CHAPTER 4

REPRESENTING THE PRACTICE OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

... what if some kinds of knowledge about a phenomenon can only be discovered from confronting the problems of attempting to form the practice, rather than trying to describe what others are doing?

(Chaiklin, 2011, p. 243)

As shown in the previous chapter, three significant themes emerged during analysis of the Phase 1 data. These themes, when discussed in relation to cultural-historical concepts of development, provide significant insight into the conditions that need to be present in the institutional practice of professional development in order for effective development to occur. However, it must be understood that each of these themes and their related concepts are closely interrelated with each of the others, creating a dynamic system of relations. The model shown in Figure 4.1 was created as an answer to the second research question:

2) What is the system of essential relations revealed by analysing my participation in transforming the institutional practice of professional development at one particular school?

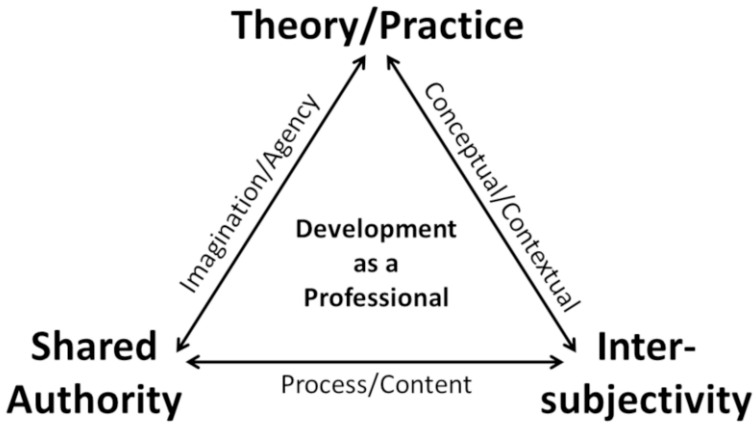

Figure 4.1 System of essential relations showing necessary conditions for effective professional development.

Although this system must be regarded as an integrated whole, it is obviously necessary to turn momentary attention onto each term used in the diagram in order to be able to discuss how each element relates to each of the others.

Development as a Professional

This term, in the centre of the diagram, refers to the product that is being created in the institutional practice of professional development, i.e., the development (qualitative change in competences and motives) of teachers as professionals (which AITSL defines as incorporating professional knowledge, practice and engagement (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011)). This definition of this product of the practice must be read in conjunction with the meanings of development, professional and practice being used throughout this book (as outlined in Chapters 1 and 2). It particularly refers to the development of new motives and new psychological formations (teachers' unified concepts of teaching/learning, children's development and/or subject matter) which transform the way teachers are able to participate in and contribute to the variety of professional practices they work within.

Theory/Practice

The process of attempting to create collaborative professional learning activity in the Banksia Bay PLZ highlighted that many teachers still regard theory as the domain of academics in universities, with limited relevance to their work as teachers. This attitude was prevalent across both older and younger teachers. Jen, Ian and Eve tended to dismiss theory as "stuff we did at uni" which they had not found useful to their practical work as teachers. Some of the more experienced teachers (Gary, Deb, Liz and Cath), seemed to be weary of the constant changes in theory and policy that they had been exposed to across their careers and tended to treat new theories as just a new set of 'labels' to be applied to their existing practice. Over several occasions, each of these teachers made comments that indicated they would simply wait out this 'latest educational fad' and continue to do what they had always done.

However, other highly experienced teachers such as Ann, Beth and Fiona, did show interest in trying to understand Vygotskian explanations of teaching, learning and development and yet continuously grappled with how they could create and implement new teaching practices reflecting these theoretical principles. Kay and Mike, on the other hand, were openly disdainful of theory and yet managed to implement significant changes to their practice over the course of the project. While they refused to buy into the theoretical language presented in the PLZ sessions, they clearly seized upon the opportunity opened up by the project and

Ann's commitment to provoke and support change, to examine their current practice and make changes.

All of the above responses by the teachers show a difficulty with regarding theory/practice as a unified interrelationship, in which theory and practice mutually constitute and inform each other. As stated many times throughout this book, my intention was to always present theory in terms of its relationship to practice and vice versa, but for all the reasons outlined in the previous chapter, this proved almost impossible to achieve when the PLZ was, in both perception and reality, removed from the teachers' classroom practices.

This rather long quotation from Lenz Taguchi (2010) explains this common dilemma well:

> The dominant notion in the field of education is that there is a gap between what is understood as theory and practice. Theory and practice can also be said to constitute a binary opposition in the way we often think. For some this binary assumes the image of a visionary, rational, logical, clean and flawless theory, on the one hand; and on the other, a 'messy,' 'dirty,' disorderly practice, in need of being organised, cleaned up and saturated by the rationales and visions of theory. Proponents of the latter view would argue that the best and most appropriate theories should be applied to make practice better. If this is dominant thinking among many researchers and teacher educators, another line of thinking is sometimes just as dominant among practitioners. According to this line, practice constitutes a kind of truth in itself, based on unformulated, unwritten experiences and tacit knowledge, owned and embodied by the practitioners themselves. Proponents of this view would say that no theories can formulate and represent the truth of tacit knowledge in practice; therefore, what we need is to bring out that tacit truth from practice itself (Polanyi, 1997). What both of these notions fail to acknowledge is that practice is already and simultaneously theoretical and material, and that theory is totally dependent on experiences and fantasies of lived material practices. (p. 21)

Vygotsky's explanation of concept development, outlined in Chapter 1, helps us understand theory/practice as a dialectical unity in which both tacit knowledge obtained through everyday experience and consciously obtained academic or 'scientific' knowledge interweave and inform each other to create a 'unified' concept rich both in meaningful context and conscious awareness of how it can be generalised to other contexts. These are the types of concepts we must be aiming to develop with teachers in the institutional practice of professional development.

Smagorinsky et al. (2003) have shown that many graduate teachers leave their pre-service courses with complexes or pseudoconcepts, (pre-conceptual modes of thinking, as discussed in Chapter 5 of *Thinking and Speech* (Vygotsky, 1987)), rather than properly developed concepts of teaching, learning and development. They argue that the structure of teacher education institutions is often not conducive to the development of concepts and that only if these graduate teachers

happen to find themselves in an especially supportive and conducive work environment will they be able to effectively develop mature, unified concepts.

Likewise, Ellis (2011) has raised an interesting observation, arguing that often CHAT researchers take practitioners' everyday concepts of their work as the starting point for practice-development-research, rather than the possibility that practitioners may be working with "illogical or improperly organised categories of thinking." However, his comment that in this type of (poorly-informed) research "change becomes a matter of negotiating alternative concepts on a rational basis rather than as, possibly, the growth into concepts from the pre-conceptual" (p. 3), indicates that he is viewing everyday concepts as fully formed concepts (but formed through everyday experience), rather than, as Blunden (2012) continuously reminds us, as a particular *process* or particular line of concept *development.* So, while Ellis is in fact correct to say that researchers often need to work on helping practitioners to develop concepts from the pre-conceptual formations made from everyday practice, and that this is not a negotiation of an alternative concept, his premise for making this observation could be regarded as faulty if we take the view that everyday and scientific concepts are lines of concept development, not fully formed concepts in themselves.

However, I believe it is also important to acknowledge that many experienced teachers may indeed be working with well developed concepts that are based on alternative theories than those being presented in contemporary PD activities. For example, eight out of the twelve teachers at Banksia Bay completed their pre-service training before the early-mid 1990s and would not have learnt about Vygotsky's theories, but would instead have been taught Piaget's theories of child development. Their own current concepts of teaching/learning have therefore developed as the intertwining of the formally introduced Piagetian concepts and their everyday practical teaching experiences informed by these concepts. Surely it is possible that over considerable time and with considerable real-life experience and additional formal training that reinforced these concepts that at least some of these teachers have developed mature 'unified' concepts based on these theories?

Therefore, while Ellis and Smagorinsky et al. may be right in saying that many practitioners' development of concepts about teaching, learning and development are still at the complexive or pre-conceptual level, it should not be assumed that change does not ever involve the negotiation of alternative concepts, because, particularly in the cases of older and highly experienced teachers such as Liz, Deb and Kay, it often does. However, even then, new concepts do not simply replace old concepts but build upon existing concepts (Vygotsky, 1987), strengthening what is consistent and causing reinterpretation of what is contradictory. Liz in particular often tried to articulate to the group how the new ideas and terminology being presented in the PLZ sessions related to her previous understandings and terminology (see Chapter 3). Thus, a paradigm shift between different theoretical perspectives does not involve a complete replacement of old concepts, but rather utilises newly learned information to restructure and continue development of teachers' existing concepts until the concepts provide a more plausible, consistent and meaningful explanation for phenomena teachers see occurring in their practice.

Concepts, are therefore never fixed, but are continually open to development as advancements in knowledge (of both individuals and the field as a whole) occur.

Conceptual/Contextual

This pair of terms is used between the main themes of *theory/practice* and to signify that both conceptual and contextual intersubjectivity between teachers and the facilitator is required in order to effectively help teachers develop concepts that integrate theory/practice as a dialectical unity. Further explanation of these terms is provided in relation to intersubjectivity under the next heading.

Intersubjectivity

Analysis of the data relating to shared experience in the PLZ (see Chapter 3) highlighted the significance of two forms of intersubjectivity in effective professional development. Conceptual intersubjectivity occurs when participants understand each other's held concepts (at whatever stage of development they are at) (Fleer, 2010). They do not necessarily have to share or agree with the concepts held by each other, but they must at least have an understanding of the perspective of the other participant in order to achieve conceptual intersubjectivity. This conceptual intersubjectivity can only be achieved through interaction with each other, and is most effectively achieved through collaborative problem solving in joint activities where concepts are enacted, negotiated, co-constructed, debated and consequently developed (Tharp et al., 2000).

Contextual intersubjectivity occurs when participants have an understanding of the various social or institutional practices which each other participate in and which lead to the development of particular concepts (Fleer, 2010). Teachers develop concepts of child development not only through participating in formal training or reading contexts, but also through observation and practical experience with their students in the classroom, and also possibly with their own children and/or the children of relatives, neighbours and friends outside of the classroom. Each of these contexts provides the setting for social interactions in which we learn practical and theoretical knowledge that contributes to the development of 'unified' concepts that reflect the dialectical unity of theory/practice.

Obviously, the easiest way for all participants to develop contextual intersubjectivity is within a shared social practice. While I was hoping that the creation of the PLZ would be a suitable shared practice for developing contextual intersubjectivity, in reality, in the short number of sessions we had together, it was difficult to create and share enough suitable experiences to be able to discuss theoretical concepts in relation to our shared practice. Also, while I had assumed that teachers would be able to share incidents from their classroom practice as examples if we had been unable to create adequate shared experience, in actual fact the teachers found it very difficult to link the theoretical concepts introduced in the PLZ with their own classroom practices. As discussed in Chapter 3, not being

familiar with their individual classrooms, I was unable to effectively provide prompts to help them.

Hedegaard (2002) refers to this linking of theoretical learning and thinking with situated learning and thinking as 'The Double Move' in teaching. In this approach, teachers choose situated problems that have meaning for the students but which also incorporate the central concepts of the subject matter being introduced. Through engaging in solving these situated problems (with the assistance of the teacher and others) the students acquire understanding of the system of concepts and are then able to use this to find and solve their own problems in the subject area. The teacher must create and guide the learning activity by understanding the perspective of what the students will find interesting and meaningful in relation to their everyday lives, but also keeping in mind the subject-matter concepts and methods that they want the students to acquire. Obviously, to take this double perspective requires the teacher's deep knowledge of both the subject area and the students' everyday contexts and concepts, (i.e., intersubjectivity).

Although I was aiming to create the 'Double Move' approach in the PLZ, my lack of understanding of the teachers' everyday contexts and concepts made it very difficult for me to choose appropriate problem situations that could effectively link the teachers' situated knowledge with the theoretical concepts that I was introducing. However, the higher level of discussion that occurred in PLZ 6 after the majority of participants (including me) had attended the Walker Learning Approach seminar provides a good example of the positive benefits of shared experience for creating both conceptual and contextual intersubjectivity.

Process/Content

This pair of terms is used between the main themes of *intersubjectivity* and *shared authority* to signify that, in order to effectively create these two main conditions, both the process *and* the content of the professional development practice must be collaboratively created by the teachers and the facilitator. Further explanation of these terms is provided in relation to shared authority under the next heading.

Shared Authority

I have found Oyler's (1996) description of shared authority between teacher and students a useful concept for describing the collaborative nature of learning interactions in the ZPD, and (remembering that the PLZ is actually a professional learning ZPD) is therefore equally applicable to the collaborative interactions between facilitator and teacher participants. I could just as easily have used any of the terms: *obuchenie* (as described in Chapter 1), collaborative improvisation (Sawyer, 2004b, 2006) or joint productive activity (Dalton & Tharp, 2002) to describe this collaborative interaction between teacher and students or facilitator and participants. However, I discovered that the Banksia Bay teachers actively resisted using these unfamiliar terms and struggled to understand the alternative notion of teaching/learning that they represented, because they would not engage

with the terminology. When I came across Oyler's book a few months after the conclusion of the PLZ, I realised that her description of shared authority was exactly the idea I was trying to get across to the Banksia Bay teachers, but in much more accessible terminology.

Teachers are already familiar with thinking that they need to be *in* authority in the classroom, so while the notion of *sharing* that authority requires substantial rethinking of the *nature* of the teacher/student relationship, at least the terminology is still familiar, making the concept accessible for teachers to engage with. Moreover, Oyler's recognition of the two dimensions of authority provides a simple tool to deal with thinking about the complex nature of teaching:

> As Peters (1966) noted: A teacher is *an* authority regarding some aspect of culture and is *in* authority to accomplish the task of teaching. Essentially, the former side of authority is a content dimension – what counts as knowledge and who is a "knower"; whereas the latter is more of a process dimension – controlling the flow of traffic and of talk in the classroom. … These, of course, are interwoven and interdependent. (Oyler, 1996, p. 21)

Oyler also recognised that if teachers could *have* authority in both of these dimensions then, logically, authority in both of these dimensions could also be *shared*. Thus, the one concept of shared authority allows teachers to reconsider their (and their students') role in both *what* is learnt and *how* it is learnt; challenging teachers to allow students to share in decision making in both of these dimensions.

This notion of shared authority is equally as applicable in a professional development practice organised according to cultural-historical principles as it is in a classroom teaching practice, and requires just as significant a rethink of the nature of the facilitator-participant relationship that is typical in most PD activities. My intention in setting up the PLZ was to act as a collaborative participant with the teachers to co-construct new understandings and practices. While I acknowledged that I had theoretical knowledge that the teachers did not share, I in no way saw myself as an authority on how these theoretical ideas should be implemented in a classroom. I was curious to see not only *what,* but also *how,* we would be able to collaboratively create innovative practices and felt that I would be learning at least as much as the teachers would by participating in the process. I would share what I knew, but equally allow the teachers to share what they knew and to be involved in creating the process of how we would do this.

However, the change in the nature of the PLZ that occurred when I agreed to work with the whole staff of one school cast me in the familiar role of a visiting expert lecturing at a staff meeting. This initially made it difficult to renegotiate a different and unfamiliar set of expectations where authority would be shared amongst all participants rather than reside with me as the facilitator. Over time the teachers did begin to realise that this professional development activity required *a new way of participating* and it is interesting that Ann has been able to continue to extend this sharing of authority in professional development meetings beyond the length of the project (see Chapter 3).

Imagination/Agency

This pair of terms is used between the main themes of *shared authority* and *theory/practice* to signify that both imagination and agency are required to collaboratively share authority to create educational innovations that are effective instantiations of theory/practice. The importance of this imagination/agency relationship became particularly clear through analysis of the data collected during the teachers' collaborative discussion about Ian's plan to create a unit of work inspired by the Melbourne Cup (see Chapter 3). Ian's imagination of what he could do in the unit to try and incorporate the theoretical features we were discussing was being stifled by a lack of agency for creating his own curriculum. He was evidently unused to creating his own curriculum units and usually relied on implementing the pre-planned units that the staff had developed over several years to follow the VELS curriculum. As the more experienced teachers' started to make increasingly imaginative suggestions, Ian and Jen became more and more uncomfortable and resistant to moving away from the VELS guidelines. As Kemmis and Smith (2008) point out, the current political/social climate has encouraged rule following rather than professional agency:

> What is at stake when practice becomes rule following is the *moral agency* of the educator. At some point, hemmed in by rules, the educator may become no more than an *operative* of some system – the organisation they work in. This distinction between being an agent and being an operative is at the heart of our concern for educational practice and *praxis.* Our capacity to live with, live by, interpret, extend and sometimes creatively trouble or avoid the rules of organisations is one of the things that give us our identities as educators. (p. 5)

The data collected at Banksia Bay certainly indicated that many of the younger teachers viewed themselves as operatives rather than agents, so a major goal of the PLZ was to try and get teachers to challenge this identity. Floden and Chang (2007) use the metaphor of a jazz score to suggest that policy and curriculum documents should be regarded as providing an overall structure or guideline for what must be taught, but also allow significant flexibility for teachers to improvise their performance and express their creativity within this given structure. As discussed in the previous chapter, the experienced teachers at Banksia Bay had no trouble regarding the policy documents from this perspective and were clearly delighted that Ann was giving them sanction to re-embrace this attitude towards policy. In contrast, the graduate teachers seemed to see policy documents as a script they had to follow without deviation and were confused by the (perceived) conflict between mandated policy and professional creativity.

In the current political climate of many Western countries (e.g., United States, United Kingdom and Australia), standards-based curricular policy is increasingly regarded as a mandated script, and consequently teachers' creativity is severely stifled and constrained (Floden & Chang, 2007; Sawyer, 2004a). Teachers in these systems are treated as technicians who implement the provided curriculum, rather

than as agentive professionals who create curriculum. Floden and Chang's jazz score metaphor (regarding teachers as interpreters of a given structure) is an attempt to find a balance between complete freedom (regarding teachers as composers) and total regulation (regarding teachers as script readers).

This balanced approach is what Ann was trying to advocate at Banksia Bay. She acknowledged that there were government policies they were compelled to operate within, but she also insisted that teachers are capable of making professional decisions about how these policies can best be implemented to meet their students' needs. The practice of professional development thus needed to provide the necessary support and structure for teachers to utilise not only their agency (their capacity to control their own actions), but also their imagination, to create new possibilities for practice.

According to Vygotsky's conceptualisation of imagination, as discussed in Chapter 1, new creations are always combinations of ideas drawn from previous experiences or knowledge of others' reported experiences. Therefore, innovations in practice can occur when teachers are introduced to new theoretical ideas or reports of others' pedagogical strategies and then combine these ideas with their own previous experiences to create novel approaches that can be realised in concrete practice. This is what Ian was attempting to do, but he still had difficulty accepting that the policy actually allowed him to share some authority for making these curricular decisions. It took significant support from Ann and his colleagues to exercise his agency and imagination to develop and implement new practices.

Agency and imagination are not only necessary for creating changes in practice, but also for the further development of theory. As discussed earlier in the section describing theory/practice, theoretical concepts are not fixed but are always open to further development as new knowledge comes to light. For this reason, Blaise (2006) argues that teachers should be positioned as 'theory makers' who critically question and wonder about a range of ideas drawn from formal and informal sources, trying out and reflecting on the success of various strategies and explanations to develop understandings of what is most appropriate for the particular students in their own care.

Teachers at Banksia Bay clearly did participate in this type of theory making (e.g., in the P-2 team's trial, adaption and critique of aspects of the Walker Learning Approach), although this type of activity was rarely consciously recognised or regarded as being associated with theory. In hindsight, I could have done much more to make the teachers consciously aware that the types of discussion about practice generated in the PLZ were in fact just as much about theory. Although I constantly challenged teachers' perceptions of theory as irrelevant to practice, and encouraged them to think critically about different theories and policies to work out for themselves the explanations that made most sense for them in their particular situation, I realise now that I missed the opportunity to explicitly point out that this was in fact 'theory making' and that this was not the sole preserve of researchers or academics. In other words, while the PLZ encouraged agency and imagination to co-construct new understandings of existing theory and to utilise these in the creation of new practice, it did not reach a

level of development that encouraged agency for teachers to *consciously* reposition themselves simultaneously as makers of new theory (even though, referring back to the Lenz Taguchi (2010) quotation given earlier, when practice is seen as inherently theoretical and vice-versa, this is actually inevitable – yet often remains mostly unconscious).

For this reason, imagination and agency are placed on the diagram between the elements of *shared authority* and *theory/practice* not only because they are required in the creation of the link between these elements, but also because it is each of these elements that provide the necessary support for teachers to utilise imagination and agency. That is, shared authority between policy developers, researchers and practitioners allows for unique innovations to be created that instantiate the theory/practice unity in the teachers' own particular context; while shared authority between facilitators and teachers allows for the mutual sharing of both theoretical and practical knowledge and skills, enabling development of teachers' conscious awareness of their capacity for acting and theorising in newly imagined ways.

REPRESENTING THE INSTITUTIONAL PRACTICE OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The triangular diagram provided in Figure 4.1, and explained in the sections above, represents the necessary conditions for interactions between teachers and facilitator that analysis of the PLZ suggests are important for effective professional development. However, professional development does not take place in a vacuum, and it is important to represent the other elements in the broader context that also affect the institutional practice of professional development. Traditional PD that occurs outside of teachers' classroom practice is represented in Figure 4.2, but the following notes must be read in accompaniment with the figure:

Accompanying notes:

- Teacher circle includes: Values, Beliefs, Understandings, Skills, Experiences, Interests – i.e., professional identity
- Environment includes : Societal expectations, Government policies, Registration requirements, Principal's vision and directives, Institutional traditions, Parental expectations, Students' needs and interests, Colleagues skills and interests, Exposure to new ideas from access to research and new personnel, Available facilities, resources and time etc.
- This environment actually also encompasses the teacher, the PD and the teacher's practice (represented by the solid rectangular border). Therefore the teacher, environment and practice are not actually separate from each other (hence the broken lines to show they each intermingle and co-constitute each other) but it is impossible to represent them otherwise.
- The Social Situation of Development is created in the interactions between the teacher and the environment.
- Motives for attending PD also arise in the interaction between the teacher and the environment. There are three possible motives for attending PD:

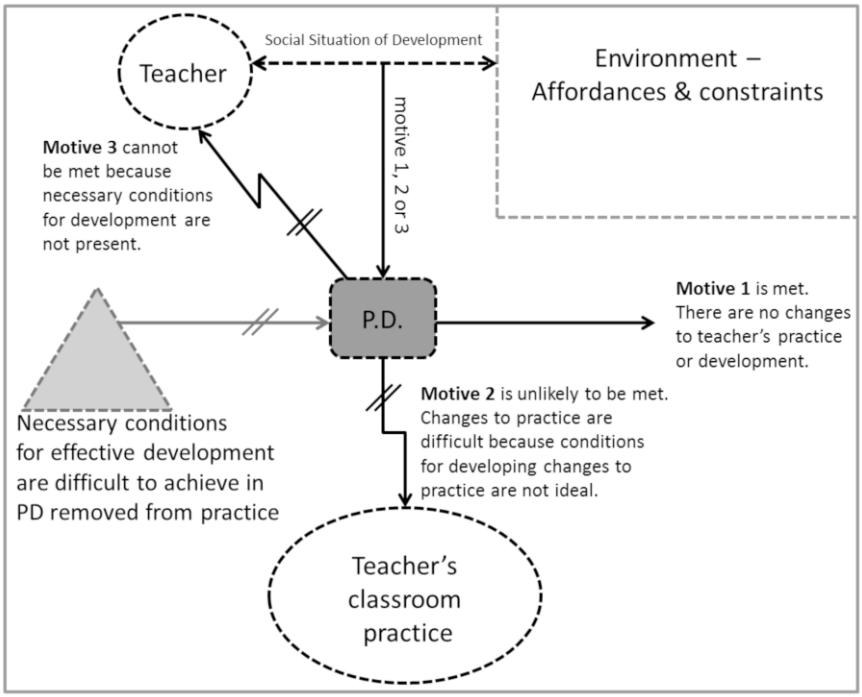

Figure 4.2 Model 1 – Traditional PD occurring outside teachers' practice.

Motive 1: To merely attend the PD – to meet registration requirements, because they have been directed to by the principal, to have a day off school, to get a free lunch, to hear favourite speaker etc.
Motive 2: To change practice – desire to improve student learning, dissatisfaction or boredom with current practice, interest in new innovation etc.
Motive 3: To develop as a professional – which includes developing competences and motives to transform the way they participate in and contribute to all of their professional practices (see Chapter 1 and Figure 1.1).

It would appear from analysis of the video data that many of the Banksia Bay teachers attended the PLZ with Motive 1. That is, they appeared to be there only because the principal had told them they had to attend weekly staff professional development meetings. While some teachers' utilisation of the provided resources, games and activities that could be photocopied or used directly in their classrooms indicated that they also *hoped* I would provide them with material that would be useful in their practice – it was primarily the principal's expectation that they attend, rather than this faint hope of usefulness, that actually made them turn up to

the sessions. Therefore, mere attendance met the motive and there was no necessity for anyone to actually make any changes to their practice in order to meet this motive.

On the other hand, Beth expressed a very clear motive to change her practice, which had primarily emerged through the new demands placed on her with the P-2 team's move into the open-plan BER building and the expectations of the principal and regional consultancy team to create a new pedagogy. However, the necessary conditions to help Beth achieve successful changes in practice, as identified in the triangular model (Figure 4.1) and represented in Figure 4.2 as the shaded triangle, were extremely difficult to create when the PLZ occurred outside of the teachers' classroom practice.

Although Mike was able to share changes he had made in his practice during the PLZ sessions, and several other teachers have since made significant changes (particularly Kay and Jen as the 5/6 team), I have suggested in Chapter 3 that these were primarily due to the changes in the *process* of professional development established in the PLZ, rather than the actual *content* of the material presented in the sessions. In other words, while the collaborative and long-term nature of the PLZ (which was considerably different to a traditional one-off PD workshop or seminar; the typical form of PD attended by these teachers) has shown benefits for some teachers, analysis of the data highlighted several factors that would need to be addressed in order to successfully meet either Motives 2 or 3 for the majority of teachers involved.

The problems highlighted by analysis of the Phase 1 data (as discussed in Chapter 3) all relate to the fact that the PLZ was outside of the teachers' actual classroom practice. Several teachers identified this problem themselves in the evaluation activity in PLZ 5, stating that they needed to *see* how the theory worked in a classroom, because they could not work out how they were supposed to apply the theoretical ideas in practice. My argument that this is exactly what the aim of the project was, to work it out together, met with a cold reception because this did not meet the teachers' expectations of what PD was (i.e., to listen to an expert who has already worked it out and can tell them exactly what they need to do).

Although I had implemented as many of the suggestions found in the literature around professional learning as possible, that is, ensuring that the PLZ was ongoing, collaborative, school-based, reflective, focused on improving student learning, research-based, etc. (Hawley & Valli, 1999; Hoban, 2002; Leadership and Teacher Development Branch, 2005), these features, although an improvement on traditional one-off, out-of-school PD seminars, were still not enough to *create the necessary conditions* for effective professional development. By analysing the PLZ data using a cultural-historical conceptualisation of development it became apparent that the missing factor seemed to be *joint activity* between facilitator and teacher *within* the teacher's classroom practice, so that the necessary intersubjectivity, shared authority and links between theory and practice could be created and sustained.

Subsequently, I developed a new model (Figure 4.3) to show this proposed change to the practice of professional development:

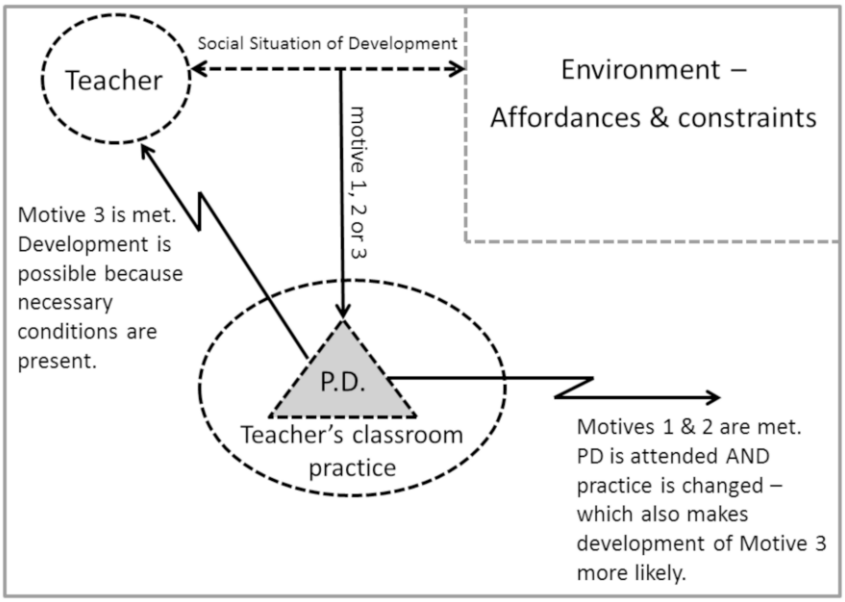

Figure 4.3 Proposed new practice of professional development showing PD occurring as joint activity within teacher's practice.

Building upon Model 1 (Figure 4.2), and referring to the same explanations, this new model proposes that moving PD activity to inside a teacher's classroom practice not only increases the likelihood that the necessary conditions for effective development could be created (as in Figure 4.1), but also increases the likelihood that all three of the possible motives for participating in PD could be met. For example, if the teacher's motive was just to attend the PD because of a direction from the principal or to meet registration requirements (Motive 1), then this motive would still be met, but at the same time there would be changes occurring in the classroom practice (because the facilitator is in the classroom causing change), thus meeting Motive 2 and potentially helping to develop Motive 3 (to develop as a professional) if the teacher recognises the value of the changes and wishes to sustain and continue to develop them (Guskey, 2002).

Analysis of the PLZ data in relation to cultural-historical concepts of development and motives therefore suggested that professional development activity designed in accordance with this new model may be more effective in achieving change, and thus, could be considered a development of the institutional practice of professional development. After showing the proposed model to several principals (including Ann), who agreed that it was theoretically sound, Phase 2 of this project was devised and implemented to bring this abstract idea to a concrete reality in order to see if the changes I was suggesting really could help develop the institutional practice of professional development.