Building Capacity for Triangulated Assessment

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BUILDING CAPACITY FOR TRIANGULATED ASSESSMENT PRACTICES

JEFFREY BRINSON

AN ORGANIZATIONAL IMPROVEMENT PLAN
SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

WESTERN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE AND POSTDOCTORAL STUDIES
LONDON, ONTARIO
Abstract

Over the last number of years, increased accountability in the teaching profession, coupled with the implementation of standards-based curricula, have resulted in traditional measuring tools such as tests, quizzes, or a performance task dominating classroom assessment practices (DeLuca, King, Sun, & Klinger, 2012). Ontario’s assessment and evaluation policy, Growing Success (2010), and Campbell et al.’s (2018) review of assessment in Ontario both support strengthening the use of qualitative feedback. However, current practices focusing on grade-oriented, surface level approaches characterized by memorization, recall, reduced thinking, preference for easier tasks, reluctance to take intellectual risks, and a diminished interest in learning continues (Kohn, 2011; Tippin, Lafreniere, & Page, 2012). A problem of practice is a situation in one’s place of work where goals and/or values might not be entirely met that is characteristic of a group of people or population (Pollock, 2014). Using Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) Congruence Model of Organizational Behaviour and Cawsey, Deszca and Ingols’ (2016) Change Path Model, this Organization Improvement Plan will contextualize a problem of practice, analyze the organization in preparation for change, and propose a change implementation plan aimed at building capacity for leaders and teachers to broaden the use of triangulated methods, the use of multiple sources over time to gather data (Herbst, 2015), in student assessment.

Keywords: assessment, triangulation, observation, conversation, educational leadership, K-12
Executive Summary

This Organizational Improvement Plan uses theory and research to guide leaders in building capacity for using observation and conversation in addition to products when gathering data on student achievement. The organizational context is anonymously described in reference to its demographics, geography, sociological ideologies, vision, mission, values, goals and leadership practices. In many ways, Riverview Secondary School and its affiliated school board, Three Rivers District School Board display the characteristics, visions, goals, and leadership structures that are typical in educational institutions in the Province of Ontario. The organizational history is explained using Bolman and Deal’s (2013) four frames by analyzing its structures, people, political climate, and symbols.

The problem of practice articulated throughout this Organizational Improvement Plan is the degree with which traditional means of gathering data on student achievement, such as tests and quizzes, dominates the culture at Riverview Secondary School. However, this Organizational Improvement Plan articulates that the problem is a symptom of broader issues in today’s educational climate. This is conveyed by tracing the historical trajectory of assessment in Ontario, by investigating the competing educational approaches impacting practice, and by articulating the structural dilemmas that inform the problem of practice. To develop a leadership-focused vision for change, Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) Congruence Model of Organizational Behaviour is used to analyze the elements and patterns that support and oppose change. Novick, Kress, and Elias’ (2002) audit of organizational culture tool and Cawsey, Descza, and Ingol’s (2016) adapted Rate Your Readiness to Change tool are used to analyze the organization’s readiness and concluded that there is a moderate readiness for change.
This Organizational Improvement Plan recommends supporting change by moving away from a transactional leadership structure that promotes the interests of the leader to transformational leadership; a more flattened hierarchy that is more collaborative and collegial (Bass, 1999). This leadership style requires that leaders clarify their values, reflect on how those values fit into the organizational goals, and lead according to the principles that matter (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). In addition, the alignment between the shared values of the organization and its constituents are important considerations investigated in the Organizational Improvement Plan. The collective voice of all stakeholders is an important theme in the planning, development, and implementation stages for change.

Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) Congruence Model of Organizational Behaviour is used to analyze the elements that support and oppose change. Inputs, the givens of an organization (Nadler & Tushman, 1982), such as the external factors impacting the organization, the assets of the organization, and the historical factors influencing the organization, provide a rich perspective on factors that will support and oppose change. This analysis leads to three possible solutions: (1) standard professional development, (2) job-embedded professional development, and (3) communities of practice. The resources required for success and the benefits and disadvantages of each solution are evaluated. The planning and development chapter ends with recommendations for ethical leadership and organizational change.

Cawsey, Descza, and Ingol’s (2016) Change Path Model is used as the framework to detail a change implementation plan. It was chosen because it details the steps of change and stages of change. Four stages are identified: The Awakening, Mobilization, Acceleration, and Institutionalization stages. Embedded in each stage, the vision for change, and the mobilization of stakeholders through the job-embedded professional development and communities of
practice solutions is described. Kelleher’s (2003) Model for Assessment-Driven Professional development is used to highlight preparatory steps, implementation, reflection, capacity building, evaluation, and goal setting. This model was chosen because it conceptualizes professional development as a cycle, allows for people to be at different stages, and connects to student learning. The change process is monitored and evaluated by embedding multiple Plan, Do, Study, and Act (Deming, 2000) cycles throughout the stages of Cawsey, Descza, and Ingol’s (2016) Change Path Model. To specifically evaluate the job-embedded professional development, Guskey’s (2002) five critical levels for evaluating professional development is used. Finally, the change plan includes a communication plan that embeds Klein’s (1996) communication strategy into Cawsey, Descza, and Ingol’s (2016) Change Path Model and their four phases of communicating change.

The Organizational Improvement Plan ends with next steps and future considerations for the sustainability of the structures and processes that are introduced. Recommendations for structural, leadership, and expanded implementation are detailed.
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# Table of Contents

Abstract ................................................................................................................................. ii

Executive Summary ............................................................................................................... iii

Acknowledgements .............................................................................................................. vi

List of Figures ......................................................................................................................... x

List of Tables .......................................................................................................................... xi

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM ............................................................... 1

Introduction ............................................................................................................................. 1

Organizational Context .......................................................................................................... 1

  Vision, mission, values, purposes and goals ........................................................................ 3

  Organizational Structure and current leadership practices ................................................ 4

Organizational History .......................................................................................................... 5

  Structural Frame .................................................................................................................. 6

  Human Resources Frame ...................................................................................................... 6

  Political Frame ..................................................................................................................... 7

  Symbolic Frame .................................................................................................................. 8

Leadership Position and Lens .............................................................................................. 8

Problem of Practice .............................................................................................................. 12

Framing the Problem of Practice .......................................................................................... 14

  Historical Overview .......................................................................................................... 14

  Educational Approaches ..................................................................................................... 16

  Organizational Theory ....................................................................................................... 18

  Analysis of internal data .................................................................................................... 20
BUILDING CAPACITY FOR TRIANGULATED ASSESSMENT

Awakening Stage ........................................................................................................................................... 63
Mobilization Stage ........................................................................................................................................ 64
Acceleration Stage ....................................................................................................................................... 67
Institutionalization Stage ............................................................................................................................ 69
Strengths and Limitations ............................................................................................................................. 69
Strengths ...................................................................................................................................................... 69
Limitations .................................................................................................................................................. 71
Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation ................................................................................................. 72
Awakening Stage ........................................................................................................................................... 73
Mobilization Stage ........................................................................................................................................ 74
Acceleration Stage ....................................................................................................................................... 75
Institutionalization Stage ............................................................................................................................ 77
Conclusion ................................................................................................................................................... 78
Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and the Change Process ....................................................... 79
Communication Principles .......................................................................................................................... 79
Communication Plan .................................................................................................................................. 82
Conclusion ................................................................................................................................................... 86
Next Steps and Future Considerations ......................................................................................................... 86
Organizational Improvement Plan Conclusion ............................................................................................ 89
References .................................................................................................................................................. 90
List of Figures

Figure 1. Readiness for Change. ........................................................................................................28
Figure 2. Change Path Model. ........................................................................................................37
Figure 3. Basic Problem Analysis Steps Using the Congruence Model........................................47
Figure 4. PDSA Cycle.....................................................................................................................73
Figure 5. Simultaneous PDSA cycles ............................................................................................75
List of Tables

Table 1: Analysis of Terms in Report Card Comments .......................................................... 21
Table 2: Overlay of Cawsey et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model, Phases of Communicating
CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM

Introduction

Chapter 1 of this Organizational Improvement Plan (OIP) describes a problem of practice (PoP) and investigates the historical, organizational, and leadership contexts that help to understand the problem. In addition, the chapter examines the vision for change and evaluates the organization’s readiness for change.

Organizational Context

The organization referenced in this OIP is a large secondary school in a medium-sized Ontario city. For the purposes of anonymization, the school will be referred to as Riverview Secondary School (RSS). To maintain confidentiality, any documents created by RSS and its affiliate school board will be referred to, but citations will be anonymized in this OIP. RSS is a school under the jurisdiction of the Three Rivers District School Board (TRDSB, a pseudonym); a medium sized, publicly funded school board in Ontario that spans a large geographic area serving both rural and urban communities. TRDSB’s approximately 3,000 staff provide educational and support services to approximately 27,000 Kindergarten to Grade 12 students. RSS averages an annual enrollment of 1,100 students who are served by approximately 80 instructional staff, 3 administrators, and approximately 25 support staff. Founded in the late 1950s, RSS has a tradition of excellence fostered through programs such as Advanced Placement (AP), Co-operative Education, French Immersion, Specialist High Skills Major (SHSM), and Dual Credit (college and secondary school credits) offered in a range of pathways from Locally Developed through to University Preparation.

Riverview Secondary School displays characteristics of both conservative and neo-liberal ideologies. Conservative ideology would suggest that to function properly, society
should be organized hierarchically (Gutek, 1997). Like its affiliated school board, that is organized hierarchically from the director of education, to the board of trustees, to the superintendents of education, most schools, including RSS, have an established hierarchy that includes administrators, teachers who hold positions of added responsibility, classroom teachers, educational assistants, clerical/technical staff, and physical plant staff. Gutek (1997) suggests that in a school underpinned by conservativism, the education of the elite can be accommodated by tracking or streaming students into classes designed for their future destination. In addition, educators driven by conservative values or beliefs aim to cultivate intellectual discipline in core courses of study. Students at RSS are sorted hierarchically by being placed in classes according to their individual historical academic achievement and their day is largely structured in academics. The maintenance of traditional culture and values is important to most stakeholders in the organization. RSS’s mission is to encourage students to have determination, to improve, and to grow. The school year is structured to include frequent cycles of mandated reporting of student outcomes thus, adhering to Ontario Ministry of Education, school board, and school policy mandates.

After years of having autonomy to design and deliver curriculum using pedagogical and assessment tools that educators felt were in the best interest of students, critics called for neo-liberal market views of education that were perceived as more trustworthy and reliable (Ryan, 2012). Hursh’s (2016) claim that “education has been radically transformed over the last few decades based on a corporate model of market competition, with quantitative evaluations of students, teachers, schools, and school districts based on students’ scores on standardized tests” (p. 2) became characteristic of the education climate in Ontario. Riverview Secondary School staff gather assessment information, largely through criterion-referenced means, that allow for
students to be evaluated on how well they have met learning standards that have been pre-
determined by the provincial government. Criterion-referenced assessment fits the neo-liberal
goal of determining a student’s future contribution to the economy and consequently, directs
them toward university, college, apprenticeships, or the workplace. Neo-liberal influences can
also be observed using accountability measures such as data from standardized testing mandated
through the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) and through program
implementation such as Specialist High Skills Majors. In *Growing Success*, Ontario’s provincial
assessment document, the Ontario Ministry of Education (2010) cites that large-scale
assessments are “designed primarily to provide snapshots of the strengths and weaknesses of
education systems” (p. 92). Traditional and large-scale quantitative grading practices give the
impression that there is little room to misinterpret what the data is saying. However, a recent
independent review of assessment and reporting in Ontario entitled *Ontario: A Learning
Province* concluded that a review of approaches for evaluating criterion-referenced assessments
and the development of a comprehensive communication plan to clearly and appropriately
disseminate the data gathered from large-scale assessments is needed (Campbell, et al., 2018).

**Vision, mission, values, purposes and goals**

Many schools boast a traditional coat of arms with Latin words or phrases describing the
school mission inscribed within it. For almost sixty years, RSS’s mission has been to encourage
students to have determination, to improve, and to grow. More specifically, RSS is required to
complete an annual school improvement plan based on the pillars of student achievement, well-
being, and equity determined by the board (Three Rivers District School Board, 2018). School
leadership, in consultation with the staff, identify evidence-based practices, high yield strategies,
evidence of progress, timelines, and who is responsible for each of the actions in the plan.
School boards in Ontario are required to have a strategic plan that guides their work and informs the school-level plan (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2013). TRDSB’s mission is to provide opportunities for all students to experience success (Three Rivers District School Board, 2018). These pillars, focused on setting high expectations for staff and students, form the framework for school improvement plans, and inform teaching practice. Input from all stakeholders is sought during its development. Relevant to this OIP, one of the goals of the TRDSB’s strategic plan is to look at increasing understanding of effective instruction and assessment practices (Three Rivers District School Board, 2018).

**Organizational Structure and current leadership practices**

To understand the problem of practice, it is important to be aware of the organizational structures and leadership practices that impact it. Riverview Secondary School is led by a principal, whose tenure at the school is beyond the traditional three to five years that is average for TRDSB schools, and two vice-principals, each of whom have tenure of just over two years at the school. Despite a recent influx of younger teachers, turn-over of staff at RSS has traditionally been low. Many staff members have been serving the school community for several years. Thus, there is significant ownership of goals and procedures and there is considerable collective memory about the culture and traditions of the school. The relationship built between the administrative team and the staff will be an asset to driving change at RSS. Northouse (2016) writes about behavioural approaches to leadership including behaviour that “helps followers feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves” (p. 71). RSS has a team of department heads and assistant department heads who are quite involved in the operations of the school and have a positive relationship with the administration.
The leadership structure of the TRDSB would be described as transactional since initiatives, system standards, policies and directives are largely an exchange between senior leadership and the employees (Northouse, 2016). At RSS, the dominant leadership style would be described as situational where “different situations demand different kinds of leadership” (Northouse, 2016, p. 93) and thus, the leaders “adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations” (Northouse, 2016, p. 93). There are times when a more directive style is utilized followed by close supervision of implementation demands. Often this more transactional message has been mandated from senior leadership through the school leadership. A coaching style of leadership, described as those where input from followers is solicited but the final decision rests with the leadership (Northouse 2018), is also evident at RSS. Over the past several years, staff in positions of additional responsibility, those not in official leadership positions, and the parent council have been empowered to provide input into decisions that affect the school community. A third shared leadership style at RSS is the supportive approach, described as an approach where the leader gives control of day-to-day decisions to the followers and is available to problem solve (Northouse, 2013). This is common in the teaching profession where teachers are responsible for their program of study and administration is available to solve behaviour or operational issues that arise. Irrespective of this empowerment, there are times when it is necessary for the management at RSS to be fluid, moving from delegating responsibility and supporting autonomy to coaching and directing.

Organizational History

Organizations are complex and thus difficult to understand and operate. Bolman and Deal (2013) provide four lenses that add clarity to the complexities of organizational life; the structural, human resources, political, and symbolic frames.
Structural Frame

Bolman and Deal (2013) describe the structural frame as one that focuses on hierarchy, formal roles and responsibilities, goals, and the structures that contribute to the coordinated efforts of the organization. Riverview Secondary School has a large staff who are organized hierarchically into departments based on subject specialties. This complex role structure creates a dilemma such that efforts to coordinate and integrate the diverse programming can be a daunting task. At the school level, policies, expectations, and deadlines inform the actions. At the classroom level, programs are delivered by dividing the day into four seventy-five-minute periods where teachers have autonomy while working in relative isolation.

Human Resources Frame

An organization is more than its structures, visions, and goals. The human resources frame focuses on the human side of the organization. This frame investigates the interplay between what the people do for the organization and what the organization does for the people (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Ryan and Tuters (2012) acknowledge the close relationship between teachers and organizations stating, “teachers and administrators are very much part of the institutions in which they work; they are tied to their organizations, just as their organizations are bound to them” (p. 1).

RSS boasts a staff of over 100 people including administrators, teachers, clerical, technical, and educational assistants. In addition, professional services staff including an attendance counselor, a social worker, a child and youth worker, a behaviour counselor, a psychologist, and a special education teacher consultant provide support to the staff and students. Efforts to build the capacity of staff to gather a variety of data for student assessment need to include the goals, talents, ideas, energy, and support of these individuals.
(2013) describe McGregor’s (1960) Theory Y which proposes that managers, in this case principals, should provide conditions where teachers can achieve personal goals with intrinsic rewards. These considerations promote a climate where goals are not sabotaged by a “superficial harmony with undercurrents of apathy, indifference, and smoldering resentment” (p. 123).

In addition to harnessing the energies, talents, and support of staff, the human resources frame promotes two significant considerations relevant to this OIP. First, on the job learning is the desired means of professional development at RSS. Any efforts to build capacity for triangulated assessment will need to provide strategies that can be embedded in practice. Second, to alleviate potential fears or hesitations, management systems that promote risk-taking will be necessary for the implementation of this OIP.

**Political Frame**

To meet the goals of this OIP, it is important for the change agents to acknowledge, understand, and manage the political undercurrents rather than ignore them (Bolman & Deal, 2013). An overarching idea that emerges from the political frame is that of power. Sources of power at RSS include administration, teachers with positions of added responsibility (e.g. department heads), and the union representation. As stated earlier, people bring their own assumptions, biases, and vision to the organization, so it is inevitable that there is potential for conflict when attempting to align practices with current policy. Kliebard (1986) supports this finding stating that issues in education often involve conflict and compromise among those with opposing visions. Bolman and Deal (2013) advise that “managers often fail to get things done because they rely too much on reason and too little on relationships” (p. 213). Thus, in this OIP it is important to determine who needs to be influenced, who may resist, and what coalitions exist so that the sources of power can be harnessed together to work toward shared goals.
Symbolic Frame

The symbolic frame brings meaning to the complexities of our world through symbols, stories, rituals and traditions (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Just as visible artifacts, such as the Ontario Scholar plaque, top athlete pictures, school mace, and prestigious award winners bring a sense of pride and display traditions of excellence at the school, the rituals of teaching are just as significant to understanding the goals of this OIP. Thus, traditions and rituals associated with assessment will be a focus when investigating the problem of practice in this OIP.

Leadership Position and Lens

The goal of school reform efforts is to improve student achievement by focusing on improving teaching and learning. Despite whether the initiatives are focused on improving school districts, schools, or teaching practice within a single school, local leadership plays a significant part in the success or failure of any planned change efforts (Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Therefore, it is important for a leader to consider his or her own positionality in relation to the problem he or she is investigating (Holmes, 2014).

In Ontario, the secondary school leadership team is led by a principal and supported by one or more vice-principals. This team is expected to set directions, build positive relationships, develop people, build the organization in support of desired practices, improve the instructional program, and to ensure internal and external accountability (The Institute for Education Leadership, 2013). Since the duties of the principal are shared with the vice-principal(s), leading change from the current organizational state to a desired state is within the scope of my role and therefore, is actionable. These responsibilities give me, as one of RSS’ vice-principals, agency over problems of practice in my organization, including the PoP that is discussed in this organizational improvement plan.
At least two opposing views of leadership appear in the literature. One seeks to identify the qualities, or the right tools, to carry out the assigned duties. The other suggests that leadership is situational and thus, fluid (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Northouse, 2016). When reflecting on my personal leadership philosophy, Northouse’s (2016) notion that “leaders cannot use the same style in all contexts; rather, they need to adapt their style to followers and their unique situations” (p. 98) is true in my practice. As a vice-principal, I am in the unique position where I provide leadership as required by the school board and by extension, the province. This is fulfilled by: (a) acting to accomplish the goals of the strategic plan; (b) carrying out the standardized testing mandates; (c) maintaining the standards of practice outlined in the Education Act and its statutes; (d) maintaining the standards of practice for the profession; and (e) others as outlined by the Ontario Leadership Framework (2013). In addition, I provide leadership to the school and community by carrying out the duties of leading the instructional program and overseeing the daily operations, such as staffing, scheduling, and working with professional student support workers. Within these two contexts, my personal orientation to leadership position demonstrates characteristics of both servant and adaptive leadership.

Servant and adaptive leadership approaches are focused on the behaviours, or actions, of the leaders in relation to the followers (Greenleaf, 1977; Heifetz, 1994; Northouse, 2016). Specifically, these behaviours and actions are aimed at empowering followers to prepare themselves to deal with complex situations. Regarding servant leadership, Northouse (2016) suggests that when confidence is built through being empowered, those in follower roles will be more likely to take initiative to deal with situations. Similarly, an adaptive leader provides followers with the freedom to deal with challenges and changes to their assumptions, beliefs,
perceptions and behaviours. Therefore, it is incumbent upon me as a leader of the instructional program to provide support, build capacity, and to model the vision of the organization so that collectively, we can set the direction for improved student outcomes. To do this, I employ a multi-faceted approach to leadership that aims to address both the needs of the organization and those within it. I seek to promote changes that serve individuals, the organization, and the community itself. As a servant and adaptive leader addressing the multiple levels of growth and change, I listen to the views of the staff to develop an awareness of the impact of my own leadership, I bring attention to how personal assumptions, perceptions, and actions of all constituents affect the organization, and I take advantage of opportunities for learning. This allows me to conceptualize problems from a multi-level perspective as both a participant and observer within the organization.

As a participant and an observer whose leadership is fluid and adapts to the needs of the organization, Heifetz’s (1994) situational challenges of adaptive leadership are relevant to the circumstances I encounter in my role. There are times when I provide leadership to solve technical problems that are clearly defined and resolved by simply referring to the policies and procedures of the organizations (Nelson & Squires, 2017; Northouse, 2016; Owens & Valesky, 2007). These include anything from operational policies and procedures such as dealing with requests to provide school assistance in health care or privacy and information management, to program policies and procedures dealing with supervised alternative learning or home instruction. Nelson and Squires (2017) propose that some kinds of situational challenges have technical and adaptive characteristics. Despite how clear a challenge can be defined, solutions are not always straightforward and require a consolidated effort to resolve. A recent example in my practice was around a request to have therapy dogs in the school. The policy clearly lays out
the provision for service dogs in schools however, it does not address the use of therapy dogs for students with high anxiety or special needs. The gray area in the policy required the teacher, with my support, to show how the service animals would benefit the students given that they do not require such services to access their program. The third situational challenge articulated by Heifetz, 1994) is adaptive challenges. These are situations where the problem is not clearly defined, and the solutions are not readily known. An example from my practice are students who are apathetic to their own education. Often, the student cannot articulate the root cause of his or her reluctance to attend school. Families often struggle to find meaning behind the actions of their son or daughter. Frequently, alternative programs are attempted and fail to meet the needs of such students. I encourage the student and his or her family to define the problem and to implement solutions. Often, it requires challenging their beliefs and attitudes about the problem to come to a tangible solution.

The fluidity of my leadership approach raises sociological paradoxes. In my efforts to lead change, I want to consider the lived experiences of others, including staff, students, family, and community members, thus leaning toward an ideographic sociological stance (Burrell & Morgan, 1973). When making decisions, I aim to take a holistic approach to ensure that I consider the best interests of every team member. I seek to engage others in decision making and consider alternative perspectives. I am situated in what Burrell and Morgan (1973) call the sociology of regulation, which is the sociology concerned with harmony and consistency, because I agree that there are merits to the status quo, consensus, and order, but I am content with more flexibility rather than strict positivist thinking that seeks to explain knowledge scientifically. To this end, there are occasions, however rare, in which I must advocate for the nomothetic lens, which is the use of testing hypothesis using quantitative means (Burrell &
Morgan, 1973). Other times, I might have to use positional power to influence change. How then does one reconcile the paradoxes of leading from multiple lenses? A change agent needs to consider relational factors such as how the external and internal environments are influencing the organization, and how the organization and those in the organization acquire knowledge – subjective or objective – about the problems under investigation. This approach to investigating problems in the organization suggests that change will be evolutionary and incremental rather than revolutionary and immediate.

The next section will investigate the historical context, the educational approaches, and organizational theory to frame a problem of practice within the organization.

Problem of Practice

The work of educating our youth is a complex web of overlapping social processes. Through personal reflection, dialogue with colleagues, and research literature, leaders identify problems of practice in their organizations (Pollock, 2014). Often, despite the ease with which leaders can observe the signs of a problem, the causes of such problems are not easily identifiable, and the solution is not straightforward (Pollock, 2014).

The problem of practice (PoP) addressed in this Organizational Improvement Plan is how the evaluation of students, through the completion of tests, quizzes and other quantitative tasks is commonplace and over-utilized, rather than adopting a holistic evaluation approach which considers the learner as a whole. An emerging question in education is the need to examine K-12, classroom, and large-scale assessment practices in Ontario to ensure that the learning needs of students are being sufficiently met (Campbell et al., 2018). In the current structure, frequent reporting cycles require teachers to place a quantitative judgement on student progress in short intervals of time (e.g., November, February, April, and June) (Ontario Ministry of Education,
2010). Mid-semester and final report cards must indicate a mark in addition to learning skills and a comment.

This PoP is symptomatic of a broader issue in education where traditional summative assessments have dominated in classrooms because of increased accountability and standards-based contexts (DeLuca, King, Sun, & Klinger, 2012). From my observations as a vice-principal, many teachers appear to be operating much more comfortably within the paradigm of using quantitative methods such as tests and quizzes as the basis for assigning a grade and much less so triangulating that data with qualitative methods such as observation and conversation reflected in Ontario’s assessment and evaluation policy, *Growing Success* (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010). Current practices lead to a grade-oriented, surface-level approach characterized by aspects such as memorization, recall, reduced quality of thinking, preference for easier tasks, reluctance to take intellectual risks, and diminished interest in learning (Kohn, 2011; Tippin, Lafreniere, & Page, 2012).

Campbell et al.’s (2018) review of assessment in Ontario, entitled *Ontario: A Learning Province*, recommends a desired state and calls for strengthening the use of qualitative feedback saying:

There was overwhelming support for providing students and parents/guardians with a broader range of qualitative feedback. Student, parent, and teacher conferences were highlighted as the most useful form of reporting and there was strong interest in ongoing informal communication with parents/guardians. (p. 7)

The Ontario Institute for Educational Leadership (2013) provides a framework that makes this problem of practice actionable. Under this framework, school leaders, “assist staff in understanding the importance of student assessment for, of, and as learning” (Ontario Institute
for Educational Leadership, 2013, p. 12), and “provide regular opportunities and structures that support teachers in working together on instructional improvement” (Ontario Institute for Educational Leadership, 2013, p. 12). As a vice-principal who shares responsibility with the principal for setting high expectations within the instructional program, providing instructional support, and overseeing the instructional program and policy implementation, I am responsible for bringing awareness to this practice and building capacity in teachers to use assessment triangulation in their practice. The next section will frame the problem of practice by investigating the forces that shape the problem.

**Framing the Problem of Practice**

This section will provide a perspective of the problem of practice by tracing the historical trajectory of the problem, by investigating it from ideologically separate, competing educational approaches, and by looking at three structural dilemmas suggested by Bolman and Deal’s (2013) structural frame.

**Historical Overview**

Earl (1995) traces the evolution of Ontario’s approach to assessment from the mid-1960s where departmental exams used for university entrance were standardized, to the 1970s and early 1980s where assessment was a local decision based on the provincial curricular guidelines. Earl (1995) concludes that confidence in the education system was waning and “although officials recognize that student performance is only one potential indicator of the quality of an education system, assessment of student achievement has moved to the forefront of the accountability agenda” (p. 47). Over a period of two decades, Ontario saw a review of the Ontario Academic Credit exams, curricular program reviews, and the beginnings of regular standardized assessment (Earl, 1995). Frequent shifts in assessment policy have meant that any long-term planning is met
with uncertainty and thus, “many teachers and even whole school boards routinely adopt a ‘wait and see’ attitude while others jump into new initiatives enthusiastically and are disillusioned when these are superseded” (Earl, 1995, p. 53). Despite the recent call for a more holistic approach detailed in the Ontario Ministry of Education’s (2010) document *Growing Success* and Campbell et al.’s (2018) *Ontario: A Learning Province*, traditional structures such as frequent reporting regimes compelling teachers to place a judgement on student progress in short intervals of time is still a requirement. When talking with students and parents, many declare that grades are very important to them. Riverview Secondary School’s mission is built upon the board’s multi-year plan that focuses on Ontario’s Ministry of Education priorities such as literacy, numeracy, and educational technology, as well as local issues such as well-being, equity, and community connectedness.

For some educators, traditional assessment practices that are quantitative and product-driven are viewed as necessary and not in need of refinement thus, assessment employing conversation and observation is under-utilized. Frequent reporting cycles mandated through Provincial policy, leaves little time to reflect on the impact of grading decisions. Historical achievement data is used to determine recommended pathways and courses of study that place students within a hierarchy of their peers. In some cases, the teacher maintains a position as dispenser of information, promoting quantitative measurement to determine knowledge acquisition while neglecting to see the benefits of other qualitative means. Neo-liberal influences can be observed through the use of accountability measures such as data from standardized testing mandated through the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) and through program implementation. Traditional grading practices give the impression that there is little room to misinterpret what the data is saying. Moreover, the data gathered through traditional
practices and standardized testing are used to advertise the school as a desirable place to learn and work (Campbell et al., 2018).

**Educational Approaches**

Three competing ideological perspectives characterize this problem of practice including conservative, liberal, and neo-liberal approaches. Gutek (1997) describes conservatism as a perspective that “relies on the past as a source of guidance” (p. 197) and suggests that under this ideology, social, political, economic, and educational change should be met with skepticism. Thus, tradition is a means of stability and comfort. Although this OIP aims to develop educator capacity to triangulate data in his or her assessment practices, it competes with traditional structures of assessment that are a mainstay in many educators’ practice. Earl (1995) suggests that like the rest of the world, political and economic uncertainty have created a climate in which education quality has become a focus of concern. School systems are compelled to publicly declare ongoing initiatives and disclose their progress or lack thereof in these initiatives. Moreover, Earl (1995) suggests that, combined with the need to gather better information to inform their decision making, to monitor reform, and to identify needs, we see “increased interest in statistical information about schools and school systems in the form of ‘accountability indicators’” (p. 45). Thus, these influences have made a clearly defined indicator of achievement identified with a letter or numerical grade the preferred method of reporting. This objective data it is more concrete and less likely to be disputed. Most educators who look through a conservative lens are comfortable with the use of historical achievement data to sort students into a hierarchy of learners or in other words, learners with less or more demonstrated achievement. The goal of these structures is two-fold. First, the resulting hierarchy directs students toward college, university, apprenticeships, or the workforce. Second, stakeholders can
keep a watchful eye on student achievement and gauge faculty performance by, among other
methods, analyzing data from standardized testing through the Education Quality and
Accountability Office. To change the public view of assessment, perceptions around best
practices in assessment need to evolve.

The Government of Ontario’s (2010) assessment policy, Growing Success, is more
representative of the liberal approach described by Gary (2006) as one that “prizes critical
thinking and the free, open-ended pursuit of knowledge in all its forms” (p. 124). It takes a more
holistic view of assessment by embracing the interests of the learner and gathering triangulated
data through quantitative and qualitative means, which includes observations, conversations, and
student products (Davies, 2011). Moreover, the inclusion of descriptive feedback, reflection, and
goal setting demonstrates that individual talents and interests can be developed, making the
learning environment more student-centered. Under this policy, educators are provided the
freedom to experiment with diagnostic assessment activities aimed at understanding the learner’s
needs, formative assessment activities that encourage reflection and goal setting as a means for
students to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses, and choice of product to demonstrate
learning. The processes and recommendations in Growing Success provide the tools necessary to
give rich, qualitative, anecdotal feedback while still producing an alpha or numerical grade.

Discussing neo-liberal contexts in schools, Ryan (2012) describes that it became “a
global phenomenon, eclipsing other views of how education ought to be conducted around the
world, spreading as it did the good news about the (market) economy, standardization, testing,
and accountability” (p. 22). In 1996, the Ontario government established an arm’s length agency
to make the education system accountable to stakeholders. The Education Quality and
Accountability Office (2013) reports that the focus was “to monitor students’ achievement at key
points in their learning as a way of assuring the public that all students were being assessed in the same way and according to an established set of standards” (p. 5). Ryan (2005) argues that the combined results of accountability measures through testing regimes, national curricula and the resulting pedagogy has forced teachers to “adhere to these policies in rigid ways” (p. 28). Hursh (2016) describes the results of neo-liberal thinking, stating, “public education has been radically transformed over the last few decades based on a corporate model of market competition, with quantitative evaluations of students, teachers, schools, and school districts based on students’ scores on standardized tests” (p. 2). These influences appear to have contributed to teachers’ static approaches to assessment and pedagogical methods.

**Organizational Theory**

Organizational challenges that inform this PoP are investigated through three structural dilemmas found in Bolman and Deal’s (2013) structural frame. The first structural dilemma facing this problem of practice is differentiation and integration. Secondary schools have a complex role structure where work is allocated in the form of course assignments that are organized into subject departments; what Bolman and Deal (2013) calls “functional units” (p. 50). Each department may or may not have their own collective philosophies of assessment, but ultimately, teachers will use their autonomy and implement practices with which they are comfortable. Thus, any change effort will require integration and the coordination of efforts. Coordinating the diversity of this enterprise becomes a daunting feat. This division of tasks and coordination of efforts leads to the second, and related dilemma impacting this PoP, which is autonomy and interdependence.

Despite the support for collaboration in a community of learners, many educators continue to work in isolation. Often, the focus on meeting curricular expectations in a maximum
of one hundred and ten hours means that time to collaborate is limited. In addition, it gives the perception that there is little time for more qualitative means of assessment. Structures such as common timetabling of identical courses, common preparation periods for teachers who teach identical courses, and staffing are constraints that contribute to the inability of staff to collaborate and to discuss alternative assessment practices with one another. Twenty-five years ago, Earl (1995) described the critical issue of assessment literacy stating, “because assessment has not been emphasized in Ontario, there are only a few educators and academics with the kind of technical expertise or training that would allow them to influence policy directions or help other educators extend their knowledge” (p. 54). Despite Growing Success’ intent on moving forward in terms of assessment literacy, in effect, change has only been marginal. Alternately, some staff prefer autonomy, so they may perceive efforts to collaborate as unwelcome or unsuccessful.

Finally, the third structural dilemma that informs this PoP can be discussed using a hybrid of Bolman and Deal’s (2013) goal-less versus goal-bound structural dilemma. They suggest that “in some situations, few people know what the goals are; in others, people cling closely to goals long after they have become irrelevant or outmoded” (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 73).

This can help explain the inconsistency and misunderstanding about the purpose of assessment. A review of literature reveals that students and teachers see the purpose and process of grading as: (a) a recall of facts (Isnawati & Saukah, 2017; Kohn, 2011; Peters, Kruse, Buckmiller, & Townsley, 2017; Tierney, Simon, & Charland, 2011; Tippin, Lafreniere, & Page, 2012); (b) a way to measure ability (Campbell, 2012; Farias, Farias, & Fairfield, 2010; Isnawati & Saukah, 2017; Sun & Cheng, 2014); (c) a way to reward (Campbell, 2012; Tippin, Lafreniere, & Page, 2012) and (d) a means of maintaining power and control (Farias et al., 2010; Kohn, 2011; Peters et al., 2017). An example from the study of mathematics is described by Suurtamm
and Koch (2014) who state that shifts in assessment practices to align with new perspectives pose challenges, because the practices may be unfamiliar to teachers and are shadowed by test-based accountability. Success is measured by achieving stated targets on standardized tests instead of demonstrating successful improvement in student understanding as seen more easily in performance assessments. Volante and Beckett (2011) point to research concluding that “a constricted range of assessment practices, particularly those that emphasize traditional paper-and-pencil summative measures, are being overemphasized within contemporary schools” (p. 240) despite research that formative practices have a “direct impact on student learning and achievement” (p. 240).

**Analysis of internal data**

Internal data relevant to this OIP were taken from report card comments, RSS’s code of conduct including the assessment policy, and course outlines. Anecdotal data from classroom observation during performance appraisals, classroom walkthroughs, and informal conversations with staff also comprise internal data relevant to this OIP. A total of 1026 report cards containing 3604 comments were analyzed for terms that would be suggestive of product-based and conversation/observation-based environments. The findings are represented in Table 1.

The results show that report card comments contain a greater percentage of terms associated with traditional assessment tools (e.g., tests, quizzes, and assignments) and a lesser, yet significant percentage of traditional methods of gathering data in a product-based environment (e.g., something that is handed in). The data also reveals that an extremely small percentage of comments reference terms representative of a conversation-based environment. However, this does not suggest that conversation is not a component of classroom practice. Terms that would be associated with observation (e.g., seeing, observe) were searched and
revealed that they were used in the context of visual arts and architecture but still in reference to a product.

Table 1

*Analysis of Terms in Report Card Comments, compiled with permission from TRDSB*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term Representation</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Number of Occurrences</th>
<th>Percentage of Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product-Based Assessment Tools</td>
<td>Assignments</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Test</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quiz</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product-Based Data Gathering</td>
<td>Submit</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hand, hand in, hand-in</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversation-Based Environment</td>
<td>Conversation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>No Related Terms</td>
<td>1545</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the evaluation section of Riverview Secondary School’s (2018) code of conduct, statements supporting the use of observation, conversation and student product as sources of evidence for assessment and evaluation are included. It also includes penalties that are imposed for missed assignments due to truancy and for late assignments. These penalties are suggestive of an environment that focuses on product-based activities and less so on observation of learning and assessment by means of a conversation. Moreover, they suggest that behaviours, such as late submission, should be a component in the assessment of the knowledge and skills a student has obtained.

Riverview Secondary School course outlines have a consistent format for all courses and grade levels. They contain the course code, course name, and course description taken verbatim from the curriculum documents. In addition, they contain information about assessment for, assessment as, and assessment of learning tasks and the learning goals for the course. The course
outlines demonstrate that there is some consideration for the various assessment practices outlined in the Ontario Ministry of Education’s (2010) *Growing Success* document.

**Analysis of external data**

Much of the external data used to support this OIP comes from academic literature, reviews, and Ontario Ministry of Education policy documents. Relevant content has and will be shared throughout this OIP.

**Guiding Questions Emerging from the Problem of Practice**

The following questions have emerged from the problem of practice and in the development of this OIP:

1. Campbell (2012) notes that research shows, “grading practices are firmly held beliefs that are near and dear to the teaching professional. You will not likely find a more emotional topic than classroom grading policy in the secondary school faculty meeting” (p. 30). Given this finding, what steps will the RSS leadership need to take to move toward an increased use of observation and conversation in student assessment?

2. Since any change effort is going to be dependent on those directly involved, what, if any, are the obstacles, fears, and challenges that may be experienced during the change process.

3. Given the average tenure of three years for an administrator to be in one school in the TRDSB, and the time involved to implement the change plan, what processes need to be in place early to enable a successor to continue the efforts?

4. Peters, Kruse, Buckmiller, and Townsley (2017) suggests that successful implementation of changes to grading practice must include an intentional plan,
reasonable timelines and reasonable pacing, involve ongoing professional
development, and include ongoing, regular communication with all stakeholders.
Given the demands on leaders and teachers, what structures will need to be
implemented to effectively facilitate these actions?

A plan of this magnitude is not without challenges. A challenge stemming from this OIP
is time. The first time-related factor is the period it will take to implement the various
components of the OIP. The OIP works through a planning and development stage that readies
the organization for change, frames the change process, and identifies the necessary resources.
Then, the OIP enters the implementation phase were stakeholder reactions are understood,
change agents are mobilized, and resources are deployed to move toward the desired
organizational state. An additional time-related challenge is the competitive factors that exist in
the organization. Competitive factors are the other mandates that are required as a component of
delivering educational services to students. These include, but are not limited to, other initiatives
such as standardized testing, literacy and numeracy projects, and daily operational items such as
attendance tracking or maintenance of school safety. A second challenge that emerges in this
OIP are the attitudes around change. Attitudes around change are individual and vary from
person to person. Some staff may be hesitant to change because of negative experiences with
previous change initiatives. Some display anxiety or fear around change that either originates
from previous failed attempts, or because they find comfort in the status quo. Others may be
anxious about change because they feel unprepared for the change initiative. Finally, a third
challenge that emerges in this OIP is the necessity of staff buy-in for success. Staff participation
is crucial to this OIP because it affects their lives on a daily basis. It impacts their daily practice
so the need for change and the readiness for change must be the cornerstone of the OIP. All these challenges be addressed in the implementation of this OIP.

**Leadership-Focused Vision for Change**

This section focuses on articulating the vision for change giving attention to how addressing the gap between the current and desired state will benefit all members of the organization. The vision for change identifies the priorities for change considering both organizational and stakeholder interests.

**Gap Analysis**

Nadler and Tushman (1982) argue that the performance of an organization is influenced by four components: (a) the tasks; (b) the people; (c) the formal organizational arrangements; and (d) the informal organizational arrangements. How well the organization performs depends on the level of congruency between each component.

The *task* is the work being done by the organization for example, skill and knowledge demands, any uncertainty with the work, or constraints on performance. Like all educational institutions, RSS provides a setting that fosters knowledge acquisition and skill development. With respect to this problem of practice, educators are charged with the task of gathering evidence of student learning from a variety of means, including observation, conversation, and products (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010). As noted above, the data shows the dominant form of assessment is product-based. Implementing the steps of this OIP benefits students because they will experience a greater range of opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge and see more variety in the tools used to gather evidence of their knowledge acquisition and skill development. Furthermore, they will have an opportunity to demonstrate their depth of learning through conversation with the teacher. As the plan is implemented and practices become
institutionalized, it is hoped that teachers will gain comfort in the use of observation and conversation.

The *individual* component investigates the characteristics of the individuals in the organization (knowledge, skills, needs, preferences, perceptions, expectations, background). Percell (2017) is cognizant of the “hectic calling” (p. 114) of teachers and the day-to-day realities of the role lesson planning, designing engaging activities, aligning to curriculum expectations, classroom management, extra-curricular activities, and reporting responsibilities plays. These realities can be barriers to the implementation of triangulation in classrooms at RSS because of the new learning that will be needed and the scarcity of time available to do so. However, Klinger (2012) suggests, “given that teachers are in a position to effect change in their use of assessments, we believe that developing teachers’ capacities for integrating various forms of assessment into their programming remains the most viable way to enhance the use of AfL [Assessment for Learning] in classrooms” (p. 14). By implementing a contemporary professional development framework that situates the teacher as an active learner, provides ongoing, contextual learning that is job-embedded, and develops skills through process-based learning, we will enable teachers to negotiate the challenges (e.g. mandatory reporting periods, producing grades etc.) to including triangulated means of data gathering in practice. Since the teaching staff are the ones “conducting the nuts and bolts operations” (Smith & Graetz, 2011, p. 3), they are important to the process of change. In their study, Davies, Busick, Herbst, and Sherman, (2014) found that “as researchers have tracked the successes and dilemmas of implementation, they have documented the importance of school leaders being deeply involved in the work if Assessment for Learning is to become a reality for students in classrooms” (p. 571). The intent of this leadership OIP is to empower leaders to move the organization from the current state
where the primary means of gathering data is quantitative to modelling the desired state where observation and conversation are more consistently woven into the assessment process.

The third component, *formal organizational arrangements*, includes the formal structures, processes, and methods used to get individuals to perform tasks such as groupings, subunits, control mechanisms, job design, and working environment. Through modelling, administrators will monitor implementation through observation and conversation and will provide support throughout the change plan implementation. Bolman and Deal (2013) suggest that the issue of scarce resources are obstacles often faced by organizations. In the case of this OIP, time for professional learning structures has been identified as a challenge. This OIP will provide a framework where professional learning is embedded into the daily operations as a formal organizational arrangement.

Finally, the fourth component, the *informal organization*, are the structures, processes, and relationships that are emerging in the organization such as leadership behaviours, inter- and intra-group relationships, informal work arrangements, and communication patterns. The intent of this OIP is to involve the teacher-leaders throughout the change implementation process. By building capacity in the leadership team through distributed leadership opportunities and modelling best practices, it is hoped that this will be a further catalyst for change throughout the organization.

Given that in the future, external policy mandates requiring the production of grades are likely to remain, balancing that need with classroom-based evidence gathered through observation and conversation can add value to the multiple layers of assessment that includes input from the student. These goals align with RSS’s vision that each student can and should experience success.
Organizational Change Readiness

Cawsey, Descza, and Ingols (2016) caution that change leaders need to be aware of their own personal perspective and be cognizant that not everyone will agree with that perspective. Further, they cite that “readiness is advanced when organizational members can see how the existing alignment is getting in the way of producing better outcomes and believe that the needed realignment can be achieved” (p. 106). It is also important to consider the perspectives of those who have experienced negative change initiatives or ones that lack coherence and continuity. Two tools to measure the organization’s readiness for change were utilized: Novick, Kress, and Elias’ (2002) audit of organizational culture, and Cawsey et al.’s (2016) adapted Rate Your Readiness to Change tool.

The first tool measuring organizational readiness for change is Novick et al.’s (2002) audit of organizational culture (see Figure 1). Novick et al. (2002) suggests that scoring more on the right means the more conducive the school culture will help bring about effective change. The first characteristic asks about the decision-making and leadership of the organization. As mentioned, the leadership style that dominates at RSS is situational but favours a more democratic approach where input from stakeholders is welcomed and considered. The second characteristic is about activity patterns of the organization. As an organization that is deeply steeped in tradition and routine, RSS scored to the left. The goal of this OIP is to create a climate of trust where staff are encouraged to take risks and try to implement innovative practices with which they might be uncomfortable. The third characteristic deals with how matters requiring review are dealt with in the organization. When matters of a complex nature are presented to the leadership team at RSS, a more deliberate analytical approach is taken to ensure understanding.
and root causes. This culture of deliberate study will assist leaders and change agents to deeply investigate the issues and challenges raised in this OIP.

The fourth characteristic asks about the value of working in a team or as an individual. RSS scored to the left on this characteristic as participation in formal professional learning teams is minimal. Characteristic five is difficult to answer without bias since the definition of “best staff members” is dependent on the perspective of the one making the assessment. There is strong evidence that following procedures dominates at RSS. However, that does not dismiss the fact that, within that structure, staff are not striving for excellence. As such, these two criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Would you consider your school to be more...</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the normal pattern of action to...</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow routine</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When matters require some review and study, is the emphasis on a process that is...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On time and fast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do staff members perceive themselves to be most valued when they...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work as individuals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is there a sense that the best staff members are those who usually...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Follow procedures</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Does the functioning of the school tend to reflect a view that...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Each task or activity is independent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1. Readiness for Change. This figure presents a simple tool for diagnosing an organization’s readiness for change. (Adapted from Novick, Kress, & Elias, 2002).*
were weighted the same when determining the overall change readiness using this tool. Finally, characteristic six evaluates the connectedness of school activities to school goals. While there is evidence of some individualization and independence, the overall culture of the school reflects the pursuit of school-wide goals.

In consideration of the subjective nature of characteristic five and thereby weighing both equally, RSS scored four on the right side and three on the left, thus signaling a moderate level of readiness for change.

A second tool to rate readiness is Cawsey et al.’s (2002) adapted Rate Your Readiness to Change tool. This tool determines what promotes and inhibits change readiness by investigating the following readiness dimensions: (a) previous change experiences, (b) leadership team involvement and support, (c) leadership and change champions, (d) openness to change, (e) rewards for change, and (f) measures for change and accountability. A change champion is defined as “someone who both supports and personally implements pedagogic innovation and who seeks to influence others to innovate, but not per se from a formal administrative or managerial position” (Holtham, n.d., p. 2).

An analysis of RSS using this tool demonstrated that although readiness for change is present, it is only moderate. On the first dimension, investigating previous change experiences, RSS scored low, most notably in attitude toward change and sustainability of change. RSS showed significant gains in the areas of leadership support, credible leadership, and change champions. Specifically, the leadership of RSS supports the change with a clear picture of the future and has historically supported change efforts regardless of their outcomes. There is a level of trust between the leadership team and the staff and all parties have demonstrated their ability to work together to achieve collective goals. Other change champions have been identified and
can be mobilized at any time. In the openness to change dimension, there was some fluctuation in the scores for RSS. Although there are mechanisms for monitoring implementation, channels for communication, and encouragement to voice concerns or support, there is a desire to protect things considered to be part of one’s “turf” and fewer incidents of widespread innovation, despite the acknowledgement of innovative practices that do emerge. Finally, RSS also scored well on the measures for change and accountability dimension. Consideration of data derived from stakeholders and resource stewardship is evident at RSS.

**Conclusion**

This chapter provided a broad overview of the organization and the problem of practice identified in it. The historical, organizational, and leadership contexts as well as the vision and readiness for change delineated in this chapter will inform the leadership approaches to change, the framework for leading change, and the ethical considerations needed to move from the current state to the desired state.
CHAPTER 2: PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

In Chapter 2, I address five components for planning and developing a framework for change. I begin with a discussion of leadership approaches that will move the change effort forward, and frameworks for leading the change process. Second, using Cawsey et al.’s (2016) and Kotter’s (1996) change models, I outline the stages of change. Third, I discuss an organizational analysis that further diagnoses and analyzes the need for change. Fourth, possible research supported solutions for change are explored. Finally, ethical considerations for the change process are articulated.

Leadership Approaches to Change

Bass (1999) traces a twenty-year evolution of leadership, suggesting that changes in the market and workforce have resulted in changes in leadership approaches. Consequently, organizations saw a departure from transactional leadership, a style that promotes one’s own interests or the interests of followers. Thus, a transformational style boasting a flattened organizational hierarchy meant to uplift and motivate followers into collaborative and collegial relationships rose in popularity. Transactional and transformational leadership were not always defined as separate. Originally, they were conceptualized by James McGregor Burns as two ends to a leadership spectrum. Later, Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio (1993) proposed that a leader could be both transactional and transformational (as cited in Conger, 1999). Northouse (2016) describes transformational leadership as a process of change and transformation in people with respect to emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. Given that it is an approach that can be utilized in one-on-one interactions or within entire organizations and it binds leaders and followers together in the process of transformation (Bass, 1999; Northhouse, 2016), it is a
relevant approach to use for this OIP. This section investigates how the factors of transformational leadership propel change forward in relation to the problem of practice identified in this OIP.

Bass (1985) argued that transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership operated on a continuum and thus, identified seven factors that encompass the full-range leadership model. Northouse (2016) discusses the four factors of transformational leadership: *idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation,* and *individualized consideration.* The first factor of transformational leadership, called *idealized influence,* is the emotional element of leadership (Northouse, 2016) and is displayed as leaders envision an attractive future, express how to reach the desired state, lead by example, maintain high standards, and are determined to succeed (Bass, 1999). The leaders displaying this factor are strong role models who exhibit high ethical and moral standards and thus, garner the trust of their followers. They extend a vision and mission to their followers in such a way that others want to follow (Bass, 1999; Northouse, 2016). On the advice of Kouzes and Posner (2012), whose practice of *modelling the way* reflects the *idealized influence,* the leaders must clarify the values that guide them and in turn, lead according to the principles that matter. Leaders must show commitment to personal and organizational goals, affirm the values that drive their constituents, and work to build alignment of shared values through common understanding and unified purpose. Moreover, what is valued is actively displayed by the leader. In their study investigating how system leaders used assessment for learning as a process for change, Davies et al. (2014) describe how system leaders model the change they wanted to see from their constituents. This OIP lends itself well to modelling as leaders demonstrate tools for observation and conversation and how these tools can be adapted for use in gathering data about students.
This OIP relies on trustworthy relationships to align the vision for change with the needs of the stakeholders. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015) state that “the collective trust between the various independent actors in a school has been shown to be a significant variable in facilitating the achievement of educational outcomes for students” (p. 68) and position stakeholders to better accomplish goals, making success more likely. Since teachers will be carrying out the work of the change efforts, trust is essential to accomplish the shared objectives.

The second factor in transformational leadership is called *inspirational motivation*. In this factor, leaders impart high expectations, motivate followers to commit to the shared vision of the organization, focus the constituents’ efforts to achieve the shared vision, and go beyond self-interests for the goodness of the group (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004; Northouse, 2016). Leadership behaviours related to this factor include invoking pride amongst followers, providing reassurance during challenges, stimulating confidence, being optimistic, and providing an image of change that is exhilarating (Dionne, et al., 2004). Kouzes and Posner’s (2012) practice of *inspiring a shared vision* reflects the tenets of the *inspirational motivation* factor. They call for leaders to imagine the possibilities of a positive future state likening the vision to a musical theme, “it’s the prominent and pervasive message that you want to convey, the frequently recurring melody that you want people to remember; and whenever it’s repeated, it reminds the audience of the entire work” (p. 105). Since this OIP approaches change incrementally through job-embedded learning, the momentum will only continue with repeated reminders of the vision for change. Leader actions in this OIP reflect Kouzes and Posners’s (2012) recommendations to look at the past by, investigating the historical elements of the problem of practice, attends to the present by considering the needs and wants of the change leaders and change initiators, gives consideration to the barriers to change and how they might be
mitigated, and forecasts the future by looking for emerging research and recommendations with respect to gathering data for student assessment. This OIP ensures that the common purpose is achieved by knowing, listening to, and giving a voice to the stakeholders involved in the change (Kouzes & Posner, 2012; Northouse, 2016). Another characteristic of this factor is team spirit (Northouse, 2016). This OIP requires the transformational leader to enlist others by expressing the higher meaning of the work we are doing, ensuring the alignment of the vision with individual interests and aspirations, and projecting images of the future state that demonstrate how students will be impacted.

The third factor of transformational leadership is *intellectual stimulation*. This factor is quite relevant to the process of organizational change because it encourages leadership that stimulates creativity and innovation by challenging the beliefs and values of the leader and the organization (Bass, 1999). Leaders are urged seek differing perspectives with respect to solving problems and to question the status quo (Dionne et al., 2004). Leaders are encouraged to support followers as they try new approaches and deal with organizational issues (Northouse, 2016). This OIP challenges the existing paradigms of the constituents however, will not replace them entirely. Kouzes and Posner (2012) encourage leaders to look outward from the organization to identify changing trends that can align with the internal realities of the organization noting that sometimes “leadership demands altering the business-as-usual environment” (p. 160). This leadership style is open to asking questions about why we do the things we do and finding ways to stretch ourselves to take risks. It is important for the change leader to ensure that teachers are supported by providing resources such as time and training and for them to foster an environment where the talents of key stakeholders can be harnessed, and they can seize the initiative. Bolman and Deal (2012) conclude that other ways to get people to move in new
directions, to break old mindsets, and to tackle the problems is to do so incrementally. They posit that “small wins form the basis for a consistent pattern of winning that attracts people who want to be allied with a successful venture” (p. 190). Small wins can be beneficial to the process because they can provide the momentum needed to propel the change initiative forward. The solutions chosen for this OIP ensure that perseverance will be demonstrated and celebrated as small wins are realized.

The fourth factor in transformational leadership, called *individualized consideration*, is characteristic of leaders who create a climate of support and consider the needs of the followers (Bass, 1999; Northouse, 2016). They act as coaches to help staff self-actualize and may delegate responsibilities, or they might provide specific directive with a high degree of structure (Dionne et al., 2004; Northouse, 2016). Kouzes and Posner (2012) posit that when a climate of trust is created, people will contribute to innovation, be open to the exchange of ideas and truthfully discuss the issues. Leaders in this OIP need to create an environment where knowledge and information is shared freely. In addition, leaders need to be competent in the steps of the change initiative as well as the research that supports change. As mentioned in Chapter 1, departments at RSS work in relative isolation from each other. Transformational leaders need to break down structural silos to strengthen the team. Support can be demonstrated by providing choices and flexibility. Kouzes and Posner (2012) support leaders providing guided autonomy by saying, “although they set standards and hold everyone accountable for shared values and visions, they still give people the opportunity to make choices about how they will reach these objectives” (p. 248). Change is not easy, so leaders must develop competence and build confidence in the process by strengthening the capacity of the stakeholders. Building capacity around the use of observation and conversation requires leaders to actively pursue solutions when challenges arise.
Kouzes and Posner (2012) suggest that coaching that follows professional development has the most effect on improvement. Leaders need to set aside the necessary time to coach the change implementers through their efforts.

Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, and Spangler (2004) propose that the four factors of transformational leadership can be linked to critical teamwork processes. The idealized influence and inspirational motivation factors create cohesion within by building rapport and empathy through vision building activities and due to the close connection followers develop with their leader. Individualized consideration is said to promote communication resulting from increased listening, feedback, openness to suggestions, and addressing the needs of everyone within the organization. Finally, intellectual stimulation, because of its attention to considering different perspectives and suggesting new ways of looking at problems can promote healthy conflict within the team. This connection is important to this OIP given the teamwork that is necessary during the process of change.

This section raises awareness of leadership behaviours and the impact the problem of practice in this OIP. The following section provides a framework for leading the change process.

**Framework for Leading the Change Process**

Often, leaders can identify what an organization requires but questions that address how to get the organization to a desired state are more difficult to answer. Despite the simplicity of Lewin’s Stage Theory of Change, its usefulness for communicating change to participants, and its depiction of how change should happen (Cawsey et. al, 2016), it lacks detailed steps that better address the path to change. Therefore, the theory for framing change that will supports OIP is Cawsey et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model and augmented with Kotter’s (1996) Stage Model of Organizational Change. Kotter’s (1996) Stage Model of Organizational Change
provides detailed steps that, while helpful, is restrictive. Burns (1996) suggests that prescriptive approaches require a strict adherence to the steps and any deviation from them will be harmful to the organization. Appelbaum et al. (2012) says that some change efforts do not require all of Kotter’s steps and therefore, without modification or supplementation, the model has limitations. The Change Path Model provides a set of steps that will guide the leaders through the change process while also considering the influences of the external environment.

Cawsey et al. (2016) describe the Change Path Model as one that “combines process and prescription” (p. 53) and thus, is characteristic of the functionalist paradigm in which matters are observed objectively and practical solutions are sought and carried out in a regulated fashion (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Cawsey, et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model (Figure 2) takes change leaders through four stages to articulate the need for change; to institute structures for mobilizing change; to provide support through modelling and implementation; and to embed the change into the organizational culture.

![Figure 2. Change Path Model. (Adapted from Cawsey et al., 2016)](image)

Often the need for change is elusive, and how to change is unclear. Cawsey et al. (2016) describes the first step of the Change Path Model, the Awakening stage, as one where the “the need for change is determined and the nature of the change or vision is characterized in terms
others can understand” (p. 60). Appelbaum, Habashy, Malo, and Shafiq (2012) paraphrase Kotter saying that the first step to change requires “bold or risky actions normally associated with good leadership” (p. 766) to create a sense of urgency for change. However, an analysis of the problem is needed first.

Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) Congruence Model of Organizational Behaviour offers a structure through which factors that support and guide the change efforts can be analyzed. The perspectives of teachers, students, and parents are considered to gauge any support or resistance to the proposed change. Cawsey et al. (2016) provide a rationale for this step saying, “change leaders need to be aware of the perspectives of key internal and external stakeholders and work to understand their perspectives, predispositions, and reasons for supporting or resisting change” (p. 100). Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest two means to enhance the need for change. First, identify shared goals and how to achieve them. Appelbaum et al. (2012) state that “a clearly defined vision is easier for employees to understand and to act on, even if the first steps required are painful” (p. 769). Rather than focusing on what might be lost, Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest collectively exploring the ramifications of not acting. This promotes long-term thinking in addition to the current position one holds on the matter. Second, Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest raising awareness of the problem by providing information and education. Kotter (1996) supports this notion recommending that change leaders use external forces to reinforce the need for change. However, given that this OIP tackles the topic of assessment, described by Campbell (2012) as an emotional topic significant to a teacher’s personal practice, care must be taken to ensure external messaging through research is communicated properly. Rather than commanding change without providing information about why it is needed, raising awareness will the door to comparing the current conditions with the desired state, giving momentum for
change. To achieve these goals, the administrative team must share the data that displays the gap between the present and future state while also considering the impact on the people.

The second stage of the Change Path Model is the Mobilization stage. Cawsey et al. (2016) describe this stage as one where additional analysis of the needs and vision for change are made in part, by engaging others and “nurturing their participation in the change process” (p. 53). Once again, Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) congruence model aids in analysing: (a) the structures, systems and process; (b) the power structures and cultural dynamics; (c) the stakeholder positions; (d) the change recipients; and (e) the change agents, thus increasing the possibility of success (Cawsey et al., 2016).

In the Mobilization stage, the administrative team needs to structure the environment with empowered workgroups that will facilitate understanding, build rapport, and legitimize the change. As mentioned in Chapter 1, hierarchical structures including the TRDSB, RSS, leaders, teachers, students, and parents need to be examined to determine their support or impedance to possible solutions to the PoP. Again, in Chapter 1, reference was made to the differentiation of tasks and how co-ordinating those tasks can prove to be a daunting mission. During this stage, the Structural and Human Resources frames (Bolman & Deal, 2013) analysis has proven vital to understanding the complex structures, systems and processes in the organization. Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest, “change leaders need to understand key players to develop influential coalitions that will support the changes” (p. 165). Kotter (1996) recommends that these people have positional power, expertise, credibility, and leadership abilities. To this end, the administration needs to mobilize key change participants early to guide the workgroups.

While mobilizing key participants, the administration must be cognizant of the political and cultural dynamics of the organization. Bolman and Deal (2013) suggest that “politics is the
realistic process of making decisions and allocating resources in a context of scarcity and divergent issues. This view puts politics at the heart of decision making” (p. 183). Applying these principles to the OIP, the leaders of change will harness not only their power, but the power of others. Leader knowledge as well as change participant knowledge are important drivers that influence the successful implementation of this OIP. Leaders are also charged with removing obstacles to the change vision such as structures, skills, systems and management (Kotter, 1996). During this stage, leaders will assess and remove obstacles that will stall or stop the change efforts.

The *Acceleration* stage is described by Cawsey et al. (2016) as the stage where planning and implementation take place. A participative approach can be utilized to change attitudes and gain acceptance for the use of multiple sources of data in student assessment. Taking insights gained from the *awakening* and *mobilization* stages, the administration will co-create a plan with key stakeholders that will support the implementation through modelling. A communication plan will ensure that: (a) the need for change is communicated throughout the organization; (b) the impact of the change on all members of the organization is communicated; (c) the structures and actions necessary for change are communicated; and (d) members are informed about the progress of their efforts (Cawsey et al., 2016). As part of the communication plan, it is important for the leadership team to ensure that small victories are showcased throughout the process, for example, by having staff share their experiences, because they demonstrate that the change effort is succeeding, maintains the momentum, provides reassurance that the efforts are not misguided, and reaffirms the long-term goals (Cawsey et. al., 2016; Kotter, 1996).

Finally, the *Institutionalization* stage is described by Cawsey et al. (2016) as the point with which there is a transition to the desired state. Kotter (1995) describes this as the phase
where new approaches are anchored into the culture of the organization and are part of the social norm and shared values within it. Through continuous feedback loops, administrators will measure the degree with which the change is becoming a part of the organizational culture. Despite appearing to be linear, components of all four stages are fluid throughout the process. As such, any needed modifications, structures, and skills must be adapted along the way.

Ultimately, the primary means of measuring change will be observing implementation of triangulated data gathering in practice. Modelling triangulated data gathering, administrators will monitor implementation through observation and conversation with teaching staff. In addition, staff are encouraged to share their implementation in department and school-wide learning communities. Using the model of the district support visits as a starting point, administrators and staff will assess the change by co-creating a monitoring tool that includes implementation goals, observation, and a summative report. Finally, long-term measurement will come in the form of district support visit reports. Led by the Superintendent of Schools holding the Student Success portfolio, the district support team will review the implementation of the goals in the OIP as part of the district support visits.

Klein (1996) identifies four phases of a communication plan. During the pre-change phase, the administrative team will link the change to organizational goals, plans, and priorities. Since teaching staff will be the drivers of the change initiative, they will have an opportunity to provide advice and express concerns. In the need for change phase, a rationale for the change, the vision for the change, the steps of the plan, and the promise of stakeholder involvement are communicated. During the midstream change phase, ongoing training and development is implemented to ensure staff understand the tools and processes properly. Feedback on the
progress and the acceptance of the changes will be solicited and shared. Finally, in the 
confirming the change phase, successes will be celebrated, and next steps discussed.

**Critical Organizational Analysis**

Cawsey et al. (2016) recommend that “organizations should be analyzed as to how effectively and efficiently they garner resources from the external environment and transform these resources into outputs that the external environment welcomes” (p. 67). This OIP utilizes Nadler and Tushman’s Congruence Model of Organizational Behavior to analyze the elements and patterns that support and oppose change. Nadler and Tushman (1982) support the use of the Congruence Model of Organizational Behavior for organizational change saying, “the congruence perspective outlined here may provide some guidance and direction toward a more integrated perspective on the process of organizational change” (p. 46).

**Inputs**

Nadler and Tushman (1982) suggest that organizations have inputs; “factors that at one point in time, make up the ‘givens’ facing the organization” (p. 38). The following section outlines the relevant outputs for this OIP.

**Environment.** The first input category, the Environment, investigates the external factors that impact the organization. Three critical features that affect organizational analysis are the demands placed on the organization, the constraints placed on the organization, and the opportunities the environment provides to the organization (Nadler & Tushman, 1982). Two areas of environmental analysis consider these features.

**The Ontario Ministry of Education.** The Ontario Ministry of Education influences RSS with respect to this OIP in two ways. First, a review of standardized testing reveals that despite providing schools and school boards with information that could inform improvement efforts, the
review also reveals that the data can cause confusion and even be damaging when used to measure individual student performance or to rank schools (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2018). Second, *Growing Success*, Ontario’s assessment and evaluation policy, impacts RSS by placing demands and constraints on teachers. The document provides detailed instructions for reporting student achievement by mandating the inclusion of attendance, comments, learning skills, mid-semester and final grades. However, apart from these guidelines, *Growing Success* contains significant discussion about the process of gathering data that reflects the achievement of the curriculum expectations. Teachers are given the authority to vary their data gathering process as indicated by the following,

> Teachers will obtain assessment information through a variety of means, which may include formal and informal observations, discussions, learning conversations, questioning, conferences, homework, tasks done in groups, demonstrations, projects, portfolios, developmental continua, performances, peer and self-assessments, self-reflections, essays, and tests. (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 28)

Moreover, *Growing Success* indicates that teachers should be using triangulated strategies that includes observation, student-teacher conversations, and product to elicit information about student learning (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010). Evaluation is not limited to student product. *Growing Success* recommends that “evidence of student achievement for evaluation is collected over time from three different sources – observations, conversations, and student products” (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010, p. 39). Consequently, this OIP opens the door to start conversations about the way we “think about” and “do” assessment in our organization. Wormeli (2006) shares this sentiment saying, “it’s time to talk about grades, grading, and report
cards openly, if we haven’t before, questioning assumptions, embracing alternatives, and focusing on the promise of what teaching and learning can be” (p. 89).

**Stakeholders.** If most parents and teachers were educated in Ontario during times when traditional conservative tenets such as the hierarchical sorting of students were prevalent, it is no surprise that many are comfortable with student products as the only means of assessment and evaluation. Vatterott (2015) concurs saying grades have become “the weapon of choice for teachers, and a prized commodity for students and parents” (p. 17). Campbell et al. (2018) have identified valuing the student voice and engaging parents in the development of assessment as two of many essential elements to realize the recommendations for assessment reform in Ontario. This leads to a better understanding of where the variety of assessment practices fit into the process of assessment and the benefits of their use. Further, Campbell et al. (2018) conclude that there is a need for a “wider educative process with parents and students” (p. 37) to understand the variety of assessment practices in Ontario’s classrooms. This OIP helps realize these recommendations by providing a vehicle by which to change the perception that student products are the only means by which to assess student learning.

**Resources.** The second input category, Resources, are the assets the organization possesses (Nadler & Tushman, 1982). Nadler and Tushman (1982) suggest that there are tangible resources such as personnel, technology, financial, or information, and less tangible assets such as the organization’s climate or its reputation. Two resources relevant to this OIP are examined in this section.

**People.** Bolman and Deal (2013) recommend that to get things done, leaders need friends and allies. These change implementers are important because without them, there is no path to the desired state (Cawsey et al. 2016). By engaging those who support the change
efforts, leaders will receive assistance in moving from the current state to the desired state. In addition to the leaders and implementers, this OIP greatly influence the change recipients. Cawsey et al. (2016) state three responses are possible from those on the receiving end of the initiative: resistance, passivity, or supportive. Cawsey et al.’s (2016) statement that change leaders “know and can reach key organizational members—both those with legitimate power and position and those with less recognizable influence” (p. 30) is important for the implementers in this OIP.

**Financial.** Capital funds for professional development to support this OIP could be garnered through the student success budget however, given the financial constraints facing RSS and the TRDSB, financial assistance is limited. Leaders need to look at creative means of embedding many of the OIP’s components into the daily functioning of the school.

**History.** The third input category, History, is described by Nadler & Tushman (1982) as being important because “there’s growing evidence that the way organizations function today is greatly influenced by past events” (p. 39). For this OIP, it is important to examine historical assessment practices in general, as well as those specific to the organization. Much of this material has been covered in Chapter 1. However, in consideration of needs, further discussion is required here. Maxwell (2001) reveals that that teacher observation of student learning has been an acceptable method of reporting student learning, particularly in elementary school. As students’ progress toward secondary school, formal assessment measures predominate, and observations receives less attention. Maxwell (2001) argues that regardless of historical claims supporting the view that teachers are unable to make judgements from observations, these methods can provide important evidence of student learning. When thinking about changes to curriculum and assessment, Ford-Connors, Roberson, and Paratore (2016) state, “we are struck
not so much by what has changed, but what has not, especially when it comes to testing and accountability” (p. 50). The authors suggest that the data used to inform instruction is detached from the daily interaction between teachers and students. Further, they claim that teacher and student talk is a rich and accessible assessment tool that has the potential to reveal a lot about a student’s understanding. This OIP proposes enhancing assessment practices in consideration of those documented in the literature (Campbell et al., 2018; Ford-Connors, Robertson, & Paratore, 2016; Maxwell, 2001; Wermeli, 2006)

**Strategy.** Finally, the fourth input category, Strategy, combines the data from the other three categories to decide “how organizational resources will be configured to meet the demands, constraints, and opportunities within the context of the organization’s history” (Nadler & Tushman, 1982, p. 39). With respect to this OIP, the strategy input is reflected in the discussion of possible solutions in Chapter 2 and is further developed in Chapter 3.

**Outputs**

Nadler and Tushman (1982) suggest that “what the organization produces, how it performs, and how effective it is” (p. 40) are called its outputs. In consideration of what Nadler and Tushman (1982) call basic outputs, or the product, RSS graduates many students each year. However, Nadler and Tushman (1982) recommend evaluating organizational performance based on goal attainment, resource utilization, whether the organization meets its full potential and how well it adapts to changes. When considering the goals of this OIP in reference to the organizational goals, discussions thus far have identified the current state and have described the desired future state where institutionalizing assessment practices that help all students achieve their full potential is realized.
Organizational Components

Chapter 1 highlighted four components that influenced an organization: the tasks, the people, the formal organizational arrangements, and the informal organizational arrangements. Throughout this OIP, the concept of congruence: “how well pairs of components fit together” (Nadler & Tushman, 1982, p. 42) has been evaluated. Analysis has revealed the following questions for consideration:

(1) How have the structural arrangements of the organization created barriers that prevent the use of observation, conversation, and student product in student assessment? What changes to current structural arrangements or new structures will promote better use of observation and conversation in addition to product?

(2) What individual skills, needs, preferences, or perceptions are needed to meet organizational and personal needs? How can congruence be realized between the organization and individual components?

(3) Are there formal or informal structures that can be leveraged to realize the goals of this OIP?

When there is incongruence, Nadler and Tushman (1982) recommend an eight-step process for organizational problem analysis. Figure 3 provides a summary of the concepts discussed in this section.

Figure 3. Basic Problem Analysis Steps Using the Congruence Model (Adapted from Nadler & Tushman, 1982).
The remainder of Chapter 2 details proposed solutions to the problem, leadership ethics, and the organizational change process.

**Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice**

Considering the vision for change, the organizational analysis, and the leadership approaches to change, three possible solutions have been identified:

**Possible solution one: Standard professional development.**

This solution involves a traditional professional development (PD) framework defined by Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, and Yoon (2001) as institutes, courses, conferences, or workshops that take place outside the school or classroom and are delivered at specified times by leaders with special expertise. Katz (2013) distinguishing between professional development and professional learning suggesting that professional development has a minimal and indirect influence on student learning because it does not impact or change classroom practice. Professional learning leads to changes in thinking and practice. Traditional modes are typically structured such that material is delivered at designated times throughout the school year at staff meetings and on professional development days. The content of the PD would be delivered by either the school leadership or by utilizing the skills and knowledge of teachers who use observation and conversation regularly in practice. Information and resources provided would be left for teachers to use at their discretion. While this solution might appear to be status-quo, the transformational leader theoretically, could still witness incremental adoption of the observation and conversation in addition to product.

**Resources required.** This solution requires human, time, and information resources for implementation. It is difficult to predict the financial and technological resources because they are more dependent on choices made at the time of implementation.
**Human resources.** This solution relies heavily on the administration for implementation with the support of the student success teacher consultants and program coordinators. Should there be staff willing to participate, the administration would act in a supportive role.

**Time resources.** This solution would require the administrator to lay aside time at staff meetings and/or PD days to carry out the planned presentations or activities. Moreover, the administrator would need to set aside time to plan the presentations and activities. Should the planning involve the student success team or staff, additional collaboration time with those people will be needed.

**Information resources.** This solution would require the administrator and team, if desired, to locate relevant research to substantiate the claims that change is needed. Further, sample tools and suggestions for implementation would need to be communicated to the staff. Other information resources to consider would be how to gather and share feedback about the successes and challenges of implementation to ensure staff understanding is growing.

**Financial resources.** Financial needs for this solution could include photocopying of resources and tools. Should staff wish to collaborate to observe each other or to co-create resources, teacher coverage will be needed for their classes.

**Technological resources.** Technological resources could include those already accessible at the school such as presentation hardware and software.

**Benefits and disadvantages.** Benefits to this solution include increasing awareness of using observation and conversation, relevant strategies that can be used in everyday practice. Tools and techniques could be implemented the following day. Staff would be given the option of implementing strategies that they feel comfortable with. Introducing the topic in staff meetings and on PD days provides administration with a topic to be delivered that is different than the
usual literacy, numeracy, and student success topics mandated by the board. There are disadvantages to this solution. Traditional PD ignores teacher needs by failing to acknowledge differences among teachers, fails to seek teacher input, they fail to consider what teachers know about practice, and often rely on outsiders to deliver while teachers listen (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Klein, 2007; Lampert & Ball, 1999; Lieberman & Wood, 2001; McDonald, 1996; & Siskin, 1994). Additionally, Birman, Desimone, Porter, and Garet (2000) suggest that traditional formats do not give teachers the content, time, and activities that will increase knowledge that would foster meaningful change to practice. Human, time, information, financial, and technological resources could be limited thereby making the plan difficult to implement given the attention required for other initiatives. Without a regular structure, practices may not become embedded since access to the information, tools, and resources could be sparse. Given the unidirectional nature of traditional PD, the impact could be minimal thus, questioning the time commitments given the potential returns.

Possible solution two: Job-embedded professional development

This solution would see the creation of a job-embedded professional development process that would be teacher-focused with significant support from the change leader. It would be introduced incrementally over time and would be minimally intrusive to current pedagogical practices. This solution follows a hybrid version of Kelleher’s (2003) Model for Assessment-Driven Professional Development and based on the belief that:

- professional development is most effective when it is embedded in teachers' work. The best professional development helps teachers to think critically about their practice; to develop new instructional strategies, along with new techniques for creating curriculum
and assessments; and to measure how new practices have affected student learning. (p. 754)

The hybrid of Kelleher’s (2003) model would include six stages. First, targets for implementation including the impact on student learning would be set. Planning would include activities specific to the subject or grade level being taught. This step would include measures teachers will use to assess progress toward the goals. Second, preparation for the activity would occur by forming coaching relationships and learning teams to peer review the intended activities to ensure they connect to the goals and vision for the plan. This step may not be necessary in every professional development activity. Third, various activities of professional development would be carried out considering one or more of the following strands: (a) co-creating assessment tools, sharing information, and sharing research; (b) individual professional growth activities that include trying new tools and methods and observing others; and (c) conducting research and providing leadership by sharing findings within the coaching relationship. The fourth stage of the professional development model would include self-reflection where stakeholders will share their experiences and findings with colleagues through the wider school community in department teams, grade-level meetings, or in staff, department head, or school council meetings. Kelleher (2003) recommends reflecting on how instructional practices and student learning will change based on what was learned in the professional development experience. The fifth stage of the cycle connects the learning to practical classroom applications. This stage asks questions about how the learning has impacted pedagogical activities and by extension, student learning. The sixth and final stage of the professional development model focuses on measurement of student learning, but also adult learning. Shakman, Bailey, and Breslow (2017) recommend that during the “do-study-act” stages of a Plan-Do-Study-Act cycle,
data should be gathered and analyzed to determine the effectiveness of the strategies for achieving the desired goals. This data will allow the team to determine what needs modification prior to the next cycle.

School leadership will be important to this process. In this solution, leaders would be expected to emphasize the importance of ongoing learning among faculty, to promote a culture of ongoing learning as an essential part of practice, to train and support change champions, to ensure effective monitoring of the process, and to provide all possible resources necessary for implementation (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, Powers, & Killion, 2010).

**Resources required.** This solution would be highly dependent on human, time, and information resources. It is difficult to predict the financial and technological resources because they are more dependent on choices made at the time of implementation.

**Human resources.** A variety of human resource options are possible with this proposed solution and are dependent on strategies the staff and leadership wish to explore. Staff willing to act as a demonstration classroom could volunteer to do so. The demonstration classrooms would not necessarily be one from RSS; therefore, recruiting, securing permissions, and arranging for visits or virtual observation would be required. This solution could utilize the assistance of coaches, change champions, or those with professional knowledge about implementing observation and conversation as part of daily pedagogical practices. If RSS chose to involve the broader TRDSB community, the student success teacher consultants and program coordinators could be leveraged to assist with strategies and implementation. Of course, should professional learning teams, classroom observation, or other structures requiring teachers to be away from the classroom be necessary, occasional teachers would need be hired to replace the regular classroom teacher.
**Time resources.** Ideally, components of this solution would be embedded in professional development, staff, and department meetings. As such, regular operational and non-instructional matters may need to be dealt with through other means so that time could be devoted to components of this solution. However, balancing the needs of the OIP implementation with the mandated professional development activities from the TRDSB will be necessary. Another time factor for this solution would be the provision of opportunities for professional development teams, course teams, classroom observation, or coaching/mentoring teams to meet.

**Information resources.** Since this OIP aims to include observation and conversation as a common means of gathering and recording student learning, a disciplined cycle of dialogue will be required. Staff will need to be provided with support from relevant research, information from change leaders, and exemplars of tools. Moreover, information about how to include the gathered information in evaluation could be required. Further, a method of feedback will be required.

**Financial resources.** Potential financial resources required for this solution include funds for release time and funds for any information resources that might be purchased. In addition, should the solution include pedagogical experts, funding for their services may be required.

**Technological resources.** Proposed ideas in this solution include virtual coaching, recording those using observation and conversation in practice, and video-conferencing with change champions and pedagogical experts. Technological resources such as equipment, software, and hardware might be required.

**Benefits and disadvantages.** Implementing a job-embedded professional development framework for this problem of practice yields several benefits. First, the tools and processes
learned through the plan can be used immediately. A measurement of the successes or challenges of using the tools can be obtained immediately, thus allowing for rapid reflection, refinement, or replacement. Second, given that the plan is incremental, teachers and leaders can begin with a few tools then increase as they become more comfortable with using the processes and tools. Third, the fact that the plan includes learning teams, mentorship, and coaching opportunities, it creates structures that can be harnessed for other professional development initiatives. Fourth, this solution allows for some flexibility so that much of the process is teacher-driven permitting some customization based on context. Fifth, tools developed at the individual and coaching/mentorship levels can be shared and adapted by colleagues. Sixth, the plan has the potential to build capacity for use of observation and conversation that could lead to gathering rich data to improve student outcomes.

The plan is not without disadvantages. First, the plan would need buy-in from staff. Motivation and willingness to participate could be a challenge. Kotter & Schlesinger (2008) suggest that common reasons for resisting change include fear of losing something valuable, misunderstandings about the change and its implications, the belief that the change is not practical for the organization, or because of low tolerance for change. Second, since the plan involves mentoring and coaching relationships among staff, if not done properly and with expectations clearly laid out, the plan could be challenged by federation executives. Third, the resources such as time, human, information, and perhaps financial could be barriers given the other demands on staff and administration.

**Possible solution three: Community of Practice**

Wenger-Traynor and Wenger-Traynor (2015) introduce a concept called *Communities of Practice*, describing it as a group of people who share a common concern or passion and interact
regularly to engage in collective learning to do it better. In their review, Blankenship and Ruona (2007) differentiate between CoPs and PLCs suggesting that learning communities focus on improvement at the organizational level through collaborative processes. Although there is a need for alignment between communities of practice and the organization, communities of practice place a greater emphasis on improving individual practice. Three characteristics crucial to the group are the domain, the community, and the practice. The combination of these three characteristics constitute a community of practice. The domain gives the community of practice an identity because a defined shared domain of interest exists and therefore, a commitment toward that domain is shared among its members (Wenger-Traynor & Wenger-Traynor, 2015). For the purposes of this OIP, the domain could include a group of staff who engage in or are interested in engaging in increasing the use of observation and conversation in student assessment. The second characteristic of communities of practice is the community. Wegner-Traynor and Wegner-Traynor (2015) say that despite not working together daily, the community members engage in activities and discussions, help each other, share information with each other, and learn from each other. The third characteristic of communities of practice is the practice. Members of the community are practitioners whose shared experiences, stories, tools, and ways of addressing problems that arise contribute to the learning of the group (Wegner-Traynor & Wegner-Traynor, 2015).

**Resources required.** Depending on how the communities of practice are structured, human, time, information, financial, and technological resources may or may not be needed.

**Human resources.** Given the collaborative nature of the community of practice framework, people with a common goal are necessary to implement this solution viable. It could include one or two and grow further as others begin to show interest and commitment. Wegner
(2000) suggests that although communities of practice rely on internal leadership to develop and take care of the day-to-day work, multiple leaders such as thought leaders or networkers are also necessary.

**Time resources.** Given that the definition “allows for, but does not assume, intentionality: learning can be the reason the community comes together or an incidental outcome of member's interactions” (Wenger-Traynor & Wenger-Traynor, 2015, p. 1), time may or may not be required to facilitate the collaboration. In addition, should the community decide to include guest speakers (Wenger, 2000), members will have to schedule time to attend.

**Information resources.** Information resources with respect to this solution would be the exchange of information among the members. In addition, resources with respect to communities of practice might be shared.

**Financial resources.** Financial resources will be dependent on the structure of the community of practice. Funds to cover guest speakers, event hospitality, professional development coverage, and other release time might be required.

**Technological resources.** Wenger (2000) discusses connectivity as an element of communities of practices. Enabling connectivity among people that could include interacting using a variety of media is suggested. Therefore, various media dependent on the needs of the group would be required.

**Benefits and disadvantages.** A major benefit to this plan is the requirement that those in the community have a commitment to the domain. Essentially, the shared vision would either be present and might only need a little refinement. Another benefit to this plan includes the option to distribute the leadership across the community. Moreover, the group might be small and thus, easier to manage. However, because a component of the group is conversation, it has the
potential to involve a wider following of staff inside and outside RSS. Wenger (2000) describes one function of the group is participating in learning projects. This has the potential to create what he calls artifacts such as tools that can be shared.

Disadvantages to this plan is the potential to only include a small number of participants and thus, the impact may not be as great. Moreover, the fact that it is small and potentially informal, the ability for the group to attract members might be limited. Another disadvantage to this plan described by Wenger (2000) is the potential for the events to become too frequent and people stop coming due to the demand on their time, or the events might be too rare, leading to a loss of momentum. A risk in both formal and informal meetings within the community is the potential for the topic to become too broad and the focus becomes diffused. In addition, commitment to the community could wane and the membership could see frequent turnovers.

In addition to the stated limitations relative to this OIP, communities of practice can fall victim to negative power, trust, and bias dynamics (Roberts, 2006). Given that CoPs will be composed of members with varying experience, age, and authority, power dynamics could limit equal participation and allow the formation of hierarchies like those that exist in the broader organization (Roberts, 2006). Because of the above noted power dynamics, trust between members could become a factor in the success of the CoP. High degrees of trust are needed to foster mutual understanding and widespread participation. A lack of trust between members can cause conditions where collaboration is replaced with competition (Roberts, 2006). Finally, CoPs may demonstrate a predisposition to a knowledge set and thus, can fail to create or accept new knowledge. This can lead to resistance to change and opposition to anything that challenges the predispositions of the group (Roberts, 2006).
This OIP uses a combination of solution two and solution three to address the problem of practice and inform the steps of the implementation plan.

**Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change Issues**

Ethical leadership is concerned with the rules, behaviours, expectations, values, and morals that are desirable and appropriate in society (Northouse, 2016). Leaders, including school principals, are well-positioned to set an ethical tone and promote ethical practices in their schools by displaying ethical behaviour when responding to circumstances (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Manning, 2003; Starratt, 2009). This section discusses the ethical considerations for this OIP by considering Northouse’s (2016) principles for sound ethical leadership and will reference the factors of transformational leadership.

The first principle of ethical leadership proposed by Northouse (2016) is respect. Respect is one of the basic moral obligations of human beings (Dion, 2012; Starratt, 2005). The principle of respect is evident throughout the change process but will be prominent in the *awakening* stage where perspectives are sought, shared goals are created, and where education and information to raise awareness of the problem will be provided. This principle commits leaders to give credence to the ideas of others’ values, ideas, wants, and desires. Moreover, respect is demonstrated when the competence and expertise of colleagues is acknowledged and considered (Tschannen-Moran & Garies, 2015). Respect is demonstrated by being tolerant and accepting of opposing viewpoints while nurturing an awareness of how the follower needs, values, and purposes can integrate with those of the leader or organization (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2016). Given that the factor of *intellectual stimulation* challenges followers to question their assumptions and to design a more creative solution, competence can be influenced, and improved performance can be manifested through the leader’s actions and behaviours.
Moreover, individual consideration of followers thorough mentoring, feedback, and growth opportunities can promote job satisfaction (Bass, 1999; Kendrick, 2011). Ethical considerations of respect are evident in this OIP. The leader-follower relationships as well as the collaborative team relationships are an important driver for the solutions to the problem of practice. Leaders must be careful to communicate the problem of practice from the organizational context and frame it so that the problem is examined from a growth perspective rather than in an accusatory fashion. The Ontario Institute for Educational Leadership (2013) requires that school leaders not only demonstrate respect by listening to the ideas of others, but to encourage respect among all stakeholders. Leaders need to examine the problem from multiple lenses but also ensure that all stakeholders are encouraged to view the problem from multiple lenses to ensure that all angles are considered and competing thoughts are acknowledged.

The second principle of ethical leadership is serving others. Components of this OIP that demonstrate service to others are team-building, empowerment, and mentoring. This OIP creates an environment where team members are encouraged to grow in their use of observation and conversation in student assessment that is not static in nature but rather, complements the needs of the teachers and students. Under this principle, leaders will consider the incremental implementation of the plan and make decisions that will not adversely affect the welfare of the staff and students. Serving others is an important component of the mobilization phase where an analysis of power will enable leaders to channel their power in socially constructive ways and to develop followers into leaders who will pilot the change implementation plan. Bass and Stedlmeier (1999) caution that empowerment must be more than simply widening the range of participation. Empowerment must aim to transform individuals. If institutionalization of practice is to be realized, a transformation of individuals is necessary. Regarding service to
others, leaders will not only need to serve those committed to the actions of the OIP, but also serve the change resisters. Leaders could be tempted to resort to more transactional approaches that include coercion, negative reinforcement, or rewards to force compliance. The transformational leader will need to nurture change in these individuals.

The third principle posited by Northouse (2016) is that ethical leaders are just. They are concerned with the equal treatment of followers and fair in their decision making (Starratt, 2005). Starratt (1996) says that justice is “understood as individual choices to act justly, and justice is understood as the community’s choice to direct or govern its actions justly” (p. 163). When thinking about the principle of justice, leaders need to recognize that staff will be at various points in the journey. Some will make more progress toward embedment in a given time than others. It is important when communicating and celebrating the victories that, despite the depth of implementation, all victories are acknowledged. In addition, resources will be required to carry out the task implementation and monitoring recommended in this OIP. Leaders need to distribute human, time, information, financial, and technological resources fairly. Beauchamp and Bowie (1998) outline principles of distributive justice that can guide leaders when distributing benefits such as resources. Leaders can consider one or a combination of, equal share or opportunity, individual needs, a person’s rights, individual effort, contribution to the organization, or performance.

The fourth principle of ethical leadership is honesty. Ethical leaders are honest and open with others and fully represent the realities of the work. Trust is necessary for followers to maintain faith in the leadership and fosters positive, strong, and collaborative relationships (Northouse, 2016). Fairholm (1991) suggests that leaders and followers must have mutual trust for each other in addition to respect, and unity. The principle of honesty will manifest itself
throughout the process but especially in the *acceleration* phase where the need for change is articulated to stakeholders. Leaders must be honest throughout this articulation, ensuring that all the data presented has been gathered ethically and openly communicated. This means that leaders must be aware of whether they might knowingly or unknowingly be coercing the followers (Steidlmeyer (1999). Moreover, all members will be informed at the outset about the potential impacts of change. An ethical dilemma often faced by leaders is the desire to be open while needing to withhold information that cannot be disclosed due to organizational policies. This is realized in the *acceleration* phase through a prepared communication plan where information is shared appropriately and ethically.

The fifth principle of ethical leadership is building community. This principle is demonstrated through leaders whose aim is to move people toward a common goal that is agreed to by everyone (Northouse, 2016). These leaders do not impose their will on others but rather, incorporates the needs of themselves and their followers. Rost (1999) builds on this principle of ethics by suggesting that ethical leadership has civic implications because it considers community goals and purposes. Northouse's (2016) articulation of the need to pay attention to how change will affect the organization, community, and society is relevant to this OIP because the recommendations made have the potential to significantly influence staff and students outside of RSS. In addition, building community within RSS can be advantageous for other initiatives such as literacy, numeracy, and school improvement planning.

Despite that a key defining characteristic of transformational leadership is high standards of morality (Bass, 1978; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Northouse, 2016) it is not without criticism of its ethics. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) suggest six ethical criticisms of transformational leadership. First, it can exaggerate reality while influencing the perceptions of followers.
Second, it can manipulate followers into a new reality that is not superior to the current reality. Third, it can exploit emotions to move in a direction that is not in the best interest of followers. Fourth, it is incompatible with organizational learning, shared leadership, and participative decision-making. Fifth, it lacks a system to monitor oppression, dictatorship, and power differentials. Sixth, characteristics of authentic transformational leaders, identified by Northouse (2016) as morally apt, and pseudo transformational leaders, identified by Bass and Riggio (2006) as leaders who exploit their followers, are self-serving, crave power, and have distorted moral values is not applicable across all cultures. Despite the criticisms of transformational leadership, it can be a vehicle for setting high standards of ethical behaviour in organizations (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000).

**Conclusion**

Chapter 2 addresses five components for planning and developing the framework for change at RSS. The leadership approaches that will move the change effort forward and frameworks for leading the change process were discussed and their significance were articulated. Using Cawsey et al.’s (2016) and Kotter’s (1996) change models, the stages of change were described, and an organizational analysis diagnosed the need for change. Research supported solutions for change have been explored and ethical considerations for the change process have been articulated. Chapter 3 details the steps required for implementing, monitoring, and communicating the change.
CHAPTER 3 – IMPLEMENTATION, EVALUATION, AND COMMUNICATION

Introduction

Chapters 1 and 2 introduce and contextualize a problem of practice through historical, organizational, and leadership lenses. Additionally, a leadership framework for understanding change and an organizational analysis provided the background for selecting a desired change path that is ethical and actionable. Chapter 3 develops a plan for implementing, monitoring, and communicating the organizational change.

Change Implementation Plan

Awakening Stage

Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest that the Awakening Stage should begin with a critical organizational analysis that investigates internal and external forces that would support or oppose organizational change. Chapter 2 examines these forces using Nadler and Tushman’s (1982) Congruence Model of Organizational Behavior to determine the environmental, resource, and historical inputs that influence RSS. Supportive forces for the implementation of this OIP include: (a) the provision for observation, conversation, and product in student assessment through Ontario’s assessment policy, Growing Success; (b) Campbell et al.’s (2018) call for assessment reform including an educative process for parents and students around the variety of assessment practices; (c) the engagement of key organizational members with and without position power; and (d) historically accepted use of teacher observation of student learning at the elementary school level. Opposing forces for the implementation of this OIP include: (a) the potentially damaging use of standardized testing data; (b) deeply embedded beliefs and support for tests, quizzes, and other product-based assessment measures; (c) a financial climate and school structure that limits the ability to provide release time for collaboration and professional
development; and (d) stagnated structures that remain from a past era such as tasks designed to recall and regurgitate information.

When examining RSS’s readiness, a moderate inclination for change is noted. Factors including a supportive leadership team with a high level of trustworthiness, support for school-wide goals, and the presence of change champions can be leveraged to mitigate the challenges of low scores in the areas of wide-spread support for innovation, attitudes toward change, and the strong disposition toward tradition and routine. The deliberate, analytical, and deep investigative nature of the team at RSS is leveraged to support solution two; embedding professional development to replace the low-scoring traditional model that is currently utilized.

The final component of the *Awakening* stage is developing a vision for change. A component of solution one, modelling, distributed leadership that harnesses the knowledge and skills of teacher-leaders and change champions, and implementation of job-embedded, process-based learning, teachers will be empowered to embed triangulated processes and tools into their practice. Thus, students will experience a greater range of opportunities to demonstrate their learning and will have opportunities to do so in greater depth. In addition, teachers, parents, administrators, and students will gain a greater appreciation for, and comfort with, the tools and processes of observation and conversation, in addition to product (Herbst, 2015), as a means of assessment and evaluation.

**Mobilization Stage**

Cawsey et al. (2016) articulate that the *Mobilization Stage* is one where the change vision is solidified by leveraging systems and structures, forming coalitions, and communicating need for change. This OIP supports a participative approach characterized by engaging stakeholders to gain acceptance of the change initiative and to involve them in the proposed structures
(Cawsey et al., 2016). Given that this OIP enables leaders to promote a shift in the culture of assessment, the participative approach is appropriate (Waldersee & Griffiths, 2004).

One step in the Mobilization Stage is to initiate discussion with stakeholders. These discussions should begin with department heads, who are formal teacher-leaders, then discussions will include teachers. Simultaneously, change champions, who can be formal or informal teacher-leaders and the parent council should be leveraged to discuss the problem of practice and vision for change. Administration will demonstrate a conversation-based model to gather evidence of the stakeholder’s understanding of the information shared. Using formal and informal conversation, the administration will gather and record data about stakeholder’s thoughts to help solidify the vision for change and any challenges that may arise. Internal data from observation, report cards, and district support visits will demonstrate the strong presence of a product-based culture at RSS. In addition to internal data, external data in the form of best practices from research will be shared. Research shows that observation and conversation provide a rich, diversified, comprehensive, authentic, and holistic means of gathering evidence of student learning (Ford-Connors et al., 2016; Maxwell, 2001; Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010). Moreover, it promotes a collaborative relationship between students and faculty. Referencing their clinical and classroom work with teachers, Ford-Connors et al., (2016) suggest that teacher-student conversation “allows teachers and students to forge collaborative partnerships in the learning process as they work together to construct a trustworthy understanding of what students know and can do” (p. 51). Simply put, “the ability to assess student learning during instruction is a hallmark of good teaching” (Ford-Connors et al., 2016). Paraphrasing Howard Gardner, Maxwell (2001) posits that assessment through observation should be part of a natural learning environment as the student participates naturally in the
learning situation. Sharing this data will provide a means for discussion and mobilizing the team toward change.

Early in the *Mobilization* stage, the concept of job-embedded professional development must be defined for the stakeholders during staff, department, and school council meetings. Stewart and Houchens (2014) suggest that common educational terms have become unclear due to overuse and misinterpretation, so leaders should invest time to define professional learning communities. In this context, job-embedded professional development is day-to-day teacher learning in practice intended to improve student learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Hirsh, 2009), is a collegial group of faculty and administrators working together in formal and informal social interactions for positive change (Croft et al., 2010; DuFour & Eaker, 1998), is focused on finding solutions to problems of practice (Hawley & Valli, 1999; National Staff Development Council, 2010), and allows for a focus on implementation with fidelity (Schmoker, 2011).

The administration must then share the contexts within which job-embedded professional development will take place. Croft et al., (2010) suggests that there are three contexts for learning in job-embedded professional development, each of which can be carried out alone, with one-on-one guidance, and in teams. The first is learning in the classroom, in real time, with current students, and focuses on issues of practice. An example is a mentor watching a lesson virtually providing real-time suggestions to the teacher. The second is learning in the classroom, nearly in real time, away from students, and centers on issues of practice. An example is mentor-mentee conferencing before and after observing a lesson. Feedback is given and prompts changes to instruction the following day. The third is learning that takes place at the school before or after instruction, away from students, and is also centered on issues of practice. An
example is a teacher reading about a strategy, applying it in class, and reflecting on it afterward. A combination of these contexts will be utilized throughout the implementation phase as teachers make professional decisions about utilizing observations and conversations in their assessment of students.

To complement the application of job-embedded professional development, the administration can promote solution three; the formation of Communities of Practice (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991) by engaging stakeholders who support adding conversation and observation to the assessment repertoire. In emergent CoPs, stakeholders can be encouraged to interact with colleagues who hold shared values, who have a mutual desire to obtain knowledge and share knowledge in the problem-solving effort, and to engage in the natural learning garnered from their day-to-day practice (Blenkenship & Ruona, 2007; Gherardi & Nicolini, 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Printy, 2008; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder 2002; Wenger, 1998). The members of the CoP can assist with developing shared resources (Wenger, 1998) and act as mentors for other stakeholders. The CoP will be encouraged to refine skills and to draw on the collective resource within the community (Knight, 2002).

**Acceleration Stage**

Cawsey et al. (2016) describe the *Acceleration* stage as the point where insights gained from the *Awakening* and *Mobilization* stages are translated into action planning and implementation that is characterized by developing knowledge, skills and ways of thinking, acquiring momentum, and celebrating success. The *Acceleration* stage encompasses six steps based on an adaptation of Kelleher’s (2003) Model for Assessment-Driven Professional Development. Steps one and two are preparatory steps, step three is implementation, steps four and five are reflective and capacity building, and step six involves evaluation and goal setting.
Step one consists of developing short, medium and long-term goals that align with the shared vision that is ultimately derived from the school goals for student learning. Knowing that adoption and implementation will vary depending on teacher and circumstance, an agreed timeline of implementation is developed in a participatory manner during staff and department head meetings. In step two, teachers choose the professional development context described by Croft et al. (2010) that best suits their learning needs. Working in a CoP, department teams, or on their own, teachers, with modelling and mentoring from change leaders and identified change champions, will brainstorm opportunities for using conversation and observation in practice. They will create, or co-create, tools and processes based on exemplars, those used by change champions, or recommendations from the literature. Exemplars are provided on a weekly basis through the principal’s bulletin. Formally structured time will be provided during staff meetings and professional development sessions, release time, or sponsored lunch and learn sessions. Resources required will be garnered from student success release time, program funded days, and through funding requests to the TRDSB student success department. Staff will also be encouraged to meet during un-structured time that they arrange.

In step three, teachers embed the tools and methods that have been created and investigated in the previous steps into their practice. Kelleher (2003) suggests four strands that can be utilized in this step: peer collaboration, individual professional growth, research and leadership, and external experiences. Within these steps, staff are encouraged to continue collaborating with peers, to observe one another in classrooms, and to coach one another. Leaders will provide release time for those who wish to observe their colleagues in real time. Alternatively, teachers can audio record themselves in conversation with students in addition to what they observe and share their experiences with colleagues. During this step, teachers are
encouraged to participate in conferences, listen to guest speakers, or continue to engage in conversation with colleagues both inside and outside the school.

Kelleher (2003) adequately describes the goals of step four, recommending that “teachers devote time to self-reflection and share their experiences and findings with colleagues” (p. 755). Leaders will devote time in staff meetings and on professional development days for teachers to share the methods used, tools created, what has been learned, and the impact on student learning. In step five, teachers are encouraged to reflect on how instructional and assessment practices can be changed and to get feedback for their professional growth. Finally, in step six, evaluation of the short, medium, and long-term goals will be carried out to determine the next steps. Steps four, five, and six will be discussed in the monitoring and evaluation section ahead.

**Institutionalization Stage**

Cawsey et al. (2016) describe the Institutionalization stage as one where the desired change has become part of the regular operations of the organization. During the institutionalization process, progress is evaluated and communicated. This process is discussed further in this chapter.

**Strengths and Limitations**

Any change initiative has its strengths and limitations. This section will discuss the strengths and limitations of the implementation plan for this OIP.

**Strengths**

Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest that “the success of a change is enhanced when people understand what it entails, why it is being undertaken, what the consequences of success and failure are, and why their help is needed and valued” (p. 304). A strength of this plan is the participative approach that seeks to include stakeholders in the planning and implementation
phases. It serves to benefit students because it promotes a collaborative relationship with teachers and provides them with opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge and skills in greater depth. Parent involvement allows leaders and other change agents to challenge the traditional beliefs that exist and to educate them about best practices.

A significant strength with this plan is the empowerment it provides to the leaders and implementers. First, it acknowledges research that suggests that adults learn best when activities are self-directed, when the activity builds on existing knowledge, and when the learning is deemed relevant and significant (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998). Second, by providing distributed leadership opportunities for formal leaders, informal leaders, and change champions, it provides opportunities for staff to self-actualize through modelling and coaching thus, harnessing the knowledge and skills that align with the goals of the instructional program. Third, the provision of choice allows staff to choose the tools, methods, and structures that best meet their needs. The choices allow for flexibility in adoption while still providing a means to measure success and promotes an environment where short term wins are realized.

A final strength that comes from this implementation plan is the structures it creates. The communities of practice structure provide a means for those holding the shared vision to deepen their learning and to assist the administration in leading the change plan. In their study on how job-embedded professional development models affected teacher practice, Stewart and Houchens (2014) suggest that “when implemented with fidelity, PLCs provided the logistical and structural basis for implementing change” (p. 59). First, the design of the plan allows for almost immediate implementation and thus, reflection and refinement. Second, the structures solicit feedback to create an agreed timeline that is incremental. Third, the professional learning
communities and communities of practice used in this initiative can be utilized for other initiatives either running parallel to this one, or in the future.

**Limitations**

It is important to acknowledge the limitations possible in implementing this plan. First, there are significant resources necessary to make implementation possible. Given the current pressures on the teaching workforce, there may not be occasional teachers available to cover for staff who wish to be released to work in professional learning teams, communities of practice, or to observe each other. Ideas to mitigate this challenge is to pre-determine collaboration session so that arrangements for occasional teachers can be entered early. Additionally, colleagues or administration could agree to cover for each other. Research shows that teachers who effectively work with each other on instructional and administrative tasks greatly influences their personal performance and the school’s performance (Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Lally & Scaefe, 1995). Therefore, principals should endeavour to create a collaborative culture in their schools (Lu, Jiang, Yu, & Li, 2015). A precious commodity in teaching is time. Although creative solutions to help provide opportunities for collaboration have been investigated, leaders will still need to weave it in with the professional development mandated by the TRDSB. Leaders will need to commit to communicate operational items typically on staff meeting and PD day agendas by other means thus, using the time for implementation of this plan. As with any institution, financial resources must be budgeted to meet all programming needs. Financial pressures in the education sector may prove to be barriers to implementing the steps within this plan. Leaders and staff can agree to use principal contingency and program funded days in pursuit of the goals within this implementation plan.
A second set of limitations can arise from the CoP and PLC structures themselves. Despite a CoP’s potential to elicit productive change and innovation, it can also perpetuate stereotypes, prejudices, and damaging practices (Orr, 1996; Wenger, 1998). Additionally, learning could conform to existing thoughts and actions rather than being open to examination and adjustment (King, 2002). Furthermore, Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) admit that members of CoPs could hoard knowledge, function in cliques, and make membership exclusive. Finally, CoPs risk being unsustainable if they are deemed to be prescriptive rather than naturally occurring (Printy, 2008). Given that both professional learning communities and CoPs focus on learning, they share the same challenges. The leadership will need to be clear of the goals of PLCs and CoPs and frequently monitor the progress to ensure that agreed upon goals and targets are maintained.

**Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation**

To monitor and evaluate the change implementation plan, Deming’s (2000) Plan, Do, Study, Act (PDSA) cycle will be incorporated into Cawsey et al.’s (2016) *Change Path Model* and Guskey’s (2002) five critical levels for evaluating professional development. The PDSA cycle evaluates change in an authentic application (Langley, Nolan, Norman, & Provost, 2009), enables testing on a small scale to fine tune the change prior to implementing across the organization (ACT Academy, n.d.; Tichnor-Wagner, Wachen, Cannata, & Cohen-Vogel, 2017), and can be planned so that it is less disruptive for early stages when adjustments might need to be made (ACT Academy, n.d.).

The first step in the PDSA cycle is *Plan*. The *Plan* step includes giving clarity to the problem, identifying the aims, developing the tools, processes, and implementation plan, and sets new, specific targets during the implementation (ACT Academy, n.d.; Shakman, Bailey, Breslow,
BUILDING CAPACITY FOR TRIANGULATED ASSESSMENT

2017; Tichnor-Wagner et al., 2017). The second step of the PDSA cycle is Do. During this step, the tools and processes are implemented, and data is gathered throughout (ACT Academy, n.d.; Shakman et al., 2017). The third step in the cycle is Study. In this step, participants examine the data to determine if the targets or objectives are being met (Shackman et al., 2017). In addition, participants reflect on the impact of the change and what was learned from the process (ACT Academy, n.d.). The fourth and final step in the PDSA cycle is Act. In this step, stakeholders adjust the objectives, formulate new ideas, modify the tools or processes, and if not already done, fully implement the plan (ACT Academy, n.d.; Shackman et al., 2017). (see Figure 4).

![Figure 4: Deming’s PDSA Cycle](Adapted from ACT Academy, n.d.) By Brinson, J (2019).

**Awakening Stage**

Much of the data for the *Awakening* stage is collected and articulated in Chapter 1 and 2. However, assistance from the other administrators at RSS will be vital to the implementation of
the proposed change. The aim of the Plan step is to define the problem and articulate a vision to the other leaders. In the Do step, I will gather anecdotal data by modelling observation and conversing with the other administrators. The other administrators will be interacting with the organizational context, organizational history, problem of practice, and the readiness for change information I have gathered previously, and I will gather data on their understanding. Additionally, the implementation plan will be shared. The Study step will consist of an analysis of what was learned about the need to move to the desired state and what was learned about the implementation plan. This information will be used in the Act stage to confirm the steps for roll-out in the Mobilization stage.

Mobilization Stage

During the Mobilization stage, goals are solidified, the change from current and desired state is communicated, and as a shared vision for change is be articulated. The change leader monitors and records supportive, encouraging, opposing, fears, challenges, hesitations, limitations, and readiness for change from stakeholders. Given that stakeholders include department heads, change champions, and the parent council, simultaneous PDSA cycles will occur. (see Figure 5).

Discussion with Stakeholders.

Plan. Prior to carrying out discussions with stakeholder groups, leaders will create questions that will help gain an understanding of the supporting and opposing forces. In addition, tools for collecting data will be created. These tools will serve as exemplars for staff.

Do. Modelling observation and conversation processes and tools, leaders will use staff meetings, department head meetings, and parent council meetings to formally gather data about feelings for the change initiative. The data will be obtained from observing and conversing as
stakeholders interact with the information provided in support of the change. Moreover, informal conversations and observations with stakeholders outside of officially scheduled evaluations will be used to obtain rich data.

Figure 5. Simultaneous PDSA cycles (Adapted from ACT Academy, n.d.)

**Study.** In the *Study* stage of discussions, leaders compile the data from the simultaneous PDSA cycles and look for common themes. After compiling the information, the data will be shared with stakeholders to ensure that it provides an accurate representation.

**Act.** After leaders have completed the member checking, a process whereby leaders share the interpretation of data with stakeholders to ensure its accuracy (Creswell, 2012), they will determine how the information fits into the plan and make minor adjustments if necessary.

**Acceleration Stage**

As the *Acceleration* stage gains momentum, Guskey’s (2002) five critical levels for evaluating professional development will be utilized to gather data on the progress. This data
will be used to inform next steps in the Act stage of the PDSA cycles. Guskey and Sparks (1991) recommend that evaluation begin during the planning stage and continue throughout implementation. Guskey and Sparks (1991) further suggest that evaluation should: (a) consider that changes in one area could impact others; (b) include input from all stakeholders; (c) be analyzed with a focus on how it will improve the program; (d) describe how the program impacts student outcomes; and (e) be informed by multiple quantitative and qualitative data sources. I will now discuss Guskey’s (2002) five critical levels for evaluating professional development and how they will be used in this OIP.

**Level 1: Participants’ Reactions.** During the level one evaluation of the professional development, participants’ reactions to the experience are investigated (Guskey, 2002). Data is gathered in the form of questionnaires and through conversation with stakeholders. An important consideration is to determine whether they felt their time was honoured and well spent and that the information was meaningful and well planned. Assessing understanding of the material is an important component to ensure successful implementation that meets the goals and contributes to student learning. During full staff meetings and in one-on-one discussion, leaders check for understanding of the goals and processes presented. This data will be documented and used to inform next steps in the Act stage of the PDSA cycle. It is also important for leaders to gauge their own understanding of the processes, goals, and expectations for the initiative. Part of this evaluation is to ask participants whether they felt the leaders were knowledgeable and helpful through the process. Doyle and Ponder (1977), suggest that if an effort is presented clearly, specifically, and in alignment with teachers’ philosophy and practice, it is more likely to positively affect their decision to participate. Therefore, careful planning on the part of the leadership will take into consideration, stakeholder philosophy and connection to practice.
Level 2: Participants’ Learning. In addition to positive professional learning experiences, participants should experience growth in their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and dispositions (Guskey, 2002). Various assessment measures including pencil-and-paper activities, simulations, informal classroom walkthroughs, annual learning plans, and pre-observation meetings will be used to gather data on participant learning. During this step, it is important for leaders to be cognizant of unintended positive and negative learning such as collaborative efforts that inhibit progression and conflict over professional beliefs and practices (Achinstein, 2002; Corcoran, Fuhrman, & Belcher, 2001; Little, 1990).

Level 3: Organization Support and Change. Level three looks at the structures that could inhibit progress. Much of the discussion about organizational structure and how to mitigate concerns is discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, however, the leader should continue to monitor organizational policies and structures that are “incompatible with implementation efforts” (Guskey, 2016, p. 34). Moreover, investigating whether the professional development continues to promote change that is aligned with the school and district goals, whether proper support for the stakeholders implementing change was provided, whether sufficient resources were allocated, and whether successes were recognized are important to evaluate (Guskey, 2002). Level three evaluation data is gathered through questionnaires, interviewing participants, examining minutes from professional development sessions and other relevant meetings, and district support visit reports.

Institutionalization Stage

Given that the institutionalization stage is the one where the knowledge, skills, and practices have become embedded in the daily operation of the organization (Cawsey et al., 2016),
level four and level five of Guskey’s (2002) professional development evaluation framework will be used to determine whether the institutionalization stage has been reached.

**Level 4: Participants’ Use of New Knowledge and Skills.** Level four investigates whether the new knowledge and skills have positively impacted professional practice (Guskey, 2002). Guskey (2016) suggests that “unlike levels 1 and 2, these data cannot be gathered at the end of a professional learning program or activity. Enough time must pass to allow participants to adapt the new ideas and practices to their settings” (p. 35). Guskey (2002) suggests that the most accurate data during this level is gathered through direct observation. As such, administrators will plan and execute a schedule of classroom walkthroughs that include look-fors that assess both the degree and quality of the implementation (Guskey, 2002).

**Level 5: Student Learning Outcomes.** The fifth and final level of evaluation of the professional development framework will address the benefits to student learning. Joyce (1993) recommends that multiple measures of student learning be consulted because in addition to the original goals, unintended outcomes could arise. Therefore, semi-structured interviews with students, parents, teachers, and administrators will be carried out to gather qualitative data that can produce common themes and patterns.

**Conclusion**

Monitoring and evaluating the change implementation plan, using Deming’s (2000) *Plan, Do, Study, Act* cycle incorporated into Cawsey et al.’s (2016) *Change Path Model* and Guskey’s (2002) five critical levels for evaluating professional development will provide rich data to ensure the aims, vision, and processes for change contribute to positive staff growth and student development.
Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and the Change Process

Given Jick’s (1993) assertion that often, rumours, anxiety and resistance occur because of ambiguity and vague awareness of a change, a detailed plan to communicate the need for change and the process is necessary. The plan to communicate change for this OIP is based on Klein’s (1996) communication strategy embedded in Cawsey et al.’s (2016) four phases of communication; the prechange phase, the developing the need for change phase; the midstream change phase, and the confirming the change phase. The communication strategies and phases also align with Cawsey et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model. Table 2 shows the alignment between Cawsey et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model, Cawsey et al.’s (2016) four phases of communicating change and Klein’s (1996) communication strategy.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change Path Model (Cawsey et al., 2016)</th>
<th>Awakening Stage</th>
<th>Mobilization Stage</th>
<th>Acceleration Stage</th>
<th>Institutionalization Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phases of Communicating Change (Cawsey et al., 2016)</td>
<td>Prechange</td>
<td>Developing the Need for Change</td>
<td>Midstream Change</td>
<td>Confirming the Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Strategy (Klein, 1996)</td>
<td>Preparing for the Change</td>
<td>Communicating During the Change</td>
<td>Celebrating the Change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Communication Principles

Before exploring the connections in Table 2, a discussion of Klein’s (1996) key communication principles relevant to the OIP must be discussed. Klein (1996) suggests that: (a) message redundancy and retention are related; (b) use of multiple media is more effective than a single medium; (c) face-to-face is the preferred medium; (d) the line hierarchy is the most
effective channel of communication; (e) information is most effective if delivered by direct supervisors; (f) opinion leaders can have significant influence over attitudes and opinions; and (g) retention is greater when information is relevant.

**Redundancy.** Data has shown that repeating a message multiple times using multiple media sources is more likely to increase people’s memory about the message (Bachrach & Aiken, 1977; Daft & Lengel, 1984; Dansereau & Markham, 1987). In the Awakening, Mobilization, Acceleration, and Institutionalization stages, communication will be made using multiple media including email, principal’s bulletin, face-to-face, school newsletters, staff meeting information packages, and on a Microsoft OneNote® page. It is important for the message to be the same throughout the organization to reduce confusion.

**Face-To Face Communication.** Throughout this OIP, data gathering, and information sharing will take place through conversation and observation. Klein (1996) suggest that two-way communication encourages involvement and participation, adds clarity, and provides a means with which to correct misunderstandings and deficiencies immediately. Moreover, since a significant characteristic of the implementation involves observation, non-verbal cues can provide rich interpretation and they can communicate emotional aspects that might go unknown in other media (Gioia & Simms, 1986).

**Hierarchy.** Hierarchy is a structure that is evident in most large organizations, it is recognized most members, and elicits a greater communication impact (Klein, 1996). Kiesler and Mirson (1975) suggest that the creditability of a message is connected to the status level of the person delivering the message. However, this does not interfere with the participative process in this OIP because hierarchy “enhances the distribution of influence down through the hierarchy” (Klein, 1996, p. 35) as members become fully informed. Much of the messaging in
this communication plan will come from the leadership however, identified formal and informal leaders at RSS will be asked to contribute as messengers on behalf of the leaders from time-to-time.

**Supervisor as Communicator.** As mentioned above, hierarchy is a component of communication plans. Supervisors are often seen as the ones who will give important information to their constituents (Klein, 1996). However, as mentioned above, it is important for identified formal leaders to participate in the communication plan. Throughout the implementation, department heads and change champions were identified as those who would influence the efforts. It will be important for each of these members to be well informed so that the message can be carried to those not giving leadership for this initiative.

**Opinion Leaders.** As mentioned, change champions are an important part of the implementation plan. They will carry out an important role as communicators of the change vision and implementation because of their ability to harness collegial authority to impact opinions and attitudes (Klein, 1996).

**Relevancy.** Klein (1996) describes this component from an evaluative perspective. Admittedly, components of this OIP could be included in teacher evaluation, but the intent of the OIP is building capacity so teacher evaluation will not be a focus. However, since retention is more likely when the communication is relevant to practice (Pincus, 1986), relevancy is an important component in the communication plan. The topic of relevancy to practice has been discussed throughout this OIP.
Communication Plan

Cawsey et al. (2016) articulate four phases of communication called Prechange, Creating the Need for Change, Midstream, and Confirming the Change. This section will detail the specific plans for communication of this OIP throughout the four phases.

Prechange. The Prechange phase, is described by Cawsey et al. (2016) as the one where senior management are notified of the need for change and their support is solicited. After initial consultation, planning, and research, as the change leader, I will meet with the TRDSB executive council to present the proposal. The proposal will include key points of the plan, giving context to the need for change supported by the historical data, organizational theory, change theory, the steps for implementation, ethical considerations, and indicators for how the proposed change fits within the TRDSB multi-year plan and RSS’s school improvement plan. During this stage, the senior administration will be apprised of the internal and external forces that support and oppose change. Leaders will show how the structures, processes, tools, and capacity building that result are beneficial to this OIP but also to other school and board initiatives such as literacy and numeracy. Leaders will inquire what human, financial, technological, informational, and time resources can be obtained from them. Above all else, the vision for change will be shared and input will be solicited to ensure alignment with board priorities. Given the incremental nature of the changes proposed in this OIP, the effort could take one to two school years to reach the institutionalization phase. Consequently, the Prechange phase would begin in the spring, to prepare for implementation in September. This will allow for structural items such as semester calendars, timetabling, and resource allocation to be in the minds of the change leaders. Moreover, beginning in the spring will allow the leaders to refine their knowledge and skills for modelling observation and conversation.
Developing the Need for Change. A key component of this phase is to communicate the need for change by raising awareness (Cawsey et al., 2016). From the outset, leaders will need to provide an authentic message, heeding the advice of Kotter (1995) who says that “without credible communication, and a lot of it, the hearts and minds of the troops are never captured” (p. 5). Additionally, in this beginning stage with stakeholders, open communication and participant involvement will help build trust and support for the process (Smith, 1995).

Given that the change could conflict with beliefs, Weick’s (1987) advice to create a well-constructed communication strategy that uses the principles of redundancy will be created. Leaders will consistently communicate the same message about the needs, the issues, and the rationale to stakeholders via multiple media including face-to-face meetings, bulletins, the OneNote® file, and information packages. On the recommendation of Klein (1996), face-to-face meetings, giving a concrete description of the first steps, will occur at every level of the organization including administration team meetings, department head meetings, staff meetings, and department meetings. These meetings will have the additional purpose of strengthening the factors that support the change, but to also acknowledge what might need to be re-examined. As the Mobilization phase progresses, change champions will also be given responsibilities to help communicate key messages.

An important component of Preparing for the Change phase is to detail the impact that it will have on stakeholders. Klein (1996) says that “the greater the discrepancy between the proposed change and the current practice the more difficult it is to execute the change” (p. 40). Through education and communication, leaders can help the stakeholders understand what the change initiative is, what will be required of them, and why it is an important undertaking (Cawsey et al., 2016). It is important to show stakeholders that this OIP does not ask them to
replace their current practice, but to build in the use of observation and conversation to gain a more holistic approach to gathering rich data of student learning. As such, communicating how the structures of job-embedded professional development will assist in the implementation will be key. Leaders will function as mentors, providing rich, descriptive feedback throughout the implementation process as they offer guidance and support (Cawsey et al., 2016). A component connected to the impact on stakeholders is described by Cawsey et al. (2016) as transition management. They suggest that it is important to consider the change effort’s impact on other operations that are running concurrently with the new initiative. The communication plan will be carefully crafted to ensure that other priorities are not minimized, but rather, work in harmony with the new effort.

**Midstream Change.** During the *Midstream change* phase, as the tools and processes are developed and utilized, leaders must communicate the progress, introduce new content when the organization is ready to receive it, and will detail future steps. Guskey (2000) contends that “new practices are likely to be abandoned in the absence of any evidence of their positive effects” (p. 141) so it is important for the leadership team to communicate the data that is gathered from the evaluation previously mentioned in the *Acceleration* stage.

Kotter and Cohen (2002) suggest that visible, meaningful, and definite victories in implementation should be shared. Following Klein’s (1996) principles of communication, as positive outcomes are observed, they will be shared throughout the organization through formal leaders, informal leaders, and change champions in face-to-face meetings. Specific details will be shared on how the initiatives have been implemented successfully and how they have positively impacted the change initiators. Klein (1996) says that as the change process moves from abstract ideas with theoretical outcomes to actual processes with practical outcomes, the
impact on the organization will become visible. As such, leaders will need to ensure they maintain connection with the change as it moves throughout the hierarchy so that they can address questions and manage the message. To maintain credibility, the leadership team will acknowledge the difficulties encountered during the change, how they have been overcome, and how the process has been modified because of the monitoring and evaluation (Klein, 1996). Given that indicators of challenges spread through the organization quickly and often become embellished, the leadership team will need to ensure that face-to-face meetings are held to avoid having questions that go unanswered with the facts and thus becoming “part of the common folklore” (Klein, 1996, p. 42). In addition, since Hall and Hord (2006) suggest that strategies tend to be abandoned before skills are mastered, an important component of the communication plan will aim to maintain enthusiasm and momentum, thus encouraging doubters.

**Confirming the Change.** Cawsey et al. (2016) describe the final phase of communication needs to celebrate the success of the program and address the change. As mentioned in the monitoring and evaluation section, over time, staff will adapt the new ideas and practices into their repertoire (Guskey, 2016) if they see them as valuable. A summary of the non-evaluative classroom walkthroughs will be shared with the RSS staff through face-to-face meetings and via a written report. In addition, the impact on student learning will need to be shared. Results from semi-structured interviews with students, parents, teachers, and administrators will be shared to all stakeholders via a variety of media including newsletters, emails, the website, school council, department head, and staff meetings. This process will take place in accordance with policies and ethical considerations mandated by the TRDSB.

In addition, Cawsey et al. (2016) detail an after-action review where I will to answer the following questions: (a) what were the expected results; (b) what were the actual results; (c) what
factors contributed to the actual results; and (d) how can the process be improved next time? I will investigate how the change has positively impacted the all stakeholders including students, teachers, parents, and change leaders. I will also consider what challenges occurred throughout the process to understand how those have impacted all the stakeholders. The answers to these questions will be used to educate others about the process and how the knowledge can be used to improve performance in the future.

Conclusion

This section details the plan to communicate change by embedding Klein’s (1996) communication strategy with Cawsey et al.’s (2016) four phases of communication, each of which aligns with Cawsey et al.’s (2016) Change Path Model. The communication plan enables leaders to raise awareness of the need for change, to identify the impact on the organization members, to structure the environment for change, and to report progress to stakeholders (Cawsey, 2016).

Next Steps and Future Considerations

As RSS moves beyond the initial implementation of this OIP, consideration needs to be given for the sustainability of the structures and processes that were introduced. Bain, Walker, and Chan (2011) suggest that although received positively and enthusiastically, capacity building through professional development often fades over time. Anderson and Stiegelbauer (1994) say that for many years, change agents and theorists have struggled to discover how to effortlessly move from implementation of innovation to integration where the innovation is weaved into practice. A persistent issue is that the “grammar of schooling,” defined by Tyack and Tobin (1994) as “the regular structures and rules that organize the work of instruction” (p. 454) has
become so much a part of the ideas of how schools should operate, it is difficult to institutionalize innovations that challenge the structures and rules (Meyer & Rowan, 1977).

Hargreaves and Fink (2003) suggest that cultivating an educational ecosystem where staff can adapt and prosper through diversity and cross-fertilization promotes sustainability. The opposing view, highly standardized and specialized systems, leads to schools that are “less like rich, biodiverse rain forests of cross-fertilizing influence” to those that are “like regimented tree farms” (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003, p. 694). Three implications for sustainability posed by Hargreaves & Fink (2003) will be important for going forward. First, the initiative must be enduring. Leaders and change agents invest time and energy in the change effort and therefore, must be encouraged to remain committed to it. By cycling back to the components of the OIP such as the need for the change, the learning communities and communities of practice, and the data that demonstrated the positive impacts of the change, the initiative can remain current to the stakeholders. Second, the resources and support mechanisms that have been built in should remain in place. Coborn (2003) says that teachers are better equipped to sustain change when supports such as professional communities and ongoing opportunities for learning are present. Maintaining the professional learning community that has had experience with school-wide, job-embedded professional learning provides a structure that can be utilized for other initiatives that might be required in the school. Maintaining support for the communities of practice that has developed will promote innovation as the groups learning evolves. Long term investment will help to develop and maintain the knowledge and skills to sustain the change. Finally, ongoing improvement characterized by lifelong learning through trial and error should be encouraged. Throughout the OIP, stakeholders are encouraged to develop and try tools and methods. This inquiry-based approach should continue to be promoted.
Leadership is vital in the maintenance of the structures from the OIP. Throughout the OIP implementation plan, the leaders are highly involved in modelling and promoting the use of observation and conversation triangulated with product. As lead learners, principals and vice-principals have a duty to support learning for staff and students (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003). Despite having several competing interests and policies that could be barriers to maintaining momentum, it is incumbent on the leaders to prioritize initiatives that improve student learning. Leaders should be aware of the data gathered during implementation to advocate for continued attention to best practices. Not everything is worth keeping (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003) so leaders should continue to gather data and engage in professional educational research with respect to this OIP to determine whether the initiatives, in their current form, are still considered best practice.

Another important consideration for next steps and future considerations is the gradual release of responsibility. A common cause for change plans to become unsustainable is the departure of the leader or key change champions (Fink, 2000; Sarason, 1972). As a result, principals or vice-principals who lead the change will need to ensure that it becomes part of the culture (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003). Including the department heads and change champions from the initial planning to the implementation will aid in making the change sustainable.

A final consideration for next steps and future considerations is to expand the organization improvement plan to other schools across the TRDSB. Corburn (2003) suggests that apart from sharing and spreading activities, structures, and materials, reform should include spreading the beliefs and visions to other schools. Further, she recommends that aside from spreading best practice reforms to as many schools as possible across the district, reforms should influence policies, procedures and professional development (Coburn, 2003). This would require
the change team from RSS to share experiences with colleagues across the district. Possible structures such as the communities of practice could be expanded to include staff from other schools. It would require significant preparation involving system level leadership such as the superintendent responsible for student success, the principal leader of student success, the student success teacher consultants, and support personnel such as information technology specialists. In addition to human resources, financial resources, information such as who will lead the change at other locations, allocation of time for training and professional development, and technological resources needed for communication such as Skype® sessions and email might be required.

**Organizational Improvement Plan Conclusion**

This OIP provides a comprehensive strategy for building capacity for the use of observation and conversation in student assessment. Current practices that focus on quantitative means of gathering data on student progress can be supported by strengthening the use of qualitative forms of feedback. Students will experience a variety of opportunities to demonstrate knowledge and skills and can articulate their understanding through a positive collaborative relationship with their teacher. Students’ talents and interests will be highlighted thus, making the learning environment student-centered. This ensures that the learning needs of all students are being sufficiently met while still providing the necessary data to meet Ontario’s Ministry of Education mandatory reporting cycles. The strategies in this OIP are not meant to replace forms of quantitative assessment, but rather complement them thus, encouraging a broader view of assessment techniques. It is hoped that this would encourage increased use of these methods of assessment in practice and improved student outcomes.
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