupils to appreciate the differences in their world. I now encourage my pupils to be more aware of their own personal health. Right now we are tracking what we eat for two weeks. Then we will reflect on how to improve our eating habits. This activity was pupil-generated because of keen interest in how to keep a seeing-eye dog healthy. I have also learned how to enrich my teaching through the discussions that I have with my service learning team.

Nigel, a firm believer in the teaching methodology embedded in the structure of service learning, was observed relating his maths lesson on graphing to Ann's reading lesson on the various causes of blindness. After the observation Nigel related that:

> I changed how I set up my lessons by instituting much more group work, generating more open-ended assignments based on the suggestions of other teachers during discussions. I overtly looked for ways to connect my maths applications to writing. I found an informative article about dogs and blindness so I made a copy for Norma's social studies lessons. She passed it on to Ann, who taught the reading comprehension aspects. I used the article to teach and review the usage of charts in presenting historical information mathematically. I do not usually initiate such learning, but I have learned that a far deeper level of awareness and knowledge result from such practice. It also binds the team to effective implementation as we are all relying on each other to teach a certain aspect of content. The most striking learning for me, though, is my awareness that other curricular areas, like science, for example, contain spores that might cross-pollinate maths. After each discussion session, I try to re-word some maths questions so that the terminology reflects learning from another teacher's content.

Ann, Norma, Pamela, and Zoe were observed either discussing topics or talking about the process of improving pupils' entries in journals. Nigel was observed relating his maths assignment to requirements for writing in Pamela's class. These teachers were observed presenting information regarding seeing-eye-dogs through their curricular areas.

When observing Alistair during the time allotted for service learning activities, his pupils were playing football. When asked later how he was applying his learning about service learning in order to determine its effectiveness, Alistair stated:

> I do as little as possible to engage myself in changing my learning regarding service learning. Unless I see direct correlation to what I teach, I opt out if possible. I have managed this so here we are.

While observing Moira during the specified frame for service learning, she was discussing the impact light had upon oil paintings. After the observation, Moira explained that:

> As you understand, hopefully, I do not try to willingly engage myself in changing my learning for implementing irrelevant mandates like service learning. When I became aware of how this would affect my program, I retreated to my room. I believe in consensus to a point, but not the point that my program is seriously eroded. I am not willing to be mandated into another frame of reference, when, to date, I see educators constantly struggling to adjust, readjust, rethink, etc.

Learning Reflected in Lesson Plans

Lesson plans and teacher notes were scanned for evidence regarding application of learning in order to determine the effectiveness of teacher learning. Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, Pamela, Zoe, and Nigel incorporated concepts from group discussions into their lesson plans. Elizabeth and Zoe had special notations regarding phone conversations with outside agencies for guest speakers. Elizabeth and Nigel evidenced adjusting their

core content to focus service learning's content applications during presentation. Elizabeth invited a bilingual speaker to talk to her pupils while Nigel had entries relating his maths assignments to Pamela's writing course. Ann and Norma had cross-references for content of lessons to be presented. All of these teachers had entries about shared resources and timelines for presentation of similar service learning content.

Alistair had no documentation to support the necessary changes in teacher practices for effective service learning, even though there was documentation in Norma's lesson plan book of conferring and making suggestions to Alistair of what to do when. Moira's lesson plans had no notations to indicate that she was incorporating the learning service strategies agreed upon by her teaching team.

Fiona understood that her staff needed to change their teaching practices if they were to construct new meaning and understanding of their role in service learning. She stated, "I need them to become reflective learners." Her task was made easier because Nigel had previously trained Norma, the recognized teacher leader, about the benefits of pupil reflection and how it impacts learning. Fiona's analysis continued with:

> I collaborate a great deal with Norma. I couldn't ask for a better teacher leader than Norma, who is making small gains with moving Alistair toward a better awareness of his role in service learning. I see more clearly that I will have to better monitor Moira in order to help her accept that she does have a part to play.

The headmistress, to a large degree, learned to give her staff ownership of committee discussions and final decisions about how to proceed with service learning.

Learning Reflected in Teacher Observations

When teachers were facilitating pupil activities related to the school's chosen service learning, all teacher observations occurred in classroom settings. Heterogeneous classes ranged from 25 pupils to 22 children. Each classroom evidenced the expected trappings of a typical school environment minus many computers, which were mainly housed in the media center. Numerous examples of pupil-designed flow charts were posted on classroom walls, exhibiting correlation of service learning among other subject areas. Teachers were observed facilitating, walking from group to group, offering insight as requested by pupils or as needed for group progress. Pupils worked primarily in groups of four or five except in the physical education teacher's class, where games were being played on the football pitch. The art teacher's classroom was set up in individual work areas, non conducive to service learning.

In six of the eight observations, it was evidenced that teachers were facilitating service learning methodology and were implementing lesson plans devised through collaboration with their team. Pupils were observed working in small, cooperative group settings, discussion groups, and planning presentations for an upcoming parents' evening. Four teachers were observed reviewing the significance of making meaningful entries in pupils' reflection journals.

The most obvious observed omission of service learning implementation was witnessed in the physical education and art teachers' classrooms. Neither instructor was observed to follow the plan that the teacher team had devised through mutually collaborative sessions. Neither teacher expressed remorse or guilt as they proceeded through their workday.

Views Concerning Skills and Service Learning

According to Fullan (1991, 1993), reform required personal change in what people think, know, do, and how they do it. Teachers learned the new skills needed for reform as they simultaneously unlearned beliefs and practices used throughout their teaching career (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Staff-development must expand as well as support the continuous acquisition and integration of new knowledge, skills, and learning in teaching environments if reform, resulting in change, were to succeed (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Gutsky, 1977; Slavin, 1997; Helsel-De Wert & Cory, 1998). This study sought information about respondents' views concerning skills and service learning.

Respondents with Positive Views

All respondents commented that in-service, provided by the administration, covered the necessary skills needed to implement service learning. Fiona added that it was rare to be provided teaching techniques via demonstration and modeling during in-service training, commenting that, "This reveals a problematic concern for administrators who want their staff to be trained effectively from the start."

All respondents mentioned the positive discourse accompanying the provided in-service regarding implementation of service learning, relating that the follow-up discussions among staff and between staff and the headmistress were essential to the acquisition of teaching skills needed for service learning. Alistair stated that, "Skills for

implementation came from each other." Nigel offered, "The reality has been that skills form while taking part in discussions with group members. Discussions have produced some of the most interestingly collaborative teaching units," while Norma concluded, "In-service is only the start of what is needed. Discussion groups really sort out the skills we need to use." Alistair reinforced Norma's view when he offered, "Effective committees sort things out even when I am a member." Moira noted, "We have our say in interpreting how we are to proceed." Elizabeth believed that she acquired skills "in presenting content and then discussing pupils' reflections with other staff." Zoe endorsed "our committee procedure for helping each other grow professionally," while Ann commented, "I do not want to see dramatic changes in how we collaborate to make our policies," because Fiona is a "firm believer in talking through our educational programs. The evolution of committees for sharing information offers processing that works for the benefit of the staff and the pupils."

Elizabeth, Ann, Pamela, and Nigel confirmed the role that the administration played in skill development in effective service learning. Elizabeth related that:

> My main belief is that in-service is not enough. Teachers must have support to implement an educational mandate, and through support skills are transferred, learned, and/or adapted. I learned a lot from my colleagues and from Fiona.

Nigel interjected with:

> It's what our headmistress has us do afterwards that produces results for us. Skills are presented during in-service, reinforced or reformatted in discussion groups, and then either supported or modified and then supported by the

> administration. It has taken some of us a long time to realize and accept that each of us has a strong, viable support system built into our daily lives here.

Nigel's belief correlated with Fiona's belief that "we acquire skills from each other after in-service training. Actually, I believe that skill level is increased through internal processing more than through provided in-service." Gillian concurred, stating that:

> I can think of no better way to become more skilled than in-service training, implementing that training, discussing what's happening, and receiving feedback. How else does one know if the effort is successful?

Respondents with Negative Views

Alistair commented, "I don't think I get skills from in-service training because I don't pay attention. In-service is boring and not relevant to me personally." Moira concurred, adding that she "resented the imposition of yet another addition that took time away from my lessons. I can't say that I opened up to whatever teaching methodology that comes with service learning due to my protective stance of its seemingly constant infringement on my areas of concern."

Views Concerning Motivation and Service Learning

Firth (1997) defined motivation as "the internal drive directing behavior towards some end. Motivation helps people overcome inertia. External forces can influence behavior, but ultimately it is the internal force of motivation that sustains behavior" (p. 1). Motivation addresses why a learner would or would not attempt to perform and can

be defined as "the influence of factors such as needs and preferences on the continuation of behavior" (Routhstein, 1990, p. 370). Information was gathered regarding respondents' motivation to participate in service learning in order to elicit an informed understanding of how they were applying their learning.

All teachers experienced service learning prior to the arrival of Fiona as headmistress. Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel participated in positive service learning experiences either during their pre-service training or schooling, thus enabling them to be proactive leaders during service learning in King Edward VII Primary School. Ann and Zoe had been motivated since childhood to "want to know, to inquire, to seek clarification on any issue." Being able to meet the needs of pupils, being "able to answer their queries", motivated both Pamela and Zoe. Elizabeth wanted to "know enough so that I can do justice to my pupils' education." According to Nigel:

> My motivation came from past experiences that helped me realize my potential. My belief that it is my task to provide my pupils with a process of learning that lets them be aware of what they know, but more importantly how and why they learned that information, motivates me to action. Service learning provides this awareness.

Norma contends that the locus of learning for her has always been internal, revealing that, "When I learned that there were student benefits to service learning, I motivated myself to change my thinking and to support the methodology." Because of her immediate acceptance, mutual respect, and positive collaborative experiences, Pamela grasped the importance of transferring these staff traits to her pupils. Pamela

stated that, "Pupils' queries motivate me to learn, and I have found that service learning's teaching strategies provide a structure that makes me focus more on their needs." Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, and Nigel were motivated to participate in service learning because each expressed an interest in working for the benefit of others.

Alistair's motivation to participate in service learning was reflected in his comment that, "It is difficult for me to share, but through the efforts of some staff, I am slowly, very slowly, learning to do my bit for service learning. I can't say I do it willingly yet, but I do not participate totally negatively any more." Moira commented that she does "not willingly participate in service learning because it robs me of teaching time for my artistic goals for my pupils. I don't think I am motivated to think differently, even if I have to sometimes act differently because of peer pressure."

Fiona related that, "I became motivated through the staff's concerted efforts to help their community. I became motivated to know my new community when I began to work here too." The headmistress learned to be motivated from others' experiences, as did Gillian, the school inspector, who also related that:

> I needed to be more proactive in finding examples of teaching that enabled pupils to work together, to discuss, to listen and ponder, and to reflect about what they know. I found these events incorporated in service learning, and that is what motivates me to express my support for this style of learning.

Views Concerning Beliefs and Service Learning

Bandura is synonymous with the Social Cognitive Theory, a theory used to

identify methods in which behavior can be modified or changed (Bandura, 1986). Due to the strong emphasis on human cognition, Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory suggested that the mind is an active force in reality construction. Understanding the processes involved in construction of reality enables human behavior to be understood, predicted, and changed (Fullan, 1993; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002).

Teachers Whose Beliefs in Service Learning Pre-Date Implementation

Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel were involved in service learning prior to employment at King Edward VII Primary School. Elizabeth, a second year teacher, voiced that:

> Part of my studies incorporated community involvement, with service learning as a component. So service learning was not a new concept for me when I started teaching here nearly two years ago. I learned that working together makes this sort of learning much more fun for everybody. When Fiona announced this project, I joined in and helped make it work.

Ann, a third-year teacher, related that:

> My schooling included service learning activities, and I became involved in a few projects while in university. I don't consider service learning a burden but a way of life for me. I may not have always been aware of methodology, but I have been influenced by my parents to believe that it is essential for people to be active in assisting others. I pretty much assume that it is my responsibility to do my part.

Nigel, a seventh-year instructor, became a teacher after a tragic accident ended his career as a survival trainer in the Royal Air Force. While in the military, he was heavily responsible for organizing relief for Africa, so when Nigel entered university, he participated in service learning willingly. Nigel maintained that:

> When I entered the Forces, I was involved in organizing aid missions to various hot spots around the world. So when I went to university, it was easy for me to organize younger people in their efforts to do the same type of assistance. I have the ability to sort situations out. I can lead others, and effective service learning needs organization.

Teachers Whose Beliefs Were Altered during Implementation

Embedded in the Social Cognitive Theory is the essential concept that people possess self-beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs that provided self-control over their individual thoughts, feelings, or actions (Bandura, 1986; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002). "What people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25) as well as what they learn (Fullan, 1993). Since self-motivation is not a spontaneous occurrence (Bandura, 1986), the factors of self-efficacy, feedback, and time conspired to determine the degree of self-motivation that exists (Bandura, 1986, 1989). Self-efficacy profoundly influenced a person's decision to behave in a given fashion, since feedback enabled a person to re-evaluate his/her efforts and goals to make them more attainable, impacting self-efficacy in the process (Pajares, 2002).

Zoe, with no previous awareness of service learning before implementation at King Edward VII Primary School, perceived that, “Even though I already preferred to use the inquiry approach in my instruction, Nigel’s persuasiveness in trying to convince Norma made me a supporter of the service-learning package.” On the other hand, Norma, a veteran of 25 years of teaching experience, believed that she “wasn’t necessarily willing to accept changes accompanying educational mandates like service learning. I know I resisted change.” When the former headmaster informed Norma that Nigel would be tutoring her regarding service learning, she reported that, “I was devastated.” She continued with, “I began to comprehend that, if I really wanted to know what my pupils had learned, I needed to change how I found out.” Nigel assisted me in making “the connection between service learning’s methodology and pupils’ deeper learning. That’s how I realized I needed to change my actions and help Nigel and the headmaster with implementation. Once I believed in the process, I knew that I could use it.”

Pamela, in her fifteenth year of teaching, arrived two years after the staff had successfully completed its first curricular-related service learning project. Her teaching experience at her former location left her shattered, disillusioned about teaching, destroyed emotionally, and she seriously contemplated quitting the profession. Pamela emphasized that:

> I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma because they readily came to my aid when I was beginning with this style of teaching. I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to

> accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project.

Pamela's self-efficacy regarding her abilities to teach have drastically changed since she arrived at King Edward VII Primary School, verified with:

> I believe that I have learned to be a more positive thinker because whatever I do in my lessons now has been perused by colleagues who assisted me with needed adjustments. I learned how to accept assistance without feeling inferior because I have also learned that I have abilities that help other teachers learn.

Teachers Whose Beliefs Remained Static

A potent barrier to change is resistance, a fearful response to change (Marshak, 1996), commonly occurring as a response to forms of change likely to produce personal impact (Friend & Cook, 1996). According to Hartzell (2003), "Territoriality in isolation traditionally permits educational domains to become havens for teachers, especially those in need of a sense of control. Change involving sharing and collaborating directly affects the need to feel in control" (p. 1).

For 30 years Moira has taught music and art at King Edward VII Primary School, ever-managing to avoid incorporation into her various teams' service learning strategies for implementation. Moria reconciled her position by protesting that:

> I do not try to willingly engage myself in changing my learning for implementing irrelevant mandates like service learning. When I became aware of how this

> would affect my program, I retreated to my room. I believe in consensus to a point, but not the point that my program is seriously eroded.

Alistair, in his tenth year of teaching, concurred with Moira's resistive view of becoming a contributing member of his service learning implementation team. He avowed that:

> I do as little as possible to engage myself in changing my learning regarding service learning. Unless I see direct correlation to what I teach, I opt out if possible. I have managed this so here we are.

Role of Administrators' Beliefs during Implementation

"Beliefs are important influences on the ways people conceptualize tasks and learn from experience" (Nespor, 1987, p. 317). Richardson (1996) contended teachers' reflection on beliefs and classroom practice was important if instruction were to occur. Since beliefs acted as active agents as teachers plan and predict future events, they were vital in the construction of school culture, which, in itself, impacted teacher beliefs (Cuban, 1990) as they undergo change and reconfiguration while teachers evaluate their beliefs in relation to their experiences (Thompson, 1992).

In her endeavor to foster a positive school culture in which change in teachers' practice occurred during implementation of service learning, Fiona reflected her beliefs regarding the necessity for educational change, indicating that:

> I believe in changing practice. With the cooperation of the staff, I think that we have created a structure for dealing with any situation involving the staff. We talk

> through any issues. We discuss until consensus is reached. This way those who dissent have chances to express their views too. I find it sensible to have in place an organized, functional, staff-directed course of action to handle concerns during implementation.
>
> It was because of the school's structure and Norma's request to pursue with service learning that I eventually recognized the inherent value of service learning. The teaching strategies enabled the staff to come out of their classrooms and talk with each other, to get to know each other's strengths and weaknesses, to plan together, to simply assist each other present a unified theme that inspired youngsters to want to learn more content.

Gillian's beliefs regarding service learning were affected only after becoming a school inspector, working for the Office for Standards of Teaching Education (OFSTED). Witnessing positive interaction of service learning with the local community served by King Edward VII Primary School, Gillian concluded that:

> I had to become versed in a wide range of programs that did not seem to matter when I was a headmistress. Programs were being implemented, and I had to understand what they entailed. As I broadened my scope of what was occurring within various schools, it was from that viewpoint that I became aware of service learning and the benefits for increasing pupils' academic achievement.

Views Concerning Commitment and Service Learning

"Commitment is the degree of positive, affective bond between the teacher and the school…reflecting the degree of internal motivation, enthusiasm, and job satisfaction teachers derive from teaching and the degree of efficacy and effectiveness they achieve in their jobs" (NCES, 1997, p. 2). Respondents' comments regarding their commitment to service learning were gathered to inform this study's inquiry into how the learning of teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate.

Teachers with Positive Views

Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel had prior experiences with service learning and stated that it was easy for them to become committed to service learning. Elizabeth added that she believed in the style of learning for pupils provided in service learning because it made them question and seek answers. "That has been my basis of learning since childhood. If I believe in something, I commit." Nigel further commented, "I appreciate the struggle that others here have made to understand. When I see those who doubt the value of service learning finally realize that there is learning attached to helping others, I know that I believe in something good."

Ann and Zoe remarked that commitment to service learning centered on the hands-on, experiential learning involved in methodology. Zoe related, "When students learn while doing good deeds for someone else, that learning has my commitment." Ann mentioned that, "Pupils' journal entries regarding their project reveal a lot about their thinking. I need better insight if I am to help my pupils grow."

Norma, Fiona, and Gillian had to work with teachers experienced in service learning to elicit commitment. According to Norma, "I learned from Nigel that pupils need more thinking skills than I used, so I changed my perspective about reflection, and because I saw first-hand how much it improved retention of content, I changed."

When Pamela came to work at King Edward VII Primary School, she was lacking in self-confidence and wary of other staff. She was readily accepted by the staff and was assisted greatly in her readjustment into a positive teaching environment. Pamela commented that, "The support from the headmistress and the staff, plus all of the discussions, made it so much easier for me. Without the respect shown to me as a professional, I know that I would be less committed to service learning."

Teachers with Weak or No Commitment to Service Learning

Alistair and Moria displayed no commitment to service learning. Ailstair emphatically stated that he "doesn't like to teach personal values to pupils" and that he "chooses to opt out." Moria clarified her stance on commitment with her statement that, "I am hardly ever committed to educational mandates because they tend to reduce my time for my curriculum. Most mandates don't seem to remain in standing, but the reduction of time for art and music does. I suppose that makes me uncommitted."

Administrators' Views Concerning Commitment to Service Learning

As headmistress, Fiona was ultimately responsible for successful the school's

service learning implementation. She mused that, “I discussed Norma’s request for continuation of service learning with the entire staff, listened to various points of view and chose to let the staff continue. I witnessed the dedication of the staff. I believe that’s commitment.”

According to Gillian, “I found examples of teaching that enable pupils to work together, to discuss, to think, and to reflect upon what they have learned incorporated in service learning. How can I not express my support and commitment to this style of learning?”

Views about Success in Changing Learning during Implementation

Fullan’s (1993) lens of learning emphasized that, “Every person is a change agent” (p. 39). Peterson (2002) reported that culture, “that history and underlying set of unwritten expectations” (p. 1), not only shaped the total school but also impacted heavily upon people’s thought processes, feelings, and actions, thereby determining the degree of success in extending staff and student learning. This study gathered information concerning respondents’ views regarding success in changing their learning during implementation.

Teachers Whose Learning Changed and Why

Norma wanted to know what successful teaching strategies she could transfer. She also sought input, support, and direction from Nigel before she considered altering her established teaching patterns. Norma reflected that, “I cannot make myself change

what I presently do if I do not see that I am making a difference in pupils' learning. Because of Nigel's tutoring, I understand the educational benefits of service learning's teaching strategies." Norma used to operate in a vacuum and did not consider that other teachers could easily have offered suggestions. "Now, because of our encouragement to discuss with others what we do, I collaborate. Coming out of my sanctuary has actually made me feel more secure." Norma attributed teacher dialogue about educational issues that concern pupils to have changed her teaching.

Zoe expressed a need to make certain that she understood the desired change in practice before making adjustments. According to Zoe, she believed that she had success in changing her learning while implementing service learning, stating that, "Since we worked together to set our parameters for service learning, and since the pupils really expressed interest and learned more than anticipated, I think that we are entitled to credit for our own success because we worked it out together."

According to Elizabeth, she felt that she had success in changing her learning during implementation, asserting that, "I changed my learning because I became more aware of what I was doing. I changed my belief regarding ownership of content because I found that it was much more pleasant to discuss strategies and topics with others." Reflecting that, " I know that I have changed how I look at learning. I now realize that pupils decide what something means to them. I cannot make meaning for them, but I can offer them countless opportunities to make meaning for themselves, and this I consider the biggest change in my learning to be a teacher," Elizabeth corroborated the basic premises of Constructivist Theory (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et al, 1991; Wilson, 1996).

Ann thought of herself as teacher in need of better hearing until she realized that the problem did not concern her ears. It concerned her ability to listen to other educators who offered her advice that she actually sought. Ann remarked that, "I consider learning to become a better listener a big step in my learning to become a better teacher. Without the necessary discussions within the team concerning the division of activities for service learning, I do not feel that I would have changed."

Many respondents expressed that changing their learning while implementing service learning could be linked to group discussions in which ways to collaborate resulted in execution of implementation. Pamela consulted with Ann much more because "her curriculum is compatible with mine, and it makes sense to work together." Pamela insisted that, "I learned that other teachers were willing to listen to my concerns and offer different insights into coping with initial implementation. I learned that I have some ideas worthy of sharing too. I was more than ready to change what I had learned about teaching."

Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, Pamela, Zoe, and Nigel ascribed changes in their learning to collaborative group discussions and planning. Ann attributed success to preparation, as did Zoe when she commented that, "There isn't much success in our profession without pre-planning, organization, and knowing the answers or how to get there. My methodology really changed because of all of the teamwork and chats that gave me suggestions and encouragement." Ann related that, " I needed to figure out a plan and stick to it until I know that it cannot be made any better through discussion with others." Nigel philosophized, "Change is painful. Success comes through being supported in your

efforts, even if you don't reach the desired results. Support is the key domino. It comes through resolving issues through discussion and acting upon that discussion."

However, it was Nigel, Elizabeth, and Pamela who revealed more specific examples of how they engaged themselves in changing their learning. Nigel commented that, "I spend more time in thinking about maths skill levels before placing pupils in work groups. I have generated more open-ended problems in maths as they require teamwork. I have more integrated group work than I used to offer. This is because I rely more heavily on suggestions that come from group discussions." Elizabeth extended Nigel's thoughts on changing personal learning, offering that:

> Changing my learning to accommodate service learning made me not only listen to others' views and learn new content, but it also made me share teaching strategies and techniques with other teachers. I now check what's happening in science and social studies education to find out what their current goals for their pupils are so that I look can for ways to incorporate them into my lessons' content, if possible.

Pamela learned quickly that she had colleagues who believed in collaborating and working together and in sharing ideas and input. She learned to value her talents and have a more positive self-efficacy about what she could do. Through understanding and appreciating the powerfully positive effect collaboration had on improving her outlook about teaching, Pamela commented that, "I learned to become an effective contributor to group discussions. I changed my whole outlook about being involved in discussion groups. I now believe that we must talk more educationally and share ideas more willingly about everything we do."

Elizabeth, Norma, Pamela, Nigel, and Alistair ascribed successful changes in their learning to the nature of decision making that evolved in the school setting. Pamela was not a confident individual when she began working at King Edward VII Primary School. Pamela stated that, “I became a more positive thinker because what I am being asked to do had been thoroughly analyzed by colleagues and is supported by the headmistress. So I have become more accepting and accepted.”

Reinforcing the persuasive potential of discussion and teacher collaboration, Norma retorted that she had evolved into a “gregarious, sociable teacher, ready to chat, discuss, debate, collaborate, but not dominate my colleagues.” Norma’s view about how she changed her learning is tightly interwoven into how Nigel changed his learning. Nigel commented that, “The former headmaster sent Norma to me for tutoring on soundness of the teaching strategies incorporated within service learning. I really learned to talk professionally, to understand how difficult it is to persuade a highly successful teacher that there is something new to learn, and how to teach such a person without alienating them from the cause.”

Elizabeth’s successful changes in learning were attributed to conversations with other teachers who made suggestions, and she professed that, “Working in such an open-minded, sharing atmosphere changed how I look at true learning because I realized that meaning had to come from within the individual. That is the biggest change in my learning as a teacher.” Norma summarized the ideas presented by Pamela, Elizabeth, Nigel, and Zoe in her statement that, “My personal journey began with my seeking the wisdom that Nigel possessed about service learning. Teacher dialogue about educational issues at the local school level has changed my teaching into our learning.”

Teachers Whose Learning Was Changed Little, If Any, and Why

Moira and Alistair postulated that they did not engage themselves in changing their learning as they implemented service learning. Moira lamented that, "I resist attempts to alter my thinking about what I am to do. I do not believe that my learning has changed through service learning because I am not willing to be mandated into another frame of reference." Alistair reported that he opted out of involvement during the implementation of service learning when he commented that, "I do as little as possible to engage myself in changing my learning regarding implementing service learning. It's unprofessional to mandate all these changes in practice. Teachers are mandated all too often to change that best practice for this newer, better practice." Yet, Alistair, the respondent who tried his best to opt out, could not avoid Norma, stating that, "I have not had a lot of success in changing because I do not want to do so. However, Norma is prodding me out of my rut lately. She reminds me of why I am here is such a way that I am slowly rethinking a few things about myself."

Changes in Administrators' Learning

As headmistress, Fiona was charged with leading her staff through the process of service learning, and in this position, she attributed her success in changing her learning to the amount of reflection that she had to do. She was especially concerned about teachers who did not readily accept what the school was trying to achieve as a whole.

Fiona stated that, “Success for me appears after much discussion and listening and rethinking. I get these by sharing with my staff that we are all in this together.” She reiterated the fact that she needed teachers’ input as much as they need her support in providing adequate training and resources. “Without a collaborative work environment, I would not be a success in changing my learning regarding service learning.” Fiona extended the parameters of personal learning by commenting on what she learned administratively, adding that, “ I have learned the power of sharing leadership during implementation of service learning. I have also learned that a greater degree of implementation produces better results with pupils.” Fiona echoed the main lesson mentioned by eight other respondents, remarking that, “Educators need to engage in dialogue to generate growth in learning.”

Gillian related that she conversed with colleagues and reflected upon advice in order to work through changes in her learning, expressing that, “I need to learn the philosophy that accompanies the demand for change if I am to alter my learning.” Attributing success in changing her learning about service learning, Gillian claimed that, “If only marginally, actually having involvement in a highly regarded and effective service learning experience has altered my learning.”

Role of Collaboration in Changing Individual Teacher’s Learning

Every teacher except Moira commented upon Fiona’s methodology of instilling collaborative strategies among the staff. Elizabeth believed that her “learning has increased through collaboration with teachers and through my observations of my pupils’

collaborating during service learning." Ann has, through collaborating with members of staff, "dramatically enriched the scope of activities offered in my class." Norma credits Nigel with her conversion to service learning's methodology in that, "It is through collaborating that I learned the benefits of the reflective process and that I needed to reconsider my teaching style to incorporate this strategy in my class." According to Pamela, she regained her self-confidence as a teacher, became an open contributor to the staff, and blossomed because of her educational experiences at King Edward VII Primary School. "I began to understand and appreciate the powerfully positive effect collaboration had on improving my outlook about teaching. Here teachers believe in working together and sharing." Zoe transferred the practice of collaborating into her classroom management procedures, stating that, "I have come to value the roles that discussion, mutual respect and support, and sharing play during collaborating with staff." Nigel related, "Collaboration reinforced my personal beliefs about how people learn." Alistair realized that, "I have to adjust how I deal with the staff. I listen to Norma. I try but not hard enough." Moira opted out of service learning's most effective element for teachers' change and growth because, "I refused to collaborate with my peers concerning service learning. I did the minimum." Moira aside, Fiona's administrative foresight in allowing her staff to realize the benefits of working together as they discussed procedure concluded with "the end result being reached through collaborative teacher agreement."

Gillian had learned that her position as school inspector did not extend so far as to require service learning. Therefore, she applied what she knew about service learning through offering suggestions and insight into those skills that needed to be employed more routinely for successful implementation, commenting that:

What accommodations have to be made for implementation to succeed? How will these affect the pupils/the teachers/the administrators? I discuss procedures with colleagues. It is through this mutual search for the method that works that ultimately results in successful implementation.

Views Concerning Support for Implementing Service Learning

Implementation of an educational mandate resides in the classroom (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Eisner, 2003), where the teacher is ultimately responsible for following any educational mandate's intent (Fullan, 1993). The teacher is obligated to follow the guidelines outlined in the reform effort presented by the administrator, who in turn, should offer support to teachers in their efforts to change what they do to accommodate a mandate such as service learning (Fullan, 1993). This study sought information concerning how the respondents regarded support in their school while implementing service learning.

Teachers' Views Regarding Support for Implementation

All respondents reported that there was support for implementing service leaning in King Edward VII Primary School. Elizabeth commented that, "Even though Fiona is extremely supportive, I think that the real support for implementing service learning came from the staff who developed an understanding of what it takes to motivate

themselves and other educators to participate." Norma extended this view of support, commenting that:

> Fiona is clearly involved in assisting each of us cope with service learning and its educational requirements. However, I feel that the actual support for implementation came from colleagues because we are a tightly knit staff, and we feel free to offer suggestions to others. We listen to find out what truly bothers a fellow teacher so we can work through the problem.

Pamela, like Elizabeth and Norma, continued this line of reasoning when she stated that, "Most of us find full support because we can go to our colleagues, who understand our questions, for assistance. We know we can always ask the headmistress too."

Ann vocalized the general consensus of the staff regarding support for implementation with her comment that, "Our headmistress, after presenting the package, gave us ownership of how to proceed. We agreed through mutual collaboration to accept our roles. I don't think there's a better support for any enterprise than having colleagues help you be successful." Zoe continued with Ann's summary, relating support within her school to the scaffolding that surrounded the front entrance with these words, "Fiona, the headmistress, creates scaffolding by making us feel that we do it by ourselves. There is embedded scaffolding to support people and ideas that desire expression."

Nigel reflected his past military experiences in his views regarding support for the implementation process, contending that, "This school is loaded with support. Whereas in the military, I never questioned openly an order, here I freely have my say in open

forums so I have learned that I dissent far less because we are led and taught to support each other."

Recognizing that support for implementation existed, both Moira and Alistair added personal qualifications that expressed discontent. Moira's comment regarding the amount of support stated that:

> For others' educational mandated—meaning other aspects of the curriculum—there is constant support. When adjustments have to be made, it is generally my art and music programs that are severely affected due to imposition of some other form of learning that requires attention. I don't have a positive comment to make here.

Alistair interjected that, "Support for educational mandates is everywhere at this school. But I'd also like to say that support might be better rephrased as coercion via collaboration, and then you have my absolute view of support for implementing everything."

Administrators' Views Regarding Support for Implementation

Both Fiona and Gillian conjectured that because the staff worked together and reinforced each other, implementation of service learning occurred. Fiona found that, "It is sensible to have in place an organized, functional, staff-directed course of action to handle daily concerns. The procedure we use pre-dates my being headmistress. It took years of hard work and mutual support to establish."

Gillian summarized all of the respondents' reasoning by relating that, "I can

think of no better way to become more skilled in any profession than through training, implementing that training, discussing what transpired, and receiving constructive, immediate feedback."

Summary

Data presented in this chapter clarified and presented evidence regarding the type of respondents interviewed, the work setting of the respondents, and their views about how learning changed while implementing service learning. Based on the review of the literature, the themes that appeared to identify with success in changing teacher learning were reviewed. The themes of application of service learning methodology to teaching; motivation to participate in service learning; commitment to and beliefs about service learning; acquisition of skills for service learning; and views concerning success in changing learning during implementation of service learning were embedded within the responses of the interviewees.

CHAPTER V

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to explore how individual teachers change their learning during the implementation of a mandated educational reform. Fullan's (1993) lens of learning and Hope's (1999) tenets of teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, in conjunction with The Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) and the Constructivist Theory (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et al., 1991; Wilson, 1996), were used to provide insight into how teachers' learning changes while implementing an educational mandate.

Fullan's Paradigm of Change

It is important for education to develop a change capacity because there is a moral purpose in education (Fullan, 1991; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). According to Fullan (1993), "The moral purpose is to make a difference in the lives of students, regardless of background, and to help produce citizens who can live and work productively in increasingly dynamically complex societies" (p. 4). Consisting of eight basic lessons, Fullan (1993) presented a new paradigm of dynamic change, a paradigm that thematically

revealed respondents' views concerning how they apply what they have learned about service learning.

Lesson One

In Lesson One, drawing upon the findings of McLaughlin (1990) that skills, commitment, and creative thinking are what matter for complex goals of change, Fullan (1993) posited that, "You can't mandate what matters…because almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behavior, and beliefs of understanding" (p. 22). "If there is one cardinal rule of change in human condition, it is that you cannot make people change" (Fullan, 1993, p. 23).

Alistair did "as little as possible to engage…in changing learning regarding educational mandates. Teachers are mandated all too often to change that best practice for this newer, better practice. And, no, I don't feel I am being unprofessional with my attitude." Moira continued this line of reasoning by offering, "I am not willing to be mandated into another form of reference, when, to date, I see educators constantly struggling to adjust, re-adjust, re-think, and so forth."

Alistair and Moira did not understand the relevance of service learning to their curricular responsibilities, even though many other staff members worked diligently to assist them with the requirements of service learning. Alistair decided to "play the service learning game on the surface" to get support from Norma, while Moira remained "peeved that art is so often slighted to meet the demands of other educational endeavors."

Norma, the now staunch supporter of the teaching methodology embedded in service learning, was not made to change her thinking and her teaching by mandate. She stated that, “How I change my learning relates directly to how I perceive the relevancy of the mandate. If not relevant, I can honestly tell you that I am not persuaded to invest more time.” Norma altered her learning regarding service learning by being sent by a former headmaster to receive mentoring from Nigel. It was through Nigel’s patience and collaboration that Norma changed her philosophy and style to incorporate service learning’s strategies in her schemata.

Lesson Two

Lesson Two of the change paradigm stated that, “Change is a journey, not a blueprint…because you don’t know what is going to matter until you are into the journey” (Fullan, 1993, p. 24). Change, as a process, produced uncertainty coupled with anxiety and fear, and led eventually to learning to handle difficulties, and stressed the need for a risk-taking atmosphere (Fullan, 1993).

A former headmaster had referred Norma to Nigel for “instruction in the elements of service learning.” Nigel related that:

> I took great care to make the steps accessible to a traditional teaching style so that she could learn to alter her course as she gained in confidence that she could change. From this, I learned that collaboration can be highly effective when helping others readjust what they do.

Pamela arrived at King Edward VII Primary School unversed in the philosophy of service learning. Staff members assisted Pamela in gaining an understanding of the critical elements of how to incorporate service learning's strategies into her lessons. Pamela contributed:

> I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma because they readily came to my aid when I was beginning with this style of teaching. Since I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project, so this assistance definitely helped me adjust and feel successful.

Lesson Three

"Considering problems are our friends" (Fullan, 1993, p. 25) is Fullan's way of explaining the weave connecting inquiry to conflict. Lesson Three stipulated that creative solutions were the result of extensive inquiry, focused on resolving conflict, bringing deeper change (p. 26). "We need to value the *process* of finding the solution—juggling the inconsistencies that meaningful solutions entail" (Fullan, 1993, p. 28).

As a second-year teacher, Elizabeth divulged that, "Changing my learning to accommodate an educational mandate made me not only listen and learn new content, but it also made me share strategies and techniques with other teachers."

Commenting on changing her preparation of French lessons, Elizabeth declared that, "The pupils were so enthusiastic about how dogs help people cope with blindness that I now check with the science and history teachers to find out their current topics, whereas

before I did not." According to Butler (2000), Elizabeth used her special needs and strengths to increase the level of learning taking place.

Zoe insisted that, "I learned to appreciate the voice of opposition in group discussions because I have support in these sessions. It is through analyzing opposing views that I personally learn where my thinking dwells. Talking helps me sort through the purpose of the project as well as forcing me to stay focused."

Lesson Four

Lesson Four emphasized that, due to the necessity of vast reflective experience, "Vision emerges from, more than it precedes, action" (Fullan, 1993, p. 28). Integral to successful change, via the evolution of active participation among leaders and staff is the creation of a *shared* vision (Fullan, 1993), a vision "vital for the learning organization because it provides the focus and energy for learning" (Senge, 1990, p. 206). A shared vision cannot be preconceived because "ownership cannot be achieved in *advance* of learning something new since deep ownership comes through the learning that arises from full engagement in solving problems" (Fullan, 1993, p. 31).

Fiona asserted that, "It is difficult to change when everyone involved in implementation of an educational mandate has different beliefs about how to instruct." As headmistress, Fiona needed her staff to think about what they were doing and why while they were implementing service learning. She monitored and encouraged her staff to express a school-wide purpose reached through a staff developed procedure, commenting that, "I became the facilitator, standing by and encouraging the staff to become the reflective learners we wanted our pupils to become." Fiona felt that, "I

"needed to foster an environment that encouraged collaboration among staff because people hang on to personal values when they face tensions of learning about how to instruct."

Elizabeth, Ann, Norma, Pamela, Zoe, Alistair, and Nigel related that without collaborating with other staff, their participation in service learning would have been less effective. Elizabeth "sought help and got it." Ann "had lots of experience with service learning, and it was easy for me to collaborate with others." Norma learned to understand the value of reflection entrenched in service learning from Nigel, and "without sharing and supporting," she "would have missed out on understanding how pupils process what they learn during service learning." Pamela "was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project. We created themes and lessons to accompany them." Zoe reported that, "People here listened and helped and got on with the task." Alistair gradually "learned to be more supportive of school policy that I thought possible." Nigel tutored Norma in the philosophy of service learning, imparting that, "From this, I learned that collaboration can be highly effective when helping others readjust what they do." Fiona sums up the staff's views regarding teacher learning through collaboration and how participation in the process affected service learning, asserting that, "Without teacher learning, there is no foundation for the initiative. I wanted my staff to be part of the most important learning taking place—sharing and brainstorming and restructuring what to do." Gillian concurred with Fiona in that, "I am always willing to share my uncertainty. It's through this mutual search for the method that works that ultimately results in successful implementation." Hence, the cornerstones of shared vision are moral purpose, inquiry, mastery, and collaboration (Fullan, 1993), all of which are change skills.

Lesson Five

Lesson Five considered teacher isolation and how this inhibited complex change because the process requires numerous "people working insightfully on the solution and committing themselves to concentrated action together" (Fullan, 1993, p. 34). Rosenholtz (1989), supported later by Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) and Gallego, Hollingsworth, and Whitenack (2001) contended that, through collaboration, schools resolved problems more effectively than conservative schools steeped in isolation. Elaborating on the notion of 'group think', Fullan (1993) emphasized that those who collaborated too tightly miss learning opportunities. His change paradigm's Lesson Five postulated that "individualism and collectivism must have equal power…" (Fullan, 1993, p. 33)…"because you can't have organizational learning without individual learning, and you can't have learning in groups without processing conflict" (Fullan, 1993, p. 36).

Every teacher commented upon Fiona's methodology of instilling collaborative strategies among the staff. Elizabeth's "learning has increased through collaboration with teachers and though my observations of my pupils' collaborating during service learning." Ann had, through collaborating with members of staff, "dramatically enriched the scope of activities offered in my class." Norma credited Nigel with her conversion to service learning's methodology in that, "It is through collaborating that I learned the benefits of the reflective process and that I needed to reconsider my teaching style to incorporate this strategy in my class." According to Pamela, she regained her self-confidence as a teacher, became an open contributor to the staff, and blossomed as a teacher because of her educational experiences at King Edward VII Primary School. She

stated that, “I began to understand and appreciate the powerfully positive effect collaboration has on improving my outlook about teaching. Here teachers believe in working together and sharing.” Zoe transferred the practice of collaborating into her classroom management procedures, stating that, “I have come to value the roles that discussion, mutual respect and support, and sharing play during collaborating with staff.” Nigel maintained that, “Collaboration reinforced my personal beliefs about how people learn.” Alistair realized that, “I have to adjust how I deal with the staff. I listen to Norma. I try but not hard enough.”

Moira detestd service learning, verbalizing that, “It adversely affects those of us like myself who teach special subjects like art. I do get peeved that art is so often slighted to meet the demands of other educational endeavors.” Even though Moira opted out of service learning’s most effective element for teachers’ change and growth, she stipulated that, “I refused to collaborate with my peers concerning service learning. I did the minimum.” She did, in fact, also remark that, “I appreciate the connections Norman and Pamela presented to the pupils about the seeing- eye dogs prior to their making posters. I have enlarged my perspective of what’s worthwhile.”

Lesson Six

According to Fullan (1993), there must be a simultaneous influence between top-down and bottom-up frameworks within any learning situation for change to occur. In conjunction with Fullan’s (1993) paradigm of change’s Lesson Six, Senge (1990) supported our understanding of achieving uncontrolled control, stating that:

> While traditional organization requires management systems and team learning, and the ability to develop shared visions that control people's behavior, learning organizations invest in improving the quality of thinking, the capacity for reflection and shared understanding of complex business issues. It is these capabilities that will allow learning organizations to be both more locally controlled and more well coordinated that their hierarchical predecessors (p. 287).

Fiona understood that her staff needed to change their teaching practices if they were to construct new meaning and understanding of their role in service learning. She mentioned that, "I needed them to become reflective learners. My task was made easier because Nigel had previously trained Norma, the recognized teacher leader, about the benefits of pupil reflection and how it impacts pupil learning." From this perspective, Fiona gave her staff ownership of committee discussions and final decisions about how to proceed with service learning. Fiona's administrative foresight in allowing her staff to realize the benefits of working together as they discussed procedure concluded with her comment that:

> I have learned that a greater degree of implementation, producing better results with pupils, follows much discussion. I not only expect my staff to engage in talks, but I also expect that they work together, that they collaborate and share their excellent strategies, creative ideas, and plans concerning lessons with each other.

Extending Fiona's position, Gillian commented that, "I discuss implementation with colleagues. I get them to assist me if I need help. I am always willing to share my

uncertainty. It's through this mutual search for the method that works that ultimately results in successful implementation."

Lesson Seven

"The best organizations learn externally as well as internally because connection with the wider environment is critical" (Fullan, 1993, p. 38) formed Lesson Seven in the change paradigm. Here Fullan (1993) reinforced the connection of individual moral purpose to a larger social good in which all students of a school benefit from changes in the learning environment. Also important to this concept was Fullan's (1993) belief that awareness of environmental expectations and tensions gives learning organizations insight into upcoming community needs.

While Nigel was on active duty in the Royal Air Force, he helped coordinate numerous relief activities, and in university he organized other students to assist in a project supporting Sudan. Now as a teacher, Nigel was responsible for spreading the educational benefits associated with service learning within King Edward VII Primary School. Since 1996 he had been the foremost supporter of community-school connections involving service learning, and he was given credit for the conversion of Norma to the teaching methodology embedded therein.

Pamela and Zoe vocalized similar acceptance into the world of service learning, with Zoe indicating that, "The support and assistance evident throughout the school for this community learning situation rivaled anything I could have hoped for when I arrived. I couldn't have managed to adjust so well into this school and community without their help." Pamela stipulated that, "I was new to the community and didn't know anything

about the project;" therefore, Pamela "would have been lost without the support from colleagues."

Ann understood the rationale for service learning, avowing that, "Pupils grow so much as they participate in doing something necessary in their community. They just radiate when they see they make a difference." Lesson Seven's basis of helping others to see a worldly connection "is a moral purpose and teaching learning opportunity of the highest order" (Fullan, 1993, p. 39).

Lesson Eight

Connecting his change paradigm to moral purpose, Fullan (1993) illuminated his contention that every single teacher holds the responsibility of actively producing a learning environment that is accepting of individual as well as collective inquiry and constant rejuvenation. This was so because "every person is a change agent since change is too important to leave to the experts" (Fullan, 1993, p. 39). Deep change, lasting change results when individual teachers exerted their sense of agency as they sought school improvements supporting their active and reflective planning and practice as their learning changes (Frost, 2000). Fullan (1998) reiterated the importance of the roles of individual teachers as agents of change, linking them with any impending reform, with the school, and with the community to extend their capacity to work as change agents as expressed in Lesson Eight to complete his paradigm of change.

Extending Lesson Eight of Fullan's (1993) paradigm of change, constructivist learning re-framed teachers as facilitators, whose task as agents of change was to guide students through the learning process. Becoming the facilitator, Elizabeth recalled that,

"It was not that easy to stand by and watch because I wanted to provide suggestions to speed up the process, but I resisted because I remember how I rejoiced in ownership when I was the participant in university." Norma "…learned to stand back, …to come up with ways to get the pupils to solve puzzles involving a given concept. I now see how much more learning actually happens when pupils talk and share and analyze their ideas." Zoe mused that:

> When pupils have to discuss and come up with their own decisions and make meaning out of their jumble of information, I enjoy watching because in my mind I am thinking about what they might deduce. I learned that it is important to keep this mentality while the pupils are processing their own learning.

Hope's Tenet of Teachers' Skill

"History teaches us the power of a transforming idea, an alteration in world view so profound that all that follows is changed forever. Such a paradigm shift is now rapidly transforming the discipline of staff development" (Sparks, 1994, p. 1). Regardless of restructuring, reforming, or outright re-culturing, Guskey and Huberman (1995) stipulated that it is critical to begin with updating and enlivening teachers' professional skills.

Definition of Staff Development

"Staff development is a process designed to foster personal and professional growth in skills for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organizational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous responsible self-renewal for educators and schools" (ASCD Yearbook on Staff-Development, 1981, p. 1). Sheinghold (1992) questioned how to help instructors teach using methodology they were never taught and how to create learning environments remarkably different from the ones in which they studied. How, inquired Sheinghold (1992) can staff development instill confidence within teachers that are, according to Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998), servicing their clientele in ways that make a difference in student learning?

Effect of Prior Beliefs and Experiences on Teachers' Learning

Darling-Hammond and Ball (1986) asserted teachers' prior beliefs and experiences affected what they learned, thus revealing another theme gleaned from discussions with the respondents. Because Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel verbalized successful prior experiences with service learning before arriving at King Edward VII Primary School, they were readily disposed to support service learning because they already believed in its teaching strategies. Since Norma was able to share successful community relations with her projects at school, she was not easily convinced that altering what she did would increase her pupils' academic achievement. It was only after being referred to Nigel for mentoring that Norma began to seriously reevaluate her positions and started to incorporate the learning elements of service learning

methodology into her teaching practices. Pamela and Zoe learned by collaborating with the staff that their beliefs could include service learning, and because of this, they participated and experienced positive results. Alistair and Moira were not readily willing to change their prior beliefs, thereby restricting any positive service learning teaching experiences.

Respondents' Perceptions of Provided Staff Development

Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) stipulated that staff development's primary focus must be on strengthening teachers' abilities to better comprehend the interrelationships between teaching and learning and of their students per se. Teachers needed to be occupied in definite aspects of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection, grounded in inquiry and experimentation that were teacher initiated, collaborating and sharing and focusing on communities of learning rather than on individuals (Guskey, 1997; Slavin, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998; Darling-Hammond & Ball; 1998). Such sustained, supportive, and collective resolution to concrete problems of education advocated a successful staff development program equipped teachers, both as individuals and a collective unit, to shape, support, and critique reform (Little, 1993).

A significant theme procured from those interviewed concentrates upon their perceptions of the adequacy of in-service provided for implementing service learning. As headmistress and in charge of staff in-service, Fiona contended that it was rare for district presenters to provide teaching techniques via demonstration and modeling during in-service training, commenting that, "This reveals a problematic concern for administrators

who want their staff to be trained effectively from the start." In addressing this issue, Fiona encouraged members of her staff to present demonstrations of successful teaching episodes during their local staff discussions, relating that, "I depended upon them to inspire each other."

All respondents save Alistair commented that in-service, provided by the administration, covered the necessary skills needed to implement service learning. The positive discourse accompanying in-service, in conjunction with the follow-up discussions among staff and between staff and the headmistress were essential to the acquisition of teaching skills needed for service learning.

Nigel affirmed that, "The reality has been that skills form while taking part in discussions with group members. Discussions have produced some of the most interestingly collaborative teaching units. I especially liked how we assisted Ann with her French connections to the seeing-eye dog project." Because Ann worked with others as she organized her participation in service learning, her learning as well as her teaching were, according to Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995), "connected to and derived from teachers' work with their students," (p. 1-2), thus supporting their characteristics of effective professional development.

Elizabeth believed that she acquired skills "in presenting content and then discussing pupils' reflections with other staff" in order to extend her learning. Zoe and Ann expressed similar analysis of how committees operate in extending staff skills. Zoe claimed that, "Our committee procedure helps each other grow professionally," while Ann alleged that, "I do not want to see dramatic changes in how we collaborate to make our policies," because Fiona is a "firm believer in talking through our educational

programs. The evolution of committees for sharing information offered processing that works for the benefit of the staff and the pupils." These respondents' comments validated Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995), who stipulated that staff development "must be collaborative, involving a sharing of knowledge among educators and a focus on teachers' communities of practice rather than on individual teachers" (p. 1-2). They also substantiated the contention that staff development "must engage teachers in concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection that illuminate the processes of learning and development" (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995, p. 1-2).

Norma supported the belief that, "In-service is not enough in its own right, that teachers must have support to implement an educational mandate, and through support skills are transferred, learned, and/or adapted and/or adopted." This reasoning supported Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995), contending that staff development "must be sustained, ongoing, intensive, and supported by modeling, coaching, and the collective solving of specific problems" (p. 1-2).

Nigel explained that, "It's what our headmistress has us do afterwards that produces results for us. Skills are presented during in-service, reinforced or reformatted in discussion groups, and supported or modified and then supported by the administration." Combined with Fiona's belief that, "We acquire skills from each other after in-service training," this research answered Sheinghold's (1992) query regarding how staff development can instill confidence within teachers who were, according to Darling-Hammond and Ball (1998), servicing their clientele in ways that make a difference in student learning.

Role of Collaboration in Staff Development

It is well-documented that teachers learn by doing, researching, reflecting, collaborating, analyzing student work, and sharing as they increase their theoretical knowledge (Lieberman & Miller, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Mizell, 1997; Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998; Banick & Foss, 1999; Butler, 2001). Yet teachers also must delve into inquiry, connected with collaboration, in supportive environments in order to learn deeply from their experiences (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). The level of teacher connection with collaboration in a supportive environment and its impact upon implementation was another theme elicited from respondents' conversations.

Norma's quest to comprehend the learning components of service learning typified what staff at King Edward VII Primary School experienced as they increased insight into the benefits gained from the methodology used to implement the project. Confusion based on rejection of the unknown inhibited Norma's initial acceptance of the school's reform initiative as well as her realization that she needed to change her teaching practices in order to implement service learning effectively. Norma credited Nigel with her conversion to service learning's methodology, disclosing that, "It is through collaborating that I learned the benefits of the reflective process and that I needed to reconsider my teaching style to incorporate this strategy in my class." Norma used her skills, motivation, commitment, and beliefs (Hope, 1999) to construct new meaning so that she could commit to changes (Fullan, 1993) in her teaching practices that were necessary to implement a mandate for service learning as a constructivist component in her curriculum (Boyer, 1995; Jacoby & Associates, 1996). Because of Nigel's efficient

mentoring, Norma gradually adopted "an orientation that continually examines practices, student learning, goals, and achievement and allows us to adjust practices to more clearly meet our goals" (Richardson, 2003, p. 404). Because Norma adapted the methodology needed to implement effective service learning, Nigel contributed that, "Collaboration reinforced my personal beliefs about how people learn."

Pamela's learning experiences with service learning complimented those of Norma. According to Pamela, she regained her self-confidence as a teacher, became an open contributor to the staff, and blossomed because of her educational work with her colleagues, exclaiming that, "I began to understand and appreciate the powerfully positive effect collaboration had on improving my outlook about teaching. Here teachers believe in working together and sharing." Like Norma, Pamela's experiences substantiated Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin's (1995) premise that teachers learned the new skills needed for reform as they simultaneously unlearned beliefs and practices used throughout their teaching career.

Zoe transferred the practice of collaborating with her colleagues into her classroom management procedures, stating that, "I have come to value the roles that discussion, mutual respect and support, and sharing play during my collaborating with staff." Zoe's adaptation reinforced Nelson and Mammerman's (1996) notion that as teachers rethink their vocation by devising new classroom procedures designed to increase student achievement, they constructed different as well as unfamiliar teaching methodologies, thus exhibiting the basic concept of Constructivist Theory.

Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999), postulated that constructivist learning can only take place if teachers' skills related to their being motivated to participate, inferring that

teachers' self-efficacy beliefs reflected their ability and motivation to perform. But not all teachers were motivated to participate or respond positively to collaborative situations. Moira opted out of service learning's most effective element for teachers' change and growth, explaining that, "I refused to collaborate with my peers concerning service learning. I did the minimum." Moira was not willing to be swayed from her established course. Still, her refusal to change supported Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999) in that her self-efficacy beliefs and motivation were so entrenched that training adequate enough to illicit massive changes from a school's staff was not apparently enough to motivate Moira. She did not personally experience positive results to encourage her to begin, let along continue new practices; without such results, teachers were likely to either not attempt or totally abandon new practices (Helsel-DeWert & Cory, 1998, p. 2).

Acquisition of Teacher Skills and Change in Teacher Practice

Inferring from Bandura (1986), it was believed that if the opportunity for teachers to understand how to implement a mandate as they learned about it vicariously in a social setting, then a greater degree of implementation would manifest itself within the classrooms because teachers would exhibit more positive self-efficacy beliefs. A shared vision emerged because, "Ownership cannot be achieved in *advance* of learning something new since deep ownership comes through the learning that arises from full engagement in solving problems" (Fullan, 1993, p. 31). Educators affiliated with King Edward VII Primary School were more likely to change their teaching practices in order to achieve gains associated with implementation. Unique problems were solved,

information was coded and tabulated, both resulting in personal understanding and meaning, the essential components of the Constructivist Theory (Brooks, 1984; Brown, Colllins, & Dugid, 1988; Bednar, et al., 1991; Fosnot, 1996; Wilson, 1996).

Fiona believed in and fully sanctions the act of talking, extended into discussions, debates, even arguments so that people express themselves because she thought that, "Learners, no matter what age, can be taught to get along, to share, to collaborate as they work together to achieve the common purpose of all educational institutions—to learn. " This is how Fiona's staff made sense out of their world of work. As headmistress, Fiona encouraged her staff to express a school-wide purpose to be reached through an agreed-upon, staff developed procedure, regarding the implementation of service learning's methodology. She provided a context for constructivist teacher learning. Fiona claimed that, "It would be difficult to change when everyone involved had different beliefs about how to proceed," supporting Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin (1995) and Butler (2001). She felt that, "I needed to foster an environment that encouraged collaboration among my staff to ensure skill acquisition and transfer" (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Butler, 2001). This critical theme unraveled itself from the tightly woven fabric of Fiona's efforts in supporting implementation of service learning and is also evidenced in the study's analysis of the Constructivist Theory.

Elizabeth remarked that she adjusted her style of teaching content because of the assistance she received from other teachers, stating that, "Teaching my content is one thing, but adapting it to meet the requirements for service learning is quite another. I sought help and got it." Brainstorming and sharing strategies enabled faster learning of others' content, thus increasing accommodations among the staff. Ann related that her

prior experiences with service learning enabled her to collaborate with other staff in need of learning the skills essential for effective service learning. She offered that, "In so doing, I reinforced my techniques too because my colleagues had a great need to comprehend the skills needed for service learning, especially that of reflection."

Norma required time to think about her role in service learning. She related that, "At first I was opposed to service learning. I collaborated with Nigel, whose patience and expertise clarified for me the benefits of service learning as a teaching practice." The initial experiences that Norma endured with service learning provided her with the steady growth in understanding needed for her to make sense of the methodology required for implementation. As the structure markedly differed from her teaching practices, she had to overcome her fears, replace her teaching practices developed over years of classroom experience, learn new techniques and strategies, and actually test this new learning in her classes (Darling-Hammond, 1995). Finally, Norma accepted the methodology of service learning, pointing out that, "Without sharing and supporting, I would have missed out on understanding how pupils process what they learn. I would have omitted reflection from their learning, and this would have been a serious oversight on my part."

Even though Norma rejected her first encounter with service learning, over the years she eventually became the mentor to numerous staff as they began teaching at her school. Zoe remarked that, "I learned how to implement the teaching elements of service learning from other staff, especially Norma. It did not take me long to comprehend the advantages of working at King Edward VII Primary School." Alistair was learning to be more supportive of school policy because of his interactions with Norma regarding

service learning, acknowledging that, "I guess I have to be kinder next time Norma appears because I witnessed the interest our pupils displayed."

Pamela had no concept of service learning when she began to teach at King Edward VII Primary School. She was very nervous and lacking in self-confidence as she embraced her new position. Pamela's skill level needed for implementation was increased because of the cooperative, willingness of her colleagues to insure her success. Pamela recognized Angela, Irene, and Norma, all of whom came to her assistance when she began implementation. "They agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project." Pamela arrived in a constructivist learning environment that enabled her to learn necessary skills within a highly supportive, collaborative, congenial atmosphere, one that "…continually examines practices, student learning, goals, and achievement and allows us to adjust practices to more clearly meet our goals" (Richardson, 2003, p. 404).

Nigel had positive views and experiences about service learning prior to his arrival at King Edward VII Primary School. Responsible for training Norma, Nigel relayed that:

> I took great care to make the steps accessible to traditional teaching style so that she could learn to alter her course as she gained in the confidence that she could change. From this, I learned that collaboration can be highly effective when helping others readjust what they do.

In fact, Nigel was ultimately responsible for the success of service learning experiences, confiding that, "I successfully taught the initiative to the power behind staff at school."

Fiona summed up her staff's view regarding teacher learning through collaboration and how participation in the process affected serviced learning, concluding that, "Without teacher learning, there is no foundation for the initiative. I wanted my staff to be part of the most important learning taking place—sharing and brainstorming and restructuring what they do." By establishing such a proactive learning environment where teachers acted as change agents, Fiona's actions supported the contentions of Guskey (1997), and Knapp (1997), and Darling-Hammond (1998). One way to encourage changes in teachers' instructional practices was to provide adequate training prior to implementation and continual staff development during the course of implementation. "The daily staff discussions centering on aspects of service learning enable the staff to teach each other as they learn and as they share and discuss experiences with the project that occurred within respective classroom settings," interjected Fiona.

Role of Administrative Support in Teacher Learning

As Fiona elaborated upon how her staff supported each other throughout their learning processes, she commented that, "Together, as much as is possible, we work together. Our procedure took years of super hard work to establish. I—we—think all of us believe that it offers mutual support." Fiona's policies gave credence to the notion that those aspiring for successful service learning implementation needed to be aware of the nature of learning as it applied to adults (Knowles, 1973, 1984; Smith, 1982; Gallego,

Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001; Butler, 2002), especially concerning working together in a collaborative arena.

Teachers' Views and Beliefs Regarding Administrative Support

Because teachers were ultimately responsible for changing their practice (Fullan, 1993) as they provided service learning opportunities to students, educators had to believe in a change in order for it to take root (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). Verbalizing about their individual roles in the current implementation, the respondents disclosed information linked to the themes of personal belief in service learning and of support within the school for service learning. Ann explained that, "We may not all be enamored with the entire project, but we agreed through mutual collaboration to accept our roles. I don't think there's better support for any enterprise than having friends help you be successful."

Norma contended that, "We are a tightly knit staff, and we feel free to offer suggestions to others. After an in-service, like the last one on our service-learning project, we discussed the roles needed to see the project through."

Zoe extended Norma's belief in administrative support, adding that, "Our base is our headmistress, and Fiona creates scaffolding by making us feel that we do it by ourselves. Yes, I believe in what we do here for our community and pupils—and for ourselves." Also, Nigel offered that, "This school is loaded with support. I sanction the process our headmistress has worked out for handling such curricular adjustments. I freely have my say in open forums here."

Coming from a prior unpleasant teaching location, Pamela related that, "Most of us find full support because we can go to our colleagues, who understand our questions, for assistance. We know we can always ask Fiona too. We have much more unity as a staff than my other two places of work." Pamela continued with, "When the staff readily assisted me when I came here, I was thrilled to bits. I was willing to believe in anything that got me some help. Now I have a much stronger belief in service learning because I see how the pupils respond."

Moira perceived support differently from the other respondents in that she did not "have a positive comment to make here. Too much support, I'd say personally. And no, I do not believe in any mandate that literally alters my time for art, including service learning." Continuing this vein of thought, Alistair protested that:

> Support for educational mandates like service learning is everywhere at this school. I'd say that support might be better rephrased as coercion via collaboration. I do not personally believe in service learning because I believe that it is the parents' duty to teach values to their own children.

These two respondents offered substance to Fullan's (1993) elaboration on the notion of 'group think', emphasizing that learning opportunities were missed by those who collaborated too tightly "because you can't have organizational learning without individual learning, and you can't have learning in groups without processing conflict" (Fullan, 1993, p. 33). There was much conflict within Moira and Alistair concerning their participation in service learning.

Hope's Tenet of Motivation

Finley (2002) reported that in the early 1990's teachers were not really involved much in the role that reform occupies. Yet, in order for reform to succeed, change must occur in teachers' practice in classrooms (Fullan 1991, 1993; Slavin, 1997; Guskey, 1997). In his analysis of the factors having an impact on teachers' motivation to learn, Wlodkowski (1985) stated that, "Attitude, the learner's combination of concepts, information, and emotions about the learning that results in a predisposition to respond favorably," (p. 2) was a critical element for successful teacher learning. Tuckman (1999) explained that attitudes were individually held beliefs about personal capabilities and the causes for their outcomes, and behavior change was facilitated by the development of appropriate attitudes (Lawrenz, 1984).

Definition of Motivation

Frith (1997) defined motivation as "the internal drive directing behavior towards some end. Motivation helps people overcome inertia. External forces can influence behavior, but ultimately it is the internal force of motivation that sustains behavior" (p. 1). Motivation addressed why a learner would or would not attempt to perform and can be defined as "the influence of factors such as needs and preferences on the continuation of behavior" (Rothstein, 1990, p. 370).

Role of Motivation in Participation in Service Learning

Kohn (1991) stressed that schools should be assisting students to view themselves as responsible and caring individuals and that "helpfulness and responsibility ought not to be taught in a vacuum but in the context of a community of people" (p. 501). To achieve this goal, teachers' attitude toward change needed to be proactive. Yet, attitude cannot result in motivation to achieve by itself because consideration must be given to the value the individual places upon the outcome, resulting in a desire or drive to attain a goal (Kirsch, 1982; Tuckman, 1999). The theme of teacher attitude, as well as that of motivation (Hope, 1999), toward involvement in service learning resounded throughout the discussions with respondents concerning what motivated them to learn during the implementation process.

Elizabeth was paired with another teacher trainee during her pre-service training, and together they discussed course work and suggested ways to make lessons more intriguing. She commented that, "Without this portion of training, I would not have learned that it is normal to seek assistance early in planning." She felt safe in both seeking and giving information later during implementation of service learning because her pre-teacher learning has enabled her to collaborate. Ann affirmed that, "I needed support to maintain my equilibrium and beliefs that learning and teaching should be meaningful and interesting." Ann's and Elizabeth's emotional experiences, their feelings and concerns about effectively interacting with their teaching environments placed a high value on presenting successful lessons as teachers, revealing their drive to attain success for their pupils. Ann and Elizabeth modeled Wlodkowski's (1985) factors of teachers' motivation to learn.

Norma perhaps best represented the typical teacher in dealing with attitude toward change in practice, confessing that, “My pre-service training and my early teaching experiences were not flexible. I wasn’t willing to accept changes accompanying educational directives just because I was ‘expected’ to do so.” Norma initially lacked the personally felt need to change, not yet experiencing an internal force moving her toward the goal of change. However, when she was referred to Nigel for mentoring regarding service learning, Norma faced a change in perception because she accepted the realization that others expected more of her, reflecting that, “This referral, combined with the effectiveness of Nigel’s assistance, prompted me to action. I had to change my affective status regarding service learning.” She interjected that, “My feelings, concerns, and passions could relate to the goal of service learning.” Norma has changed her affect (Wlodkowski, 1985). There was no doubt in her mind that she was competent as she revealed that, “I had always had a positive awareness of my ability to interact with my teaching environment and this community.” What was lacking for the successful service learning for Norma, then, was reinforcement, the actual implementation of the teaching methodology that either “maintains or increases the probability that the learner will achieve the appropriate response” (Wlodkowski, 1985, p. 2). “When I learned that there were student benefits to service learning,” commented Norma, “I motivated myself to change my thinking and to support the methodology.” Norma’s behavior change was facilitated by the development of appropriate attitudes (Lawrenz, 1984), the “generalizations about things such as causality or the meaning of specific actions” (Yero, 2002, p. 3).

Pamela, on the other hand, did not suffer the ordeal of finding her way through the steps of being motivated over time to accept service learning. She arrived at King Edward VII Primary School from a dysfunctional learning environment that shattered her self-confidence in her ability to teach effectively. Pamela was on her way out of teaching. Luckily, because of her immediate acceptance, mutual respect, and collaborative experiences, Pamela grasped the importance of transferring the staff's traits toward service learning to her pupils and readily became motivated to participate in service learning, stating that:

> I did not understand what was expected of me with service learning. I met with some of the staff, and Norma was fantastic in explaining the little details that made my understanding of what I would have to do plausible.

Pamela learned that she could accomplish tasks that she would not have tried. Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999) inferred that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs reflected their ability and motivation to perform. Pamela lamented that, "I have abilities that people respect. I had repressed that belief in myself. I see that belief grow in my pupils because I know it is [growing] in me." Thus, Pamela emulated the transformation in Wlodowski's (1995) teacher motivation as well as reinforced Lumsden, (1994), who contended that motivation was vitally important in determining the outcome of any given endeavor. Pamela dealt with her desire to become involved in the learning process as well as with the reasons for her active or passive behavior in learning situations (Wlodowski, 1995). She embodied Tuckman's (1999) motivational construct of strategy, those techniques used by people to reach their desired outcome. The work of Schunk (1989), Zimmerman (1989, 1990), and Schunk and Zimmerman, (1998a), who pioneered the thorough

connection between strategy and outcome set the parameters for Pamela. She found her way back to teaching by employing the strategies of self-observation, self-judgment, and goal setting that Zimmerman (1989) offered in his structure for the pursuit of valued outcomes.

According to Zoe, she believed that, " Give me proof of success in increasing student academic achievement that can be replicated in the circumstances in which I work and I will support the mandate." Motivation to learn was typified by extensive, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Ames, 1990). Zoe continued with, "I can't possibly be expected to change my beliefs without understanding why." She manifested a positive pre-disposition towards involvement in service learning because it enabled "the development of self-esteem, the cornerstone for ego-development, which translates into good mental health and a productive life" (Krystal, 1999, p. 58). Zoe conceded that, "I need to feel that I have a stake in the outcome." The "factors of attitude, need, stimulation, affect, competence, and reinforcement" (Wlodkowski, 1985, p. 2) that impact on teachers' motivation to learn were met for Zoe as she participated in service learning. Zoe exclaimed that, "I'm motivated by understanding the initial purpose of what's to be done."

Maslow's (1954) widely recognized humanistic theory of motivation postulated that human behavior is controlled by both internal and external factors. He believed that needs are arranged in a hierarchy and that as basic needs are met, other higher needs emerged. Based on this theory's conception of motivation, Nigel's attitude of involvement in service learning related directly to his experiences in the Royal Air Force with humanity endeavors. Nigel believed that, "I was extremely content, my career was

very satisfactory, and I had both the time and will to assist others." Then he suffered a serious accident that makes him unable to continue in his career, resulting in his basic needs once again needing to be met. Nigel added that, "As I attended university, studying to become a teacher, I felt that I could effectively support the university's service learning project because of my humanitarian endeavors while in the Forces." When Nigel began his teaching career, his level of experience with service learning's philosophy enabled him to become a leader once again, fulfilling that particular deficiency need so that higher needs could emerge.

Simple, yet persuasive, the ARCS Model of Motivational Design is rooted in a number of motivational theories (Keller, 1983, 1987a), making it highly relevant in education (Driscoll, 1993). When integrated, attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) motivate learning because these ARCS conditions are sequential (Driscoll, 1993), requiring maintenance to keep learners on task in order to prevent loss of motivation, and therefore, of learning. Yet, Moira stated that, "To me, forced learning is by no means motivated learning so I don't learn to integrate service learning into my curriculum. It is not relevant to me so how can I make it relevant to my students?"

Moira outwardly refused to embrace the mandate of service learning, yet her view of what she does, nonetheless, reflected an understanding of the principles of the ARCS Model. If relevant content and information satisfy personal needs, thereby extending effort and performance, then motivation embedded within the ARCS Model required active variety in instructional activities (Fernandez, 1991), and such instructional variety was evident in Moira's art classes. However, the administration was seeking support of incorporating tenets of service learning into curricular areas, support that Moira could not

readily furnish because she remained determinedly unmotivated to change or to extend her coarse content, declaring that, "I opt out."

Alistair revealed his degree of being motivated to participate in service learning in that, "Learning something different is easy for me, but even so, if I am not interested, I don't want to be part of it. I am not interested in service learning. It interferes with what I want to focus on, that being simply sport."

Both Moira's and Alistair's level of motivation to participate in service learning can be explained by Tuckman's (1999) contention that, "Without attitude, there is no reason to believe that one is capable of the necessary action to achieve, and therefore no reason to even attempt it. Without drive, there is no energy to propel that action, and without strategy, there is nothing to help select and guide the necessary action" (p. 5). People will perform when the outcome is desirable, is important to them (Overmier & Lawry, 1979). Participation in service learning offered no desirable outcome and was not deemed important to either Moira and or Alistair so there was no internal or external motivation to comply.

A better understanding of what motivates teachers to learn will assist policy makers in securing the "two cornerstones of the reform agenda: a learner-centered view of teaching and a career-long conceptions of teachers' learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995, p. 7). As administrators, Fiona and Gillian both revealed not only limited awareness of service learning prior to being affiliated with King Edward VII Primary School but also personal lack of motivation to participate upon initial encounter with the educational methodology of service learning. Fiona commented that, "Even though I was aware of service learning when I was headmistress of my former school, I

did not support it there because the staff were dealing with serious league table result deficiencies." She related that Norma had asked for continuance and support of service learning, stating that, "I am motivated to learn anything concerning cooperative learning strategies because I firmly believe that cooperative staff will create cooperative work groups for pupils. I now appreciate that service learning incorporates cooperative learning principles."

Because Fiona needed to know how to manage other educators, she changed her attitude to meet the needs of her staff as they implemented service learning. As she effectively interacted with the environment of service learning, Fiona's competence increased, thereby substantiating the work of Wlodkowski (1985). She changed her affect towards service learning because her attitude toward what worked in her school had also changed (Wlodkowski, 1985).

Gillian did not invest time in service learning when she was a teacher. However, as a school inspector, "I have to be fully versed about so many areas of concern. Because I saw how the process worked, I became motivated to learn more about the teaching methodology."

Hope's Tenet of Teacher Beliefs

Because belief systems are dynamic in that they undergo change and reconfiguration as teachers evaluated their beliefs against their experiences (Thompson, 1992), educational effectiveness was enhanced through a better understanding of teachers' belief systems or conceptual bases (Nespor, 1987). In this study, Hope's (1999)

tenet of teachers' beliefs was analyzed through use of Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory, emphasizing the embedded construct of self-efficacy.

Definition of Teacher Beliefs

Beliefs are attitudes that teachers hold concerning anyone or anything job-related, and much research indicates that teachers' beliefs impact classroom practices (Kagan, 1992). Teacher beliefs are defined as personal constructs that offer an understanding of a teacher's practice (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992; Richardson, 1996). "Beliefs are important influences on the ways people conceptualize tasks and learn from experience" (Nespor, 1987, p. 317). Since beliefs act as active agents as teachers planned and predicted future events, they are vital in the construction of school culture, which, in itself, impacts teacher beliefs (Cuban, 1990).

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's version of social learning theory introduced the notion of modeling, better known as vicarious learning, as a form of social learning (Bandura & Walters, 1963) strongly connected to the structure of service learning (Jacoby & Associates, 1996). Embedded in the Social Cognitive Theory is the essential concept that people possessed self-beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs that provided self-control over their individual thoughts, feelings, or actions (Bandura, 1986; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002). "What people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25) as well as what they learn (Fullan, 1993).

Respondents' Awareness of How Mandates Influence Self-Efficacy

One major theme that surfaced during discussions with the respondents concerned their level of awareness during pre-service training regarding the influence of educational mandates upon their teaching self-efficacy. Of the eight respondents relating no formal pre-service instruction relevant to mandates, Fiona, as headmistress, was eventually made aware of her "personal need to avoid becoming complacent in my career." Additionally, Zoe contended that, "The revelation that change would be expected, demanded, and forced upon me later made me consider mandates an integral part of my career…and was embedded in my theories of how I was to proceed as a teacher." Norma, on the other hand, was "not willing to accept changes accompanying later mandates just because I was 'expected' to do so. Actually, I know I resisted because I felt that I had been trained to do my work." Moira echoed Alistair's sentiments when she expressed that, "I opt out of being mandated to change how I proceed with my curriculum."

As recently graduated teachers, Elizabeth and Ann experienced training related to the impact mandates would exert upon their teaching beliefs. Elizabeth commented that, "I came to realize that nearly all aspects of education are attached to some form of regulation, meaning change will have to occur in my teaching practices." Ann contended that, "Mandates are additions to education that those who think they know what is missing in education add to the curriculum to make things better. I think this is fine." Therefore, whether or not respondents received training relating to educational mandates during their pre-service training did not determine whether or not they believed that educational mandates would initiate change in their learning as teachers.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Extending the discussion of self-efficacy as it applies to its influence upon teachers in a school setting requiring change revealed how educators perceive their role within the greater scheme of education. If educational mandates expect teachers to change their hard-won teaching practices, the factors of self-efficacy, feedback, and time conspired to determine the existing degree of self-motivation (Bandura, 1986, 1989). Self-efficacy profoundly impacted a person's decision to behave in a given fashion, since feedback enabled a person to re-evaluate their efforts and goals to make them more attainable, impacting self-efficacy in the process (Pajares, 2002). Therefore, a prominent theme emerging from the data concerned feedback, its influence on self-efficacy beliefs and its impact on participation in service learning.

Elizabeth believed that she received excellent training for teaching because she had constantly received reassurance. Thus, she displayed the ability to plan, discuss, and execute service learning effectively, commenting that, "I feel safe in both seeking and giving information. It's how I learned to become a teacher." Elizabeth also revealed her beliefs regarding how she felt as a teacher involved in service learning, stipulating that, "It is as rewarding being the teacher in a service learning project as it was being the pupil. I was wondering how I would feel on the other side of the lessons. I feel great because I can see that my pupils feel the way I did with what they accomplished." Elizabeth exhibited a significantly positive degree of self-efficacy as she approached her service learning activities, and she attributed this factor to collaboration and prior experience with successful results.

Ann's self-efficacy beliefs regarding service learning were similar to those of Elizabeth because she also had experienced successful feedback in her prior service learning, remarking that:

> Pupils grow so much as they participate in doing something necessary in their local community. They grow in the awareness that they matter because their actions are validated. This feedback is so important for pupils. Now, as a teacher, I know how my tutors at university must have felt.

Her comment not only exemplified Ann's satisfaction with her contributions to service learning but also clarified her positive self-efficacy beliefs regarding her efforts and their effects upon her goals in service learning for her pupils.

Norma, the teacher recognized by the staff as their mentor, initially rejected service learning because its tenets did not fit into her prescribed way of doing things. Her self-efficacy beliefs did not include the need to change her methodology, her learning, because, "I have had the 'proper' training to accept many things as 'that is the way things are.'" However, Norma listened as others discussed the educational benefits embedded within service learning, and because she had strong self-efficacy regarding what she could do as a teacher, she struggled to understand what and how she needed to change. Norma's examination of peer feedback enabled her to:

> devise a wait-and-see approach towards mandates, not readily participating until I hear the more enthused teachers boast of their successes. I discuss their techniques with them to learn why they got their results. If their results are sound, I look more closely at the mandate.

Norma became a proponent of service learning because of the effective feedback from and mentoring of Nigel, a supporter with substantial self-efficacy regarding service learning who taught Norma the value of pupils' reflecting upon their work. "Mandates require a link to pupil improvement for me to commit time and effort in altering what I do and how I do it" (Jacoby & Associates, 1996), related Norma. Other teachers' feedback inspired Norma to rethink her position regarding service learning and its role in her teaching.

Pamela began teaching at King Edward VII Primary School in 1998. She had had negative feedback regarding her teaching in her former school so her self-efficacy was shattered. She also had no understanding of the philosophy or the teaching components of service learning until she arrived. After the provided in-service, staff members, aware of Pamela's situation, assisted her in gaining an understanding of the critical elements of how to incorporate service learning's strategies into her lessons. Pamela made it known that:

> I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma because they readily came to my aid when I was beginning with this style of teaching. Since I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know anything about the project.

Not only was Pamela's self-efficacy reconstructed because of the collaborative, accepting, and nurturing environment created by her colleagues (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001), but she also received the needed feedback and support so that she

no longer felt isolated (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Pamela was now connected to her community (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994).

The plight of Zoe's self-efficacy echoed that of Pamela in that she did not have such a helpful situation in her previous school. Zoe's belief that "support and assistance evident throughout the school for this community learning situation rivaled anything for which I could have hoped" gave credence to her newly reinforced self-efficacy regarding service learning because she received the necessary feedback from her colleagues to motivate her. Zoe became a highly effective force during implementation of service learning because she recognized that she and her self-efficacy beliefs were supported (Bandura, 1986), adding that, "There is entrenched scaffolding to support people and ideas that desire expression." To recharge teaching skills requires in-service (Darling-Hammond, 1998), but also needed is discussion with peers (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 200l). Zoe sought assistance when she did not understand her purpose, adding that, "It is rewarding to receive it to the extent that I do here." Again, feedback impacts self-efficacy.

Moira and Alistair felt unprepared to cope with service learning because this educational mandate eroded what they considered their content time. Moira's level of self-efficacy was reflected in her belief that, "Educational mandates usually adversely affect those of us who teach special subjects like art. I do get peeved that art is so often slighted to meet the needs of other disciplines." Supporting Moira's stance, Alistair commented that, "As far as educational mandates are concerned, none should filter down to me because I am in the business of sports every day." Both Moira and Alistair were not willing to alter their self-efficacy beliefs regarding what they could do about service

learning. They simply chose not to be contributors to a school initiative. “I opt out, “ stated Alistair. “I will not be mandated to change my perspective,” retorted Moira, reinforcing Fullan (1993) in that, “If there is one cardinal rule of change in human condition, it is that you cannot make people change” (p. 23). “The core of teacher quality—the minds of individual teachers” (Yero, 2002, p. 2) had not been reached so self-efficacy regarding service learning was not altered because change is a learning process (Fullan, 1993; Watts, 2003), and these two teachers did not choose to learn in this case. Feedback had little impact here.

Fiona’s self-efficacy relative to service learning changed when she became headmistress. Having known about service learning, Fiona did not institute the program at her previous school. However, when approached by Norma for continuance upon her arrival, Fiona listened attentively and held further discussions with the staff, sorting through their feedback regarding previous service learning activities, concluding that the program was viable at her new school. Throughout the years of her leadership, Fiona’s self-efficacy beliefs concerning service learning switched from non-initiation to full support for implementation. “I agreed to support the staff continue with their approach to service learning.” Gillian, like Fiona, extended her self-efficacy beliefs regarding service learning through observation, commenting that, “It’s through this mutual search for the method that works that ultimately results in successful implementation.” Both administrators analyzed teacher feedback, and as they did so, they also formulated their respective feedback to offer the staff. The cycle of feedback had gone throughout the system, thereby reinforcing implementation of service learning.

Self-efficacy profoundly impacts a person's decision to behave in a given fashion since feedback enables a person to re-evaluate his/her efforts and goals to make them more attainable, impacting self-efficacy in the process (Pajares, 2002). Due to the strong emphasis on human cognition, Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive Theory suggests that the mind is an active force in reality construction. Nigel was able to assist Norma change her teaching reality because she "witnessed the power of having students reflect upon what they have learned in Nigel's maths lessons."

However, the combined efforts of the staff were not able to alter the thinking of Moira since she was "less that enthusiastic when I hear those infamous words 'increase student academic achievement'." Norma was assisting Alistair to gradually realize his need to cooperate with the staff, and " Right now I'm at the crossroads regarding what I believe about service learning because I see Norma's results." Thus, this view that the mind is an active force in reality construction corroborates not only Fullan's (1993) lens of learning but also the Constructivist Theory as it encodes information selectively, acts out behavior based on values and expectations, and imposes structure on its own actions (Jones, 1989). Understanding the processes involved in construction of reality enables human behavior to be understood, predicted, and changed (Fullan, 1993; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002). As individuals gain in experience and maturity, their cognition changes over time (Bandura, 1989). The key here is experience because both Alistair and Moira had numerous occasions to change their cognition regarding their role as teachers in service learning.

As they assisted others to learn about service learning, Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel continued to excel in their self-efficacy beliefs that service learning offers pupils a

meaningful way of learning. Pamela and Zoe, both arriving from unsettling teaching situations, found service learning to be an avenue for revitalizing their teaching because teams assisted staff and shared and collaborated. Norma went full circle in her beliefs regarding the significance of service learning because she learned about the critical elements of methodology from Nigel. Fiona and Gillian recognized their roles in service learning while they supported others in service learning. Alistair and Moria evidenced entrenched self-efficacy beliefs about what they were supposed to do as teachers, reminding one that if anything is to be remembered, "It is that you cannot make people change. You cannot force them to think differently or compel them to develop new skills" (Fullan, 1993, p. 23).

Of the ten respondents, the current service learning experience impacted the self-efficacy positively in eight teachers. Two others have basically stayed in their present levels of self-efficacy, remaining convinced that they could not alter what they did to meet the requirements of the mandate, even though Alistair began to see what the rest of the staff were trying to achieve through service learning. This analysis of self-efficacy would support Gray, et al.'s (2000) premise that a deeper understanding of how teachers' learning changes while implementing an educational mandate such as service learning, a mandate steeped in values clarification and community socialization (Baldauf, 1997; Simpson, 1997; Krystal, 1999), is necessary for change to occur (Fullan, 1993).

Hope's Tenet of Teacher Commitment

A primary determinant of the performance of a school's staff is the degree of teacher commitment (NCES, 1997). "Commitment is the degree of positive, affective bond between the teacher and the school…reflecting the degree of internal motivation, enthusiasm, and job satisfaction teachers derive from teaching and the degree of efficacy and effectiveness they achieve in their jobs" (NCES, 1997, p. 2). Educational reformers propose that a positive first move in the change process is an informed awareness of teacher commitment (Boyd, 1992; Fullan, 1991, 1993, 1998; Hope, 1999), yet another motif extracted from the respondents' comments.

Respondents' Commitment to Implementation

Viewing teaching as an adventure, Elizabeth ascertained that, "My personal commitment to service learning was strengthened when I was in Sixth Form" (similar to the last year of high school in America). As a teacher, a benefit for Elizabeth "is the learning I get from the discussions with other teachers." Elizabeth buffeted the work of Gallego, Hollingsowrth, and Whitenack (2001) in that once engaged, others also became activated through collaborating with fellow educators. Further support for their research came when Elizabeth added that, "I would consider deeper pupil learning to be one of the most useful benefits of processes involved in service learning so I am committed to what we have developed together."

Zoe's revelation that, "Commitment means that I believe in what I'm doing," substantiated Bandura's (1986) "What people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (p. 25) as well as what they learn (Fullan, 1993). Zoe emphasized that,

"Commitment was not that difficult. Here, since our headmistress encouraged us—through committees—to establish how we were to reach our common goal of assisting the community. It's easier to become committed." Zoe's comment that, "Ownership was given to the staff during the course of our project," substantiated Fullan's (1993) Lesson Five in his dynamic theory of change in that "people worked insightfully on the solution and committed themselves to concentrated action together" (p. 34) because, "Ownership cannot be achieved in *advance* of learning something new since deep ownership comes through the learning that arises from full engagement in solving problems" (p. 31). Zoe also enriched the findings of the National Center for Education Statistics (1997) that schools with high levels of faculty influence also have high teacher commitment because, to her, "Commitment means that I believe in what I'm doing. Commitment comes with belief in the results, not the in-service or its presentation."

Since student learning, not teachers' cognition, is the object of education, teachers offer commitment based upon personal ideology of how students learn (Orton, 1996). Even though Norma resisted her initial encounter with service learning because she "had devised a wait-and-see approach to avoid upsetting established routines," she works hard to change her way of thinking regarding the teaching structures embedded in service learning methodology. Norma stipulated that, "I have become more appreciative of our group discussions regarding what and why we're involved because of Nigel's patience in explaining the critical teaching factors, especially reflection. I hope these discussion processes continue because I find I need the inspiration of others. I think this is commitment." Here is absolute support for Lieberman and Miller (1991) who offered

that, "It is when teachers are together as persons, according to norms and principles they have freely chosen, that interest becomes intensified and commitments are made" (p. 13).

Alistair was not convinced that he was committed to the service-learning project because it took time away from his sports curriculum. However, he hedged when he commented that:

> Learning more about various causes of and degrees of blindness and how sight impacts upon certain sports has made me more appreciative of the *heroic* effort Norma invested in securing my input to the knowledge base. I guess I have to be kinder next time Norma appears because I witnessed the interest the pupils displayed.

Attributed to Norma's coaching, Alistair's minimal participation with implementation represented his first major identification with a school-wide initiative, and such identification, even though it was meager and hard-won, according to Peterson and Hammond (1998), instills greater motivation, encourages self-efficacy, and strengthens commitment.

According to Burns (1998), a perceptual barrier to implementing service learning was "that some people doubt the value of such programs" (p. 40). Moira did not readily open up to service learning, maintaining that, "I can't say that I fully support service learning totally because it jars my personal sense of what's volunteering and what's not." As Moira pondered her philosophical conflict concerning service learning, she divulged that participation "enlarged my perspective of what's worthwhile, even though I resist being involved."

Kegan and Lahey (2001) offered the idea of the "immune system" (p. 1) as a mechanism in comprehending how educators, with real commitment to teaching, can simultaneously and unwittingly function in ways that work contrary to indicated commitments. As Alistair and Norma identified their teaching commitments about which they felt passion, they noted what they did or did not do to undermine those teaching commitments. As they identified any competing teaching commitments, they began to "identify their big assumptions, those things held to be true without question" (Kegan and Lahey, 2001, p. 3). Identifying these inner contradictions lead to self-discovery as Alistair and Norma reflected on their basic assumptions (Sparks, 2002) that major change necessitated altering some basic, underlying beliefs in order to achieve "transformational learning resulting in change" (Sparks, 2002, p. 6). No longer were Alistair's sports or Norma's "tried and true methodologies" the cornerstone of learning for pupils. These teachers experienced the realization that, as problematic situations were resolved, those people involved began to see the shape of the entity being created through their personal struggles (Kegan and Lahey, 2001). Once engaged, others also became activated through collaborating with fellow educators, thereby adding to the chain reaction—change (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). "This is the fundamental situation upon which the change paradigm rests because each and every teacher has the responsibility to help create an organization capable of individual and collective inquiry and continuous renewal, or it will not happen" (Fullan, 1991, p. 39).

Constructivist Theory

The Constructivist Theory contends that knowledge is individually constructed (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et. al., 1991; Wilson, 1996). As a theory of learning, constructivism is integral to Fullan's (1993) lens of learning because meaningful, active learning requires experiences (London, 1988). Richardson (2003) defines constructivism as "the learning theory that suggests that human knowledge is constructed within the minds of individuals and within social communities" (p. 404).

Respondents' Views of Construction of Meaning

Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999) believed that constructivist learning can only take place if teachers received adequate training to incorporate the skills necessary to pursue this avenue of education and if teachers' skills related to their being motivated to participate (Richardson, 2003). Constructivist learning also required that teachers simultaneously unlearn beliefs and practices used throughout their career (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). In keeping with the contentions of constructivist theory, another theme that emerged from interviews with the respondents focused on the individual construction of knowledge.

Pamela's induction into the staff overwhelmingly supported Fullan (1993) and Hope (1999) because after the provided in-service, staff members assisted her in gaining an understanding of the critical elements of how to incorporate service learning strategies into her lessons. Pamels judged that, "I am eternally grateful to Angela, Irene, and Norma. Since I was nervous, they agreed to team with me, and we created common themes and lessons to accompany them. I was new to the community and didn't know

anything about the project." Pamela, mentored by her colleagues in a supportive environment, displayed an increasing level of individual construction of knowledge, evidenced by Nigel's comment that, "I looked for ways to connect my maths applications to writing so I talked with Pamela about how to proceed." Unsure and nearly defeated, Pamela evolved into a trusted colleague and competent provider of knowledge to her peers. Pamela transformed her personal knowledge into shared information. Because she felt valued, Pamela learned to put her expertise to use in assisting others.

Without Nigel's patience and effective mentoring concerning the teaching methodologies embedded within service learning, Norma would not be such a staunch supporter of her school's service learning. Her individual construction of knowledge required much time, constant and consistent feedback, as well as peer support. Norma's reconciliation with, "When it comes to mandates, I have learned that assistance for implementation is there as are reminders of why implementation must take place," enabled her to "become more in tune with what my colleagues are doing for service learning; I have become more appreciative of our group discussions regarding what we are doing and why we're involved." Norma made sense of what Nigel taught her regarding teaching strategies essential to successful service learning experiences, and in so doing, she not only accepted her role as teacher-leader but also maximized its potential.

Transformational Learning

The Constructivist Theory also stated that, "Individuals create their own new understandings based on the interaction of what they know and believe with the phenomena or ideas with which they come into contact. It is a descriptive theory that describes the way people actually <u>do</u> learn; it is not a normative theory that describes the way people <u>should</u> learn" (Richardson, 2003, p. 404). To become constructivist in practice, teaching must re-conceptualize its position in that the role of the teacher needs to shift from content presentation to assisting students to construct their own understandings of concepts (Boyer, 1995). Before this transformation can occur, teachers have to become facilitators who guide pupils through this learning process (Fullan, 1993).

Elizabeth, Ann, and Nigel were familiar with service learning as a teaching methodology as they had prior learning and experience in university. Yet, only Elizabeth revealed insight into the difference in roles while participating in service learning. "When I became the facilitator, it was not that easy to stand by and watch because I wanted to provide suggestions to speed up the process, but I resisted because I remember how I rejoiced in ownership when I was the participant in university."

Pamela learned that she is no longer the mere presenter of content knowledge. She recognized that her role has shifted, mentioning that, "I learned to stand back and be the producer and watch the movie play on the big screen." Zoe believed that it is important to realize that pupils have to be given time to make sense out of information that they create as they work through their service learning tasks. "So when pupils have to discuss and come up with their own decisions and make meaning, I enjoy watching. I learned that it is important to keep this mentality while pupils are processing their own learning. I am the observer."

Fiona also realized that her role had changed. "I became the facilitator, standing by and encouraging the staff to become the reflective learners we wanted our pupils to become." Even though Fiona's endeavor to support her staff become facilitators reinforced constructivist theory's tenet that individuals create their own new understandings based on the interaction of what they know and believe, (Richardson, 2003), the heart of this tenet is best evidenced through an examination of Norma's acceptance of service learning.

Initially, Norma opposed service learning because its methodology was new, foreign to her best practices, and challenged her supremacy with community projects. She rejected the notion that she had to change in order to be effective, indicating that, "As a traditionalist, at first it was hard for me to share control in the classroom. It took some time before I became a listener instead of the sole communicator." Her previous headmaster recognized the leadership role that Norma held within the staff and concluded that she simply had to be working for the program if it were to succeed. Norma was referred to Nigel for convincing. "At first I was opposed to service learning. I collaborated with Nigel, whose patience and expertise clarified for me the benefits of service learning as a teaching practice. Without sharing and supporting, I would have missed out on understanding how pupils process what they learn during service learning." Norma would have missed out on pupil reflection, an aspect of pupil assessment that she has incorporated into her lessons.

As Norma rethought her vocation by devising new classroom procedures designed to increase pupil achievement, she constructed different as well as unfamiliar teaching methodologies (Nelson & Mammerman, 1996). She reflected that, "If the government is

going to mandate changes in education, those changes must be well-thought out or there will be resistance at the local level. If the mandate helps pupils, it will endure; if not, time will erase its painful presence." At the same time, Norma learned the new skills needed for reform as she simultaneously unlearned beliefs and practices used throughout her teaching career (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Instead of going it alone as she had done in the past, Norma now related that, "We listen to find out what truly bothers the other. I think we created our own time to implement, and since we were all working together, we sorted and picked activities. I think that's why we were successful." These significant aspects of constructivist theory added depth to Fullan's (1993) paradigm of learning in that, "…almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behavior, and beliefs of understanding" (p. 22).

Summary

Analysis of data in this chapter addresses four research questions that frame the study. What and how do teachers learn during the implementation of an educational mandate? In what ways does this learning reflect changes in skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment as defined by Hope (1999)? What other realities are revealed about teacher learning and mandated change? How useful is the lens of learning for understanding the phenomenon?

The construct of self-efficacy, embedded in the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) is employed to identify changes in individual teacher's learning while implementing an educational mandate. An understanding of the Constructivist Theory

affords deeper awareness of Fullan's (1993) lens of learning, essential to Change Theory, because meaningful active learning requires experiences if change in a teacher's learning is to occur. An analysis of how these theories relate to Hope's (1999) tenets of skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment of teachers while implementing an educational mandate revealed domains for consideration.

Themes extracted from interviews, observations, and document analysis concern respondents' levels of awareness during pre-service training regarding the influence of educational mandates upon their teaching self-efficacy as well as their individual construction of knowledge. The effect of staff development and collaboration upon skill acquisition and transfer, personal belief in a mandated change, administrative support for implementation, attitude and motivation, and an awareness of teacher commitment emerge as domains of concern. Consisting of eight basic lessons, Fullan's (1993) paradigm of dynamic change thematically reveals respondents' views concerning how they apply what changes in learning to implementation.

Chapter VI offers a summary, conclusions, and implications for theory, research, and practice.

CHAPTER VI

Summary, Conclusions, and Implications for Research, Theory, and Practice

> The process of change is slow and difficult. It requires perseverance, and it requires investment in those things that allow teachers, as change-agents, to grapple with the transformations of ideas and behavior, time for learning about, looking at, discussing, struggling with, trying out, constructing, and reconstructing new ways of thinking and teaching. (Darling-Hammond, 1990, p. 240)

Education is basically accepted as a universal right of everyone; yet the disparity in quantity and quality across the nations is enough to have governments issue top-down mandates initiating service learning as an effort to raise student achievement (Billing, 2000; Hornbeck, 2000; Tenenbaum, 2000). Top-down, bottom-up mandates pay little heed to the basic conservative nature of public school education because, according to Fullan (1993), "You can't mandate what matters" (p. 21).

Reform equates to personal change in what people think, know, do, and how they do it (Fullan, 1991, 1993). In this study, the issue of what and how individual teachers learn during the implementation of an educational mandate is addressed and considered using Fullan's (1991, 1993) change paradigm's lens of learning and Hope's (1999) tenets of skill, motivation, commitment, and beliefs. From the data, I address the issue of change in individual teachers' learning in conjunction with the impact that skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment might have on teacher learning while implementing an educational mandate. The information presented in this chapter revisits the problem

statement, the combined data needs, sources, and collection methodology, a summary of analysis, and findings.

Study Summary

Seeking an informed awareness of how individual teachers' learning alters while implementing an educational mandate, this study, using a qualitative case study, focuses on change in relationship to educational mandates and an awareness of the impact of teachers' skill, motivation, commitment, and beliefs on such learning. Fullan's (1991, 1993) lens of learning provides the pivotal framework in understanding the components of change as applied to teacher learning. Bandura's (1986) concept of self-efficacy provides a link between change theory and change in teacher practice as defined by Hope's (1999) tenets of skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment as teachers infuse Constructivist Theory's construct of making personal meaning (Brooks, 1984) during staff development and implementation.

Implementation of a school-wide, service-learning project was the phenomenon under review. The views of respondents are compared to extend the understanding of how individual teachers' learning changes and what impact such learning has on individual teachers' practices.

To understand how teachers' learning changes, a thorough search of the literature reveals a growing awareness that the learning accompanying active participation in problem solving results in ownership (Fullan, 1991, 1993). The literature emphasizes the power of collaborating with fellow educators, thereby adding to the chain reaction—

change in teacher practice (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001). This study is designed to locate factors that explain how individual teachers' learning changes during implementation of an educational mandate.

Research, combined with the evaluation of readings and the compilation of relevant literature in Chapter II, resulted in the long interview process with eight teachers and two administrators at one site. To ensure a thorough examination of the problem, the study required data from teachers and administrators; therefore, permission is granted by a representative of the Office of Standards for Teaching Education to interview adults associated with a primary school in England. Respondents' anonymity was ensured through the use of pseudonyms, carefully recorded and then transcribed interviews, with final approval of transcriptions resting with the respondents.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors that surface in the literature to inform how the learning of individual teaches changes while implementing an educational mandate. Fullan's (1991, 1993) lens of learning and Hope's (1999) tenets of teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment, in conjunction with Social Cognitive Theory's construct of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) and the Constructivist Theory (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et. al., 1991; Wilson, 1996), emerge as the primary factors for data analysis in researching how the learning of individual teachers changes during implementation of an educational mandate.

Fullan's Lens of Learning

The main premise in Change Theory states that change is a process, not an event (Hall & Loucks, 1977; Fullan & Park, 1981; Fullan, 1991, 1993), involving restructuring of teacher practice aimed at increasing student achievement (Fullan, 1993, 1998). For teachers it means re-examining the processes associated with learning (Guskey, 1997; Knapp, 1997; Slavin, 1997; Darling-Hammond, 1998). The notion that "…the process of change is slow and difficult. It requires perseverance" (Darling-Hammond, 1990, p. 240) substantiates the painful process that many teachers go through in order "to come to understand and believe the new assumptions and ideas that underlie that reform" (Fullan, 1993, p. 2). The internalization of the purpose and the reasons for a change are the keys to a successful reform because the main problem of change is that it is a process of re-doing and re-thinking (Fullan, 1991b). Fullan's (1993) contention that new understanding, for most people, occurs only after they delve into something reflects the findings of this study.

It is well-documented that teachers learn by doing, researching, reflecting, collaborating, analyzing student work, and sharing as they increase their theoretical knowledge (Lieberman & Miller, 1990; Fullan, 1991; Mizell, 1997; Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998; Banick & Foss, 1999; Butler 2001). This study finds that teachers learn by doing because six of the eight teacher respondents readily assist with proactive lesson planning together, working through problems of implementation as they proceed. The two administrative respondents report that active participation preceding and during implementation result in their learning regarding service learning.

Teachers learn by researching; this study finds that teacher learning increases as the respondents research the mandate's methodology, concentrating on the element of reflection in the learning process. As respondents research for information to support adaptations in curricular areas to meet the needs of implementation, change in teacher affect regarding methodology occurs because of the respondents' powerful references concerning the effect of reflection in pupils' learning.

Teachers learn by collaborating; the findings of this study relate that all ten of the respondents document the effects of collaboration in personal learning. Even those three teacher respondents with prior awareness of and training in service learning comment on the overwhelmingly positive effect that teacher collaboration has on their personal learning, culminating with Nigel's comment that, "Collaboration reinforced my personal beliefs about how people learn."

Teachers learn by analyzing student work; this study finds that, even if teachers do not support service-learning implementation personally, they do recognize the inherent value of this teaching skill. Teachers who follow the precepts of methodology are continually discussing class work and how to ensure students' grasp of content.

Teachers learn by sharing; all eight of the teacher respondents contribute data relevant to the practice of sharing and its importance to learning. The findings of this study reveal a change in an individual teacher's total theoretical base concerning implementation because another teacher shared time and expertise in re-culturing the ethos of his colleague regarding student benefits of reflection embedded in service learning. Another teacher contemplating exiting the teaching profession affirms the practice of teacher sharing present at the site of the study, certifying that the potent force

infused among the staff concerning sharing actually changes her outlook and teacher performance. The findings of this study disclose a deeper understanding of the critical component of sharing in teacher learning.

Teachers must also delve into inquiry, connected with collaboration, in supportive environments in order to learn deeply from their experiences (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Richardson (2003) supports Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin's (1995) postulate that the inquiry approach enables participants to establish goals, experiment, discuss, and learn with colleagues. "…The inquiry approach, grounded in the constructivist theory of learning" (Richardson, 2003, p. 403), impacts upon the change process. This study finds that positive results encourage teachers to continue with their new learning/teaching practices. Without such results, teachers are likely to either not attempt or totally abandon new practices "in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects on student learning" (Helsel-DeWert & Cory, 1998, p. 2).

According to Butler (2002), teachers learn by using their special needs and strengths to increase the level of learning taking place. Constantly reinforcing each other by either offering or seeking suggestions during implementation, asking a particular colleague how to adapt a curricular component to the service learning project, or merely praising the efforts of a fellow teacher acknowledges colleagues' special needs and strengths. This study, through examination of teacher practice, finds that respondents use their strengths to increase the level of learning taking place. Individuals learn what they need to teach pupils, but more importantly to school culture and to overall implementation of the reform initiative, teachers learn that they are respected as a colleague. Such learning causes an increase in both teachers' self-efficacy and teachers'

collaboration, both essential components of constructivist learning that result in motivation and commitment to change teacher practice.

Fullan (1991b) postulates that embedded in change, a sense of uncertainty shrouds those personal experiences needed to occur if professional growth is the result of reform. A potent barrier to change is resistance, a fearful response to change (Marshak, 1996), commonly occurring as a response to forms of change likely to produce personal impact (Friend & Cook, 1996). As learners, teachers are predisposed to particular styles of learning which emerge into preferred teaching styles (Butler, 2001). Habitual in nature, teachers resist change as it creates dynamic tension (Fullan, 1993) that makes the educational setting far less predictable. The findings of this study reveal that, regardless of peer collaboration and administrative support, some teachers remain non-compliant. Regardless of effective in-service, on-going staff development, and overall school acceptance of the worth of the reform initiative, some teachers simply refuse to comply. Fullan (1991b) makes it quite clear that the main problem of change is that it is a process of re-doing and re-thinking. Concurring with Fullan's (1991b) emphasis that change in practice is crucial for educational change to occur, this study concludes that individual teachers who choose to negate mandated reform require immediate employment re-culturing concerning their professional obligations. This study concludes that it is professionally unacceptable behavior for teachers to disregard the established guidelines of their place of work, irrespective of personal impact that change may cause (Friend & Cook, 1996). What is of paramount importance is teachers' regard for the population that they are employed to service according to the established guidelines of their place of work.

The importance of school culture to teacher learning, resulting in implementation of a reform initiative, emerges as an educational reality. Fullan's (2001) contention that re-culturing precedes change is borne out by Peterson and Deal (2002), who relate that staff development's quality and success are dependent upon the character of a school's culture. Peterson and Deal (2002) summarize the ideas of Hord (1998) and Fullan (2001), clarifying common components of school cultures that could be designated as professional learning communities.

"A widely shared sense of purpose and values, norms of continuous learning and improvement, commitment to and sense of responsibility for the learning of all students, and collaborative collegial relationships" (Peterson & Deal, 2002, p. 1) dominate educational procedures within school cultures that could be designated as professional learning communities. This study finds that the connection between teacher learning and mandated change is strengthened through collaborative collegial relationships due to participation in team meetings as well as in endeavors with peers about content. "Opportunities for staff reflections, collective inquiry, and sharing personal practice" (Peterson & Deal, 2002, p. 1) permeate the work environment of this study.

Peterson and Deal (2002) incorporate Hope's (1999) ideology in that skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment are positively reinforced in educational settings where the culture enables learning for staff and students. For them, "Professional cultures foster teacher learning. With a strong, positive culture that supports professional development and student learning, schools can become places where every teacher makes a difference and every child learns" (Peterson & Deal, 2002, p. 6). School improvement requires an enlightened paradigm of shared leadership, a blending of roles occupied by

administrators and teachers. Necessary alterations in today's dynamic field of education cannot depend upon the mere chance that a school has a popular, persuasive leader able to inspire teachers to decide which changes in practice will improve both personal as well as student learning. This study concludes that such a professional learning community requires administrators to facilitate proactive change in teachers' personal as well as collective learning.

Hope's Tenets of Skill, Motivation, Beliefs, and Commitment

According to Smith (1982), as a concept, learning denotes a product, emphasizing outcome of an experience such as acquiring a specific array of skills or knowledge. If learning is referred to as a process (Fullan, 1993), what happens and how learners attempt to fulfill needs and achieve goals constitute emphasis (Smith, 1982). "When learning describes a function, the emphasis is on aspects believed to help produce learning: how learners are motivated, what brings about change" (Smith, 1982, p. 34-35).

Skills: Understanding this conception of learning generates an appreciation for effective staff development because it serves as an instrument for learning (Butler, 2001) since it is an "active process of transmitting new knowledge, values, and skills into behavior" (Smith, 1982, p. 45). Fullan (1991, 1993) stresses the urgency of understanding that learning necessitates some degree of change because it is through altering teacher practice that productive changes in student achievement occur.

Teacher in-service is not enough to produce effective change in teacher practice required for implementation of a reform initiative. Staff development is all too often

offered with isolated, unconnected content, not relevant to teachers' current needs. This situation does little to increase teacher self-efficacy beliefs related to in-service implementation. Since self-efficacy beliefs impact individual teacher's learning, this study concludes that staff development must be multifaceted, covering the necessary intent of the reform through the lens of collaboration, a shared vision of decision making, and teacher accountability for implementation in order to maximize interconnectedness between teacher self-efficacy and teacher learning.

Lieberman and Miller (1990) offer that the knowledge and commitment of teachers, combined with the development of a collaborative work setting and staff development for teachers (Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998), are necessary to the realization of educational policy. The teacher is presumed to be "the last link in the chain of influence from policy to learning event…as well as a target of policy" (Knapp, 1997, p. 233). Policy reform, Knapp (1997) confirms, needs to result in initiating or supporting mechanisms necessary for long-term teacher learning. The problem of policy extends further than just supporting acquisition of new skills or knowledge for teachers (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). The findings of this study concur with Prawat (1992) in that staff development ought to encompass the need for teachers to critically reflect on what they do in order to create new knowledge and beliefs about content as well as pedagogy and its relationship to students as learners (Prawat, 1992). This study supports the notion that reform efforts must become embedded in new institutional forms that support teachers' professional growth (Fullan, 1991, 1993) because, if they do not, many suffering teachers would not receive the psychological, emotional, and educational

support that is so badly needed for successful student learning. Policy implementation, by its very nature, directs teacher learning during mandated change.

Burns (1998) suggests that the framework of service learning provide strategies that are linked to the adopted curriculum. This study finds that teachers collaboratively devise, alter, and adopt instructional strategies for pupils to learn course content in a collaborative learning situation, including a community service component, (DODEA Service Learning Manual, 1999). The findings evidence team brainstorming, teacher as well as teacher/administrator discussions, sharing teaching strategies, and collective feedback, resulting in not only a deeper understanding of the increase in individual teachers' learning taking place but also a deeper motivation and commitment to implement the mandate.

The Alliance for Service Learning in Education Reform (1993) is still relevant to what individual teachers learn while implementing an educational mandate since this study provides insight into the complex procedure of implementing service learning. In order to meet this reform initiative's goals of fostering moral development, extending problem-solving skills, institutionalizing collaborative, inquiry-based learning, and establishing a connection among pupils and their local community (Fullan, 1991, 1993), this study concludes that the essential element is a school's collaboratively designed implementation of the initiative. Such implementation provides pupils the educational experiences to inquire, reflect, learn, and increase their academic skills as they make personal commitment to their community in ways meaningful to children.

Motivation: A better understanding of what motivates teachers to learn assists policy makers in securing the "two cornerstones of the reform agenda: a learner-centered

view of teaching and a career-long conception of teachers' learning" (Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin, 1995, p. 7). Motivation is vitally important in determining the outcome of any given endeavor. It naturally deals with the learners' desire to become involved in the learning process as well as with the reasons for the learners' active or passive behavior in learning situations (Lumsden, 1994). For schools to focus on measures that assist learners to become motivated, to foster successful learning, is one of this century's greatest challenges (Tuckman, 1999).

Motivation to learn is typified by extensive, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Ames, 1990). Based on Maslow's (1954) theory of hierarchy of needs, it is essential for learners to fulfill their deficiency needs. This study concludes that it is critical for teachers to be provided a safe environment if they are to integrate Keller's (1983) motivational components of attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction. Keller's (1983) ARCS Model of Motivational Design is sequential, requiring maintenance to keep learners on task in order to prevent loss of motivation, and therefore, of learning. This study concludes that the success of change rests upon the local needs of teachers (Fullan, 1991, 1993; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). This study emphasizes that educational mandates need to consider the nature of teachers' learning prior to their reaching the school level for implementation, supporting the work of Fullan (1991, 1993), Boyer (1990, 1995), Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin (1995), and Darling-Hammond (1998).

Attitude, according to Tuckman (1999) cannot result in motivation to achieve by itself. Consideration must be given to the value the individual places upon the outcome, resulting in a desire or drive to attain a goal. This study finds that highly intelligent,

dedicated teachers charged with implementing reform initiatives, teachers with high levels of personal self-efficacy for teaching, change their teaching practices when the outcome is desirable and/or is important to them (Overmier & Lawry, 1979). If the intent of a reform initiative is found undesirable, this study corroborates Fullan's (1993) position that, "You cannot mandate what matters…because almost all educational changes of value require new skills, behavior, and beliefs of understanding" (p. 22). The finding of this study also include respondents who do not learn new initiative skills, who are not motivated, who do not believe in the mandate, and who are not committed to the implementation of service learning.

Beliefs: If the goal is to improve both preparation and practice of teachers, Pajares (1992) specifies that an awareness and understanding of teachers' beliefs are critical for change to occur. The study of teachers' beliefs reveals insight into the professional arena where teachers work (Kagan, 1992), and teachers' beliefs could possibly be the "the clearest measure of a teacher's professional growth" (p. 85). Beliefs, according to Pintrich (1990), may well be the foremost psychological element involved in teacher education.

Beliefs are attitudes that teachers hold concerning anyone or anything job-related, and much research indicates that teachers' beliefs impact classroom practices (Kagan, 1992). Teacher beliefs are defined as personal constructs that offer an understanding of a teacher's practice (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992; Richardson, 1996). "Beliefs are important influences on the ways people conceptualize tasks and learn from experience" (Nespor, 1987, p. 317). Since beliefs act as active agents as teachers plan and predict future events, they are vital in the construction of

school culture, which, in itself, impacts teacher beliefs (Cuban, 1990). The findings of this study support Thompson (1992) in that belief systems are dynamic because they undergo change and reconfiguration as teachers evaluate their beliefs against their experiences, noting the monumental change in personal affect and self-efficacy exhibited by both teacher and administrative respondents. This study reinforces Nespor's (1987) finding that educational effectiveness is enhanced through a better understanding of teachers' belief systems because, in this study, a very discouraged, unmotivated teacher changed her affect completely, transforming personal beliefs while increasing self-efficacy into a highly productive and valuable implementer of a reform initiative.

Richardson (1996) contends that teachers' reflection on beliefs and classroom practice is important if instructional change is to occur. "To understand teaching from teachers' perspectives, we have to understand the beliefs with which they define their work" (Nespor, 1987, p. 223). This study finds that teachers are not always willing to discard long-held views about what is important for them to teach. Teachers' beliefs, once entrenched, can turn into stone, resulting in negative teacher learning and change necessary for implementation. This study concludes that administrators must not only recognize those individual teacher beliefs that will curtail effective teacher learning but must also work with such teachers to ensure a degree of change, allowing implementation to be effective. The significance of teacher belief assessment as well as the importance of knowing how to affect them (Underhill, 1988) is this study's main contribution to a universal appreciation of the powerful influence beliefs have. Teachers' motivation to and commitment for extending personal skills to affect change in practice are essential in change.

Commitment: A primary determinant of the performance of a school's staff is the degree of teacher commitment (NCES, 1997). "Commitment is the degree of positive, affective bond between the teacher and the school…reflecting the degree of internal motivation, enthusiasm, and job satisfaction teachers derive from teaching and the degree of efficacy and effectiveness they achieve in their jobs" (NCES, 1997, p. 2). This study finds that teachers who believe that they are already conducting their professional lives in accordance with what they believe to be in their pupils' best interests academically can and do learn to change their teaching practice. By adopting methodology of a mandated educational reform foreign to their standard practice, as they implement school policy, teachers do alter their learning while implementing an educational mandate. This study concludes that an informed awareness of teacher professionalism on teacher commitment results in an increase in change in practice required, thus meeting the requirements of a reform initiative, including that of service learning.

Social Cognitive Theory

During implementation of an educational mandate, teachers learn about the theory or theories that encompass the scope of the reform initiative. Self-efficacy, a construct essential to successful learning embedded in Social Cognitive Theory, is the concept that people possess self-efficacy beliefs that provide self-control over their individual thoughts, feelings, or actions (Bandura, 1986; Brown, 1999; Pajares, 2002). Self-efficacy profoundly impacts a person's decision to behave in a given fashion, since feedback enables a person to re-evaluate his/her efforts and goals to make them more attainable, impacting self-efficacy in the process (Pajares, 2002). This study finds that

teacher self-efficacy plays a critical role during implementation of service learning that is interlaced with inquiry, reflection, collaboration, and support, thus reinforcing the work of Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995). The professional learning environment studied saves the career of one of the respondents in this study, evidenced by tremendous change in personal self-efficacy regarding her position as a teacher. It not only increases five teacher respondents' levels of self-efficacy due to feedback received throughout the implementation process, but it also radically increases the self-efficacy of the two administrative respondents toward service learning.

Constructivist Theory

Constructivist Theory contends that knowledge is individually constructed (Brooks, 1984; Bednar, et al., 1991; Wilson, 1996). Referencing Constructivist Theory, Fullan (1991, 1993) and Hope (1999) maintain that constructivist learning can only take place if teachers receive adequate training to incorporate the skills necessary to pursue this avenue of education and if teachers' skills relate to their being motivated to participate (Richardson, 2003). This study finds that an understanding of the policy requirements for implementing service learning changes the way both administrators view their daily business and how teacher respondents adjust their individual course content to meet the requirements for service learning. Constructivistist learning also necessitates that teachers simultaneously unlearn beliefs and practices used throughout their career (Fullan, 1993; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). This study finds that, difficult as this is for many teachers, for those educators who collaborate willingly,

who share and discuss policy and procedure, substantial change in individual teachers' practice does occur. Teachers create their own personal meaning as they construct new realities about how they are to perform during implementation, adding credence to Brooks (1984), Bednar, et al., (1991), and Wilson (1996).

Service learning, like constructivism, centers upon the pupil in that they both "propose that learning environments should support multiple perspectives or interpretations of reality, knowledge construction, content-rich, experience-based activities" (Jonassen, 1991, p. 28). This style of learning focuses on the construction of personal meaning; therefore, this study concludes that implementation of service learning extends the relevance of Constructivist Theory in relationship to Change Theory because both emphasize methodology necessitating change in traditional, informative education.

Implications for Research, Theory, and Practice

Dewey (1916) contends that, "The self is not ready-made, but something in continuous formation through choice of action" (p. 408). His beliefs support Sartre's (1963) notion that whatever we eventually become, whatever we decide to make of ourselves, is based upon what we actually do, thus reinforcing that, "What we do must be conscious, interested, and committed" (Lieberman & Miller, 1991, p. 6). Unless those responsible for implementing an educational mandate—teachers and school administrators—participate in the design of the reforms and actually buy into the purpose of the reforms, very little change will occur.

Because the purpose of this study is to research how the learning of individual teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate, it is important to find out what individual teachers do throughout implementation and to interpret how the results could augment existing research, theories, and practice. I feel that the information gathered in this study will enrich all three areas of concern. Any additional research extending awareness of what people feel, think, and/or believe in relationship to how they behave and what they learn is important. Any further investigation which produces a better understanding that people construct their own meaning of knowledge, based on interactions of what they know and believe, is important if change in practice is the ultimate goal in teachers' learning. Any research that gleans insight into the relationship among teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment and change in teachers' practice while implementing an educational mandate is important.

Research

The purpose of the study is to locate factors that influence how individual teaches' learning changes while implementing an educational mandate. This study has significance for contributing to the research base by analyzing how changes in individual teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) are affected during the implementation of an educational mandate. It is important to know how teachers' belief systems influence their ability to change in today's dynamic educational arena (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) since students in general are feeling more alienated from those who teach them in the traditional manner of the past (Sarason, 1996).

As the role of teachers has changed drastically in recent years from provider of knowledge to facilitator of learning, I believe that this research offers a current view of how mandated educational change inspires teachers' learning, thereby spearheading further change in teachers' learning as evidenced in classroom practice. I also believe that this research orchestrates an informed awareness of the critical role of teacher collaboration in the change process, but more importantly, in individual teachers' learning during implementation of an educational mandate because a norm of experimentation supporting service learning prevails throughout this study. Sheingold (1991) theorizes that the development of this norm "requires [teachers] to give up long-held beliefs about teaching and learning and to devise instruction that embodies new goals and approaches" (p. 19). The role of service learning in encouraging or hindering teacher learning resulting in change of practice during mandate implementation may identify a concern for further research.

Theory

Theoretically, this study uses the lens of learning in Fullan's (1991, 1993) theory of change to enhance existing theory regarding the impact that change forces have on belief systems of individual teachers regarding educational mandates and their implementation. Fullan's (1991, 1993) paradigm of change provides a medium to investigate the dynamics of change, a medium that confirms that individual teachers' learning during implementation of an educational mandate provides effective change in individual teachers' classroom practice.

Lortie (1975) relates that resistance to reform is reflected in the conservative atmosphere isolation fosters in the educational setting. Isolation inhibits complex change because the process of change requires numerous "people working insightfully on the solution and committing themselves to concentrated action together" (Fullan, 1993, p. 34). Rosenholtz (1989), supported later by Fullan and Hargreaves (1991), contends that, through collaboration, schools resolve problems more effectively. To ensure successful changes in teacher learning while implementing a reform initiative, further research into the actual construction of collaborative work environments might be beneficial. Analysis of productive change in teacher practice in relationship to gains in student academic achievement is needed because there is an apparent lack of empirical research studies to support the generally accepted effects of collaboration on learning per se.

It is also important to know how belief systems affect teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) because it is through alterations in teachers' belief systems, essential for personal learning (Fullan, 1993; Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001), that changes for everybody in the classroom setting are obtained. Tyack & Cuban (1995) noted that there is a growing recognition among educators that schools cannot address children's cognitive needs in isolation from the different circumstances of their lives. Hence, "The teacher who works for the status quo is the traitor" (Fullan, 1993, p. 14) to students of today who will be their replacements in the future. If so, then change is not only inevitable (Fullan, 1993); it is imperative.

I believe that the results of this study substantiate both Fullan's (1991, 1993) paradigm of change and Hope's (1999) tenets of teachers' skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment. When scrutinized together, concentrating upon their varied roles in teacher

learning while implementing an educational mandate, a clearer perspective of how change actually occurs in an educational setting majestically unfolds.

Practice

The findings from this study provide additional knowledge to teacher practice (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) in the area of change that affects teachers' belief systems concerning skill, motivation, beliefs, and commitment (Hope, 1999) that impact the educational setting. By providing additional knowledge, practitioners better understand that, because teachers are in the business of making improvements, they need to have positive images for their driving forces (Fullan, 1993). By analyzing their intentions, teachers are able to learn new patterns of practice, thus granting them a broader spectrum of possible choices (Gallego, Hollingsworth, & Whitenack, 2001) as they answer the simple question that all teachers ask: "What difference am I trying to make personally?" (Fullan, 1993, p.13).

Peterson and Deal (2002) report that culture not only shapes the total school but also impacts heavily upon people's thought processes, feelings, and actions, thereby determining the degree of success in extending staff and student learning. Fullan's (2001) contention that culturing precedes change is borne out by Peterson and Deal (2002), who relate that staff development's quality and success are dependent upon the character of a school's culture. Therefore, further study is needed regarding exactly how educational leaders can reduce the effects of barriers to change and strengthen those elements that seem to support change in schools where a strong, proactive culture exists

(Boyd, 1991) but does not include necessary teacher members. Even though I believe that the findings of this study suggest some educationally viable recommendations for change in teacher practice, suggestions initiated by the interviewees as they verbalize changes in their individual personal learning while implementing an educational mandate, further research is needed into what might leaders do to successfully and positively illicit support from non-compliant teachers during implementation in order to fulfill the intent of a change initiative.

Commentary

In terms of student education, a question frequently asked centers around how to create citizens who will, without extraneous rewards, participate in their local areas as well as on the national level. Trained as a secondary social studies teacher, I have incorporated the belief that effective citizenship is a critical element in students' education that can be taught through indirect instruction via adult modeling as well as through direct instruction revolving around curricular content covered in the learning setting.

Kohn (1991) analyzes the function of schools in creating good people, caring people, finding that student-to-student interaction is rarely integrated within the school curriculum and that "students are graduated who think that being smart means looking out for number one" (p. 498). He further stresses that schools should be assisting students to view themselves as responsible and caring individuals and that "helpfulness and responsibility ought not to be taught in a vacuum but in the context of a community

of people" (Kohn, 1991, p. 501). The need for students to learn to work with others for a common goal that is above and beyond one's own interests is suggested by Allen, Splittgerber, and Manning (1990).

In order to achieve this degree of student education, teachers themselves must be trained in the art of working together collaboratively, devising challenging, creative, and relative cooperative learning activities prior to teaching their students. Because the inquiry approach to learning instills both motivation and commitment to collective learning, it is essential that teachers not only be familiar with such teaching philosophy but also believe in the strategies, teacher practices, and rationale for such learning. Therefore, teachers also need to be involved not only in their school, but also in their local community as active citizens, in order to increase personal belief, motivation, and commitment to an educational reform initiative soliciting similar values from students. It is, after all else is considered, "first-hand knowledge and visible commitment that carry the most profound messages to students" (Sewell, 1997, p. 2).

We know that young people learn by observing adults, from whom they learn values and beliefs (Krystal, 1999). Bandura and McDonald (1963) tested the effect of adult modeling on moral behavior, finding that models alone are as effective in altering children's moral judgments as the experimental conditions combining role models with social reinforcement. Therefore, teachers, who have such a profound influence on their students, who are the leaders of service learning programs, who must interact with administrators as well as with other teachers in workshops, and who must deal with personnel at the various service learning sites, must not feel isolated (Darling-Hammond,

1998). They, like the students that they teach, must be connected to their communities (Carpenter & Jacobs, 1994).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Interview Protocol and Interview Questions

Each interview will begin with an introduction of the researcher, an explanation of and, if needed, a clarification of my research, followed by presentation of and signing of the consent form.

Implementation of mandated educational policy can be scrutinized via the interview process through a battery of questions, seeking to determine how it relates to critical elements impacting both teachers' learning and change. The following focus questions will be proposed:

1. Tell me about your reasons for becoming a teacher.
2. How long have you been teaching and in how many positions have you taught?
3. Tell me about your pre-service teacher training related to educational mandates.
4. How and when did you learn about service learning?
5. How did you acquire the skills for implementing service learning?
6. What skills do you think are most needed to implement service learning?
7. What are your beliefs about service learning?
8. Tell me about what motivates you to learn during implementation.
9. What is needed for you to be come committed to service learning?
10. What support is there in your school for implementing service learning?
11. What do you do to engage yourself in changing your learning as you implement service learning?
12. To what do you attribute success in changing your learning as you implement service learning

Appendix B

International Review Board Approval

Adrienne, I hope that you have this paper, as I do not. Hope!

Appendix C

Introductory Letter

Dear______________________,

I am writing to invite you to take part in a research project that I am engaged in as part of my doctoral degree in educational administration with Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. The purpose of this study is to examine the factors impacting upon how the learning of teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate.

If you agree to participate, I will conduct an audio taped interview, lasting approximately one hour, at your convenience and choice of location. A follow-up interview may be needed to clarify information. The data will be transcribed for analysis.

I would appreciate it if you would be willing to participate in this study, thus contributing to research in understanding how the learning of teachers changes while implementing an educational mandate. I will provide you with further information and a consent form that you can sign and return via posting it in the self-addresses and postage-paid included envelope. If you have additional queries prior to agreeing to participate, please contact me at home by phoning 01842 862588.

Yours sincerely,

Emma Espinoza

Appendix D

Research Consent Form

Informed Consent

I, ______________________, hereby authorize Emma Linda Espinoza to interview me and to observe teacher/student interactions within my classroom in relation with this research on how the learning of teachers alters while implementing an educational mandate. This research is being conducted through Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. The Principal Investigator is Emma Linda Espinoza, a doctoral student, under the supervision of Adrienne E. Hyle, PhD, professor at Oklahoma State University.

If you choose to participate, the interview will take approximately one hour, and the classroom observation will extend no longer than either one class period or 45 minutes. I will arrange for a time and place that are convenient for you outside of your work schedule. The interview will be audio taped to ensure that all responses are recorded for gathering information to be used in a doctoral dissertation. Once the tape has been transcribed, you will be provided a copy for your perusal. If needed, I will arrange a follow-up interview to clarify information and to provide additional information if necessary.

Your name will not appear on the transcript, the tape, or observation documentation. You will be assigned a pseudonym to protect your confidentiality. Your approved copies of research documentation will be kept in a locked file cabinet in my home until the research is finalized, after which the transcripts will be shredded for your further protection.

Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary, and at any given time during or following the interview process, if you feel dissatisfied with the process, you may request that the interview/observation be terminated, resulting in the destruction of any information gathered. Furthermore, if you decide to alter a response, you may contact me to change that response.

To ensure that there is no risk to any participant as well as no obligation on their part to participate, this study neither provides any form of compensation to the subjects; nor offers any direct benefit to the individual participants. This research will be added to the wider body of knowledge of change theory.

For queries about the research, please contact:

Adrienne E. Hyle, Professor

Oklahoma State University

106 Willard Hall

Stillwater, OK 74078 Phone: 405-744-9893

Emma L. Espinoza

2 Holly Lane

Lakenheath

Suffolk IP27 9NS

Phone: 01842 862588

I understand that participation is voluntary and that there is no penalty if I elect not to participate. I comprehend that I am free, at any time, to withdraw my consent and terminate my participation in this research without penalty after I notify the research advisor, Dr. Adrienne E. Hyle, at the address or phone number noted above.

I understand that the interview and the observation will follow conventional research protocol and that any information gathered via the interview and observation will be recorded in such a manner that ensures the anonymity of the participants.

I have read and understand this consent form. I have been fully advised of the procedures employed in this research. I volunteer to participate. I sign this consent form freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:____________________________________Time:__________________(A.M./P.M.)

____

Name (typed) Signature

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject or his/her representative before requesting the subject or his/her representative to sign it.

Signed:____

Emma Linda Espinoza

Appendix E

Consent Form

I authorize Emma Espinoza to conduct research at the school site for a study entitled Change: How the Learning of Teachers Alters while Implementing an Educational Mandate. The project is scheduled to take approximately twelve weeks. During the course of this study, the researcher will use commonly accepted research procedures including observation, interview, and review of documents.

I understand that participation in this project is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate. I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying Emma Espinoza or her advisor.

I understand that the interview will be conducted according to accepted procedures and that information gained from the interview will be recorded is such a manner that subjects cannot be identified directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects. Each interview will be recorded and transcribed verbatim. All collected data, including the interview tapes, will be recorded and kept in a locked file cabinet. The tapes will be destroyed at the conclusion of the study. For a minimum of two years following the study, the researcher will maintain the data in a secure location.

I understand that the purpose of the study is to examine what and how do teachers learn during the implementation of an educational mandate and in what ways does this learning reflect changes in skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment. I understand that the interview will not cover topics that could reasonably place the subject at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subject's financial standing or employability.

I may contact the dissertation advisor, Dr. Adrienne Hyle, Assistant Dean, School of Educational Studies, College of Education, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK, USA, should I wish further information about the research.

I have read and fully understand this consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form has been provided to me.

Date:____Time:____________________

Signed:____

I certify that I have personally explained all elements of this form to the subject before requesting the subject sign the form.

Signed:____

Appendix F

Copy of Research Permission Letter

I think that you have this letter from Dr. Lavendar.

16A Broom Road
Lakenheath
Suffolk IP27 9ES

Mrs. E. Lavender
School Inspector
Office for Standards in Education
8 The Granaries
Station Road
Maldon
Essex CM9 4LQ

Dear Mrs. E. Lavender,

My name is Mrs. Emma Espinoza, a doctoral student currently enrolled in the School of Educational Studies, College of Education, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK, USA. The title of my proposed dissertation is Change: How the Learning of Teachers Alters while Implementing an Educational Mandate. I am specifically interested in a better understanding of the role that an educational mandate may have on teachers' skills, motivation, beliefs, and commitment.

Please note that I have included a Consent Form for your appraisal and signature, if you deem my request suitable to your needs and requirements.

Thank you for any assistance that you may grant me as I pursue my research into the very heart of education: change.

Sincerely,

Mrs. Emma Espinoza
Teacher
Lakenheath Middle School

VITA

Emma Linda Espinoza

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: CHANGE: HOW THE LEARNING OF TEACHERS ALTERS WHILE IMPLEMENTING AN EDUCATIONAL MANDATE

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Wayland, New York, on May 7, 1947, daughter of Edward and Iris La Bell, sister of Garland, Jean, Linwood, Cecile, Edward, Jr., Sandra, Donna, Jacqueline, Barbara, and Michael.

Education: Graduate of Wayland Central High School, Wayland, New York, in June, 1965; received Bachelor of Science degree in Social Studies from the State University of New York at Geneseo, Geneseo, New York, in June, 1969; received Masters in Educational Sociology from Wayne State University in Ramstein, Germany in August, 1975; received Masters in Counseling from Ball State University in Ramstein, Germany in 1979. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in August 2005.

Experience: Worked as a camp counselor for the Rotary Club in the summers while in high school; worked in the Business Office and the Bursar's Office, as well as with Food Service, while an undergraduate; worked as a Vista Volunteer in Service to America in rural Alabama from 1969 to 1970; recruited in August of 1970 from VISTA by the Board of Education of Camden, Alabama, to be a Special Education teacher; hired in August of 1971, by the Board of Education of Selma, Alabama, to institute a Title One program for remedial math; left the United States in June of 1972 and worked for Big Bend State University at the Education Center as an instructor at both Sembach Air Force Base and Ramstein Air Force Base in Germany; employed by the Department of Defense Overseas Education Activity from August 1974 till August 1979 in Germany; transferred to RAF Fairford as a teacher and also worked for Troy State University at the Education Center there; transferred to RAF Croughton in 1989; transferred to RAF Lakenheath in 1994, where I currently am employed.

Memberships: Phi Delta Kappa
National Education Association