

This file is part of the following work:

Biancotti, Stefanie Joy (2018) *Implementation of national History and Geography curriculum initiatives by a regional Queensland secondary social science department: actants, agency, and curriculum change*. PhD thesis, James Cook University.

Access to this file is available from:

<https://doi.org/10.4225/28/5b19b1f403e1f>

Copyright © 2018 Stefanie Joy Biancotti.

The author has certified to JCU that they have made a reasonable effort to gain permission and acknowledge the owner of any third party copyright material included in this document. If you believe that this is not the case, please email researchonline@jcu.edu.au

Every reasonable effort has been made to gain permission and acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.

**Implementation of National History and Geography
Curriculum Initiatives by a Regional Queensland
Secondary Social Science Department:
Actants, Agency, and Curriculum Change**

Stefanie Joy Biancotti

Graduate Certificate of Research Methods
Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts
(Geography/History)

*Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy*

College of Arts, Society and Education
James Cook University, Australia

February 2018

Statement of access

I, the undersigned, the author of this work, understand that James Cook University will make it available for use within the University Library and, via the Australian Digital Thesis network, for use elsewhere. I understand that, as an unpublished work, a thesis has significant protection under the Copyright Act and I do not wish to place any further restriction on access to this work.

Signature

Date:

Name: Stefanie Biancotti

Statement of sources

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Signature:

Date:

Name: Stefanie Biancotti

Statement of ethics

Ethical approval was granted for this research study by The Department of Education, Training and The Arts on August 30, 2012. Ethical approval was also granted by the James Cook University Ethics Review Committee on October 4, 2012.

Statement of the contribution of others

I would firstly like to acknowledge the guidance, supervision and support provided by Associate Professor Maree Dinan-Thompson and Dr. Kelsey Halbert, without whom this research project would not have been possible. I would also like to acknowledge the contributions of Associate Professor Michelle Lasen during the early stages of this thesis. I would also like to acknowledge and thank the case study school and its staff for taking the time to participate in this research study, and for making available a place to conduct the interviews. Finally, I would like to acknowledge the research support provided by the James Cook University Higher Degree Research Enhancement Scheme 2017 and the James Cook University Library Info Help Support Team.

Signature.....

Date:

Name: Stefanie Biancotti

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge my husband (Wayne Biancotti) and our children (Jarred Biancotti and Alyssa Biancotti) for their continual love and support throughout the writing of my thesis.

I would also like to acknowledge my parents (Kenneth Duncan and Pamela Dickenson), sister (Yvette Duncan) and my parent-in-laws (Sergio Biancotti and Linda Biancotti) for their encouragement.

Abstract

Schools are currently experiencing a dynamic period of curriculum change as a result of the transition to the Australian Curriculum. This study investigates the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography by a junior secondary school department (Years 7–10) in regional Far North Queensland. It explores the Australian Curriculum implementation processes and outcomes within one Social Science department, through a case study methodology (Yin, 2003). Actor Network Theory (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010) was utilised as the theoretical framework for this research. The Actor Network theoretical framework identified the human actants (including lead researcher, teachers, and administrators) and non-human actants (such as textbooks and timetables) in the curriculum translation network, and how the interactions between them shape the network and its processes. This thesis explores the historical context of curriculum change, maps the network of curriculum actants, and the enabling and constraining factors in actants' engagement and agency during the implementation. The researcher, who was also the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator, utilised observations, interview and survey data to provide insights into the ways in which teachers shape their own professional practices in response to curriculum change. The thesis highlights how the agency and engagement of various actants (whether human or non-human) can fluctuate at times within the network. It also highlights how curriculum change is a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous in nature. The ubiquitous nature can be identified in its pervasiveness into networks (human and non-human), and is continual across teacher years. The thesis concludes by discussing some of the implications for discrete History and Geography disciplines, support of teachers during curriculum change, the role of teacher agency in such change, and the way forward for teacher professional development.

Contents

| | |
|---|-----|
| Statement of access..... | 3 |
| Statement of sources..... | 4 |
| Statement of ethics..... | 5 |
| Statement of the contribution of others..... | 6 |
| Acknowledgements..... | 7 |
| Abstract..... | 8 |
| List of Figures..... | 13 |
| List of Tables..... | 14 |
| 1.0 Introduction..... | 15 |
| 1.1 Researcher positioning..... | 16 |
| 1.2 Research problem..... | 18 |
| 1.3 Research foci..... | 20 |
| 1.4 Chapter summary..... | 21 |
| 2.0 Literature review..... | 22 |
| 2.1 Curriculum context..... | 22 |
| 2.1.1 Definitions of curriculum..... | 22 |
| 2.1.2 Curriculum stakeholders..... | 31 |
| 2.1.3 Curriculum change..... | 37 |
| 2.2 Historical development of curriculum (SOSE)..... | 45 |
| 2.2.1 Rationale for a multidisciplinary offering..... | 49 |
| 2.3 The return to stand-alone disciplines..... | 55 |
| 2.3.1 The return to a stand-alone History discipline..... | 57 |
| 2.3.2 The return to a stand-alone Geography discipline..... | 68 |
| 2.4 ACARA..... | 72 |
| 2.5 Chapter summary..... | 73 |
| 3.0 Current shape and emphases of curriculum..... | 75 |
| 3.1 Recent curriculum emphases in teaching History..... | 75 |
| 3.1.1 Australian curriculum overview: History..... | 77 |
| 3.2 Recent curriculum emphases in the teaching of Geography..... | 82 |
| 3.2.1 Australian curriculum overview: Geography..... | 87 |
| 3.3 Australian curriculum implementation..... | 89 |
| 3.4 Australian curriculum review..... | 92 |
| 3.5 Curriculum organisation and pedagogical framework..... | 107 |
| 3.5.1 Examination of the structure of the SOSE KLA with History and Geography curriculum..... | 108 |
| 3.5.2 History and Geography curriculum organisational processes..... | 110 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 3.6 Queensland context for schools—enacting curriculum..... | 114 |
| 3.7 Pedagogical framework: Explicit instruction | 116 |
| 3.8 Chapter summary..... | 127 |
| 4.0 Methodology | 129 |
| 4.1 Theoretical framework | 131 |
| 4.1.1 Defining teacher agency | 136 |
| 4.1.2 Process of translation | 140 |
| 4.1.3 Problematization..... | 142 |
| 4.1.4 Interestment | 143 |
| 4.1.5 Enrolment | 144 |
| 4.1.6 Mobilisation | 146 |
| 4.1.7 ANT and the process of translation | 147 |
| 4.2 Case study | 149 |
| 4.3 Phases of research within the case study approach..... | 152 |
| 4.4 School context | 153 |
| 4.5 Department context | 155 |
| 4.6 Myself as the researcher | 157 |
| 4.7 Start of transition to change | 160 |
| 4.8 Data sources | 162 |
| 4.8.1 Researcher observations | 162 |
| 4.8.2 Interview data | 163 |
| 4.8.3 Surveys | 166 |
| 4.8.4 Documents | 167 |
| 4.9 Process of data analysis | 168 |
| 4.10 Delimitations of the study | 170 |
| 4.11 Chapter summary | 172 |
| 5.0 The process of change and the network | 174 |
| 5.1 Translation process | 177 |
| 5.1.1 Problematization..... | 178 |
| 5.1.2 Interestment | 185 |
| 5.1.3 Enrolment: Belonging to History and Geography..... | 201 |
| 5.1.4 Mobilisation | 209 |
| 5.2 Issues affecting translation | 212 |
| 5.3 Shift away from SOSE | 213 |
| 5.4 Rise in status of discrete disciplines..... | 216 |
| 5.5 Western high school early adopters and the power of audits | 218 |
| 5.6 Improving data with implementation | 221 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 5.7 Chapter summary..... | 223 |
| 6.0 Constraints and enablers of implementation at Western High School | 225 |
| 6.1 Specialist teachers..... | 225 |
| 6.2 Professional development | 231 |
| 6.3 Time | 236 |
| 6.4 Resourcing the curriculum | 251 |
| 6.5 Ownership of new program..... | 255 |
| 6.6 Middle management..... | 258 |
| 6.7 Technologies as actants | 259 |
| 6.8 Explicit instruction..... | 261 |
| 6.9 Chapter summary..... | 265 |
| 7.0 Teacher’s agency in curriculum change..... | 268 |
| 7.1 Illustrations of teacher agency..... | 268 |
| 7.1.1 Structures and hierarchies | 269 |
| 7.1.2 Disciplinary identities and teacher agency..... | 271 |
| 7.1.3 Teacher agency and the materiality of teachers’ work | 277 |
| 7.2 Collaboration, collegiality, and collective agency..... | 279 |
| 7.3 Chapter summary..... | 287 |
| 8.0 Conclusion | 290 |
| 8.1 Case summary | 290 |
| 8.2 Summary of findings | 292 |
| 8.2.1 The extent of alignment..... | 292 |
| 8.2.2 Exploration of the implementation process..... | 293 |
| 8.2.3 The major enablers and constraints..... | 294 |
| 8.2.4 The social science teachers’ agency | 295 |
| 8.3 Limitations of this study | 297 |
| 8.4 Implications..... | 298 |
| 8.4.1 Implications for curriculum change at the school level | 298 |
| 8.4.2 Implications for fostering teacher agency..... | 301 |
| 8.4.3 Implications for History and Geography | 304 |
| 8.4.4 Implications for Actor Network Theory | 305 |
| 8.5 Considerations for further research..... | 306 |
| 8.6 Significance of the study and summary..... | 307 |
| 9.0 Epilogue | 309 |
| References | 311 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Appendix | 360 |
| Appendix 1: Pedagogical framework | 360 |
| Appendix 2: Strategic Plan 2013-2017 | 361 |
| Appendix 3: Teacher interview schedule..... | 362 |
| Appendix 4: Administration interview schedule | 363 |
| Appendix 5: Teacher survey | 364 |
| Appendix 6: Administration survey..... | 365 |

List of Figures

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 1: The integrated nature of SOSE..... | 50 |
| Figure 2: Timeline for release of social science curriculum into the classroom resources | 118 |
| Figure 3: Sixteen elements of explicit instruction..... | 121 |
| Figure 4: Six teaching functions of explicit instruction | 122 |
| Figure 5: Six principles of effective explicit instruction..... | 122 |
| Figure 6: Explicit instruction sequence at western high school for a typical lesson..... | 124 |
| Figure 7: A sample explicit instruction lesson from Western High School in Year 8 Geography | 125 |
| Figure 8: Diagram of the actants of the network..... | 188 |
| Figure 9: History/Geography unit development process | 206 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 1: A comparison of social science delivery across Years 7-12 for Australian states and territories 2008... | 55 |
| Table 2: Time allocations for humanities and social science learning areas | 80 |
| Table 3: Time allocation for the social sciences learning areas (learning areas other than history)..... | 80 |
| Table 4: Development timeline of the Australian curriculum geography documents | 89 |
| Table 5: Comparison of implementation schedule between Queensland and New South Wales | 91 |
| Table 6: Key disciplinary organisers in SOSE KLA, year 10 guidelines and ACARA | 109 |
| Table 7: Topics covered under the Year 7 to Year 10 Australian Curriculum History | 112 |
| Table 8: Topics covered under the Year 7 to Year 10 Australian Curriculum Geography..... | 113 |
| Table 9: Australian Curriculum implementation schedule | 114 |
| Table 10: QSA advice on time allocations to aid timetabling decisions | 115 |
| Table 11: Total percentage of time allocations | 115 |

1.0 Introduction

This research seeks to investigate the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography by a junior secondary school department (Years 7–10) in regional Far North Queensland. It explores the Australian Curriculum implementation processes and outcomes within one Social Science department, through a case study methodology (Yin, 2003). Actor Network Theory (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010) was utilised as the theoretical framework for this research. The network comprised, in part, the researcher, who was the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator, Social Science faculty members (teachers), and school administrators. However, Actor Network Theory (ANT) goes beyond examining the interactions between human actants alone to include those between human and non-human actants. In this research context, the non-human actants included textbooks, timetables, Australian Curriculum documents for History and Geography (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA), 2012a), online auditing tools provided by the Queensland Studies Authority (Queensland Studies Authority (QSA), 2012b), teacher timetables, and textbooks. Adoption of ANT, combined with a case study methodology allowed for an examination of how the network emerged and evolved over time in the common pursuit of a successful History and Geography curriculum implementation. This research therefore examined the different aspects of the network's membership, the interactions and actions between the members (human and non-human) during the different phases of curriculum implementation, and the outcomes of such interaction.

The data collection for this case took place during 2011 and 2012. It was a very dynamic context within which to observe the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Australian Curriculum Geography due to the school's relocation of Year 7 to the secondary

school; History and Geography supplanting Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE); and the regional emphasis from Education Queensland in terms of pedagogical practices (explicit teaching, differentiation, and literacy). This research could potentially provide insight for other schools that are undergoing such curriculum changes, as it identifies factors that enabled or constrained the implementation process. This research may also be useful in highlighting such enablers or constraints for consideration by governing education organisations so as to understand and ease the transition to further stages of the Australian Curriculum implementation. The findings of this research study will be very significant given the evolving educational context.

1.1 Researcher positioning

At the time of this research I was teaching at the school selected for this case study. Therefore, at times I utilise first person pronouns and verbs for ease of readability.

I approached this research conscious of my own position as a secondary school teacher with 14 years' teaching experience and a disciplinary background in Geography and History. In 2003 I completed my Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts with majors in Geography and History. In 2009 I completed my Graduate Certificate of Research Methods. At the time of the research I was sharing the Head of Department role for English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy and was also the Subject Area Coordinator for a year and a half until the Head of Department relinquished the position to take up a similar position at another state high school. At that stage a new acting Head of Department was appointed, and I returned to working as a secondary school teacher. During my time as the Head of Department I was able to assist the school with leading curriculum change, and as a member of the Social Science teaching staff I

assisted with the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography within the classroom, and also provided input into collaborative planning of future units. However, since the data was collected I have taken up a Head of Department position at a different secondary state high school.

My position at the case study school gave me an insider's understanding of the curriculum change process. Due to my position as Social Science Subject Area Coordinator and shared acting Head of Department I also needed to be aware of the networks associated with such positions and the implications this would have on the process of curriculum change i.e., assumedly the power associated with the position of a Head of Department was more influential than that of a secondary school teacher. Placing distance between myself and the context has enabled me to critically reflect on my own power and agency during the research phase of this study.

My motivation for conducting this study was shaped by my own personal and professional background. As a school student I studied the discrete disciplines of History and Geography and went on to study Ancient History, Modern History and Geography in Years 11 and 12 before electing to study majors in History and Geography at university. When I started teaching I struggled with the multidisciplinary approach of Studies of Society and Environment, commonly known as SOSE. I saw this research as an opportunity to see how the other teachers in the case study school perceived the impending shift away from SOSE towards the discrete History and Geography disciplines. I also wanted to investigate what the Social Science teachers thought were enablers and constraints for curriculum implementation within our school, in order to address these issues with our line manager, and to improve the implementation process. Finally, I wanted to create more opportunities to promote the use of

collaborative planning and discussions around schoolwide pedagogy within my faculty and other faculties at the school, as a means to increase collegiality amongst all staff.

In prior research undertaken as part of my Graduate Certificate of Research Methods (Biancotti, 2009), Head of Departments (HODs) were interviewed in the same regional Queensland city in order to understand their perceptions regarding the impact of the Australian Curriculum in terms of the implementation of a stand-alone History curriculum in Phase One and a stand-alone Geography curriculum as part of Phase Two. The key findings included a discussion of the value of SOSE as opposed to discrete Social Science disciplines (although one HOD questioned the replacement of the SOSE discipline); the lack of specialist teacher expertise and professional development for existing staff; the lack of access and funding for aligned resources; the impact on timetabling given a potentially staggered implementation of History and Geography; the implications for student engagement if History was made compulsory to Year 10; and the level of transferability of units framed around the Queensland Studies Authority Essential Learnings. This doctoral project therefore expanded on my previous research to examine how teachers were interacting with such dynamic curriculum change due to the staggered implementation of the national curriculum for Humanities/Social Sciences.

1.2 Research problem

The research problem that was identified as worthy of investigation might be called ‘epistemological’ in the sense that there was a problem that needed to be solved by means of knowing and understanding the situation (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). It was epistemological because it has to do with understanding the knowledge and beliefs of the agents involved. It

also attempted to unpack how agents come to know and see themselves, and the curriculum, in the case study school. The epistemologies that inform my way of viewing knowledge are from social constructivism, which aligns with ANT. For example, my own personal and professional identity was shaped by my disciplinary background in both History and Geography and the teaching experiences I had within, and prior to, my employment at the case study school.

The research problem examined in this study was:

What is enabling and/or constraining actants' engagement and agency during the implementation of Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department in a regional Queensland secondary state school?

Actants are “something that acts or to which activity is granted by others [actants]... an actant can literally be anything provided it is granted to be the source of an action” (Latour, 1996, p. 374). Human actants may include teachers and administrators, while non-human actants may include: textbooks; teacher timetables; Australian Curriculum documents; technology; and facilities. Agency is an “effect of different forces, including actions, desires and capacities and connections that move through her [him], as well as the forces exerted by the texts and technologies in all educational encounters” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 21). More specifically, the agency of human actants denotes the effect of forces and desires to influence action, while the agency of non-human actants highlights their capacity to influence action through their various connections and interactions. Engagement may involve the translation of activities, actions and interactions, the formation of networks, and the investigation of enablers and constraints to implementation during the process of transition from SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 Guidelines to an Australian Curriculum.

The research problem might also be considered ‘existential’ as implementing a national curriculum creates perplexity as to how best to execute it, resource it, and up-skill the teachers who are expected to teach it. An ‘existential’ research problem was defined as one which “puzzles, us, troubles us or causes us ‘hassles’... a situation that presents perplexity or difficulty” (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 42).

The purpose of this research was to therefore investigate actants’ engagement in the implementation of the national History and Geography curricula at Western High School¹, a regional Queensland state high school. It adopts an Actor Network theoretical framework (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010) to identify the human actants (including the lead researcher, teachers and administrators) and non-human actants in the curriculum translation network and how the interactions between them shaped the network and its processes.

1.3 Research foci

The focus of this research was to:

- Examine the extent of alignment of SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines with the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.
- Explore the curriculum implementation processes involved, including the reviewing, planning, and implementation of actions undertaken by the school’s Social Science department during the implementation phase of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

¹ *Western High* is a pseudonym to maintain the anonymity of the school.

- Investigate the major enablers and constraints to the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department, in a regional Queensland state high school.
- Investigate the Social Science teachers' agency and associated themes during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

1.4 Chapter summary

This chapter provided an overview of the research problem, significance, and foci. Chapter Two the Literature Review, defines the curriculum and outlines contested areas surrounding the chosen curriculum. It then provides an overview of the development and nature of the move towards and away from the integrated Social Science offerings. Chapter Three compares the curriculum organisation and structure of the SOSE Key Learning Area (state curriculum initiative), Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines, and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography, before examining the Australian Curriculum review and the school's pedagogical framework. Chapter Four outlines the chosen methodology, theoretical framework, and limitations of this research project. Chapter Five discusses the process of curriculum translation and its various phases in relation to the case study school, while Chapter Six examines the enablers and constraints of curriculum implementation. Chapter Seven discusses teachers' agency during curriculum change, and the collaboration, collegiality and collective agency of teachers. Chapter Eight broadly outlines my conclusions in relation to the research problem and foci, and discusses some considerations for further research. Finally, Chapter Nine provides a brief epilogue to this study.

2.0 Literature review

This chapter discusses the various definitions of curriculum and how these understandings have been shaped over time, including an examination of the nature of SOSE and the rationales behind moving to and away from multidisciplinary offerings. To begin, a discussion of the curriculum context will be undertaken before considering key stakeholders (human actants) in curriculum development and curriculum change. The discussion draws on educational journals and textbooks, government websites and Australian Curriculum publications (non-human actants), as they will assist in the examination and analysis of the data collected in this study.

2.1 Curriculum context

2.1.1 Definitions of curriculum

The term ‘curriculum’ has multiple definitions and these are often highly contested. Developments in curriculum theory since the 1980s have further expanded this contentious domain. According to Portelli (1987), there are over 120 definitions provided for curriculum. The Latin root for the term ‘curriculum’ means “racecourse... [as] for many students, the school curriculum is a race to be run, a series of obstacles or hurdles (subjects) to be passed” (Marsh, 2008a, p. 3). Historically, the term ‘curriculum’ was used to describe subjects taught during the classical period of Greek civilisation (Marsh, 2008a). Yates and Grumet (2011) suggest that the term ‘curriculum’ is ambiguous because it:

Encompasses different kinds of focus, including policy statements at the overarching level; curriculum guidelines and frameworks; textbooks; the enacted curriculum of what teachers do and what happens in the classroom; unintended and hidden curriculum

relating to school practices and environment; and the issue of what young people themselves receive and perceive as curriculum (p. 7).

Saylor and Alexander (1966) broadly described the curriculum as that which encompassed all learning opportunities provided by a school. The curriculum could therefore be considered a “multifaceted phenomenon” (Biesta, 2014, p. 31). According to Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery and Taubmann, (1995), the curriculum was:

What the older generation chooses to tell the younger generation... [it] is intensely historical, political, racial, gendered, phenomenological, autobiographical, aesthetic, theological and international. Curriculum becomes the site on which the generations struggle to define themselves and the world. (pp. 847-848)

Today, many publications (including school documents, academic texts, committee reports and newspaper articles) refer to the school curriculum as the subjects taught or offered in a school (Marsh, 2008a).

The two main aspects of curriculum, according to Posner (1995), are a “set of instructional strategies teachers plan to use” and the “content or objectives for which schools hold students accountable” (p. 5). This viewpoint highlighted the link between curriculum and pedagogy, as the term ‘pedagogy’ often referred to the instructional strategies or particular practices of teaching and learning (Marsh & Hart, 2011). Similarly, Crowther and Boyne (2016) suggested that a schoolwide pedagogy would extend the school vision into classrooms by capturing the essence of successful teaching practices. The curriculum can therefore be viewed as a blueprint or an interrelated set of plans for teaching and learning and/or training intentions (Brady & Kennedy, 2014; Marsh & Willis, 1995; Pratt, 1980; Willis, 1998). Alternatively, the curriculum can be considered as a lived experience that includes socially constructed or prescribed activities (Ross, 2000; Simmons, 1998). Ross (2000) suggested it

could be “anything that schools do that affect pupils’ learning, whether through deliberate planning and organisation, unwitting encouragement, or hidden and unrealised assumptions” (p. 9). For instance, a ‘hidden’ curriculum is one that is “not overtly stated, and which may be unintentionally passed on through the process of education” (Ross, 2000, p. 8). The curriculum is therefore “not about what teachers teach but what learners learn” (Grundy, 2005, p. 165). Academics have provided multiple definitions for the term curriculum and these have been adjusted and refined over time.

The curriculum is “a given body of knowledge that is the responsibility of the schools to transmit” (Moore & Young, 2010, p. 16). This definition presents a rather ‘taken-for-granted’ position in posing only transmission and doesn’t raise the problematic nature of curriculum development and implementation. Interestingly, in relation to the discipline of History Yates (2015) noted that teachers:

Overwhelmingly emphasised not its content (the ‘facts’ or ‘the story’ or history) but the value of learning to work like a historian, to learn a kind of critical engagement with evidence, context, interpretation, documents, debates that will be broadly valuable for students in their future life (p. 10).

Yates (2015) provided a number of snapshots of teacher responses to further illustrate this point including the following responses:

The content is just stuff. It’s the processes which are the important things my students would take out of it, they would have excellent research skills and by excellent research skills they would understand that there is a purpose behind each source and there’s an author behind each source so that author has a position on a certain thing (T_29_120712_HSSQ) (p. 10).

While the content is important, the skills are life-long. [...] skills that are life-long like investigation or a mission or a perspective or bias or reliability, empathy, all of those things translate everything that we do (T_34_120912_HSSN). (p. 11)

Significantly these History teachers did not suggest or imply that the content of history was irrelevant (Yates, 2015). Rather they simply emphasised how the discipline of History assists students with developing empathy and was also an important way to engage students with real events and people so that they could develop “understandings and values about the self, the nation, [and] the world” (Yates, 2015, p. 11). Clearly, the determination of what knowledge to include within a curriculum is not an easy decision and the value of the selected knowledge can also be debatable.

While contestation surrounds what is considered suitable knowledge for a school curriculum it is important that it should be seen as “more than simply a power play between contending social interests” (Moore and Young, 2010, p. 15). According to Scott (2014) a school curriculum is “always a selection from a range of cognitions, skills or dispositions that are available within a society; that is, these are being, or have been, manifested in human practices of a discursive, institutional, agential or embodied kind” (p. 15). Bernstein (2003) asserted that “the curriculum defines what counts as valid knowledge, pedagogy defines what counts as valid knowledge transmission” (p. 245). Distinguishing between curriculum and pedagogy “allows for the possibility of making principled decisions around what belongs where and how we might achieve our educational aspirations” (Hoadley, 2011, p. 152). However, the contested and convoluted nature of curriculum work in schools (including pedagogy and assessment) is rather contextual.

Young (2014) suggested that curriculum has the particular purpose of setting limits on what is possible to be learnt in school. For the curriculum “acts a constraint on what students can learn, not the least both through its boundaries or lack of them between subjects and between the curriculum and the experience of students outside of school” (Young, 2014, p. 8). Although such boundaries are not just constraints, rather they may also be “a set of possibilities not only about what students can learn but about how they can progress in their learning” (Young, 2014, p. 8). It is “a framework for some type of learning or another; learning whether cognitive, skill-based or dispositional is understood as a knowledge-development activity; and therefore knowledge is central to the construction and realisation of the curriculum” (Scott, 2014, p. 14). In this way the curriculum enables students to “move beyond the experience they bring to school and to acquire knowledge that is not tied to that experience” (Young, 2014, p. 8). Such knowledge has been described by academics as being ‘powerful knowledge’ (Beck, 2013; Young, 2013; Young & Muller, 2013; Young, 2014). Powerful knowledge derives from:

Its form of development and testing over time that take it beyond the social relativism inherent in its origins. It has a defined focus and methodologies, and is particularly seen in the disciplines. Disciplines bring specialised structured ways of investigating or understanding the world, and a self-correcting quality that are ‘truth seeking’ (in their inherent form as distinct from how individuals may use them) and as such are nearer to the truth, more reliable, more powerful. (Yates & Miller, 2016, p. 300)

Hoadley (2011) proposed that:

If any act of curriculum construction is to decide what knowledge is of most worth to its citizens, then a consideration of knowledge and knower is crucial. And the structuring of the curriculum in relation to what students can and should do at what point (selection and sequence) entails a theory of knowing. (p. 152)

Within the curriculum “the incorporation and stipulation of everyday knowledge varies with subjects and their relation to everyday/workplace practices (Hoadley, 2011, p. 151). Although a curriculum “cannot be a simple representation (expressed as a series of facts) of what is out there in the world because the world is not entirely separate from those mediating devices that human beings have developed to make sense of it” (Scott, 2014, p. 26). Great care would need to be taken when decision making occurs in relation to the allocation of knowledge to discrete or integrated disciplines so as to avoid contestation amongst the different curriculum stakeholders. Curriculum writers must therefore be careful when determining which everyday knowledge to include as it has “the potential to obscure, confuse or dilute conceptual specification” (Hoadley, 2011, p. 151).

Marsh and Willis (2007) suggested that there are three distinctions for a working definition of curriculum, namely: the planned curriculum, the enacted curriculum, and the experienced curriculum. Firstly, the planned curriculum discovers “what knowledge is of most worth” (Marsh, 2008a, p. 3) amongst key stakeholders, while an enacted curriculum includes the deliberate involvement of teachers in “some conscious planning” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 14) where teachers use professional judgements to make decisions about curriculum implementation (Marsh, 2008a). For example, teachers determine the most appropriate pedagogical approach for delivering the curriculum and develop a curriculum program that outlines the elements of daily or weekly teaching, including the lesson goal, content, teaching strategies, and resources (Brady & Kennedy, 2014; Marsh, 2008a). Such localised curriculum solutions are “more likely to cater for the real needs of students and this accounts for the slippage that so often occurs between centralised curriculum solutions and what happens in schools” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 13). The final phase, an experienced curriculum, refers to “what actually happens in the classroom” (Marsh, 2008a, p. 4). As Marsh (2008a) explained, this is

“not to suggest that all plans will be achieved... [as] every teacher has to contend with the reality that many unexpected, unplanned events will occur in the classroom” (p. 14). In other words, despite the best intentions of curriculum developers, it can sometimes be difficult for teachers to implement the curriculum as intended, especially if there are other considerations influencing delivery, such as the availability of time due to competing demands such as sport carnivals, vaccinations, or public holidays. Therefore, a teachers’ ability to enact the curriculum may unintentionally create conflicts with the planned curriculum (Campbell, 2006). Marsh and Willis (2007), also specify that ultimately it was “unnecessary and undesirable to separate curriculum from instruction” (p. 14). They maintain that teachers hold:

An organic, holistic view of curriculum and instruction consistent with many recent trends that encourages teachers to be directly involved in making decisions about both curriculum and teaching by constantly monitoring and adjusting ends and means within unfolding classroom situations. This we think, is what good teachers always do. Thus, a view of curriculum and instruction in which the two merge reflects a much more realistic view of what actually happens in good schools and classrooms. (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 15)

Accordingly, the curriculum implementation process within schools has become quite complex.

In summary, by the late 20th and early 21st centuries definitions for the term curriculum had shifted away from a theoretical to a more technical perspective, and the politicisation of curriculum had created an emphasis on the delivery and implementation of curriculum; the ‘how to’ rather than the ‘why’ of curriculum (Allen & Vidovich, 2008). Defining the curriculum will never be straight forward, and as has been demonstrated, there have been multiple meanings and usages, and ultimately these will continue to change and evolve over time.

Contestation amongst key stakeholders has influenced the development of the school curriculum. Kennedy (2005) posits that the curriculum is difficult to define as it was developed in response to, or shaped by, prevailing social forces and, as such, is a social construct. Brady and Kennedy (2010) highlighted that:

Curriculum itself is not neutral – it represents a point of view or a perspective. It is often contested and often the subject of public debate and discussion. The eventual form that the school curriculum takes in the shape of Guidelines or Frameworks therefore represents a compromise between groups and individuals in society seeking to influence the education of young people. (p. 9)

Kennedy (2005) also suggested that there was an increasing gap between the “‘official’ school knowledge and real-world knowledge to which students have access through information technology” (p. 37), and as such, a student’s curriculum experience could no longer be confined to the walls of a classroom (Kennedy, 2005). This in turn created the dilemma of “how to create a sense of community and common values in a context where knowledge cannot be restricted in any way” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 37). Hence, this viewpoint creates further difficulties for curriculum writers in terms of which knowledge to value and/or prioritise.

Similarly, McGaw (2014) stated in the letter which accompanied the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) statement to the Review of the Australian Curriculum that “[w]hat constitutes essential school learning will always be contested because behind it is a debate about what knowledge is of most worth” (p. 1). While Grundy (2005), asserts:

The question about what is most worth knowing is not simply a pragmatic one about what knowledge will be of most value to the greatest number of citizens to enable them

to live the/a good life. It is also a highly contextualised question about what we think is worth knowing for our citizens in this place at this time... It is a question that not only seeks to identify key learnings that a human learner needs in order to function well through her/his life... [but] what knowledge is needed to bind certain groups together and differentiate them from other groups. (p. 160)

Ultimately, the chosen curriculum is “a reflection of what the people, think, feel, believe, and do” (Smith, Stanley, & Shores, 1950, p. 3).

We must therefore acknowledge linkages between social, economic, and political power and the knowledge made available (and not made available) to students (Apple, 2004). Apple (2004) claims “schools do not only control people; they also help control meaning” through the distribution of “legitimate knowledge” or the knowledge of specific (majority) groups in society (p. 61). This distribution of knowledge was in turn related to that group’s power in the social, political, and economic arenas and must therefore be seen as something that is not static, but rather something that changes or evolves depending on the social and political beliefs of the time (Apple, 2004). It is also probable that a national curriculum will be “subjected to politicised interventions if there are changes of government at federal, state or territory levels” (Henderson, 2012, pp. 26-27). This in turn will impact upon networks within schools as the agency of different human actants and non-human actants are shaped by the influence of other members within, and outside of, the network. The curriculum is therefore seen as a highly subjective and contested space, as no stakeholder group is homogeneous because members hold diverse views.

Evidently, the lack of consensus amongst curriculum developers in terms of defining curriculum is what makes it so contentious (Brady & Kennedy, 2010). Therefore, great care

needs to be taken when endorsing one particular definition of curriculum. The working definition for curriculum adopted in this study is a combination of the above. The curriculum will be defined as: A planned course of studies that is shaped by key stakeholders within a particular geographic area (typically state or national area), and that is interpreted, reconstructed and enacted by teachers. Understanding the problematic nature of curriculum development, the process of curriculum change and the role of key stakeholders (such as teachers) during such change clearly highlights the need for investigations into the messiness of curriculum implementation.

2.1.2 Curriculum stakeholders

The review of relevant literature revealed that stakeholders have different perceptions of what knowledges, skills and values should constitute the curriculum to best prepare students for participation in the workforce; to be active citizens in society; and to be lifelong learners. Marsh and Willis (2007) describe this as how on the one hand, all stakeholders “seem to know what schools should teach... [while] on the other hand, there is almost never complete agreement about what the curriculum of the schools should be” (p. 3). Klein (1991) described this inherent nature of the process of curriculum development as one which has received continual discussion and debate, and that would be subjected to further review and revision in the future, due to the increasing rate of change in the world.

Ross (2000) similarly highlighted how the tension lies in the differences in what learners, parents/guardians, wider societal groups, and curriculum authorities might want. The multifaceted nature of the curriculum negotiates these competing rationales and visions of what is worth knowing and becoming as it is “the result of power struggles between groups with

competing claims for including and legitimising their knowledge and excluding that of others” (Moore & Young, 2010, p. 25). In this way knowledge is “no more than a relay for power relations external to itself; a relay whose form has no consequences for what is relayed” (Bernstein, 1990, p. 166). Ultimately curriculum development is influenced by the perceptions and power of the various stakeholders, but such perceptions and power are subject to change due to prevailing economic, societal, and political influences. Hence the process of curriculum development could be considered “very complex and multifaceted” (Klein, 1991, p. 1) due to the competing demands and tensions amongst key stakeholders.

Additionally, the power of key stakeholder groups can change during the process of curriculum development. Pinar et al. (1995) consider how stakeholder powers during curriculum development have changed over time when they outline how the “politicians, textbook companies, and subject-matter specialists in the university, rather than school practitioners and university professors of curriculum, exercise leadership and control over curriculum development” (p. 41).

Literature regarding government stakeholders examines how governments in many parts of the world have taken “an unprecedented interest in ... the value [of]... the school curriculum” (Brady & Kennedy, 2010, p. 3). *The Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA), 2008) stated that “education equips young people with the knowledge, understanding, skills and values to take advantage of opportunity and to face the challenges of this era with confidence” (p. 4). The Australian Federal Government is interested in educational developments that could potentially influence the shaping of our future citizens, and how such changes in the education sector would influence future economic growth (Brady & Kennedy,

2014). The resultant curriculum therefore reflected the knowledge and skills that citizens need to possess to contribute to society in a positive and productive way (Brady & Kennedy, 2014).

When the local community is strongly interested in the structure of the school curriculum it helps to ensure a well-educated and trained workforce (Brady & Kennedy, 2010). Typically, local community stakeholders including parents' associations, businesses, trade unions, political parties, and religious groups express "collective views about the kind of learning children should obtain in schools" (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 3). The business community, in particular, is "in no doubt that the curriculum is important and that it must be structured in a particular way...[to] deliver outcomes that are relevant to employment opportunities and the economic needs of society" (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 4). For example, in the United States (US) during the 1970s public schools were offering more career education and vocational subjects while the 1980s saw more science and engineering subjects (Marsh & Willis, 2007; Spring, 1993). Marsh and Willis (2007) raised concern that such knee-jerk reactions by curriculum developers to the immediate business needs or future projections was dangerous. Rather, as the former president of the Business Council of Australia, Anderson (1999), pointed out, a good education system must also enable "people to respond to the challenge of adapting to changes arising from innovation" and technology. This ultimately means that:

Variation and complexity will always characterise the curriculum and should be part of our natural expectations about the curriculum. The issue is to try and understand this complexity and variation, to untangle the different influences that have been at work and to determine whether proposed curriculum solutions are the best ones for our students.
(Kennedy, 2005, p. 13)

Therefore, curriculum decision makers must balance the views of various community stakeholder members with the needs of both present and future students to ensure the

“relevance, meaningfulness and purposefulness of the school curriculum in its local contexts” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 13), otherwise students will experience difficulty in finding employment opportunities due to their narrow or obsolete skill set (Marsh & Willis, 2007). The final shape that the curriculum takes is therefore very important to ensure that students are adequately prepared to become productive and active members of society.

Universities and other providers of higher education have a vested interest in the shape of school curriculum as they “will always want to play a watchdog role to ensure that potential students come equipped with the requisite knowledge to undertake further studies” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 7). Therefore, universities in Australia have at times exerted enormous influence on the curriculum (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). Although some observers believe that “education professors are losing – have lost? – control of the curriculum we teach” (Pinar, 2004, p. xi). Nevertheless, the power exerted upon curriculum development by universities is still apparent as they are the next stage for a number of students considering a tertiary education (Brady & Kennedy, 2014).

Teachers approach the curriculum from “a different angle” to that of other key stakeholders as “they are the professionals” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 6). Through training teachers have become equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to successfully implement the governing curriculum guidelines (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). However, Pinar (2004) argued that “school teachers have been reduced to domestic workers instructed by politicians” (p. xi). Similarly, Marsh and Willis (2007) suggested that a teacher’s professional judgement during curriculum development was constrained by:

Traditions, state laws, administrative directives, financial emergencies, and the immediate wishes of the community, and they are frequently confronted with the views

of powerful groups within society that have vested interests in either preserving schools as they exist or changing them in some particular direction. (p. 6)

McNeil (2003) discussed how the level of influence in curriculum decision making by teachers was diminished by the introduction of standardised testing. Yet despite this apparent loss of power and voice in curriculum development Marsh and Willis (2007) found that teachers can still:

Exercise significant influence either at the systems level as delegates on various boards and committees or more generally through professional associations, but the centre of their influence on curriculum decisions is the place where they interact directly with their clients – the school. (p. 6)

Therefore, a teachers' influence was still very powerful, as it was “not casual or incidental... teachers always make decisions about how curricula are enacted in their classrooms” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 307).

To a lesser degree, parents are also stakeholders in the process of curriculum development (Marsh & Willis, 2007). Parents take considerable interest in curriculum development as this is the “means by which their children can have a successful future” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 4). The influence of parents can have both direct and indirect impact upon curriculum reform (Harris & Marsh, 2005). However, the level of impact will vary, depending on the context and the time period in which it occurs (Harris & Marsh, 2005). A parent's view of the curriculum is typically based upon past experiences and also influenced by the aspirations they hold for their children (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). Parents therefore trust in the school curriculum to equip their children adequately for the future (Brady & Kennedy, 2010).

Students are also considered as stakeholders in the curriculum development process. Curriculum developers must consider how the school curriculum will “meet students’ aspirations and take into account the changing cultural standards from the perspectives of the students themselves” (Brady & Kennedy, 2010, p. 6). The chosen curriculum must also cater for the wide variety of students in our schools including the “special needs of girls, Aboriginal people and Torres Strait Islanders, people with disabilities, people from a non-English speaking background, young people who live in poverty and the geographically isolated” (Brady & Kennedy, 2010, p. 6). However, curriculum developers must take care not to prioritise one group of students at the expense of another.

There is a wide range of stakeholder groups with varying levels of power involved in the process of curriculum development, and their voices must be taken into consideration. Consequently, curriculum developers “must make a greater effort to reconcile apparently conflicting views, for more is at stake than simply the resolution of an academic issue” (Brady & Kennedy, 2010, p. 5). The chosen curriculum should be an informing vision that is “not merely an abstraction for academic inquiry or government manipulation” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 4). Marsh and Willis (2007) suggest that although teachers make decisions about the enacted curriculum it was the collective decision of stakeholders at the school level or higher that resulted in beneficial change. They indicated that change requires both careful planning and cooperative action amongst stakeholders who may or may not agree. Therefore, substantive dialogue between stakeholders regarding the make-up of the Australian Curriculum (for example, what does a 21st Century curriculum look like?) is essential for its success. However, reaching a unanimous agreement about the knowledge contained within the Australian Curriculum from different stakeholder groups will be highly unlikely, and ultimately the views

of the more powerful stakeholder groups will take precedence unless regular reviews and refinements occur.

Curriculum debates are informed by philosophical positions on what knowledge is valuable, what role the various stakeholders should have in the development and enactment of the curriculum (interactions of power), and the overall purpose of the curriculum. Marsh and Willis (2007) suggest that “any curriculum planned or enacted should be viewed as the end point of a series of human decisions, and as such it is subject to constant review and revision” (p. 24). Consequently, the curriculum will never be completed and should always be considered as a work in progress (McGaw, 2014). Different thoughts and ideas about the curriculum “constantly supplant old ones and thus curricula inevitably change” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 24). Clearly, an investigation of the transition away from the multidisciplinary SOSE approach to the Australian curriculum will highlight such dynamic curriculum change.

2.1.3 Curriculum change

Curriculum change not only occurs at the school level but also at the state, national, and international level. The phrase:

‘The devil is in the detail’ is heard often among those affected as new policies are rolled out, and it reflects the importance of some continued focus on national or local policy detail in terms of how these carry or govern particular curriculum practices (Yates, 2016, p. 367).

Interestingly, Marsh and Willis (2007) suggested that at the federal level the government “has the ability to coerce adoption of national curricula through withholding funds from states not in compliance” (p. 153). Therefore curriculum change may involve “extensive contestation and

debate at both macro and micro levels” (Paechter, 2000, p. 5). Curriculum change processes typically include consultation in the attempt to invite stakeholders into the development and implementation. This differs for each curriculum iteration, network, learning area and context at a particular point in time. The chosen school curriculum will reveal “the concerns, anxieties, of the adults who shape it” (Yates & Grummet, 2011, p. 7).

Over the past 30 years curriculum change has “increased in frequency, pace and, above all, ubiquity” (Paechter, 2000, p. 4). Curriculum change is somewhat of a “generic term that subsumes a whole family of concepts such as innovation, development, and adoption” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 149). Therefore, the value given to “particular curriculum content... within any society both reflects and is reflected by what is considered important more generally within that society” (Paechter, 2000, p. 6). According to Young (1971) power struggles both within and outside of schools resulted in the content and structure of the curriculum, as “education is not a product like cars and bread, but a selection and organisation from the available knowledge at a particular time which involves conscious or unconscious choices” (p. 24). In other words, the dominant or more valued curriculum highlights what is valued by society at the time, and consequently is subject to change.

Concentrating on knowledge in this way also impacts on subject status and differentiation. As Paechter (2007) noted, “in order for a school subject to retain its identity, strong boundaries have to be maintained between it and other subject areas” (p. 7). Such boundaries are therefore “important sites of struggle and resistance” (Paechter, 2000, p. 7). Some time ago Young (1971) discussed how some subject disciplines gained higher status than others and how this was a reflection both on the criteria used to determine the curriculum, and also wider societal expectations. This is still relevant today. For example, in Queensland, History has been made

compulsory until the end of Year 10, while Geography is only compulsory until the end of Year 8. The chosen school curriculum is therefore a reflection of the dominant societal values of the time, and this is typically at the expense of smaller or less vocal stakeholder groups and was consequently “not neutral but value laden” (Dinan-Thompson, 2005, p. 156).

Paechter (2000) examined the changes to the curriculum in England and Wales, and noted that Australia was also transitioning to a mandatory national curriculum. However, in Australia there was some flexibility whereby schools could still choose how to test student knowledge and understanding, and could choose the topics taught in some disciplines, for instance a school could choose between the different prescribed depth studies in the Australian Curriculum History. The school curriculum is constantly subject to change, and studying the impact of these changes on teachers within a school setting is “an important means through which we can see how future changes might be better planned and implemented” (Paechter, 2000, p. 3).

Rizvi and Lingard (2010) determined that curriculum change is “linked to the reconstruction of education as a central arm of national economic policy, as well as being central to the imagined community the nation wishes to construct through schooling” (p.96). According to Grundy (2005) “out of the oppositional forces of junctions and disjunctions, collaboration and contestation, positions and oppositions that creative and innovative curriculum construction is possible” (p. 165). Paechter (2000), notes changes in responsibility, saying that in the past “teachers who did not want to engage with change, could, by and large, avoid it. This is no longer the case; to refuse to take part in ongoing change is, essentially, to opt out of teaching altogether” (p. 4). Therefore, despite the growing pace of curriculum change teachers must learn how to cope with, and adjust to, this as part of their everyday practice.

According to Fullan (2001), Hargreaves (1994), and Sarason (1990) change is a process, not an event, and as such is “open to trial, error and challenge” (Dinan-Thompson, 2005, p. 149). Brady and Kennedy (2010) similarly warned that curriculum change was rarely effective when implemented suddenly. The process of curriculum change could also be “destabilising for teachers and schools” (Paechter, 2000, p. 4). Worthwhile curriculum change “takes time...it requires participatory planning, action, evaluation and improvement processes” (Grundy, 2005, p. 166). A “failure to appreciate the gradualness of change may create anxiety in teachers and result in a decline in commitment” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 258). However, Brady and Kennedy (2010) assert that the key to the effective implementation of curriculum change is the use of “small and gradual steps” (p. 257), and the change itself “should be gradual and small-scale, with all participants being change agents” (Brady & Kennedy, 2007, p. 340). Brady and Kennedy (2014) also outlined factors that may hinder curriculum change including “teacher workload and accountability; teacher isolation; conformity to group thinking; the difficulty of identifying teacher expertise; narrow teacher roles; the organisation of staffing of schools; and the difficulty of demonstrating change” (p. 340). Therefore, it is important for reluctant teachers to be offered support during the curriculum transition process.

The capacity of a school to provide suitable resources for curriculum change should also be considered. According to Grundy (2005), curriculum change requires adequate resources but “time is the most important resource for teachers” (p. 166). The definition of ‘time’ here is important to raise due to its interpretation as time for teacher engagement with unit, lesson and resource development and refinement, but it is also necessary to argue that ‘time’ is a broader concept including time allocations for consultation, professional learning, professional development, and curriculum enactment. Brady and Kennedy (2007) similarly determined that a number of factors may facilitate curriculum change including “the explicitness of change;

planning and support groups; the incentive system; organisational climate; resource support; the scope of change; evaluation; appropriate staff; differences in perception; and the adoption-development process” (p. 340).

Curriculum change will be “strongly contested by dominant interest groups” (Paechter, 2000, p. 6), and significant changes will engage the perspectives of multiple participants, and the resultant changes will inevitably involve conflict (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). Young (1971) likewise maintained that a change in curriculum would be questioned “as we assume some patterns of social relations associated with any curriculum... changes will be resisted in so far as they are perceived to undermine the values, relative power and privileges of the dominant group involved” (p. 34). Curriculum change should not necessarily be viewed negatively, because skilful management will produce positive results, such as strengthening relationships and group cohesiveness (Brady & Kennedy, 2014).

The influence of human actants or stakeholders involved in the process of curriculum change is always “complex and unpredictable” (Grundy, 2005, p. 161). Kennedy (2005) believed that “curriculum actors (actants) in different contexts, with different levels of responsibility and with different purposes, will always seek to construct the curriculum in ways that complement their own values and priorities” (p. 13). This power struggle between actants to assert their values/priorities was not always visible (Dinan-Thompson, 2005). Blasé and Anderson (1995) contended that people exert their power in such interactions to not only influence and persuade others but also to protect themselves. For during such interactions “people compete with each other to get what they want” (Blasé & Anderson, 1995, p. 12). Typically, this process leads to cooperation amongst key stakeholders as they work together to achieve their objectives (Blasé & Anderson, 1995). Hence, the curriculum is “not neutral”

(Dinan-Thompson, 2002, p. 20) rather, it represented a consensus between stakeholders, where the process to obtain consensus and is a struggle between competing interests. It could be argued this is *always* a circumscribed consensus (adapted from Dinan-Thompson, 2002, p. 20). Similarly, Rosenmund (2006) pointed out that curriculum change:

Cannot simply be seen as a planned ‘technocratic’ reform to improve the productivity of the education system, but should also be understood as a political measure that re-shapes relationships between individuals and institutions of the nation-state through the selection and organisation of school knowledge. (p. 177)

As a result, “disjunctions will always occur where there was a clash of priorities between different stakeholders” (Marsh, 2005, p. 124). As Grundy (2005) notes, curriculum change will “always be political, but it needs to be a political process that respects contestation, that embraces participation and is open to adaptation” (p. 166).

Hargreaves (1994) suggests that “teachers, more than any others, are the key to educational change” (p.10). Teachers have the “ultimate responsibility translating curriculum documents produced by government or policy entities into teachable forms for the classroom” (Wallace & Priestley, 2017, p. 324). Often teachers modify the curriculum to suit their own educational and/or moral beliefs (Bryan, 2012; Kelly, 1999; Van Driel, Beijaard & Verloop, 2001). Research has illustrated that sometimes teachers’ interpretations of the curriculum can vary significantly from the intended curriculum (Spillane, 2002; Supovitz, 2008; Wallace & Priestley, 2017). According to Kelly (1999) “teachers have been known to sabotage attempts at change; certainly it is clear that such change can succeed only when teachers concerned are committed to them, and, especially, when they understand, as well as accept their underlying principles” (pp. 14-15). Clearly, the role of teachers (or key stakeholders) during the implementation of a curriculum is very significant (Kelly, 1999; Wallace & Priestley, 2017).

During the process of curriculum transition teacher “practice and beliefs tend to change interactively and together” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 10). Recent studies have signalled the need for investigation of teacher agency alongside an exploration of their curriculum rationales. In the study by Wallace and Priestley (2017) which mapped the design of Scotland’s new Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) in the discipline of Science they suggested that successful “changes to teaching practices often require underlying changes to teachers’ epistemologies, languages and beliefs about science teaching and learning” (p. 343). Although it is “not simply a matter of implementing a change unquestioningly in the manner intended by policy makers” (Brady & Kennedy, 2014, p. 357). Rather, any proposed curriculum change/s should take into account the school context, the teachers who would have to teach the curriculum, and the students who would engage with the curriculum during their lessons. Therefore, there is a need for investigations of teacher agency alongside an exploration of their curriculum rationales. It is also vital that “stakeholders’ specific priorities and values are more transparent, so that meaningful co-operation between stakeholders can be achieved” (Harris & Marsh, 2005, p. 35). Indeed, “the airing of differences” is an important element of the curriculum change process (Marsh, 2005, p. 124). As a result, the process of curriculum change “often feels chaotic and frustrating even to people experienced with it” (Marsh, 2005, p. 6), because of the constant struggle for different stakeholders to be heard.

According to Paechter (2000), developers of the accepted curriculum must be cautious because “if the curriculum excludes or marginalises some groups or discounts their ideas, it will make it harder for members of those groups to benefit from the education system” (p. 3). Typically, at both national and state levels curriculum policy writers and curriculum developers “promote consultation and collaboration, yet teacher and student voice are limited and lost

within a hierarchy of powerful stakeholders” (Dinan-Thompson, 2005, pp. 153-154). Therefore, curriculum developers must be mindful of this because:

If a high-status curriculum is only offered to or accessible by some groups, social divisions will be perpetuated; conversely, if we want a future significantly different from our present, we will need to educate our future citizens differently (Paechter, 2000, p. 3).

To build support within a community for a new curriculum is often “a sensitive matter” as it is “one thing to plan and then create a new curriculum, another thing to have that curriculum formally adopted by a school, and still another thing to see that curriculum actually come into widespread use” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 164). Therefore, consideration must be given to a school’s capacity to embrace any impending curriculum change by keeping in mind the applicable “advocacy and support by the central administration; access to information; teachers’ beliefs and expectations; community pressure, support, opposition or apathy; availability of external funds; and new legislation or policy. (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 166). Further, Marsh and Willis (2007) recommended that great care should be taken when replicating curriculum implementation procedures that have proved successful in other schools, for even though a proposed curriculum has been tested extensively there is no guarantee that it will meet the needs of the school. Curriculum change within a school is therefore “never a simple matter” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 166).

Given the established debate surrounding curriculum and curriculum change, this research was an opportunity to investigate the enablers and constraints of curriculum change during a school’s early transition away from SOSE to the discrete History and Geography disciplines. The use of the Actor Network Theory as the analytical framework for this study was deemed most appropriate to examine the messiness and complexity of the curriculum change process. This study was more about the process of change rather than networks of

support for curriculum change – curriculum change usually focuses on teachers (Human actants) rather this study also examines the non-human actants. My study delves deeper as I wanted to know what the interactions, forces, desires and interactions were amongst key stakeholders. The way we examine the curriculum in the current climate will always need to be investigated, especially as the work of the teacher and the role of the teacher are subject to change.

2.2 Historical development of curriculum (SOSE)

Societal, economic, and political influences have helped shape the Social Science curriculum in Queensland. This study investigates the transition from a Queensland state-based SOSE curriculum to the Australian Curriculum History and Geography by a Social Science department in a regional Far North Queensland secondary school. It is important to provide a historical trajectory of Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE), and History and Geography curriculum development and changes. Global or grand narrative History predominated in Australian schools during the early and middle 20th Century. It relied on the reproduction of unquestioned narratives, emphasising great men and events, enduring tradition and chronology (Harris, 2008; Hoepper & Quanchi, 2000). History in the 1960s was generally perceived as an academic subject that only suited students who would be continuing to university (Taylor, 2000). History in the mid-1960s came under criticism from curriculum developers and theorists in both the United Kingdom and Australia because of its perceived lack of relevance to the lives of school students (Taylor, 2000). It was also more difficult for students to identify the value of learning History for future employability options, given this perceived lack of relevance (Allen, 2008). History education in schools was also criticised for emphasising content at the expense of process (Slater, 1989; Sylvester, 1994; Taylor, 2000). Learning about History was perceived as:

Irrelevant because (a) it would not get students a job; (b) it was mainly about dead people, so studying history was of no consequence since it could not change anything and (c) school history reinforced traditional cultural, social and political values (Taylor, 2000, p.12).

In the 1970s, a 'New History', emanating from Britain and with influences from the US, changed the way that young people studied History in schools across Australia, but particularly in Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria (Allen, 2008; Taylor, 2000). The New History shifted away from an emphasis on content towards a more balanced approach between content and a new methodological or skills-based approach (Little & Mackinolty, 1977; Taylor, 2000). Jones (1970) determined that such a shift away from discussion on the content of History was needed because arguments "can go on without end because of the infinite variety of history ... If we were to take greater concern for methodology, we might be on firmer ground" (p. 387). Therefore, with an emphasis on critical inquiry and multiple perspectives (Harris, 2008), the concept of the past was reshaped to become "a contested space and a record of events that needs interrogation" (Hoepper & Quanchi, 2000, p.2). Consequently, the New History approach saw much debate on explorations of methodology as a way of identifying specific historical skills that could be translatable and considered more relevant (Taylor, 2000). However, this shift towards an emphasis on methodology or skills limited the actual content (Taylor, 2000).

The New History in the 1970s also coincided with Social Studies – a multidisciplinary perspective that focused on understanding social issues across the Humanities that was perhaps reflective of the socio-cultural changes over the 1960s and 1970s and how they influenced schooling. During the early 1970s in almost all states of Australia, Social Studies replaced

discrete History and Geography disciplines in the Junior Secondary School curricula (Allen, 2008). Following this there was:

Arguably a much more insidious and a much more damaging conflict... [that]... was to become known as the SOSE Wars, a dispute based on a campaign initiated and conducted in the 1980s and 1990s by progressive-left educators against history as a school discipline. (Taylor, 2012b, p. 27)

The SOSE Wars revolved around “low-key differences of opinion about the nature of humanities education in primary and secondary schools” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 27).

In an evaluation of human impact on Australia’s natural ecosystems, the Australian State of the Environment Committee (2006) reported that a growing population and associated demand for land, water, energy and other resources has led to the destruction of native habitats, degradation of waterways and an increasing occurrence of salinity in rivers and wetland areas, alongside other impacts. Between 1960 and 2000, the global human population doubled from three to six billion, and, in order to meet increasing demands for food, fresh water, timber, fibre, and fuel, humans impacted ecosystems “more rapidly and extensively than in any comparable period of human history” (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA), 2005a, p. 1; MEA, 2005b, p. 5). The MEA (2005b), assessment of global ecosystem health, concluded that human activity is placing such a load on the Earth’s system that its capacity to replenish essential requirements for future human survival and wellbeing can no longer be taken for granted.

In response to the growing awareness of the unsustainable relationship between humans and the environment, increasing attention was being paid to the role of education in changing attitudes and practices. As early as 1987, sustainable development was linked with education.

The 1992 Earth Summit produced Agenda 21, which identified education as integral to sustainable development and promoting the requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes to address environment and development issues (United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, 1992). More recently, Australia's Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts (DEWHA) (2009) stated that education for sustainability was "essential to re-orienting the way we live and work and to Australia becoming a sustainable society" (p. 3). The focus of education for sustainability has shifted over the past 30 years from:

Knowledge of natural ecosystems and the threats posed to them by overuse and depletion of resources to equipping all people with the knowledge, skills and understanding necessary to make decisions based upon their full environmental, social and economic implications. (DEWHA, 2009, p.3)

The report of the Ministerial Advisory Committee for Education Renewal (2006) found that the challenge of shifting towards more sustainable practices was "engaging thinkers from a range of backgrounds" (p. 20). The Committee proposed that subjects which explicitly transcended traditional disciplines were needed so that students could understand the interactions between human activities and natural systems – indeed, the domain of SOSE. Strachan (2009) observed that the formal education experience of most learners can be depicted as a shift from a multidisciplinary approach in their early years "through to an increasingly reductionist experience in which they become more specialised and less prepared for the interconnected complexity of the world in which they have to live and work" (p. 1). At the level of higher education research, Bammer (2005) similarly advocated for a more integrated and participatory approach as "new research skills must be developed if human societies are to be more effective in tackling the complex problems that confront us and in sustaining the sort of world we wish to live in" (p. 6). Clearly, there was support for a multidisciplinary approach

to the teaching of Social Sciences as it was seen as an effective way to prepare students for the future.

2.2.1 Rationale for a multidisciplinary offering

The SOSE KLA provides opportunities for learners to critically explore issues, taking into account environmental, social, political, cultural and temporal dimensions. The conceptual strands of SOSE draw from a number of contributing disciplines including History, Geography, Economics, Politics, Sociology, Anthropology, Law, Psychology, and Ethics (QSCC, 2000, p. 1). The SOSE Ways of Working, as framed in the Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting framework (QSA, 2008), position students as critical and reflective investigators and communicators, as well as agents of change. The latter was captured in the ‘Participating’ Assessable Element – a criterion that assesses students’ capacity to respond to local and global issues by taking action in planned and enterprising ways.

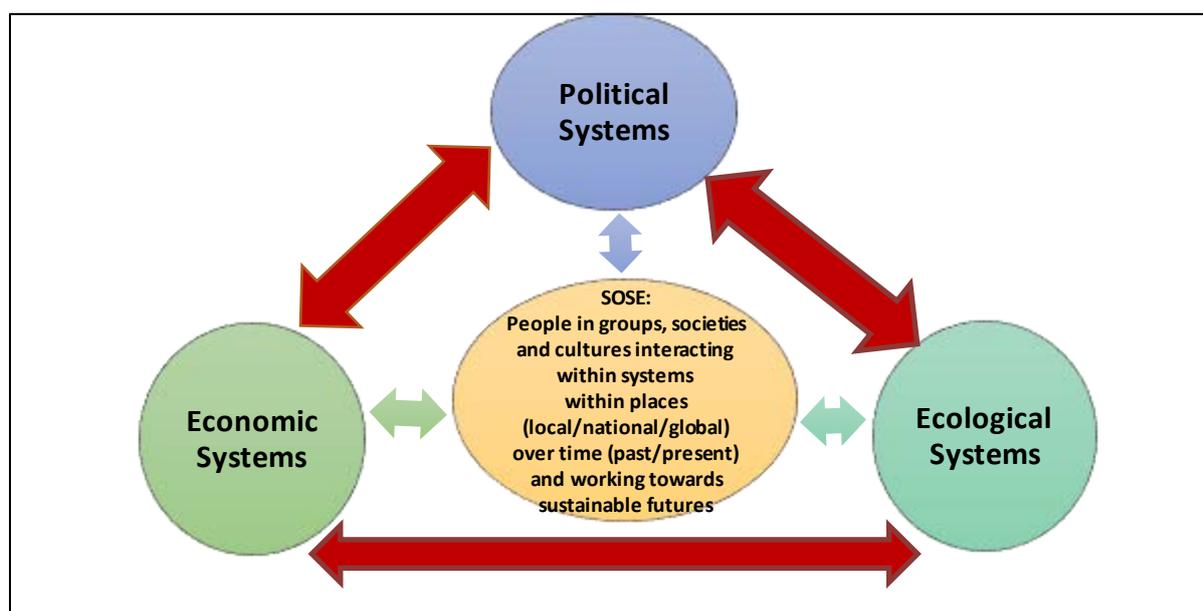
Harris (2008) proposed that the primary strength of positioning History within the SOSE KLA was that it allows teachers and students to see a study of History “within the broader social context” and, hence, embed it within complementary studies of Geography, Economics, Politics, Civics and Citizenship, and the Environment (p. 281). According to Taylor (2012b):

SOSE retained strong advocates in education departments and in university facilities of education, who still preferred to characterise history as a regressive, elitist and content-based discipline that could not deliver the social relevance and the breadth that, theoretically at least, was available in SOSE classes. (p. 33)

The Social Educators Association of Australia (SEAA), the Studies of Society and Environment Association of Queensland (SSEAQ), and the Primary HSIE Teachers

Association (PHSIETA) (2009), also argued that despite the perception of SOSE as an “unholy marriage of separate, discrete subjects”, it was very difficult to separate the Social Sciences from each other (p. 3). In fact, the associations asserted that the aspirations of the *Melbourne Declaration of Educational Goals for Young Australians* (MCEETYA, 2008) would not be fulfilled without the multidisciplinary approach afforded by SOSE, as it was a KLA that made triple-bottom-line thinking (i.e. consideration of social, economic and environmental effects) explicit to students, providing them with the habits of mind to consider any issue “from all necessary perspectives”, as well as the skills and concepts to inquire into it (p. 3) (See Figure 1).

Figure 1: The integrated nature of SOSE



Adapted from: SEAA, SOSEAQ and PHSIETA, 2009, p. 6.

Further, supporters of SOSE argue that it promotes students’ active and informed citizenship and without it:

Young Australians will be denied critical elements in their general education: the ability to engage in an informed and critical way with local, national and global concerns, and

the opportunity to develop understanding of issues of vital importance to their own lives, as well as for common humanity. (Tudball, 2008, p. 66)

According to *The Future of Schooling in Australia Report* (Council for the Australian Federation, 2007), engagement with SOSE allows young adults to leave school with the capacity to communicate, learn, live and work in increasingly globalised contexts that require “inter-cultural understanding and new knowledge and skills”. Over the past 100 years in Australia, there has been a gradual shift from “an overwhelmingly Anglo-Celtic, homogeneous population” to one of the world’s most multicultural societies (Cosgrove, 2003, p. 23). Australians now live in ethnically diverse, complex and globally-connected communities and, thus, students need to be prepared for challenges arising from such contexts (Henderson, 2005). Despite this strong rationale for preparing students for future challenges there was also firm opposition amongst some key stakeholders to using a multidisciplinary SOSE approach.

In 1991, the Australian Education Council (AEC) confirmed the creation of eight Key Learning Areas (KLAs) for the compulsory years of schooling. They were: English, Science, Mathematics, Languages Other Than English (LOTE), Technology, Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE), the Arts, and Health and Physical Education (HPE) (Marsh, 2008b). Studies of Society and Environment was a curriculum approach that incorporated a “totally integrated approach to history, geography, economics, politics, sociology and philosophy in Years K–10” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 28). The Australian Education Council, Curriculum and Assessment Division (AECCAD, 1992) defined SOSE as “the study of people as social beings as they interact with one another and with the natural and social environment in various places throughout time” (p. 4). Similarly, Reynolds (2009) defined SOSE as “the study of humans and their interaction with their society and environment” (p. 1). The SOSE Key Learning Area (KLA) enabled an investigation of interdisciplinary topics relevant to students and their

communities (at local, national and international levels) in order for them to “practice critical and creative thinking, problem solving and decision making in real-life and lifelike contexts” (Queensland School Curriculum Council, 2001, p. 15). The Queensland SOSE syllabus broadly described how the SOSE KLA was “centred on the human fascination with the way people interact with each other and with environments” (Queensland School Curriculum Council (QSCC), 2000, p. 1). The SOSE syllabus identified key concepts organised into strands, alongside processes of inquiry. In addition, four underpinning values (ecological and environmental sustainability, democracy, social justice, and peace) informed a socially critical theoretical framework for inquiry learning. The AEC defined the scope of SOSE as the means by which students were to arrive at SOSE knowledge and understanding – where through student centred inquiry and critical engagement with evidence and sources students would be active participants in the world by developing their ability to reflect on values and make decisions about issues related to societies and environments.

SOSE was seen as a discipline that promoted a higher level of critical thinking. According to Henderson (2005), “SOSE stems from earlier attempts to foster critical thinking and intellectually rigorous inquiry-based learning in the Social Sciences curriculum” (p. 308). SOSE had “all the hallmarks of a neo-Deweyan dynamic, educative and socially-relevant approach” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 28). By 1993, History and Geography had been subsumed into the SOSE KLA in Queensland (Harris-Hart, 2008). In 1994, the AEC highlighted the importance of SOSE by stating that the KLA expanded:

Students’ knowledge and understanding of their own society, other societies, local and global environments, and of relationships between environments and societies...The area [of SOSE] promotes the knowledge, skills and attitudes and values that enable students to participate as active and informed citizens in a democratic society and within a global

community... Students come to this knowledge and understanding through the processes of investigation and communication...these require a spirit of inquiry. This spirit leads students to understand the nature of evidence and sources and to evaluate their authenticity and values. (pp. 3-4)

Clearly, the AEC considered the creation of the SOSE KLA would assist students in becoming active and informed citizens by providing a multidisciplinary subject that has a combination of knowledge and skills from Social Science disciplines such as Geography and History.

In Queensland, for the purpose of alignment with senior disciplines, the Year 10 Guidelines (QSA, 2009a) had disciplinary-specific articulations in History and Geography. As was the case for the SOSE Essential Learnings Years 1–9 (QSA, 2008), the Year 10 History Guidelines and Year 10 Geography Guidelines were organised according to knowledge and understanding and ways of working domains. While the History Guidelines acknowledged that the content of school History was often publicly contested, QSA stated that in terms of the ways of working in History, students should be involved in “employing elements of the historical method and developing the processes of historical thinking” (QSA, 2009a, p. 85). The study of History “places student inquiry at the centre of the learning used to investigate these (History) topics and makes students aware through critical engagement with evidence and sources that they can create their own views and make their own decisions about people, societies, cultures, events and ideas” (QSA, 2009a, p. 85). Geography also uses an inquiry-based approach to assist students to “develop the ability to analyse and explain increasingly complex spatial associations and interactions of systems and human activities in Australia and in other parts of the world” (QSA, 2009a, p. 58).

By 2008, SOSE was being taught in all states and territories from Year 7 to Year 10, with the exception of Victoria and New South Wales where discrete disciplinary approaches were being taught (see Table 1). Under a SOSE approach “although historical content may be emphasised in areas like ‘Time, Continuity and Change’, there was no prescribed curriculum or timetable requirement for history, let alone Australian history” (Gregory, 2007, p. 10.2). In Victoria, the Humanities encompassed a cluster of separate but related subjects and was taught from Prep to Year 4. In Years 5 and 6, Victorian students undertook disciplined based subjects. In New South Wales, Human Society and its Environment (HSIE) was taught in primary school, after which students went on to take discipline-based subjects in lower secondary. In both Victoria and New South Wales, History was delivered and reported upon as a separate stand-alone discipline from Years 7–10. However, while the study of History was mandatory from Years 7 to 10 in New South Wales, in Victoria History was an elective subject with no mandated hours in these years (Harris, 2008). According to Taylor and Clark (2006), who compiled a summary of the approaches of all states and territories to the teaching and learning of Australian History, there was:

No guarantee that the vast majority of students in Australian schools will have progressed through a systematic study of Australian history by the end of Year 10. Indeed, the opposite is almost certainly the case. By the time they reach leaving age, most students in Australian schools will have experienced a fragmented, repetitive and incomplete picture of their national story. (p. 34)

Similarly, Gregory (2007) stated that History was “subsumed into the SOSE mass with the result that students do not gain a coherent in-depth understanding of history as in individual discipline, nor do they gain any sense of chronology and thus change over time” (p. 10.3).

Table 1: A comparison of social science delivery across Years 7-12 for Australian states and territories 2008

| State/ Territory | Years 7-10 | Years 7-10 History offering and reporting | Years 7-10 mandated hours for History | Years 11-12 |
|---------------------|---------------|--|--|---------------|
| QLD | SOSE | No | No | by discipline |
| ACT | SOSE | No | No | by discipline |
| NT | SOSE | No | No | by discipline |
| WA | SOSE | No | No | by discipline |
| TAS | SOSE | No | No | by discipline |
| SA | S & E* | No | No | by discipline |
| VIC | by discipline | Yes | No | by discipline |
| NSW | by discipline | Yes | Yes | by discipline |

* *Society and the Environment (S & E) is equivalent to Studies of Society and the Environment (SOSE). Adapted from: Taylor and Clark, 2006, p. 2; Harris, 2008, p. 282; Hart, 2011b, p. 234.*

The summary by Taylor and Clark (2006) also “showed how scrappy and incoherent are the offerings on Australian history (except NSW) with some topics repeated year after year and others never treated” (Hirst, 2006). These advocates of History, were concerned as to the coherence and depth of historical knowledge and understanding that students would have upon completion of their education if SOSE was taught in all schools.

2.3 The return to stand-alone disciplines

In response to the growing national and global awareness of the unsustainable relationship between humans and the environment, increasing attention was now being paid to the role of education in changing attitudes and practices. However, in spite of growing recognition at all levels, of the need for interdisciplinary approaches to addressing social and environmental issues (Bammer, 2005; DEWHA, 2009; Strachan, 2009), the delivery of SOSE has been subjected to substantial criticism. Curriculum commentators have highlighted how in some states the benefits of SOSE has been overlooked due to growing concerns regarding it being a “jigsaw of separate disciplines or as generalist Social Studies” (Harris, 2008, p. 281).

Powell (1997) was an opponent to SOSE as he criticised the “rampant anti-intellectualism” of the SOSE movement (p. 50). Powell (1997) also suggested that SOSE was a “muddled contrivance... [for it] seems to be an earnest if infuriatingly vague desire to foster an improved sense of citizenship, and it is coupled with an assumption that the established disciplines have somehow become insulated from that cause” (p. 49). Similarly, Lidstone (2006) declared that the “integrated Social Studies doesn’t do History well, it doesn’t do Geography well, and it doesn’t do citizens-type things well – very quickly becoming a hodgepodge” (p. 1).

According to Harris (2008), the embedding of History within the SOSE KLA has lessened the status of History as a discipline of study. Consequently, this lack of status for History has resulted in fewer students at the national level, electing to study History in the senior years of schooling (Harris, 2008). Another key reason for the History versus SOSE debate is the lack of time for SOSE in the overcrowded timetable. Tudball (2008) lamented the lack of time for SOSE when he stated that:

In many schools, time for SOSE, in whatever form has been eroded. The scope of the key learning area is broad, yet it is common for schools to only offer three periods a week of SOSE at the junior secondary school... not enough time to ensure depth studies and breadth. (p.66)

Similarly, Taylor (2012b) maintained that SOSE in practice “was an unmitigated disaster that in some states and territories, almost obliterated history (and geography) from school timetables” (p. 28). Evidently, the school timetable had assisted in reducing the status of SOSE within schools. So, despite the need for multidisciplinary approaches to education the ‘hodgepodge’ delivery of SOSE within schools had not helped to improve its appeal to students, teachers or academics.

The debate about the place of History in the school curriculum was also foregrounded in the public discussion and politicisation of a national curriculum. Calls for a traditional disciplinary approach to History have been advocated by key politicians and public figures in the media. These figures have accused SOSE of lacking focus and academic rigour and have described SOSE as being “a grab-bag of disparate disciplines” and “the social slops” (Taylor, 2007). The SOSE KLA was also widely criticised for being “content-light” and “wishy-washy” (Tomazin, 2007). The Australian national newspaper, *The Australian* quoted former Prime Minister John Howard as warning that “new-age fads were short-changing our children” (Maiden, 2007). Howard accused public schools of allowing “incomprehensible sludge” to infect school curriculum and that the need for a national curriculum system was a “no brainer” (Maiden, 2007). Thus, in recent times, Australian curricula development and debate has been “decidedly political” (Gilbert, 2011a, p. 246).

Educational policy reforms by the Australian Government, like governments in other OECD countries, aimed at aligning educational outcomes with national interests as a response to global shifts and increased regional interaction (Henderson, 2012). The manner in which this was to be achieved was through the implementation and delivery of a national curriculum accessible to all young Australians, regardless of their socio-economic background, country of origin or specific school context (Henderson, 2012).

2.3.1 The return to a stand-alone History discipline

The start of the push for a stand-alone History discipline was first acknowledged in 2006 by then Prime Minister John Howard during his Australia Day eve address. In the address Howard (2006) asserted how “real concerns also surround the teaching of Australian history in

lower secondary and primary schools. Too often history has fallen victim in an ever more crowded curriculum to subjects deemed more ‘relevant’ to today.”

Research conducted by the Council for the Centenary of Federation in 1997 highlighted a growing trend of “national ignorance” amongst young Australians, with only 18% of those interviewed knowing that Sir Edmund Barton was Australia’s first Prime Minister and only 43% of respondents knowing what Federation meant (Clark, 2008; Taylor, 2001). In 2006, on the eve of Australia Day, Howard therefore called for a ‘root and branch renewal’ of the teaching of Australian History as a subject in Australian schools (Howard, 2006). Howard (2006) maintained “in the end, young people are at risk of being disinherited from their community if that community lacks the courage and confidence to teach its history.” Howard (2006) continued:

Too often, it is taught without any sense of structured narrative, replaced by a fragmented stew of ‘themes’ and ‘issues’. And too often, History, along with other subjects in the humanities, has succumbed to a postmodern culture of relativism where any objective record of achievement is questioned or repudiated.

Similarly, the then Federal Education, Science and Training Minister, Julie Bishop (2006a), stated that “we should seriously question, for example, the experiment of mashing up history in Studies of Society and the Environment (or SOSE). There is a growing body of evidence that this experiment is failing our children.” Bishop (2006b) further elaborated in a related article on her concern when she said: “that in the social and environment subjects that are supposed to teach history, students are missing knowledge about key historical events and their influence on our nation’s development.” Bishop (2006b) firmly stated that by not learning “these primary ingredients of history” students would be less able to draw their own opinions or form valid conclusions. Such political concern for a discrete History curriculum has

classified some politicians as “revivers and protectors” of the History discipline in the minds of the Australian public (Gilbert, 2011a, p. 246). This encouragement from Howard and the Federal Government for a separate Australian History subject created a sense of optimism for some for a new national History approach, although to others it was perceived as a “not-very subtle attempt to introduce a Howard-approved ‘three cheers’ national syllabus in Australian history” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 35).

Emeritus Laureate Professor Stuart Macintyre, one of Australia's leading historians and former Dean of Melbourne University's Faculty of Arts, commented that a revision of the history curriculum needed to be “open to diverse viewpoints and that it was not simply an exercise in indoctrination” (Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC), 2006). Macintyre also warned that the “learning of history is a discovery of history... [t]here is no fixed and final version to be taught” (ABC, 2006). Similarly, Wineburg (2001) observed, when “which history to teach [has] dominated the debate... the more important question of why teach history in the first place is lost” (p. xii). Six months later the then Minister for Education, Science and Training, Julie Bishop, announced on 4 July 2006 that there would be a History ‘Summit’ in Canberra (Taylor, 2012b). In Minister Bishop’s address at the Australian History Summit Dinner on 16 August 2006 she invoked public concern for the need for change, saying “parents all around Australia are worried that their children will grow up with virtually no understanding of their country’s history... unfortunately, they have good reason to be” (Bishop, 2006a).

Bishop (2006a) opened her address at the Summit Dinner with an anecdote about Roy Eccleston, a journalist at *The Australian* newspaper. Eccleston had raised concern about the lack of “a structured, consistent study of the nation’s history” (Bishop 2006a) to the local school principal, who advised Eccleston that he was “not to worry... his children wouldn’t be

alone in their ignorance” (Bishop, 2006a). This anecdote positioned the current curriculum as doing a disservice to our youth. Bishop (2006a) indicated that this situation was “not good enough” and saw this as “an issue of national importance” and that it was now the “time to fix it”. Bishop (2006a) lamented:

We have a rich and unique national story. We have to ask ourselves why so few of our children know it... The facts of our founding and settlement give rise to an inspirational story. Whatever the rights and wrongs of Australian history, it's ours and we should care about it. To know who we are and where we are going, we must understand where we came from.

Understanding Australian History is therefore “a core part of what it means to be an active and informed citizen” (Bishop, 2006a). However, Bishop (2006a) warned that it would be counterproductive to create an official Australian history. Bishop (2006a) maintained that an official history “would lead to further attempts to politicise our nation’s past, and would create a focal point for those with strong political interpretations of Australia’s past to periodically attempt to hijack the teaching of our history.” Bishop’s viewpoint was somewhat ironic given the shift towards an Australian history was driven by the Australian Federal Government.

A national History Summit was held on August 17, 2006 and had the specific task of forming “a national, narrative-based and stand-alone (definitely not SOSE) approach to Australian history in primary and secondary schools from Years 3–10” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 35). Key members of the summit held a strong view that “Australian history should be a compulsory, stand-alone subject during some period of high school in Australia” (Bishop, 2006a). The choice of using a narrative-based or story framework was chosen because it was “the easiest way of making sense of events” (Melleuish, 2006a, p. 21). The summit consisted of 23 members, including academics specialising in Australian history, public figures who

promote the study of History, and educational leaders (Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST), 2006). Gregory Melleuish, an Associate Professor of History and Politics at The University of Wollongong, was commissioned by Education, Science and Training Minister Julie Bishop to write a draft school History curriculum for Years 3–10 (Taylor, 2012b).

The focus of the History Summit was to “rectify some of the imbalances and omissions in the standard accounts of Australian history” (Hirst, 2006), as well as “to address the issue of what Australians should know about their past... [and] what it would be appropriate to teach to students in Australian schools between Years 3 and 10” (Melleuish, 2006b, p. 1). However, there was no state or territory involvement in this process, which was interesting considering Bishop (2006a) affirmed that they wanted “to work with schools to rebuild the teaching of Australian history at all levels of schooling”. For these reasons it was clear that the Australian Government was “attempting to impose a traditionalist, almost nationalistic, History curriculum on the nation’s schools” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 36). Melleuish (2006b) argued that the secondary school Australian Curriculum History should contain three elements, namely: knowledge of public events and developments in Australia, understanding of the global context of Australian history, and knowledge of the everyday lives of past Australians. Melleuish (2006a) asserted that the study of “people living in Australia 50 or 100 or 200 years ago... [was]... important because it helps students to appreciate the humanity of people who were quite different from themselves” (p. 21). At the summit then Prime Minister John Howard (DEST, 2006) affirmed this stance when he said:

To have knowledge of some of the key things that shaped the modern Australia is not to automatically endorse everything that took place in Australia in the years that preceded the year in which we live. Nor is it to indicate a particular view. I don’t know how we

can intelligently argue our different points of view about what the modern Australia is or the future Australia should be without having a proper orthodox understanding, in the sense of being properly instructed and according to some kind of coherent narrative. Unless we have that, I don't think we can have a proper understanding of our present.
(p.2)

Howard was a key stakeholder for an Australian history that enabled students to develop a coherent narrative of the past.

There was a mixed response to the Melleuish draft History syllabus: "the majority regarded it as a useful starting point, some considered it a stalking horse, and a few hailed it with enthusiasm" (Gregory, 2007, p. 10.3). To others, the Melleuish draft History syllabus resembled "a watered-down university course" with "forty-nine large topics and most of these were unexciting and abstract in nature" (Taylor, 2012b, p. 37). As Gregory (2007) states, most stakeholders believed that the proposed syllabus was:

Pitched at too complex a level for Years 9 and 10, there was inadequate attention to Aboriginal history, social history in general and multiculturalism in particular, no recognition of regional differences, nothing on the environment, and the recommended detail was too extensive to fit the limited number of hours available (90 to 100 hours per year at secondary level). (p. 10.3)

Delegates at the Australian History Summit agreed that any national Australian History curriculum had to be teachable (engage students and teachers), do-able (cover all ability ranges), and sustainable (address the range of interests and circumstances in the education systems of Australia) (DEST, 2006). According to Taylor (2012b), Melleuish's proposed History syllabus was not teachable, nor doable nor sustainable" (p. 37). Rather it was:

Lacklustre, over-crowded with complicated and time-consuming topics and bore little relationship to successive student attainment levels K-10. Moreover, the very non-consultative and ideologically-driven nature of the Summit would guarantee opposition from the jurisdictions, all of which, at that time had Labor governments. (Taylor, 2012b, p. 37)

Several speakers at the Summit said that there was more in the Melleuish draft History syllabus than in “a university course and some of it required a level of abstract thinking beyond a young teenager” (Hirst, 2006). Clearly, determining what should be included and excluded from an Australian History curriculum was not going to be easy, as different stakeholders had different views on what was significant enough to be included.

Dr John Hirst, a specialist in Australian history, suggested an alternative approach to Melleuish that consisted of a ‘Questions and Milestones’ approach which “framed Australian history as a set of large thematic questions, within which a series of key events (Milestones) would be studied” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 38). The Summit delegates agreed with this Questions and Milestone approach (Taylor, 2012b). Associate Professor Tony Taylor was later asked to assist with the new draft History curriculum Years 3–10 that would follow the Milestones and Questions model (Taylor, 2012b). The April 2007 document itself was:

Strong on pedagogy, was based on an historical literacy approach, contained a primary-level section with outlined four (either integrated or discipline-based) topics that could move from local to regional to national to global topics, as well as a secondary-level section which had ten broad Topics-as-Questions, to act as starters for depth studies. The idea behind limiting the number of Milestones was that students could spend time assessing and discussing whether or not they justified their position in the overall narrative, while, at the same time, a class could also discuss why other, seemingly

significant events might have been omitted. The questions-as-depth studies were included to allow students to explore and investigate topics in detail, following on from UK history educator Denis Shemilt's research in the late 1970s. (Taylor, 2012b, p. 39)

Following the consultation period with states and territories, submissions from teacher groups, curriculum officials and education departments. Tony (2012) determined that "all those consulted seemed to support a discrete syllabus in Australian history as long as it was globally-contextualised, had manageable content, dealt with multiple perspectives and was not just a nationalist narrative" (p. 39).

However, in June 2007 it was announced that a new committee was to be established to review the April draft. The committee only met once, in September 2007, and had the task of revising the national Australian History curriculum so that it was "Howard-friendly" (Taylor, 2012b, p. 40). By October 2007 the draft had been revised to include 77 suggested and optional Milestones, the Questions and the Investigations had been deleted, and over 100 biographies had been added "to assist with the study" (Taylor, 2012b, p. 40). One telling feature of the new guide was that:

The then prime minister's view of historical literacy was a watered-down version of the original, with 'moral judgement' dropped altogether and 'contention and contestability' (historiography and public debate) rewritten as the more anodyne 'explain and account for difference in historical interpretations. (Taylor, 2008)

Additionally, "primary-level History had disappeared completely, confirming history educators' fears that the prime minister had only ever been interested in Years 9 and 10" (Taylor, 2012b, p. 40).

Nick Brown, an unaligned academic historian involved in the review, was “publicly horrified” that what had been sent to the Prime Minister’s Office as “seventy-seven suggested and optional Milestones for consideration and selection at the school level, had been turned, without further consultation, into seventy-seven compulsory topics, à la Bob Carr’s 1998 Syllabus, but with even more topics” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 40). It was “prescriptive and unwieldy” and effectively “when push came to shove, it was totally impractical, if only because of the immense amount of content” (Taylor, 2008). The education community overwhelmingly responded, saying “that the Howard ‘*Guide to the Teaching of Australian History in Years 9 and 10*’ was a political stunt, and had been offered, in part, as a last-minute counter to his decline in popularity prior to the forthcoming general election” (Taylor, 2012b, p. 40).

The 2007 report by the Australian states and territories (Council for the Australian Federation) highlighted the growing consensus amongst the states and territories for a national curriculum. The report also acknowledged previous criticisms of SOSE and suggested that what was required to be studied in this KLA were the disciplines of History, Geography, and Civics (Council for the Australian Federation, 2007). The inclusion of History and Geography within SOSE has been also linked to knowledge deficits in these disciplines and had given rise to political and social calls for reinstatement of stand-alone subjects and national curricula in History and Geography (Harris-Hart, 2008). For instance, History as a discipline became increasingly difficult to identify especially after History was allocated to the Time Continuity and Change (TCC) strand, as this was ineffective in retaining the identity of History as it only referred to Historical concepts not Historical modes of inquiry or skills (Allen, 2008). The Ways of Working also did not provide specific Historical inquiry methods and this in turn limited the opportunity for students to conduct genuine Historical studies (Allen, 2008). The implementation of SOSE meant that at the classroom level the Time, Continuity and Change

strand was taught less than successfully, which resulted in students having no clear understanding of what the study of History entailed (Taylor, 2000).

Following the loss of the Liberal-National government in the general election of November 2007 Howard's 'Guide' was publicly dropped by the new Labor Government in 2008 (Taylor, 2012b). Therefore, in 2008 the Rudd/Gillard Labor Government started again, but this time the strategy was to cover the entire curriculum, starting with English, Mathematics, Science, and of course History (Taylor, 2012b). However, this time the strategy was to have all states and territories participating, and all teachers involved in consultation (Taylor, 2012b). However, some do argue that the decision to shift towards an Australian Curriculum was the result of a range of cooperative national curriculum projects and the educational ground work over the past two decades rather than the change in government (Henderson, 2011). The Australian Curriculum aimed at promoting greater consistency across the states and territories in educational matters and was so endorsed, with certain qualifications, by state and territory ministers at the Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (MCEECDYA) meeting on 8 December 2010 (Henderson, 2012). This was the background to the development of the Australian Curriculum.

The new Australian Curriculum History was designed to teach historical knowledge of Australia across all the years of compulsory schooling (Guyver, 2011). States, territories, and teachers were involved at all stages through the standalone curriculum agency, the National Curriculum Board (NCB), later to be the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) (Taylor, 2012b). The contestation surrounding Australian Curriculum History was not new, and again related to what topics should be covered, when it should be taught (year level/s), and how it should be taught (Harris & Bateman, 2008). In other words, it

was a “contemporary political struggle to represent Australia through its heritage” (Clark, 2006, p. 1) by drawing on societies’ collective memory of our past (Henderson, 2008; Henderson, 2012). It was therefore acknowledged that no matter what ended up being included in the Australian Curriculum History it would not be value-free (Guyver, 2011). Henderson (2012) agreed that it was unlikely that a consensus that pleased every stakeholder group within such a multi-cultural society as Australia would ever be reached, especially given the breadth of Australia’s past and the variance in what was valued by Australians. It therefore becomes apparent that within the development of any national curriculum what was valued by civil society of the time takes precedence. Previous curriculum versions and associated documentation are an indicator of the efforts of previous governments to secure a nation’s past, with an awareness of the need to secure the future (Attwood, 2005; Henderson, 2012). Henderson (2012) also discussed how a national curriculum:

Reflects those choices made about what version of the nation’s past should be afforded historical significance by some groups in society, and which cultural memories of an event are to be transmitted to future generations of young Australians. (p. 26)

Kennedy (2009) argues that debates about what to include in a national curriculum are debates about a nations’ values and beliefs and are not “merely academic – they are debates about a nations’ soul” (p. 6). Clearly, the writing of a national curriculum was a somewhat inevitably contested and political process.

The content choices made within the body of an Australian Curriculum History would be influenced by key stakeholders within civil society (Guyver, 2011; Henderson, 2012). In awareness of this, a large effort was made to avoid politicisation by avoiding favouring one political party over another (Guyver, 2011). The primary means of doing this was by offering opportunities to test the validity of key events (landmarks or milestones) through an inquiry

based approach (Guyver, 2011). Also, an over-nationalistic treatment of Australia was avoided by allowing for a wider regional or comparative setting (e.g. locally, nationally, or globally), which also assisted with the development of student chronological awareness (Guyver, 2011). The legitimacy and the power of the disciplinary knowledges and traditions were significant factors in shaping professional networks and identities at the school level. The jockeying for position amongst the key History stakeholders had created a heightened public and political discourse over curriculum change, in History in particular. While it was less public, the Geography stakeholders also voiced concern over the need for a disciplinary-specific approach.

2.3.2 The return to a stand-alone Geography discipline

Geography stakeholders, like History stakeholders, were concerned about the perceived loss of status for the Geography discipline due to the implementation of SOSE. Casinader (2015) contends that “the construction of the SOSE curriculum, with its emphatic focus on society and environment, facilitated the diminution of school geography in status and as a body of disciplinary knowledge” (p. 99). Casinader (2015) also voiced concern over how, as a result of SOSE, the “differentiation embodied in a geographical perspective... had become lost” (p. 99). Similarly, Lam and Lidstone (2001) maintained that much of the traditional Physical Geography was now taught in Science rather than in SOSE – a move which was believed to have “severely weakened the educative potential of Geography as the integrative study of patterns on the world’s surface and threatened to undermine much of the vital scientific basis to environmental understanding” (p. 65). Similarly, Casinader (2016) also suggested that in SOSE “the scientific aspects of Geography became less emphasised, and in many cases, negated altogether” (p. 259). The Australian Geography Teachers Association (AGTA) and other geographical organisations stated in their submission to the 2007 Senate Inquiry into the

Academic Standards of School Education that SOSE does not develop the concepts and skills of Geography systematically over the age spectrum (Erebus International, 2008). The AGTA also highlighted in the submission how the “syntax of disciplines has disappeared in SOSE to be replaced by un-sequenced generic activities that do not adequately provide students with the steps required to create new knowledge” (Erebus International, 2008, p. 37). Consequently, when students take up Geography in the senior years of high school they lack the requisite knowledge and skills for that level of study (Erebus International, 2008). This lack of requisite knowledge and skill due to SOSE had also been highlighted for History.

Another related criticism of the absorption of Geography into SOSE has been the undermining of the specialist knowledge of Geography teachers, given that the geographical content of SOSE was often taught by teachers without training or passion for the discipline (Erebus International, 2008). Members of the Council of the Institute of Australian Geographers (CIAG) have reported that SOSE teachers, while expected to teach across the disciplines of History, Geography, and Economics in Years 8 to 10, often have studied only one of these subjects during their tertiary studies. McCalman (1996) suggests that SOSE was devised to deliver a fundamental shift in schoolwide pedagogy in which ‘educational method’ takes priority over ‘content’. Young trainee (pre-service) teachers are highly trained in education method but have inadequate training in core disciplinary areas (McCalman, 1996). Marsh (2008) gave the following example:

It’s luck whether the teacher in a SOSE classroom is trained in History, Economics or Geography. Obviously, teachers are most comfortable with their own discipline. For example, a History teacher will probably struggle with Geographic Information Systems (GIS) and the processes and impacts of El Nino. (p. 306)

The members of CIAG asserted that the inclusion of Geography in SOSE was not conducive to quality education and had contributed to the erosion of Geography's status in the view of students, parents and school administration (Erebus International, 2008).

The perceived low status of SOSE within the hierarchy of schools meant that many teachers with little or no History or Geography background were allocated to the subject, which thus exacerbated the problem of poor subject identity and increased the incidence of poor teaching (Taylor, 2000). As the International Charter on Geographic Education states "Geography should be taught in schools and colleges by trained specialist teachers. Teachers are the more valuable resource in education. Because of this and because of the complexity of Geography studies, well trained, specialist teachers are essential" (Haubrich, 1992, p. 13). Casinader (2016) noted how in SOSE "the number of non-geographically trained teachers allocated to the teaching of Geography or geographical ideas increased" (p. 259). The quality of teaching in SOSE was perceived as being inadequate because of the scope of knowledge required to teach it and because of the unrealistic demands it placed on teachers not trained in multiple SOSE disciplines (Casinader, 2015; Taylor, 2012a). The 'top performing' schools realised that quality teaching was needed in order to achieve improved student results (Fleming & Kleinhenz, 2007). Therefore, continual professional development in the disciplines they teach – as well as in the most appropriate teaching methodologies – was vital for teachers to ensure that quality teaching was occurring within the classroom (Taylor, 2000).

Lambert and Balderstone (2010) noted that where there has been substantial curriculum change there was typically a stronger reliance on textbooks. This was especially true where there was a number of non-specialist (and therefore probably more textbook reliant) teachers teaching Geography (Kleeman, 2011). This was due to the growing shortage of suitably

qualified Geography teachers in Australia (Kleeman, 2011). A survey conducted by Kleeman in late 2010 revealed that fewer than 150 pre-service teachers graduated from universities in Australia with Geography as their first (principle) teaching area (Kleeman, 2011). The literature demonstrated that another reason for an upturn in reliance on textbooks was because, teachers with a preference for explicit or direct instruction also often tend to rely on textbook-dependent modes of teaching so as to “hand down knowledge to students” (Kleeman, 2011, p.9). Furthermore, teachers who demonstrate a preference for a more student-centred approach to learning are often “less reliant on a single textbook and tend to use texts more selectively” (Kleeman, 2011, p. 9). It was interesting to note that the Australian Curriculum documents were increasingly explicit and prescriptive in relation to what teachers were to teach (the content) and this was expressed in terms of knowledge and understanding and skills (Kleeman, 2009). This highlights the importance of disciplinary specific teachers and their vital role in curriculum implementation in the specialist disciplines of History and Geography.

The approval of the Geography curriculum in 2013, as part of the second phase of the implementation of the Australian Curriculum, was seen as “a national validation of the discipline’s right to exist within a comprehensive learning framework from Year F (Foundation) to Year 12” (Casinader, 2016, p. 259). Geography teachers and their associated affiliations were “buoyed by the specification of Geography in a national curriculum that would demand that the subject be taught in all schools throughout the country” (Casinader, 2016, p. 259). The status and recognition of Geography as a discrete discipline was seen as positively influenced by the development of a national curriculum.

2.4 ACARA

The National Curriculum Board (NCB) was an interim organisational body formed in order to shape a national Australian curriculum. The NCB was superseded by the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA), the independent authority responsible for the shaping, drafting, and publication of final national curriculum documents from Kindergarten to Year 12 in specified learning areas, the national assessment of student achievement, and reporting of school educational outcomes (ACARA, 2012b).

The NCB released *The National History Curriculum: Framing Paper* (NCB, 2008a) in 2008 and *The Shape of Australian Curriculum: History* document, the following year (NCB, 2009c), after which followed an extensive period of consultation with key stakeholders including teachers, professional associations, curriculum experts, and the broader educational community (NCB, 2009b). ACARA released the draft national History curriculum document, *Draft Consultation 1.0: Australian Curriculum: History* (ACARA, 2010b) in March 2010. Version 3.0 of the finalised national History document was released in January 2012 (ACARA, 2012g).

In 2012, English, Mathematics, and Science national curricula were implemented in Queensland schools as part of the Phase 1 implementation of the national curriculum. In 2013, the national History curriculum was scheduled for implementation. Phase 2 learning areas (Geography, the Arts, and LOTE) and Phase 3 learning areas (Health and Physical Education, Technologies, Economics and Business, and Civics and Citizenship) were to be implemented following the finalisation of Phase 1 implementation in Queensland schools (ACARA, 2012b; QSA, 2012a).

The *Draft Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography* paper (ACARA, 2010c) was released in June 2010. The *Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography* document (ACARA, 2011b) was released in January 2011. The *Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography* paper (ACARA, 2011a) was released in October 2011 for public consultation. The final version of the national Geography curriculum was released in August 2013.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter examined the contestation surrounding curriculum as a construct, and reviewed curriculum debates and developments in History and Geography. The term curriculum is difficult to define as it is developed in response to, or has been shaped by, prevailing social forces (Kennedy, 2005). Definitions have ranged from Grundy's suggestion that the curriculum is "not about what teachers teach but what learners learn" (2005, p. 165) to Simmons' discussion of how the curriculum is "not an abstract entity but a lived experience" (1998, p. 367). After careful consideration of the numerous definitions of the curriculum the working definition was determined as: A planned course of studies that is shaped by the lived experiences of key societal stakeholders within a particular area (typically state or national area) and that is implemented through both explicit and implicit teacher instruction. This chapter outlined the nature and development of the SOSE curriculum, reasons for and against multidisciplinary approaches, and the shift back to the separate Social Science disciplines of History and Geography under a national curriculum approach. The following chapter examines how the various stakeholders have helped to shape the enacted curriculum. I then compare the structure of the SOSE KLA with the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines and the

discrete disciplines of History and Geography before discussing the case study school's pedagogical framework.

3.0 Current shape and emphases of curriculum

As already demonstrated in the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, the shape and emphases of a curriculum is often highly contested by key stakeholders. In Australia “the official curriculum has been a state-based curriculum ever since the formation of public education systems in the various Australian colonies from the 1870s” (Reid, 2005, p. 39). The necessity for a national approach to curriculum in Australia has been a recurring theme since 1968 (Reid, 2005). During the late 1980s and early 1990s the primary focus of curriculum reform in Australia was the content of the curriculum, with discussion around “the similarities and differences between the states and territories, the possibilities for developing common content, and most of all the hope for more efficiencies and cost savings” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 3). This again changed “when attention was devoted to assessment, on developing profiles of learning progress” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 3). Following on from the discipline discussion in Chapter Two, this chapter will firstly examine recent curriculum emphases in the teaching of History and Geography. It will then compare the structure and organisation of the SOSE KLA with the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. Finally, there will be a brief discussion of the way the curriculum is enacted in the case study school through the use of a particular pedagogical framework.

3.1 Recent curriculum emphases in teaching History

History as a discipline has moved away from exclusively teaching facts and dates, to an emphasis on the processes of studying History and on understanding that History was a construct (Harris, Harrison, & McFahn, 2012). History appeals to people as it is:

A record of personal experience that fascinates in its difference from the present, and provides links to those who have gone before in ways that can evoke feelings of empathy,

admiration or disdain... a source of stories and heritage to be preserved, origins to be traced and events to be explained... a tool of policy aimed at establishing national ethos and order (Gilbert, 2011a, p.246).

Similarly, Bishop (2006a) maintained that “History is not peace studies... History is history, and shouldn’t be a political science course by another name”. History today is no longer seen as solely developing a shared sense of a common heritage or for promoting patriotism, although this does still occur to some degree (e.g. the Australian Curriculum History document emphasises Australian History over European or US History) (Harris et al., 2012). History was considered important in developing a student’s personal identity and in assisting students to understand the world in which they live (Harris et al., 2012). Rusen (2004) argues that the study of History provides students with an awareness of themselves as our historical consciousness “functions to aid us in comprehending past actuality in order to grasp present actuality” (p. 66). In other words, historical consciousness considers how “our understanding of the past influences how we see the present and therefore shapes what we see as possible future actions” (Harris et al., 2012, p. 12). The use of the Historical inquiry approach also makes students more aware of the validity of multiple perspectives (Harris et al., 2012). Indeed, Allen (2008) declared “the phenomenon that appears to be breathing life into the corpse of History is, ironically, Australian History; ironic because research... revealed that many teachers believed that an emphasis on Australian History would destroy the subject altogether” (p. 57).

In some History settings, students have been encouraged to construct local or community histories wherein they use evidence to support or dispute dominant versions of the past. Such a History “insists that the way we tell stories about the past can depend on who we speak to in the present, potentially uncovering ruptures, abnormalities, disorder, discontinuities, disjunctions and the lost voice of the past” (Hoepper & Quanchi, 2000, p. 3). Harris and

Bateman (2007) suggested that student engagement in learning History would be increased through a reinvention of History so as to incorporate the “extended present” (p. 200). The inclusion of this perspective informs a History that “focuses on multiple visions of the past and present” and examines the implications of these visions for the future (Harris, 2008, pp. 275-276). The revised History curriculum that was articulated by the Howard Government set out a chronological approach to the Australian national story as a framework of topics, key milestones, and people that have shaped Australia (Howard, 2007). This approach also covered a range of historical perspectives to assist students in their understanding of change and continuity over time, and their appreciation for the rich diversity of Australia’s history (Howard, 2007). There has been a shift in the emphases and teaching of History which warranted a discussion on the need for a national curriculum.

3.1.1 Australian curriculum overview: History

This section discusses the shaping of the Australian Curriculum History and key implementation processes and considerations impacting on its curriculum enactment. In response to the *National curriculum development paper* (NCB2008a), *The shape of the national curriculum: A proposal for discussion* (NCB, 2008b) was released. It concluded that previous pressures of expanding curriculum knowledge had led to:

A view that it would be better to focus on the processes used in particular domains of knowledge rather than on knowledge itself.. The result a focus on scientific investigation rather than science, a focus on historical method rather than history. (NCB, 2008b)

The National Curriculum Board therefore determined that such “separation of content and process is not helpful and will be avoided in the development of the national curriculum”

(NCB, 2008b, p. 7). In 2008, the National Curriculum Board (NCB) released Framing Papers for English, Mathematics, the Sciences, and History curricula (NCB, 2008a; NCB, 2009a), after which followed a period of consultation with key stakeholders including teachers, professional associations, curriculum experts, and the broader educational community (NCB, 2009b).

In 2009, the National Curriculum Board completed the consultation phase and, after considering feedback and refining initial articulations, released the Shape of Australian Curriculum in English, Mathematics, the Sciences, and History (NCB, 2009b). The *Shape of the Australian Curriculum: History* (2009c) paper provided a broad outline of the suggested History curriculum content and course structure and was used by the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) to develop the draft History curriculum, which was released in 2010. While the English, Mathematics, and Science curricula were to be implemented in 2012, History, the fourth Phase 1 subject, was postponed until 2013. Interestingly, the key concern that was apparent from the onset of the development of the Australian national History curricula was time. To begin with, *The shape of the national curriculum: A proposal for Discussion* highlighted how the:

Expansion of knowledge has led to the curriculum becoming overcrowded as competing claims for priority have been dealt with by compromise rather than by rigorous evaluation to determine what to include and what to exclude. The result is a volume of curriculum content that cannot be covered adequately in the time available. The Board will develop a national curriculum that provides for rigorous, in-depth study and will prefer that to breadth wherever a choice needs to be made. (NCB, 2008b)

However, the '*Draft Consultation 1.0: Australian Curriculum: History*' document (ACARA, 2010b), did not specify a time allocation for coverage of historical overviews and depth studies. Rather, ACARA stated that time allocations would be the responsibility of schools:

ACARA has provided indicative time allocations for each learning area to help guide curriculum writers. However, hours in the curriculum have not been mandated as ACARA recognises that time allocations for subject areas vary across jurisdictions, education systems and schools. Decisions regarding subject time allocations in the context of school timetabling are the responsibility of schools and/or school authorities. Some state and territory education authorities may provide advice on this matter. (P. Vanessie, personal communication, April 20, 2010)

Nonetheless, ACARA maintained that, despite the possible variation in the allocation of time for History amongst states and territories, all students would be expected to undertake the overview and depth studies as indicated in the national History curriculum within any given year (ACARA, 2010b). Therefore, the Queensland Studies Authority (QSA) determined that 46-50 hours per year would be allocated to the teaching of History for Year 7 to Year 9, and only 43-48 hours per year for Year 10 (QSA, 2011b) (See Table 2 and Table 3). This is despite the *National History Curriculum: Framing Paper* (NCB, 2008a) concluding that one hundred hours of teaching time per year from Year 7 to Year 10 would be required. The *Framing Paper: Consultation Report* (NCB, 2009a), which collated feedback from stakeholders, called for significant rationalisation of topics, especially in secondary school. Despite the recommendation of an allocation of 100 hours per year for History in Years 7 to 10, it was argued that it would be very difficult for teachers to cover such topics successfully in any depth (NCB, 2009a, p. 8). The time allocation would also mean that less time would be available for other subjects and strands, including elective courses. In regard to the Geography curriculum, the QSA stipulated that the teaching of Geography would only be compulsory until the end of

Year 8 (QSA, 2011b). The QSA maintains that Geography would be allocated 46-50 hours per year for Year 7 and Year 8, and if Geography were to be offered (assumedly as an elective) in Year 9 and Year 10 it would be allocated 46-50 hours per year for Year 9 and 43-48 hours per year for Year 10 (QSA, 2011b). *The Australian Curriculum: History* (ACARA, 2011c) document provided the finalised Australian Curriculum for History.

Table 2: Time allocations for humanities and social science learning areas

| Humanities and Social Sciences Learning Areas | Hours per year over 37–40 weeks per year | | 35–38 weeks per year |
|---|--|-------|----------------------|
| | 7–8 | 9 | 10 |
| History | 46–50 | 46–50 | 43–48 |
| Geography | 46–50 | 46–50 | 43–48 |
| Civics and Citizenship | 18–20 | 18–20 | 17–19 |
| Business and Economics | 18–20 | 46–50 | 43–48 |

* Shaded areas on the table indicate when the discipline is an elective.
Adapted from: QSA, 2011b.

Table 3: Time allocation for the social sciences learning areas (learning areas other than history)

| Humanities and Social Sciences Learning Areas | Hours per year over 37–40 weeks per year | | 35–38 weeks per year |
|---|--|----------------|----------------------|
| | 7–8 | 9 | 10 |
| History | 46–50 | 46–50 | 43–48 |
| Other components of SOSE* | 82–90 | 111–120 | 103–115 |
| Total Humanities and Social Sciences | 128–140 | 157–170 | 146–163 |

* The strands Place and space, Culture and identity, and Political and economic systems
Adapted from: QSA, 2012a.

To some, the value of Geography as a key learning area of the Australian Curriculum was further jeopardised by time allocations, because History was compulsory until the end of Year 10 but Geography only until the end of Year 8. The preference of History over Geography

as a Phase One subject also cast doubt onto the value of Geography as a key learning area of the Australian Curriculum. Hart (2015) described how:

This inclusion of History as one of the four Phase One Australian Curriculum subjects seemed to signal the ascendance of school history which seemed to re-emerge much like a phoenix from the ashes of the Studies of Society and Environment key learning area. (p. 58)

This inclusion highlights the preference of History over other Humanities/Social Science disciplines (Geography, Civics and Citizenship, and Economics and Business) in terms of value, placement and time allocations by the creation of the Australian Curriculum.

The Draft K-10 Australian Curriculum Consultation Report (ACARA, 2010d) provided a summary of feedback following the release of the national curriculum documents for History and other Phase 1 subjects. In relation to History, a number significant issues were highlighted, as follows: overcrowded content; unclear achievement standards and inappropriate pitch; the need for greater inclusion of recent history content, Indigenous perspectives, and global perspectives; and clarity required around depth studies. In relation to content overcrowding, 66% of respondents expressed their concern that the History curriculum was too content heavy, thus creating issues as to whether there would be time to cover the range of topics adequately and in enough depth to ensure student understanding. Concern was also raised regarding how Indigenous perspectives could be recognised in the study of History without the teachings appearing tokenistic. Finally, respondents were concerned about the lack of contemporary history, Asian history, and Australia's history following World War II (WWII) Despite such concerns from key stakeholders the Australian Curriculum History has been implemented in Australian schools. Similar to History, there has also be recent curriculum emphases in the teaching of Geography (ACARA, 2010d).

3.2 Recent curriculum emphases in the teaching of Geography

Geography's two key dimensions: physical and human, can be taught in different ways, and this was the primary reason underpinning why Geography as a subject has seen countless changes in its structure (Harris, Harrison, & McFahn, 2012). Ongoing debates about whether Geography was a Science based subject or a Social Sciences/Humanities based subject in turn also influenced the prioritising of the importance of these different dimensions and the nature and the purpose of this subject (Harris et al., 2012).

Geography originally emphasised a 'capes and bays' approach in the first half of the 20th Century, which primarily saw a focus on Geographical knowledge (content) such as the location and names of places (major towns, capital cities, etc.) and Geographical features (major river systems and the highest mountain systems, etc.) (Ferrari, 2006; Harris et al., 2012). Throughout most of the 1960s to 1980s the teaching of Geography consequently focused on Physical Geography or Regional Geography. The main focus was on natural heritage through the intrinsic appeal of Geography by using teaching that demonstrated 'awe and wonder', and utilised fieldwork (Harris et al., 2012). This approach saw students writing profiles of countries based on subheadings such as population, climate, vegetation, and land use (Ferrari, 2006). The key limitation of this approach was how it was predominantly based on factual knowledge rather than inquiry (Harris et al., 2012). A 'new' type of Geography was created which focused on a more scientific and theoretical approach in the late 1960s and 1970s (e.g. the study of spatial processes and patterns to explain human settlement) (Harris et al., 2012). This type of Geography readily applied to Human Geography but also applied to some elements of Physical Geography as it saw greater use of data collection and hypothesis testing (Harris et al., 2012).

The addition of environmental concerns to Geography in the 1980s created a more social issues and values-based approach which was a result of a rise in the green movement (Ferrari, 2006; Harris et al., 2012). Geography should therefore be seen as “a holistic field of study as it bridges the social and the biophysical sciences” (Sorensen, 2009, p. 12).

The 1990s saw a shift across the world to follow the US model of entrenching Geography in an integrated Social Studies course (Ferrari, 2006). This shift was based on the idea that “no single discipline had all the answers, it was better to teach children skills and knowledge in the integrated way they would need to apply them in the real world” (Ferrari, 2006). Hence, this led to the introduction of the key learning area Studies of Society and the Environment (SOSE), and only New South Wales maintained Geography as a separate learning area (Ferrari, 2006). Today however, the US and Australia have returned to a separate compulsory Geography approach (Ferrari, 2006). This was primarily due to the evidence that over a long period of time the integrated courses in the US did not achieve the expected educational objectives (Biddle, 1996; Biddle, 1999; Gardner, 1986). A notable concern in the US, after Geography was reinstated as a compulsory subject from Grade K to Grade 12, was the lack of qualified Geography teachers (Biddle, 1999). This issue was exacerbated by the lack of Geographical educators at universities due to the loss of Geography departments across the US due to the amorphous Social Studies course which was offered at schools for more than 50 years (Biddle, 1999). Similarly, as discussed by Kleeman (2011), Australia will also experience this problem until enough time has passed so that the Australian universities can cope with the growing demand from schools requiring disciplinary specialist teachers in History, Geography, and Civics, rather than generalist SOSE teachers to implement the Australian Curriculum.

According to Ferrari (2006), Lidstone, who was secretary for 10 years of the International Geographical Union’s Education Commission, favours the image of Geography as outlined by

the first man to hold the title ‘Professor of Geography’, James Fairgrieve of the University of London. Fairgrieve (1926) had described how:

The function of Geography in schools is to train future citizens to imagine accurately the condition of the great world stage and so to help them think sanely about political and social problems of the world around. (p. 18)

For that reason, Geography as a subject now meets a number of different objectives, such as the development of skills (both generic and discipline specific), which in turn produces functionally literate individuals who will become successful members of the workforce (Harris et al., 2012). Learning Geography also develops individuals with a strong sense of place and space (e.g. understanding of the physical and natural world) from multiple perspectives, so that they can understand the contemporary world in which they live (Harris et al., 2012). Similarly, Huckle (1997) determined that Geography had the potential to develop a young person’s identity and their “understanding of their ‘place’ in the world” (p. 241). Finally, Geography also provides these individuals with a strong sense of understanding of the social and political issues facing humanity, to support them in developing values and/or making a commitment to social action (Harris et al., 2012).

A Steering Committee was formed in 2008 in order to submit a response to ACARA regarding the Australian Curriculum initiative for Geography (McInerney, Berg, Hutchinson, & Sorensen, 2009). The Steering Committee consisted of members from the Australian Geography Teachers Association (AGTA), the Institute of Australian Geographers (IAG), and the Royal Queensland Geographical Society (RGSQ) (McInerney, et al., 2009). The purpose of this committee was to gather and present ideas on the shape of a national Geography curriculum for Australia (McInerney, et al., 2009). The Steering Committee proposed a definition for Geography as “the study of places – their biophysical and human characteristics,

their interconnections and interdependencies, and their variation across space” (McInerney, et al., 2009, p. 7). This aligns with Matthews and Herbert (2008), who state “the essence of Geography is the integration of spatial variation over the Earth’s surface with the distinctiveness of places and the interactions between people and the environment” (p. 14). The *Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography* (ACARA, 2011a) document defines Geography as “a structured way of exploring, analysing and explaining the characteristics of the places that make up our world, through perspectives based on the concepts of place, space and the environment” (p. 3). Creswell (2008) defines a place as “a meaningful segment of geographical space” and contends that it was not scale specific (p. 134). A place could therefore include a river catchment, a suburb, a region, a town, or a city. No matter what the scale, “places have porous boundaries and are connected with other places” (McInerney, et al., 2009, p. 8). A review of Geography teaching by the Rediscovering Geography Committee (1997) in the US argued that:

Places are natural laboratories for the study of complex relationships among processes and phenomena. Geography has a long tradition of attempting to understand how different processes and phenomena interact in regions and localities, including an understanding of how these interactions give places their distinctive character. (p. 30)

However, Geographers do not try to study all aspects of places, as they prefer to specialise in understanding specific characteristics, processes or problems (McInerney, et al., 2009).

The discipline of Geography links to Goal 2 of the *Melbourne Declaration on Education Goals for Young Australians* (MCEETYA, 2008), as it assists with creating active and informed citizens by building on “an understanding of the processes and interrelationships that produce the characteristics of places, in order to examine some of the contemporary issues of places” (McInerney, et al., 2009, p. 15). In order to help students appreciate the influence of a range of

perspectives on their understanding of social, natural, and built environments teachers need to think about what progression in the Social Sciences looks like. According to Weedon and Butt (2010) progression is the “measurable advances in knowledge, understanding and skills made by pupils in their studies over time” (pp. 10-11). Geography teachers therefore “need to have a clear idea about how assessment, teaching and learning interact so [they] can help pupils acquire and develop geographical capability while using the specialised vocabulary of Geography meaningfully” (Weedon & Butt, 2009, cited in Harris et al., 2012, p. 115).

Thus, Geography can assist students with developing empathy for other people and other places and in developing a strong awareness of the importance of global citizenship (McInerney, et al., 2009). The definition of Geography from McInerney et al. (2009), was consequently adopted by the Steering Committee as it incorporated all existing definitions of Geography, as well as some of the newer branches of the Geography discipline (e.g. Cultural Geography or Political Geography). The Steering Committee firmly believed that the Geography Curriculum should be based on “an understanding of how students learn Geography, of how Geographical knowledge is actively constructed, and of the most effective methods of teaching the subject” (McInerney, et al., 2009, p. 17). The authors also maintained that the Geography national curriculum should therefore emphasise an inquiry-based method of teaching as it had been proven as the most effective method for teaching procedural knowledge, fieldwork and group work, so as to develop Geographical understanding and skills (McInerney, et al., 2009). The Geography national curriculum should be:

Structured to enable a progression of learning; have an emphasis on geographical questions, perspectives, approaches and methods; focus on depth of understanding rather than breadth of content; provide scope for inquiry-based and problem-solving methods

of teaching and learning; and enable students to reflect on what they are learning and develop their own considered values and attitudes. (McInerney, et al., 2009, p. 28)

In addition, the Geography national curriculum should ensure that it addressed relevant current issues of concern (e.g. climate change and its impact on the Great Barrier Reef) although care must be taken when teaching about potentially contentious issues, as some Australians may regard them as being too ideological (McInerney, et al., 2009). The primary concern with an inquiry based approach was what role was appropriate for teachers in promoting particular values or beliefs in relation to an issue (McInerney, et al., 2009). Another concern for an inquiry based approach was ensuring that problems or issues do not appear so big and unattainable because adults and governments cannot fix them, as this would be counterproductive for Geography (Ferrari, 2006). Clearly, this was where teachers should allow students to critically analyse and evaluate relevant issues for themselves, through the use of appropriate criteria, and in doing so truly become active and informed citizens.

3.2.1 Australian curriculum overview: Geography

The Australian Curriculum Geography began development in 2009, with the *Draft Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography Paper* published in May 2010 for public consultation (ACARA, 2010c). The aim of the *Consultation Feedback Report: Draft Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography Paper* (ACARA, 2010a) was to present the key findings from the consultation process. A primary concern was the status of Geography beyond Year 8. There appeared to be the understanding within schools that both History and Geography would be compulsory until Year 10. However, in reality only History was compulsory until the end of Year 10 as Geography became an elective after Year 8 (ACARA, 2010a) (See Table 2). Noticeably, the discipline of History would therefore receive more allocated time on the

timetable over other components of SOSE due to History being compulsory in Years 9 and 10 (See Table 3).

In other countries there are also differing views on whether Geography should be compulsory or an elective discipline. For example, in Finland, England, and Wales the Geography curriculum was continuous throughout their school systems from Grade K to Grade 12 (Biddle, 1999). In Finland, the study of Geography was compulsory from Grade K to Grade 12 whereas in England and Wales Geography was only compulsory until the end of Year 9, after which it became an elective (Biddle, 1999). Although Geography was also compulsory from Grade K to Grade 12 in the US, the course was not continuous and was “far too fragmented for US students to achieve the level of competence attained by students in Finland and England and Wales” (Biddle, 1999, p. 86). Hence, the underlying intention of the Australian Curriculum Geography was to provide students with a higher level of geographical competence comparable with other countries around the world.

A review of the *Draft Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography paper*, following feedback from the national panel meeting and state and territory consultation, led to the final *Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography Paper* being published in 2011 (ACARA, 2012e). The *Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography* (ACARA, 2011b) provided a broad overview of the purpose, structure and organisation of the Geography curriculum and following further public consultation was used to help develop the *Draft Australian Curriculum: Geography paper* (ACARA, 2011a). The final publication of the *Australian Curriculum: Geography Paper* was set for late 2012 with an expected implementation in schools from the start of the following year (ACARA, 2012e) (See Table 4). The implementation of Geography was postponed from 2013 until 2014 as the Australian education ministers had not approved

of the Australian Curriculum Geography prior to the end of 2012 (QSA, 2012c). The postponement until 2014 enabled Education Queensland to develop suitable online Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C) units and resources to assist in this implementation process (EQ, 2011a).

Table 4: Development timeline of the Australian curriculum geography documents

| Stage | Activity | Timelines |
|------------------------|--|---|
| Curriculum Shaping | Literature Review Position Paper Initial Advice Paper | July – August 2009 September – November 2009 January – April 2010 |
| Consultation | National Forum Draft <i>Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography</i> finalised National consultation on draft Shape paper National panel meeting Final <i>Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography</i> | April 2010 May – August 2010 June – August 2010 October 2010 January 2011 |
| Curriculum Development | Broad outline: Scope and sequence Content descriptions (and elaborations) and achievement standards | February – September 2011 |
| Consultation | National Consultation (draft curriculum) Curriculum revision National consultation and final revisions | October 2011- February 2012 March – June 2012 July – September 2012 |
| Publication | Digital Publication | Early 2013 |
| Implementation | | 2014 |

Adapted from: ACARA, 2012e and QSA, 2012c.

3.3 Australian curriculum implementation

To date, there have been numerous differing viewpoints of the Australian Curriculum implementation. Counsell (1999), stated that “if we have no personal sense of what getting better in History [or Geography or Civics and Citizenship] means then we may as well give up

and go home” (p. 2). The more disenchanted observers feel that the creation of an Australian Curriculum was “doomed to failure” whereas the more positive observers feel that “at last we have an Australian Curriculum that will be implemented in its entirety” (Hart, 2011a, p. 24). It was also noted that if an examination of student progression indicators does not occur at a national level by ACARA or at the very least at the state level it will create a curriculum as described by Weedon and Butt (2009), which has:

Elements of continuity (featuring similar Geographical content, concepts, themes, skills, etc. year on year), but poor progression – typically covering the same ground, without expecting pupils to make intellectual advances as they mature. Here pupils would progress essentially by learning the same things, but maybe in a slightly different context. (pp. 10-11).

It has been interesting to see how the Australian Curriculum implementation process has occurred across Australia, especially when considering how the control of the curriculum implementation rests with the differing state and territory educational governing bodies (Hart, 2011a). For instance, some states have chosen to stagger their implementation of History and Geography for different year levels (see Table 5).

Table 5: Comparison of implementation schedule between Queensland and New South Wales

| State | Subject | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 |
|-------|-----------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| NSW | History | N/A | Familiarisation and Planning | Start teaching Year 7 and 9 | Start teaching Year 8 and 10 | | | |
| QLD | History | Familiarisation and Planning | Start teaching Year 7, 8, 9, 10 | | | | | |
| NSW | Geography | N/A | N/A | N/A | Familiarisation and Planning | | Start teaching Year 7 and 9 | Start teaching Year 8 and 10 |
| QLD | Geography | N/A | Familiarisation and Planning | Start teaching Year 7, 8, 9 and 10 | | | | |

Adapted from: Board of Studies Teaching and Educational Standards NSW, 2012; Board of Studies Teaching and Educational Standards NSW, 2015; QSA, 2012c.

The classroom teacher must also be aware of how to plan and assess in this dynamic curriculum period. Haydn, Arthur, and Hunt (1997) maintain that:

If assessment is to be used successfully by the classroom teacher it must be integrated within the whole process of planning...Consequently the way in which you provide feedback to your pupils and both record and report on their progress will be very much related to the clarity of your teaching and learning objectives, together with your choice of learning experiences. (p.208)

In summary, the power given to the state and territory educational bodies has an impact on the rate of implementation and uptake across Australia and on the level of success of the national curriculum within the classroom. It was vital for stakeholders examining the design of the Australian Curriculum to ensure that there was sufficient teacher involvement in its construction at a school level, as an understanding of student progression informs curriculum planning and assessment design, and in turn determines the most appropriate teaching practices and/or methods to deliver the curriculum.

3.4 Australian curriculum review

In terms of the third iteration of the *Australian Curriculum: History V0.3* Prime Minister Howard stated that much of this curriculum was “unbalanced, lacking in priorities and in some cases quite bizarre” (Howard, 2012, p. 4). Howard (2012) explained in his address at the University of Western Australia on 27 September 2012 that “if this curriculum remains unamended young Australians of the future will be denied a proper knowledge of our nation’s history” (p. 6). Howard (2012) elaborated on this when he stated that:

The curriculum does not properly reflect the undoubted fact that Australia is part of western civilisation; in the process it further marginalises the historical influence of the Judeo-Christian ethic in shaping Australian society and virtually purges British history from any meaningful role. (p.4)

Similarly, former Education Minister Christopher Pyne (2014a) made clear in his announcement of the review of the Australian curriculum in January 2014 that curriculum needed:

To celebrate Australia...there are two aspects to Australia’s history that are paramount...Indigenous history... [and] our beginnings as a colony and, therefore, our Western civilisation... It’s very important the curriculum is balanced in its approach... And I think that there is some fair criticism that the curriculum is balanced one way rather than the other [at the moment].

Salter (2015) suggested that Pyne was hinting that the current Australian Curriculum History demonstrated “a perceived favouring of Indigenous history” by claiming an over-emphasis on cross curriculum priorities (p. 43). Wherein the drawing of narratives by cross curriculum priorities, Asia and Australia’s Engagement with Asia, and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures “appear to threaten the desired national narrative and indicate

the undesirable ‘bias’ of Indigenous history over that of Western civilisation (Salter, 2015, p. 43). However, Macintyre (2013) argued the call to affirm the Western tradition in the Australian Curriculum History “misunderstands the purpose of history” (p. 13). Macintyre (2013) strongly believed that the purpose of the Australian Curriculum History is “not to instruct children that one religion or civilisation is better than another, it is to develop their capacity to understand different belief systems and practices, and their interaction” (p. 13).

The Australian Government announced an independent Review of the Australian Curriculum “partly in response to concerns about curriculum overcrowding (particularly in the primary school years)” (Gilbert & Hoepper, 2017, p. 8) and partly in response to it being “heavily prescriptive and rigid through to the necessity to have themes that form the National Curriculum” (Pyne, 2014a). The purpose of the review, according to then Federal Education Minister, Christopher Pyne, was to:

Evaluate the robustness, independence and balance of the Australian Curriculum by looking at both the development process and content... [and to] help ensure the curriculum improves student outcomes, as part of a focus on putting students first in the Government’s education policies. (Pyne, 2014b)

The review of the Australian Curriculum was undertaken by a former teacher and education researcher Professor Kevin Donnelly AO and business academic Dr Ken Wiltshire in 2014 (Pyne, 2014b). The Review of the Australian Curriculum – Final Report was released on October 12, 2014 (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). The Australian Curriculum review examiners, Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014), cautioned in their Review of the Australian Curriculum cover letter that:

In matters of the curriculum content there are no easy choices to be made. Any new content to be added must be more than matched by a decision to exclude content from an

already crowded curriculum. Similarly, it is not possible to recommend a single structure for the Australian curriculum that is to satisfy all stakeholders. (p. vi)

This highlighted their understanding and acknowledgement of the Australian Curriculum being overcrowded and how some stakeholders would not be satisfied with the final result. Interestingly, they also suggested that “a comprehensive and independent review” of the Australian Curriculum should be undertaken every five years (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 253).

Specifically, in terms of the Australian Curriculum History, Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) found that a number of submissions to the Review were:

Critical of the Australian Curriculum for failing to properly acknowledge and include reference to Australia’s Judeo-Christian heritage and the debt owed to Western civilisation. In part, the concern is that an undue emphasis on the cross-curriculum priorities – especially the way they are dealt with in the design of the curriculum – leads to an unbalanced approach. A second concern is the lack of a balanced and comprehensive treatment of the significance of Western civilisation and Christianity in the content descriptions and elaborations. (pp. 176-177)

The Catholic Education Commission New South Wales (2014), argued that both the Melbourne Declaration and the Australian Curriculum needed to be amended to “more fully reflect the role, both past and present, of faith traditions generally and Christianity specifically in the development of Australia” (p. 5). Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) identified in the curriculum that the “history associated with Western civilisation and Australia’s development as a nation is often presented in a negative light, ignoring the positives, the opposite is the case when dealing with Indigenous history and culture” (p. 181).

Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) go on to suggest that the Australian Curriculum History's treatment of Indigenous Australians was "blinkerred as it fails to fully detail the darker social and cultural challenges and difficulties faced by Indigenous communities" (p. 180). Indeed, Donnelly and Wiltshire, (2014) further stated "if students are to receive a balanced and objective knowledge and understanding of Australian history the curriculum needs to address both the positive and negative aspects of both European and Indigenous history and culture" (p.180). Consequently, Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) recommended that the Australian Curriculum History must "acknowledge the strengths and weaknesses and the positives and negatives of both Western and Indigenous cultures and histories" (p. 181), thus creating a more balanced History curriculum.

Peter Abetz, MLA (2014), a Liberal politician at the time, and a pastor with over 25 years' experience, also raised a similar concern about the Australian Curriculum History when he stated: "the important contribution made by European Christians needs to be highlighted, just as much as the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders contribution" (pp.4-5). Likewise, Rösen (2005) described how when we attempt to preserve the past as part of our culture or identity we demonstrate a traditional approach to historical narration. Hence, Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) argued for an approach that provided a "balanced and comprehensive treatment of the significance of Western civilisation and Christianity" (p. 177). However, Hart (2015) argued that this recommendation was at odds with the premise that History should be taught so as "to question grand narratives that privilege a particular view of the past and reinforce a hegemonic view of history" (p. 60).

Associate Professor Melleuish (2014, p. 177) described the main issue as being how "the curriculum is taken up with depth studies with very little time being left to construct some sort

of linking narrative.” Hence, the curriculum favours an approach which focuses primarily on the study of a number of limited topics (depth studies) for 90% of the allocated time, rather than overviews (Melleuish, 2014). Melleuish (2014) argued in his Review of the Australian Curriculum that:

In effect, what students will bring away with them from the study of history will be what they learn in their depth studies... It is difficult to know what students would acquire out of the study of such a collection of topics, unless, of course, one adopts the position that the content of history does not matter, only the acquisition of skills. (p. 176)

Melleuish further argues for a principled approach to determining the “significant past” so there is a basis on which “to create priorities as to what should be in a history curriculum” (2014, p. 177). While agreeing that the teaching of Australian History within a world history framework is the “most appropriate” framework, Melleuish suggested that the Australian Curriculum History was “not robust in world history because it lacks many things one would expect to find in a world historical approach” (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p 179). Melleuish (2014) found the History curriculum was “often too Eurocentric in its historical understanding while at the same time not really giving enough importance to the place of Western civilisation in world history, especially over the past two hundred years” (p. 173). Clearly, there was contestation amongst stakeholders over the content in the Australian Curriculum.

Despite such concerns, other stakeholders were positive about the Australian Curriculum History. Mr Clive Logan, one of the subject matter specialists reviewing the History curriculum, was supportive of the History Overview - Foundation to Year 10 Chronology (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). Logan (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014) maintained:

This is not a disjointed curriculum made up of selected ‘important bits’ promoting an agenda – it is a well-thought out progression, logical in structure and scope and sequence

with a determined view to give as wide a breadth of Australian and World history as possible. (p. 179)

Logan also argued that the curriculum development process was “a positive one” and that the information provided by ACARA successfully promoted “excellence and equity” (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 179). In terms of his concerns, Logan expressed how in Years 7–10 there was “a lot of content to be covered in these years” (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 179). This again highlights the issues surrounding how to manage a seemingly overcrowded curriculum, especially when schools are reluctant to donate any more time for core subjects as they know it would ultimately be at the expense of elective subjects and teachers.

Similarly, there has also been debate in other countries as to what should be emphasised in their history curricula (Curthoys & Docker, 2006; Henderson, 2012; Taylor & Guyver, 2012). When comparing the Australian History curriculum with the English History curriculum Logan found that the English History curriculum was less prescriptive, more flexible, and had the capacity to tailor what was being taught to local needs (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). But when comparing the Australian History curriculum with the Singapore History curriculum, Logan found that despite some obvious similarities it clearly had a narrower focus and emphasised a more nationalistic sense of citizenship and history (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014).

Compared with the Singaporean and English curricula Melleuish argues that “the Australian History curriculum lacks overall balance and coherence and is guilty of over-emphasising depth studies at the expense of an overarching narrative” (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p 179). The aforementioned criticism of depth studies in the Australian Curriculum History related to the fact that they were optional, thus allowing students to miss

out on essential historical knowledge and understanding depending on the choice made by the school as to which depth studies to include and exclude in the school curriculum (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). On further examination of the way the curriculum was structured during Years 7 to 10, Logan (as cited in Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014) highlighted a similar concern when he said:

There is a sophistication in the development of each of the studies and they are all heavy in content – but it does open the challenge that these years may lose the ‘grand narrative’ as teachers and students may progress without studying and understanding what could be argued are the core principles, beliefs and values that have underpinned the way the world, and Australia, has developed, simply by the choices that are made. (p. 179)

In Years 7 to 10 of the Australian Curriculum History it was compulsory that students study three depth studies each year (each depth study should cover 30% of the teaching time) in addition to the overview (10% of teaching time) (ACARA, 2012g). There are only three compulsory depth studies in the Australian Curriculum History in Years 7 to 10, namely: Investigating the Ancient Past in Year 7, World War I (1914-1918) in Year 9, and World War II (1939-1945) in Year 10 (See Table 3). This in itself takes away from the ideology behind the development of an Australian Curriculum. For the offering of flexibility to schools in terms of which other depth studies to study takes away from one of the primary objectives of national curricula. Namely that of consistency in historical knowledge and skill development of students. For such a flexible curriculum will ultimately continue to result in gaps in the historical knowledge basis of students – one of the key criticisms of SOSE.

Henderson (2015, p. 51) outlined how the learning area of History prompted “the most concern about what should be included and how it should be studied.” Melleuish (2014,), acknowledged:

The hardest curriculum question is not what to put in, but what to leave out. This again clearly highlights how the taught curriculum is a contested space and will continue to be as long as there is debate about what knowledge and skills should be included or left out. (pp. 174-175)

Melleuish (2014) went on to suggest that the history curriculum should be “less prescriptive and less bureaucratic, allowing greater flexibility at the school level” (p. 174). Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) also found that “the amount of time specified for the teaching of the curriculum does not reflect the time required to develop mastery and depth or to include local priorities” (p. 140). Hence, the growing concern of an overcrowded curriculum and how to cater for it within timetable constraints.

In terms of the local priorities it was also apparent that there was a notable lack of specific local or place emphasis in the Australian Curriculum History. According to Salter (2015) “explicit foregroundings of local dimensions in Years 7–10 is poor” (p. 44). Salter (2015) specified that “there are only six specific mentions of the ‘local’: two from content description elaborations and four from year level descriptions” (p. 44). The two specific mentions of local in content descriptions occur in the context of the topic: ‘The Spanish Conquest of the Americas (c. 1492 – c.1572)’ and within the elaboration of the depth study description for the topic ‘World War II (1939 – 1945)’ (ACARA, 2012g). But in reality, the reference to ‘local’ in the Spanish Conquest of the Americas (c. 1492 – c.1572)’ elaboration was not actually about local Australian case studies as it referred to “explaining the arrival of Spanish conquistadores in Mexico and Peru from 1510 CE (Balboa) to 1531 (Pizarro), and... converting the *local*

populations to Christianity” (ACARA, 2012g, p. 56). Although the ‘WWII (1939 – 1945)’ topic elaboration was indeed targeting both an Australian national and local level when it stated:

Investigating the impact of World War II at a *local* and national level (for example significant events such as the bombing of Darwin; the Japanese submarine attack on Sydney and the sinking of ships off the Australian coast; the ‘Battle of Brisbane’; the Cowra breakout and the Brisbane Line). [emphasis added] (ACARA, 2012g, p. 69)

Each of the year level overviews (Years 7–10) in the Australian Curriculum History specify that the History Knowledge and Understanding, and Historical Skills should be taught in an integrated way and “in ways that are appropriate to specific *local* contexts” (ACARA, 2012g). Therefore, it could be argued that the elaborations do not need to specify local as such; programming decisions are at the discretion of the teacher who must decide which units and which elaborations should include a specific local focus.

Harrison (2013) raised the concern that if “the content is disconnected and distanced from their context of experience” students will find the learning boring (p. 215). Harrison (2013) went on to say that:

The history curriculum disadvantages those students who live far from the ‘making of history’, and far from the designers of the curriculum. Federation, for example is relevant to those children living in Sydney, Canberra and Melbourne, but less so to those living in the north of Australia. (p. 219)

Already time poor teachers may not realise that they are able to modify the elaborations to include local history, nor realise the importance of including a relevant local perspective in the curriculum instead of other elaborations. Consequently, this adds to the concern that local

history was “at risk of being overshadowed” (Salter, 2015, p. 45) in the Australian Curriculum History, as teachers struggle to find time and space for local history in an already overcrowded curriculum.

The main concern with the Geography curriculum was the “need to achieve a balance between physical geography and human geography” (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014, p. 194). Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) observed that the Geography discipline was:

Suffering the consequences of its decision, taken some time ago, to become aligned more with social sciences or humanities rather than its traditional home in the natural sciences in an effort to make it more apparently relevant to tertiary and school students. (p. 192)

Submissions to The Review differed in response as to how well the Australian Curriculum Geography achieved a balance between physical and human geography. The majority of responses stressed that the curriculum was unbalanced and favoured human geography and the sustainable development theme (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). While the submission from the Australian Meteorological and Oceanographic Society (2014, p.2) as highlighted by Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) also demonstrated concern that:

It is not clear how students are supposed to understand or appreciate the mechanisms that drive meteorological or oceanographic hazards (e.g. tropical cyclones) without having prior and scaffolded exposure to the geophysical variables (e.g. ocean heat content, wind shear, earth’s rotational effects) and the dynamical and thermodynamical principles which drive them. (p. 188)

The Geography subject matter specialist commissioned to consider this curriculum, Mr Alan Hill (2014) also highlighted his concern, using the example that students in Year 7 would complete a unit on ‘Water in the world’ without any foundational understanding of physical

geography. Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) agreed that there is a major imbalance in the geography curriculum which:

Relates to the lack of emphasis on physical geography as compared with human geography – a factor compounded by such a heavy use of content in this learning area related to ‘sustainable development’, which does not lay equal stress on understanding the physical elements of this concept and the debate surrounding it. (p. 192)

Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) asserted that “the curriculum should undergo a fundamental rebalancing to introduce much more content on physical geography, which will involve some reduction of content in human geography as well as linking of these two strands” (p. 193). Although the consultants agreed with the focus on physical and human geography, the promotion of human geography was perceived to be at the expense of physical geography and hampering student understanding of core geographical understanding. Hill (2014) asserted that “teachers have been given ample scope for choice (apart from the deficiencies in physical geography topics) and flexibility in the delivery of this curriculum” (p.229). The Heads of Geography Programs, Combined Australian Universities (2014) stated that “there is a critical need for some central educational principles of Geography that are required for students: Basic geographical literacy and knowledge in this increasingly connected and spatial world; and skills in critical geographical (spatial) thinking” (p. 1).

Conversely, Maude (2014), the lead writer of the ACARA Geography Shape Paper, commented that in terms of geographical skill:

Academic quality is lacking... There is, in my view an overemphasis on low level, time-consuming and sometimes pointless skills, such as construction of maps of all types and describing the location of places by latitude and longitude, and a neglect of interpretive and analytical skills. (p. 7)

A number of submissions also stressed that there should be a greater emphasis on fieldwork in the geography curriculum (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). Hill (2014) maintained that “while there are many geography teachers who are hamstrung by budgetary constraints, they should nonetheless be encouraged to find reasons to study both physical and human aspects of the subject outdoors” (p. 234). Hill (2014) also suggested that an increase in local fieldwork was needed as “a means of addressing the increasing detachment youngsters feel towards their surrounding environment” (p. 229). Clearly, despite budgetary constraints schools should promote geographical field work as a core skill in the study of Geography.

Hill (2014) believed that the teaching expectations for the new Australian Curriculum are “far more prescriptive than past documents or those reviewed from overseas” (p. 227). Hill (2014) found:

The prescriptive format we have adopted may well be the response of our curriculum designers to the growing paucity of student and practising teacher with a deep understanding of the subject... If that is the case I support the decision. The detailed prescription of content will, in my estimation, be of significant assistance to teachers in rural schools, many of whom are also non-specialists. (p. 227)

Hill went on to suggest a further review in a few years’ time would assist in checking whether the same level of prescription was needed to assist teachers with the teaching of geographical content.

Content in the Geography curriculum has been reviewed in countries other than Australia. Singapore has made a concerted effort to reduce the content in the curriculum. For example, in Upper Secondary the number of topics has been reduced from eight to six “to

provide time for teachers to use the content as a vehicle to give explicit instruction in creative and critical thinking skills” (Hill, 2014, p. 227). In England schools are “not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets]” (Department of Education UK, 2013, p. 2). The teaching of Geography, according to the National Curriculum in England Framework Document (Department of Education UK, 2013), should “equip pupils with knowledge about diverse places, people, resources and natural and human environments, together with a deep understanding of the Earth’s key physical and human processes” (p. 198). In England, the study of Geography is compulsory until the age of 14 (Department of Education UK, 2013). While in Finland Geography was a compulsory core subject for students aged 7 to 16 years (Finnish National Board of Education, 2003). The purpose of the Finnish Geography curriculum was similar to the English Geography curriculum and additionally included the objective that students should “become capable of analysing spatial features for environmental issues and of searching for solutions consistent with sustainable development” (Finnish National Board of Education, 2003, p. 142). Geography is therefore considered an important discrete discipline in a number of other countries due to its knowledge and skill development, contributing to the rationale it be taught as such in Australian schools.

Hill (2014) commented that in relation to the presence of the cross-curriculum priorities in Geography there was significant need for change. In terms of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories and cultures Hill (2014) maintained it was:

Vitally important that we acknowledge this history and cultural enrichment. However, we also need to ensure that there is sufficient balance in a geography course. Studies of the traditional, nomadic, hunting and gathering lifestyle of our Aborigines needs to be compared with those who practise nomadic herding on savannahs, shifting cultivation in rainforests or subsistence farming in the rice paddies of Asia. (p. 231)

In terms of the cross-curriculum priority: Asia and Australia's Engagement with Asia, Hill (2014) suggested that "the selection of Asia appears, at face value, to have been made on strictly political and economic lines. Studies of Papua New Guinea (PNG) and the Pacific nations are almost excluded" (p. 231). Finally, in terms of the cross-curriculum priority of Sustainability, Hill (2014) discussed how:

Geography has been chosen as the chief 'flag-bearer' (was trying to avoid the term 'heavy lifting') to promote this cross-curriculum priority... geography is admirably equipped to do so but we must guard against the saturation of our pedagogy with this concept. Sustainability represents just another component of any worthwhile exploration of an issue; for meaningful understanding to occur, students need to fully appreciate the physical/geomorphic processes involved and the human/cultural impacts, both positive and negative, that give them the confidence to make accurate judgments about sustainability. (p. 231)

In The Review, Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014, p.193) agreed with Hill that the cross-curriculum priorities needed to be reviewed to ensure "they rest on educational and not political grounds, content needs to be included on the Pacific Islands, the current heavy emphasis on sustainability in this curriculum needs to be addressed to avoid its overuse as a concept." They deemed there was an over emphasis on sustainability and on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander culture while there was only a tokenistic discussion of Australia's engagement with Asia. A greater balance between the three cross-curriculum priorities should be provided by the discipline of Geography, and not at the expense of key geographical knowledge and understanding.

The other key issue identified by Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) was that Geography supporters wanted Geography to have the same status as History and be mandatory to Year 10.

Submissions from the Royal Geographical Society of Queensland and the Geography Teachers' Association of Queensland (2014) for the Australian Curriculum review stated their concern was:

The lack of balance across the curricula in Years 9 and 10, with history mandatory in those years and geography less important... anecdotal evidence from our members is already showing that this is leading to a devaluing of geography in the middle years of secondary schools. (p.1)

This above view – that the studying of Geography curriculum in Australia should be made compulsory until Year 10 – was put forcefully to ACARA but was not addressed (Donnelly & Wilshire, 2014). This concern recurred throughout the Australian Curriculum Review and was raised by a number of professional geography bodies (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). Donnelly and Wiltshire (2014) go on to state:

The decision not to make geography mandatory to Year 10, appears to have been made not on educational grounds, but solely in terms of concern about a crowded curriculum. Given this unsatisfactory approach to curriculum design, together with the increasing importance of geographical knowledge in the current and future world contexts, and considering that the vast majority of countries we have analysed have geography as a compulsory subject to at least the middle years of secondary schooling, we believe that geography should be a mandatory subject to Year 10. (pp. 192-193)

Similarly, Hill (2014) also recommended that Geography becomes “a compulsory component of any Australian Curriculum (Foundation – Year 10)” (p. 234).

Ultimately, whatever curriculum is agreed upon it will not please all key stakeholders, nor will it be able to meet all requirements of a changing and growing population. According to Noffke (1998):

Curriculum making is an inherently political activity. In seeking to reform current curriculum, it may be wise to seek new ways of configuring the process of change. Without such efforts, even the best of innovations can be reduced to a purely technical conception of teaching and learning. (p.113)

As stated in Chapter Two, the curriculum can be thought of in terms of a “lived experience” (Simmons, 1998, p.367). Therefore, the Australian Curriculum is to be considered as a living, breathing, working document that can adjust to change. It promotes as its primary objective the goal of encouraging students to become active and informed Australian citizens. Therefore, the curriculum undergoes continual review at set intervals so as to ensure that it is the most relevant and challenging curriculum for Australian students. The next section will consider how the chosen pedagogical framework of a school can influence the enacted curriculum.

3.5 Curriculum organisation and pedagogical framework

This original research focusses on curriculum organisation and structure, and whilst assessment is an important component alongside pedagogy, the curriculum was deemed more significant. The relationship between curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment has been stated as the three message systems that are interdependent on each other (Bernstein, 1996). At Western High School, the case study school, curriculum change was influenced and possibly guided by a specific pedagogical framework, this will be explored later so as to gain a more contextual understanding of the curriculum implementation process. The following section provides an overview of the curriculum structure and organisation of the SOSE KLA, Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines, and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

3.5.1 Examination of the structure of the SOSE KLA with History and Geography curriculum

As previously discussed, schools across Australia have undergone a shift away from the use of the SOSE KLA to the separate History and Geography standards. The Years 1 to 9 Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting (QCAR) framework, which was introduced in schools in 2008, aligns curriculum, assessment, and standards for evaluation and reporting (QSA, 2008). For each of the KLAs, Essential Learnings, specified at four year-level junctures (end of Years 3, 5, 7, 9), comprise two dimensions: Knowledge and Understanding and Ways of Working (See Table 6). The Assessable Elements (i.e. Knowledge and Understanding, Investigating, Communicating, Participating and Reflecting), drawn from the Essential Learnings, are the criteria against which student learning is to be evaluated along a five standards continuum (A – E).

Table 6: Key disciplinary organisers in SOSE KLA, year 10 guidelines and ACARA

| Curriculum Framework | Year Levels | Key Disciplinary Organisers |
|---|---|--|
| SOSE Essential Learnings | Junctures at end of Years 3, 5, 7, 9 | Knowledge and Understanding - <i>Time, Continuity and Change</i> - <i>Place and Space</i> - <i>Culture and Identity</i> - <i>Political and Economic Systems</i> Ways of Working |
| Year 10 History Guidelines | Year 10 | Knowledge and Understanding - <i>Time, Continuity and Change</i> - <i>Culture and Identity</i> - <i>Systems</i> Ways of Working |
| Year 10 Geography Guidelines | Year 10 | Knowledge and Understanding - <i>Place</i> - <i>Space</i> - <i>Systems</i> Ways of Working |
| Australian Curriculum History | <i>Foundation – Year 12</i> Foundation–Year 2: typically students from 5 to 8 years of age Years 3–6: typically students from 8 to 12 years of age Years 7–10: typically students from 12 to 15 years of age Senior secondary years: typically students from 15 to 18 years of age. | Historical Knowledge and Understanding Historical Skills |
| Australian Curriculum Geography | <i>Foundation – Year 12</i> Foundation–Year 2: typically students from 5 to 8 years of age Years 3–4: typically students from 8 to 10 years of age Years 5–6: typically students from 10 to 12 years of age Years 7–10: typically students from 12 to 15 years of age Senior secondary years: typically students from 15 to 18 years of age. | Geographical Knowledge and Understanding Geographical Inquiry and Skills |
| Australian Curriculum Civics and Citizenship | <i>Year 3 to 12</i> Years 3–4: typically students from 8 to 10 years of age Years 5–6: typically students from 10 to 12 years of age Years 7–10: typically students from 12 to 15 years of age Senior secondary years: typically students from 15 to 18 years of age. | Civics and Citizenship Knowledge and Understanding Civics and Citizenship Inquiry and Skills. |

Adapted from: QSA, 2008 and 2009a; ACARA, 2011a, 2012c, 2012d, 2012e and 2012g.

The Queensland Studies Authority (2009) published Year 10 Guidelines in History and Geography to support a repositioning of Year 10 as the foundation year of senior schooling (QSA, 2008). The Year 10 Guidelines had disciplinary-specific articulation, in terms of separate History and Geography Guidelines rather than that of a multidisciplinary SOSE Guidelines, so as to align with year 11 and 12 subject offerings. The Year 10 Guidelines were also organised according to the Knowledge and Understanding and Ways of Working dimensions of the SOSE KLA and Essential Learnings for Years 3, 5, 7 and 9, to assist with alignment with those year levels (QSA, 2009). The comparable Australian Curriculum History strand organisers are: Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills (ACARA, 2011c). While under the Australian Curriculum Geography the comparable strand organisers are: Geographical Knowledge and Understanding and Geographical Inquiry Skills (See Table 6) (ACARA, 2011a). The examination of the strand organisers highlighted how the Australian Curriculum approach was simpler than that of the SOSE Essential Learnings or the Year 10 Guidelines. Additionally, the strand organisation of the Australian Curriculum eased comparability with other subject areas due to the similar strand organisation. A consideration of the curriculum organisation of SOSE, Year 10 Guidelines History and Geography and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography is also needed to better understand the curriculum implementation process.

3.5.2 History and Geography curriculum organisational processes

There was considerable variance between the different curriculum organisation processes of the SOSE Essential Learnings, the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines, and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. For example, within the SOSE Essential Learning assessable element of Time, Continuity and Change students were expected (in Year

9) to use evidence of events in Australian, Asian Pacific, and global settings to interpret different perspectives and values positions (QSA, 2008). This provided teachers with scope to determine the most appropriate unit topic to assist students in developing and demonstrating their knowledge and understanding. Teachers often developed units where students could use an inquiry based approach to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding across a number of the assessable elements.

The Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines had similar structural organisers to that of the SOSE Essential Learnings. The Knowledge and Understanding strands of the History were 'Time, Continuity and Change' (TCC); 'Culture and Identity' (CI); and 'Systems' (S) (QSA, 2009a, pp. 89-90). While the geographical inquiry processes of the Geography Guidelines were captured in its respective 'Ways of Working' (QSA, 2009a, p. 64) through which students developed and demonstrated their knowledge and understanding of 'Place', 'Space' and 'Systems' (QSA, 2009a, pp. 61-62). In the Australian Curriculum the Historical Skills strand and Geographical Inquiry Skills strand promote the process of inquiry (historical and geographical) through which the students learn new knowledge and deepen their understanding (ACARA, 2011a; ACARA, 2011c). Clearly, the SOSE Essential Learnings, the Year 10 Guidelines History and Geography, and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography can all assist students in developing inquiry skills.

Table 7: Topics covered under the Year 7 to Year 10 Australian Curriculum History

| Year | Period of History | Depth Study Descriptions |
|------|--|--|
| 7 | History from the time of the earliest human communities to the end of the ancient period (approximately 60000 BCE – C.650CE) | <p><i>Investigating the Ancient Past</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Investigating the Ancient Past* <p><i>The Mediterranean World</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Egypt^ -Greece^ -Rome^ <p><i>The Asian World</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -India^ -China^ |
| 8 | History from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern period (c. 650 – 1750) | <p><i>The Western and Islamic World</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The Ottoman Empire (c.1299 – c.1683)^ -Renaissance Italy (c.1400 – c.1600)^ -The Vikings (c.790 – c.1066)^ -Medieval Europe (c.590 – c.1500)^ <p><i>The Asia-Pacific World</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Angkor/Khmer Empire (c.802 – c.1431)^ -Japan under the Shoguns' (c.794 – 1867)^ -The Polynesian Expansion across the Pacific (c.700 – 1756)^ <p><i>Expanding contacts</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Mongol Expansion (c.1206 – c.1368)^ -The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa (14th century plague)^ -The Spanish Conquest of the Americas (c.1492 – c.1572)^ |
| 9 | History of the Modern World and Australia (from 1750 – 1918) | <p><i>Making a Better World?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The Industrial Revolution (1750 – 1914)^ -Progressive Ideas and Movements (1750 – 1918)^ -Movement of peoples (1750 – 1901)^ <p><i>Australia and Asia</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Asia and the World^ -Making a Nation^ <p><i>World War I</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -World War I (1914-1918)* |
| 10 | History of the Modern World and Australia from 1918 to the present. | <p><i>World War II</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -World War II (1939-1945)* <p><i>Rights and Freedoms</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rights and Freedoms (1945 – the present)* <p><i>The Globalising World</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Popular Culture (1945 – present)^ -Migration Experiences (1945 – present)^ -The Environment Movement (1960s – present)^ |

*Compulsory Units ^Elective Units, one must be completed in each depth study.
Adapted from: ACARA, 2012g.

The Historical Knowledge and Understanding strand of the Australian Curriculum History, and the Geographical Knowledge and Understanding strand of the Australian Curriculum Geography, provide the context within which the inquiry skills are to be developed

(ACARA, 2011a; ACARA, 2011c). The Historical Knowledge and Understanding strand is organised sequentially by certain time periods, and there is a notable emphasis on Australian History (See Table 7) (ACARA, 2011c). Whereas the Geographical Knowledge and Understanding strand is further divided into two sub-strands, that of environmental geography and human geography and a unit of each is offered to each year level (See Table 8) (ACARA, 2011a). Similarly, to the Assessable Elements, under the Australian Curriculum in Queensland, a student's level of achievement will be assessed by learning area-specific A-E standards descriptors (QSA, 2011a).

Table 8: Topics covered under the Year 7 to Year 10 Australian Curriculum Geography

| Year | Environmental Geography | Human Geography |
|-------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 7 | Water in the World | Place and Liveability |
| 8 | Landforms and Landscapes | Changing Nations |
| 9 | Biomes and Food Security | Geographies of Interconnections |
| 10 | Environmental Change and Management | Geographies of Human Wellbeing |

Adapted from ACARA, 2012e.

In summary, this section highlighted how the curriculum organisation of the Australian Curriculum History followed a chronological approach, while the curriculum organisation of the Australian Curriculum Geography was divided into units relating to Environmental Geography or Human Geography. This was a dramatic move away from SOSE where students completed multidisciplinary inquiry based units that were derived from core outcomes. A key similarity between the different curricula approaches was the emphasis on inquiry. Despite this similarity the shift away from the multidisciplinary unit approach to a discrete History and Geography unit approach was a major change for schools.

3.6 Queensland context for schools—enacting curriculum

The Queensland Studies Authority (QSA), Education Queensland, Independent Schools Queensland, and the Queensland Catholic Education Commission agreed to a staged implementation of the P–10 Australian Curriculum in Queensland to be completed by 2016 (see Table 9) (QSA, 2012c). Schools in Queensland must comply with the minimum time requirements as set out by QSA for mandatory subjects such as History and Geography (See Table 2 and Table 10). Schools can utilise the remaining unallocated time as they wish (approximately 21% in Year 7 and Year 8, and 51% in Year 9 and Year 10, see Table 11) (QSA, 2012a). Schools may dedicate more time to other subjects that do not have any time allocation, or they may choose to give more time than advised to mandatory subjects. It is an approach that offers schools both flexibility and a clear end date by which learning areas must be implemented (i.e. teaching, assessing, and reporting) (QSA, 2012c). The case study school, however, chose to begin implementing both History and Geography based on the draft Australian Curriculum documents in 2012 prior to the P–10 implementation schedule release.

Table 9: Australian Curriculum implementation schedule

| Phase 1 | | Phase 2 | Phase 2 and Phase 3 | |
|-------------|---------|-----------|-------------------------------|------|
| 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 |
| English | History | Geography | The Arts | |
| Mathematics | | | Health and Physical Education | |
| Science | | | Civics and Citizenship | |
| | | | Technologies | |
| | | | Economics and Business | |
| | | | Languages | |

Adapted from: QSA, 2012c.

Table 10: QSA advice on time allocations to aid timetabling decisions

| Learning Area | Hours per year over 37–40 weeks per year | | 35–38 weeks per year |
|------------------------|--|---------|----------------------|
| | Years 7–8 | Year 9 | Year 10 |
| English | 111-120 | 111-120 | 105-114 |
| Mathematics | 111-120 | 111-120 | 105-114 |
| Science | 92-100 | 111-120 | 105-114 |
| Health and PE | 74-80 | 74-80 | 70-76 |
| History | 46–50 | 46–50 | 43–48 |
| Geography | 46-50 | 46-50 | 43-48 |
| Business and Economics | 18-20 | 46-50 | 43-48 |
| Civics and Citizenship | 18-20 | 18-20 | 17-19 |
| The Arts | 74-80 | 74-80 | 70-76 |
| Languages | 74-80 | 74-80 | 70-76 |
| Technologies | Design and Technology | 74-80 | 35-38 |
| | ICT | | 37-40 |

- The shaded areas indicate the compulsory learning areas and year levels.
- The unshaded areas indicate the year levels when the learning area is optional.
- The languages learning area is shaded with diagonal lines. This indicates flexibility about when language learning can begin and demonstrates a focus on developing proficiency.

Adapted from: QSA, 2011b.

Table 11: Total percentage of time allocations

| | Years 7-8 | Year 9 | Year 10 |
|---|-----------|--------|---------|
| Total percentage of allocated time (approx.) | 79% | 49% | 49% |
| Total percentage of unallocated time (approx.) | 21% | 51% | 51% |

Adapted from: QSA, 2012a.

The allocation of time to disciplines within schools can be a highly contentious issue. Depending on a school's timetable a discipline may gain or lose teaching time. In the case study school, Geography gained teaching time as it became compulsory until the end of Year 10, while History lost time, so as to afford Geography time. The influence of key curriculum stakeholders can be paramount in distributing the allocated and unallocated time amongst disciplines. The school context therefore influences the structure and organisation of the curriculum through the allocation of time. The next section will examine the influence of a pedagogical framework on the curriculum implementation process.

3.7 Pedagogical framework: Explicit instruction

Teachers utilise a school's pedagogical framework to enact the curriculum through agreed teaching strategies. Teaching initiatives or strategies have changed over time, often due to new research being conducted and associated recommendations implemented. Effective teaching was identified as a priority in *The Strategic Plan 2013-2017* (Department of Education, Training and Employment (DETE), 2013c). Every school in Queensland was required to have a pedagogical framework that was developed collaboratively with the school community to ensure it has effective teaching and learning practices that focus on improved student performance and the development of successful learners (DETE, 2014). There were six core systematic principles for the pedagogical framework: student-centred planning; high expectations; alignment of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment; evidenced-based decision making; targeted and scaffolded instruction; and safe, supportive, connected and inclusive learning environments (DETE, 2014) (See Appendix 1). Regional Far North Queensland schools chose to adopt pedagogical frameworks that aligned *The Strategic Plan* priority of consistent and effective teaching and learning practices with the six core principles of the

pedagogical framework (DETE, 2013c and DETE, 2014) (See Appendix 2). The case study school, Western High School, chose to implement the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching (Fleming, 2011) as its pedagogical framework, with a heavy emphasis on an explicit instruction scaffolded teaching approach known as the ‘I do, we do, you do’ approach.

Explicit instruction is not a new concept as this approach was first used to teach students how to read in the 1800s (Lasley, Matczynski, & Rowley, 2002). Explicit instruction was described by Rosenshine (1987) as “a systematic method of teaching with emphasis on proceeding in small steps, checking for student understanding, and achieving active and successful participation by all students” (p. 34). Archer and Hughes (2011) later defined explicit instruction as “a structured, systematic, and effective methodology for teaching academic skills” (p. 1), explaining that it was “an unambiguous and direct approach to teaching that includes both instructional design and delivery procedures” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 1). An explicit instruction model encourages teachers to explicitly plan, and in turn, directly instruct students in accordance with a set lesson sequence. Such models see the responsibility of task completion shift gradually over time from the teacher to the student. An explicit lesson sequence has similarities to those suggested by other authors (Carnine, Silbert, Kaméenui, & Tarver, 2009; Engelmann & Carnine, 1982; Hunter, 1982; Rosenshine, 1995; Rosenshine, 1997; Slavin, 2008) but a typical explicit lesson sequence has “three logical parts: opening, body, and closing” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 24). The Fleming Model promotes a consistent sequence for lessons (warm up, I do, we do, you do, plough back) rather than the use of a variety of teaching strategies (DETE, 2013a) (See Figure 6). The Fleming Model was based on the belief that all students can succeed, and this is demonstrated by continually raising expectations as students’ progress through their educational journey (DETE, 2013a).

This method of teaching by explicit instruction was clearly visible in the new educational resources, lesson plans and assessment items (Curriculum into the Classroom – C2C) that have been developed and produced by Education Queensland in response to the request from government state school teachers (EQ, 2011a) (See Figure 2). Originally C2C was only available to state school teachers, but now all Queensland schools can obtain access (DETE, 2015). As the case study school was an early adopter, it had to strategically match its lessons and unit overviews to the explicit instruction C2C template for the school audit, as C2C had not been released for History and Geography at the time of implementation (2011-2012).

Figure 2: Timeline for release of social science curriculum into the classroom resources

| Year | C2C Discipline Specific Resources Released |
|---|---|
| Draft released in 2013 and revised for 2014. | History |
| Draft released in 2014 and revised for 2015. | Geography |
| Released Term 3 2014 for 2015 implementation. | Civics and Citizenship and Economics and Business |

Adapted from OnePortal, 2016.

Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C) is essentially a digital resource that can be ‘adopted or adapted’ to meet individual student learning needs and to suit local school contexts across all Queensland state schools (DETE, 2015). OnePortal (2016), the department’s intranet site for all corporate and school based staff, specifies that the C2C project was “a set of example planning resources to help teachers implement the Australian Curriculum...use of C2C materials in Queensland state schools is not mandated by the department.” In other words, depending on how a school wishes to utilise the additional time in their timetable the curriculum units and assessment can be reduced or increased accordingly. The use of C2C also negates the need for expensive textbooks by schools, and therefore schools strongly encourage their staff to utilise these resources. For State schools, curriculum platforms such as OneSchool allow teachers to adapt and differentiate these C2C units online. Additionally, the use of the

C2C resource aids in the development of a standardised and consistent approach to curriculum implementation across Queensland. This in turn creates comparability and accountability amongst schools if they are utilising the C2C resources.

On the other hand, Hattie (2009, p. 159) determined “it is less the content of curricula that is important than the strategies teachers use to implement the curriculum so that students’ progress upwards through the curricula content.” Hattie (2009,) also found that when there was a systematic change to some aspects of the curricula there:

Does seem to have a reasonable and substantial effect on student learning. This change typically relates to the inclusion and emphasis on various instructional strategies underlying the curricula, and to the highlighting of learning strategies and skill development in the content area. (p. 159)

Hattie (2009) determined that the use of teaching strategies needs to be “planned, deliberate, and explicit” (p. 160). Such improved teaching strategies can then lead to further student engagement in the curricula and the development of student problem solving skills (Hattie, 2009). Notably, there was an emphasis on the inquiry strategy in the development of both the Australian Curriculum History and Geography strands. The Historical skills strand promotes skills used in the process of historical inquiry such as: chronology, terms and concepts; historical questions and research; the analysis and use of sources; perspectives and interpretations; explanation and communication (ACARA, 2011c). While the Geographical inquiry and skills strand promotes an inquiry process by which individual or group investigations start with geographical questions and proceed through the collection, evaluation, analysis and interpretation of information, to the development of conclusions and proposals for actions (ACARA, 2012e). Under the Geography curriculum a more teacher-centred inquiry approach could be used at first, and over time developed to that of a student-centred approach

as “students develop their cognitive abilities and gain experience with the process” (ACARA, 2012e).

The effectiveness of explicit instruction has been validated in research involving both general education and special education services. While explicit instruction has proven to be helpful in learning new content and skills for normally progressing students, it was “absolutely essential” for struggling students or students with learning challenges (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 17). Explicit instruction was also necessary in teaching content that students could not otherwise discover (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Explicit instruction was characterised by a series of “clear statements about the purpose and rationale for learning the new skill, clear explanations, and demonstrations of instructional target and supported practice with feedback until independent mastery has been achieved” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 1). According to Archer and Hughes (2011) there are 16 elements of explicit instruction (See Figure 3), and this approach to explicit instruction has been developed by educational researchers over time (e.g. Brophy & Good, 1986; Christenson, Ysseldyke, & Thurlow, 1989; Gersten, Schiller & Vaughn, 2000; Hughes, 1998; Marchand-Martella, Slocum & Martella, 2004; Rosenshine, 1997; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986; Simmons, Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathews & Hodge, 1995; Swanson, 2001).

Figure 3: Sixteen elements of explicit instruction

1. Focus instruction on critical content.
2. Sequence skills logically.
3. Break down complex skills.
4. Design organised and focused lessons.
5. Begin lessons with a clear statement of the lesson's goals and your expectations.
6. Review prior skills and knowledge before beginning instruction.
7. Provide step-by-step demonstrations.
8. Use clear concise language.
9. Provide an adequate range of examples and non-examples.
10. Provide guided and supported practice.
11. Require frequent responses.
12. Monitor student performance closely.
13. Provide immediate affirmation and corrective feedback.
14. Deliver the lessons at a brisk pace.
15. Help students organise knowledge.
16. Provide distributed and cumulative practice.

Adapted from: Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 2.

Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) and Rosenshine (1997) grouped these teaching elements into six key teaching functions for explicit instruction (See Figure 4). According to Ellis and Worthington (1994) there are six key principles for effective explicit instruction (See Figure 5) (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 5). The principles for explicit instruction can be viewed as “the underpinnings of effective, explicit instruction, while the elements of explicit instruction can be seen as methods to ensure that these principles are addressed in designing and delivery instruction” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 4). It was important to note however that “not all elements are necessary in all instructional situations, and not all elements are used to the same degree for each skill or strategy taught” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 12). Therefore, it may be necessary to view these procedures for explicit instruction in a “more fluid manner” (Archer & Hughes, 2011, p. 12).

Figure 4: Six teaching functions of explicit instruction

1. *Review*
 - Review homework and relevant previous learning.
 - Review prerequisite skills and knowledge.
2. *Presentation (I do)*
 - State lesson goals.
 - Present new materials in small steps.
 - Model procedures.
 - Provide examples and non-examples.
 - Use clear language.
 - Avoid digressions.
3. *Guided practice (We do)*
 - Require high frequency of responses.
 - Ensure high rates of success.
 - Provide timely feedback, clues and prompts.
 - Have students continue practice until they are fluent.
4. *Corrections and feedback*
 - Reteach when necessary.
5. *Independent practice (You do)*
 - Monitor initial practice attempts.
 - Have students continue practice until skills are automatic.
6. *Weekly and monthly reviews*

Adapted from: Archer and Hughes, 2011, p. 4; Rosenshine and Stevens, 1986; and Rosenshine, 1997.

Figure 5: Six principles of effective explicit instruction

1. *Optimise engaged time/time on task.*

The more time students actively participate, the more they learn.
2. *Promote high levels of success.*

The more successful (i.e. correct/accurate) students are the more they achieve.
3. *Increase content coverage.*

The more academic content covered effectively, the greater potential for student learning.
4. *Have students spend more time in instructional groups.*

The more time students participate in teacher-led, skilled-level groups the more instruction they receive, and the more they learn.
5. *Scaffold Instruction*

Providing support, structure and guidance during instruction promotes academic success, and fading of this support over time encourages students to become more independent learners.
6. *Address different forms of knowledge*

The ability to use academic skills and knowledge requires students to know different sorts of information at differing levels: the declarative level (what something is), the procedural level (how something is done) and the conditional level (when and where to use the skill).

Adapted from: Archer and Hughes, 2011, p. 5.

Teachers make the final decisions about how the content and skills will be taught in the classroom. Explicit instruction was grounded on the fundamental assumption that unless the teacher knows the sequence and purpose of the lesson, it will be impossible to know whether the lesson objective has been achieved (Lasley, Matczynski, & Rowley, 2002). Teachers who are choosing to teach concrete skills will find “direct instruction is the most appropriate strategy to ensure maximal student achievement” (Lasley et al. 2002, p. 267). However, if the teacher was teaching content then direct instruction still has applicability through lecturing and explaining but greater use of teacher questioning will be required to ensure student attention was maintained (Lasley et al., 2002). Explicit instruction was therefore a time-efficient way to communicate key concepts or skills, but teachers who want students to engage in critical thinking will find this model less useful (Lasley et al., 2002). Explicit instruction requires teachers to teach in a manner which “limits information flow but enhances information transfer [as] the human brain can process only so much information at one time” (Lasley et al., 2002, pp. 267-268). Teachers therefore need to teach by “clustering and connecting ideas, facts and information so that students can effectively process what the teacher presents” (Lasley et al., 2002, p. 268). To achieve this, teachers must specify the goal/s of the lesson, systematically identify how students are to learn the material in a step-by-step process, and be vigilant in checking on whether the students have actually learned the skill or content (Lasley et al., 2002). In summation, an explicit instruction model should be adhered to in order for students to achieve their educational goal.

Figure 6: Explicit instruction sequence at western high school for a typical lesson

| |
|--|
| <p><i>Warm Up – opening of the explicit lesson</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Gain student attention- Outline teacher expectations of students- State the goal of the lesson- Review critical prerequisite skills- Discuss the relevance of the target skill- Vocabulary activity e.g. spelling test. <p><i>Body of the explicit lesson:</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>I do – teacher modeling</i><ul style="list-style-type: none">- Teacher modeling or demonstrating the skill.2. <i>We do – prompted or guided practice</i><ul style="list-style-type: none">- When the teacher is guiding the students in performing the skill.3. <i>You Do – unprompted practice</i><ul style="list-style-type: none">- When students perform the skill without teacher assistance. <p><i>Plough Back – closing of the explicit lesson</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Review what was learned during the lesson (this could be interactive e.g. call on students to sum up what was covered during lesson).- Preview of next lesson content.- Assign independent work for Homework. |
|--|

Adapted from: Archer and Hughes, 2011, p. 40.

The increase in success for students taught under the explicit instruction model was observed in the P–6 sector of the school where primary teachers have greater time to ensure that all three sequence aspects occur in one learning session. Student progress was tracked on staged continuums which teachers use to deliver curriculum programs that meet the needs of a wide range of abilities within the one classroom (DETE, 2013a). However, in the 7–12 sector of Western High School it was accepted that some lessons may focus on only one key aspect, either the ‘I do’, ‘we do’ or ‘you do’ section – not all three aspects. All lessons across the school however must have a ‘warm up’ and ‘plough back’ section to ensure that students understand the purpose of the lesson, the sequencing of the lesson in relation to the overall unit objective, the proposed outcome/s of the lesson, and whether or not the outcomes have been achieved (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: A sample explicit instruction lesson from Western High School in Year 8 Geography

| Teacher: | | Class: GEG8 | Date: |
|-----------------------|---|---|--------------|
| Learning Intention | Is the purpose/goal of lesson clear? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To introduce students to the concept of Biochar/Agrichar and why such a practice has potential today. | |
| Warm Up (5 – 10 mins) | Review of prerequisite knowledge Review of recent teaching | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link between previous lesson/unit topics: landscapes – rainforests – soils - purpose of Agrichar. Lesson intent on board: What is Terra Preta? What is Biochar? What is Agrichar? Why is such a practice relevant today? (Students copy into notebooks). Revision test of 10 key glossary terms (PowerPoint). | |
| I Do (10 – 15 mins) | Define skill to be taught Demonstrate skill Clearly explain step by step Revise Reinforce | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher to explain to class what Terra Preta, Biochar and Agrichar are (use PowerPoint to guide explanation). Link to how soils of a rainforest are only nutrient rich in topsoil – where leaf litter (humus) is breaking down. Underneath that soils are very infertile and compact, link to back to buttress roots. (Whiteboard diagram) Teacher to check for student understanding by calling on students to see if they understand what the different terms mean and the purpose of them – could chant together or use mini whiteboards to check for student understanding. | |
| We Do (15 – 25 mins) | Practise skill Group activities Teacher's role | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students to copy PMI Chart organiser outline into their notebooks – fill in sections of chart together based on current understanding of Biochar and Agrichar (check all students have completed one of these before – I know we have done so previously but in case any students away that day). (Ensure students have rulers – collect back at the end). | |
| You Do (15 – 20 mins) | Individual activities Teacher individual feedback and monitoring | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students to add further to PMI chart on Agrichar/Biochar while watching Catalyst documentary. Correct PMI Chart as a class – teacher calls on students to check their responses – students to add all further suggestions to their PMI Charts–could have them add to board version. H/W Students to complete “Wonder Fertiliser Hope” Newspaper Analysis Activity. (This is a digital activity – students will need their laptops – need to print a few copies in case not all students have their laptops). | |
| Plough back (5 mins) | Review of critical content covered in the lesson | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revise key glossary terms from lesson: Terra Preta, Biochar, and Agrichar. Link to next lesson – impact of climate change on Rainforests. Set homework. | |

Notably, there was a strong endorsement of explicit instruction pedagogy in the structure of the C2C units and lesson plans (Education Queensland, 2011). The intention of C2C units, lessons and resources was to support national curriculum implementation and, as such, for teachers to adapt or modify materials to suit their particular school contexts and learners. Nonetheless, in many schools, initial directives involved the implementation of C2C units and lessons as presented. In response, Education Queensland and the Queensland Teachers' Union of Employees (2012) provided clarity on their purpose:

C2C materials are an aid to delivering the curriculum in the classroom, but are not mandatory and should not be imposed upon any teacher at the expense of his or her professional judgments on teaching any individual class or lesson. C2C supports classroom practice – it is not, never has been and never will be a “teach by numbers” kit.
(p. 1)

Prior to this definitive statement, there was an impression in a number of Queensland State schools that the use of C2C units was compulsory in order for schools to gain a better result in the school auditing process. State schools were using C2C units and lessons for English, Mathematics, and Science, and school-based units for all other subject areas. Although there was now an emerging understanding that the C2C materials were not to be used prescriptively, rather schools were encouraged to adapt these resources to suit their students. In summation, the use of the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching as a school wide pedagogical framework by the case study school was implemented in order to improve student performance and to develop successful lifelong learners.

3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has outlined the curriculum context in Queensland for History and Geography. It briefly examined the key findings of the review of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography and then summarised the structure of the SOSE KLA, the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines, and the discrete disciplines of History and Geography. Although the discussion of History was more detailed than that of Geography both disciplines experienced similar concerns at the introduction of SOSE, but most paramount would have been the loss of historical and geographical knowledge, understanding, and skills, and the loss of discipline status. The curriculum organisation and structure of the SOSE Essential Learnings, The Year 10 Guidelines History and Geography, and the Australian Curriculum History and Geography were similar in that they all utilised an inquiry approach. However, the SOSE Essential Learnings multidisciplinary approach was distinctly different to the discrete disciplinary approach of the Australian Curriculum which saw History taught chronologically and Geography focused on Environmental Geography and Human Geography. This was followed by a discussion of the case study school's pedagogical framework, the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching (Fleming, 2011), and the way it was used to enact the curriculum. An examination of the model provided a contextual understanding of the curriculum implementation process at the case study school. It is also important to note how there was an apparent imbalance in the value of History and Geography in terms of the governing state education body, the Queensland Studies Authority (now known as the Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority), and the recommendation of time requirements for the discrete disciplines of History and Geography. In terms of informing my study this was very rich ground in which to begin my investigation, as I was interested to see how the teachers in the case study

school perceived the impending shift away from SOSE towards the discrete History and Geography disciplines.

The following chapter examines the chosen research methodology (case study methodology (Yin, 2003) and its associated limitations, and the theoretical framework (Actor Network Theory (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). Additionally, a discussion of the school and department context and my role as the researcher will take place.

4.0 Methodology

This chapter outlines the theoretical framework, the research context, case study methodology, data collection methods, and methodological limitations of the study. This study uses qualitative research that applies a descriptive case study as the most appropriate approach (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1993). The descriptive case study approach was used within an Actor Network theoretical framework (Law, 1999) to investigate the History and Geography national curriculum at a government secondary school in regional Far North Queensland. As the previous chapters highlighted, the curriculum is a planned course of studies that is shaped by key stakeholders within a particular geographical area (typically state or national), and so there is a need for theoretical tools which examine the constitution of the curriculum network, and the interactions between human and non-human actants (Harris & Marsh, 2005). As previously mentioned theoretical framework or lens that assisted in providing a clear understanding of this curriculum change in terms of the nature of the curriculum translation processes was the Actor Network theoretical framework. This framework was the most appropriate as it facilitated examination of the interactions and translations within the school curriculum network. This is expanded on in Chapter Five. The study aimed to identify what enabled and constrained agency on the part of actants (including the lead researcher, teachers, administrators and other personnel) in the network by articulating with a dynamic curriculum context involving national, state and school imperatives.

The research problem examined in this study was:

What is enabling and/or constraining actants' engagement and agency during the implementation of Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department in a regional Queensland secondary state school?

The term actant is particular to Actor Network Theory (ANT), which explains that actants are “something that acts or to which activity is granted by others [actants]... an actant can literally be anything provided it is granted to be the source of an action” (Latour, 1996, p. 374). Human actants may include teachers and administrators while non-human actants may include: textbooks; teacher timetables; Australian Curriculum documents; technology; and facilities. Agency is an “effect of different forces, including actions, desires and capacities and connections that move through her [him], as well as the forces exerted by the texts and technologies in all educational encounters” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 21). More specifically, the agency of human actants denotes the effect of forces and desires to influence action, while the agency of non-human actants highlights their capacity to influence action through their various connections and interactions. Considering this, the concept of agency needs to be explored in a context relative to all actants, both human and non-human. Engagement may involve the translation of activities, actions and interactions, the formation of networks, and enablers and constraints to implementation during the process of transition from SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 Guidelines to an Australian Curriculum.

The foci of the research were to:

- Examine the extent of alignment of SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines with the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.
- Explore the curriculum implementation processes involved, including the reviewing, planning, and implementation of actions undertaken by the school’s Social Science department during the implementation phase of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

- Investigate the major enablers and constraints to the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department, in a regional Queensland state high school.
- Investigate the Social Science teachers' agency and associated themes during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

These foci are examined using an Actor Network theoretical framework detailed in the following section.

4.1 Theoretical framework

An Actor Network theoretical framework was used in this study to explore and describe the interactions and relationships amongst both human and non-human actants during the curriculum implementation process. Actor Network Theory (ANT) explores how different things (whether natural, social or technical processes) interact and work together or against each other, and how such interactions are not always linear or consistent. ANT emerged during the early 1980s and was largely associated with science and technology studies (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). In education, much uptake of the ANT was originally by those interested in science education, but has since dispersed and developed into other domains (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). Key theorists that influenced the socio material theories underpinning ANT include John Law (1999), Bruno Latour (1996), Michel Callon (1986), Michel Foucault (1980), Tara Fenwick and Richard Edwards (2010).

ANT stipulates that no single actant is more or less powerful than another actant (Foucault, 1980; Grundy, 2005). Rather, Foucault's theory of power suggests that power was "omnipresent, that is, power can be found in all social interactions" (as cited in Lynch, 2010,

p.15). ANT examined how the actants emerged and were positioned through interactions and relationships and how they enacted different forms of power (Bosco, 2006; Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). ANT therefore allows the multiple interactions and relationships amongst actants to be examined.

Fenwick and Edwards (2011) believed that the “risk in explaining ANT was distorting and domesticating it... its ideas are practices for understanding, not a totalising theory of the world and its problems” (p. 2). In the early years of ANT’s development, Law (1992) wrote that at the core of the Actor Network approach was:

A concern with how actors and organisations mobilise, juxtapose, and hold together the bits and pieces out of which they are composed; how they are sometimes able to prevent those bits and pieces from following their own inclinations and making off, and how they manage, as a result, to conceal for a time the process of translation itself and so turn a network from a heterogeneous set of bits and pieces each with its own inclinations, into something that passes as a punctualised actor. (p. 386)

For example, the school or department (institutional discourses) can sometimes conceal the messy and heterogeneous actor network that enacts curriculum. More recently Elder-Vass (2015) similarly suggested that ANT is “the insistence on seeing each event as the outcome of a convergence of multiple interacting influences including those of material objects” (p.101). This study uses ANT to examine the interactions and relationships that are sometimes concealed, normalised and taken for granted. It also reveals the socio-political and material that actants have shaped during the implementation of the curriculum, and their agency in translating and reshaping the contested History and Geography curriculum.

In the Anglo-Saxon tradition the term ‘actor’ has often been misunderstood as “always a human intentional individual actor and is most often contrasted with mere ‘behaviour’” (Latour, 1996, p. 372). However, the term actant “implies no special motivation of human individual actors, nor of humans in general” (Latour, 1996, p. 374). Therefore, Latour shifted away from the term ‘actor’ to the preferred term ‘actant’, as an actant can “literally be anything [human or non-human] provided it is granted to be the source of an action” (Latour, 1996, p. 373). For ease of understanding this study will use the term actant and where necessitated will provide further clarification by stating human actant or non-human actant. In ANT both human and non-human actants are treated the same way so as to examine the networks between them (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010; Kerr, 2016). ANT “examines the interconnections of human and non-human entities based upon an anti-foundationalist approach in which nothing exists prior to its performance or enactment” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x). ANT therefore decentres human intention and action in this approach (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). This was quite a difficult concept to comprehend when considering how both history and culture often privilege human intention and agency by placing humans at the centre of things rather than as a part of them. This study therefore focused not only on the network but the bits and pieces (namely teachers, documents and processes) that were heterogeneous actants of curriculum implementation.

According to Fenwick and Edwards (2012) all actants within the network are “fragile, and all are powerful, held in balance with their interactions. None is inherently strong or weak, but only becomes strong by assembling other allies” (p. xi). A network therefore is not “words or any durable substance but is the trace left behind by some moving agent” (Latour, 2005, p. 132). It is an assemblage of humans, machinery, materials, and environments brought together and linked through a process of translation (Beagle, 2001; Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). ANT

assumes all actants “are capable of exerting force and joining together, changing and being changed by each other” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x). The networks, once formed, can keep expanding across space or even time, likewise they can break down or become abandoned (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). ANT shows how things are “attracted into or excluded from these networks, how some linkages work, and others do not, and how connections are bolstered to make themselves stable and durable by linking to other networks and things” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x). ANT also shows that things “may connect with other things in ways that gather them into a particular collective, or they may pretend to connect, partially connect or feel disconnected and excluded even when they are connected” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x-xi).

ANT focused on the “minute negotiations” that occur at the point on connection (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x). Minute negotiations can include where actants “persuade, coerce, seduce, resist and compromise each other as they come together” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. x). The greater the complexity of the network’s interactions and relationships the stronger and more durable it becomes (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). Actants of the network could be human (e.g. teachers, administrators, etc.) or non-human (e.g., computers, documents, resources, classrooms, etc.). For the purpose of this case study only administrators’ and teachers’ interactions with curriculum change were recorded rather than all groups of actants involved, such as parents/guardians and/or students. Law (2007) referred to ANT as a diaspora, a disparate set of:

Tools, sensibilities, and methods of analysis that treat everything in the social and natural worlds as a continuously generated effect of the webs of relations within which they are located. It assumes that nothing has reality or form outside the enactment of those relations. (p. 595)

Fenwick and Edwards (2012) suggest that it would be more accurate to think of ANT as “a virtual ‘cloud’, continually moving, shrinking and stretching, dissolving in any attempt to grasp it firmly” (p. ix). In other words, ANT is a lens that can be used to observe the interactions and relationships amongst the various actants within the network. Additionally, the language of ANT can assist with developing “new questions and its approaches can sense phenomena in rich ways that discern the difficult ambivalences, messes, multiplicities and contradictions that are embedded in so many educational issues” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. ix). This demonstrates that ANT can highlight relationships that the researcher (I) may not have previously considered, and it can also assist with explaining the messiness and complexity of current and future networks. Rather than focusing solely on the context of the situation or the key stakeholders (actants), ANT primarily examines the translation of network activity (Harris & Marsh, 2005) and how the network was shaped and modified by the interactions and relationships of actants.

Translation was the term used by Latour (1987) to describe what happens when human and non-human entities (actants) come together, connect (or link) to each other, and change each other. Callon (1980) maintained that when:

Considered from a very general point of view, this notion [translation] postulates the existence of a single field of significations, concerns and interests, the expression of a shared desire to arrive at the same result... Translation involves creating convergences and homologies by relating things that were previously different. (p. 211)

Fenwick and Edwards (2010) believe that, over time, actants that “connect eventually form a chain or network of action and things, and these networks tend to become stable and durable” (p. 9). The authors noted that ANT firstly focuses on:

The individual nodes holding these networks together, examining how these connections came about and what sustains them. These include negotiations, forces, resistances and

exclusions, which are at play in these micro-interactions that eventually forge links.

(Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 9)

At each of these points of connection “one entity has worked upon another to translate or change it to become part of a network of coordinated things and actions” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xii). Barab, Hay, and Yamagata-Lynch (2001) believed that:

In addition to being part of a network, actors (actants) are also constituted by networks; that is, they are both constitutive of and constituted by networks of actors (actants), reciprocally determining and being determined by the interactions in which they are part.

(p. 66)

This was because the process of translation focused on the way in which agency was translated within and between networks (Harris & Marsh, 2005).

4.1.1 Defining teacher agency

Agency in the Social Science field has “emerged as a core, albeit slippery concept” (Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, Hökkä, & Paloniemi, 2013, p. 48). The concept of agency was often “loosely associated with active striving, taking initiatives, or having an influence on one’s own life situation” (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 46). The definition that was adopted for this study for agency was that it is “an effect of different forces including actions, desires, capacities and connections that move through her [him], as well as the forces exerted by the texts and technologies in all educational encounters” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xvi). More specifically, the agency of human actants denotes the effect of forces and desires to influence action, while the agency of non-human actants highlights their capacity to influence action through their various connections and interactions.

The definition of agency that was provided by Fenwick and Edwards (2012) was most appropriate to this study as it considered both the agency of human and non-human actants. The definition from Biesta and Tedder (2007) similarly highlighted the role of both human and non-human actants when they said:

[Actants] always act by means of their environment rather than simply in their environment [so that] the achievement of agency will always result from the interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual and structural factors as they come together in particular and, in a sense, always unique situations. (p. 137)

However, Biesta and Tedder's (2007) definition focused more specifically on the interplay of individual efforts in a particular situation, whereas—as was seen in this study—sometimes it was not their efforts but simply their connection to a situation that engaged other actants and resulted in action. Therefore, I found the definition by Fenwick and Edwards (2012) more useful when examining the agency of human and non-human actants.

Some academics limited agency to that of human actants wherein agency was used to “critically shape their responses to problematic situations” (Biesta & Tedder, 2006, p. 11). Here, rather than “seeing agency residing in individuals, agency... [was] understood as an emergent phenomenon of actor-situation transaction” (Biesta, Priestly, & Robinson, 2015, p. 626). In other words, agency was:

Not something that people can have – as a property, capacity or competence – but is something that people do. More specifically, agency denotes a quality of the engagement of actors [actants] with temporal–relational contexts-for-action, not a quality of the actors themselves. (Biesta et al., 2015, p. 626)

However, most sociological researchers agreed that agency could not be “divorced from structural factors” (such as social class, race, gender, economic, and occupational conditions),

given that agency was “shaped and constrained by the structures in question” (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 48). Agency was seen as “connected to subjects’ autonomy and self-fulfilment, acting as a force for change and for resistance to structural power” (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 46). This agency also assisted in the manifestation of “intentional action” (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 46). Therefore, agency is something that could “potentially develop over time through a continual process of engagement and emergence” (Priestley, Edwards, Priestley, & Miller, 2012, p. 197). Giddens (1984) defined agency as:

Events of which an individual is the perpetrator, in the sense that the individual could, at any given phase in a given sequence of conduct, have acted differently. Whatever happened would not have happened if that individual had not intervened. (p. 9)

Giddens definition of agency according to Eteläpelto et al., (2013) highlighted:

The power of individuals as a necessary condition to bring about something. Power is thus seen as inseparable from the subject’s practice of agency, and the lack of power to engage in an action implies a lack of any practice of agency. (p. 50)

Eteläpelto et al., (2013) therefore suggested that humans actants act as a “conscious and willing perpetrator... [with] the capacity and power to act in accordance with the intention, and... [produce] consequences from the action” (p. 49). However, contrary to this, teachers also have a choice as to whether or not they will participate or act. Therefore, I found that such definitions of agency were too narrow for the purpose of this study as I wanted to focus on both the agency of human and non-human actants.

All teachers exercise varying degrees of agency during curriculum change. Existing curriculum change models “tend to both underplay and misconstrue the role of teacher agency” (Biesta et al., 2015, p. 625; Leander & Osborne, 2008). Teacher agency depends upon the qualities of the teacher, their personal history, their professional knowledge, skills, beliefs,

values, and use of resources and is achieved through their interaction with other actants (Biesta et al.,; Priestley & Robinson, 2015). According to Oolbakkink-Marchand, Hadar, Smith, Helleve, and Ulvik, (2017), teacher agency is based on the understanding that “people do not merely react to and repeat given practices. Rather, people exhibit capacity for autonomous action, a process through which they intentionally transform and refine their worlds and thereby take control of their lives” (p.38).

The agency of teachers is important “because it affects the implementation of educational policies at the institutional and national levels” (Oolbakkink-Marchand et al, 2017, p. 38; Tao & Gao, 2017, p. 346). Teacher agency can be considered a “key capability of teachers for advancing student learning, and for their continuous professional development and school development” (Oolbakkink-Marchand et al., 2017, p. 38). According to Campbell (2012), teachers can therefore be seen as “change agents, whose choices and actions variably reflect the implementation, interpretation, adaptation, alteration, substitution, subversion, and/or creation of the curriculum contexts in which they work” (p.183).

Teachers are not “pawns in the [curriculum change] process” but “active agents, whether they act passively or actively” within the network (Lasky, 2005, pp. 900-901). Teacher actants can choose to act, resist action, or avoid engagement in a given context depending on their agency and engagement. Coffman (2015) highlighted how “senior practicing teachers may... not believe that they have the tools and knowledge to affect change, but... when teachers and teacher educators are able to activate their personal agency, changes began to occur” (p. 328). Teachers with high engagement in the curriculum change network can become disengaged if their agency is reduced by other conflicting networks. Teachers can enact (inadvertently or

purposefully) their agency at “the systems level as delegates on various boards and committees or more generally through professional associations” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 6).

Harris and Marsh (2005) contended that from an ANT perspective all actants have agency, and this agency “adheres to networks and is not a property associated with individual actants” (p. 32). Individual actants “only have power or agency through their network activity... this agency may be vested in smaller sub-networks and it may also be reflective of the position or centrality of sub-networks within a broader network” (Harris & Marsh, 2005, p. 32). All actants have agency and the roles they play in curriculum change and the perceptions they have are considered equally (Harris & Marsh, 2005). However, the agency exhibited by actants may change over time or at particular stages in the process of curriculum change.

4.1.2 Process of translation

The agency of actants changes over time as curriculum change occurs and progresses through cycles of translation (Harris & Marsh, 2005). Therefore, ANT “does not position any particular contributor to the change process as more or less powerful” (Grundy, 2005, p. 161). Harris and Marsh (2005) noted that:

ANT does not presuppose that all actants have access to all forms of agency. Rather, ANT acknowledges that the translation process is an innately political activity whereby some groups of actants (networks) are able to exert their agency to better effect. (p. 33)

Translation was defined as “the process...which generates ordering effects such as devices, agents, institutions, or organisations” (Law, 1992, p. 386). It was the “mechanism by which the social and natural worlds progressively take form” (Callon, 1986, p. 19). Hence, the consideration of such relationships of power in the process of translation was the key to

understanding curriculum change for this study. ANT does not consider power as “an essential or inherent property” of any actant (Gorur, 2015, p. 91). Rather, ANT attempts to describe the processes by which power is achieved (Gorur, 2015). Power is therefore “central to any understandings of space and context translated through networks” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 13). ANT can be used to “reveal unexpected conduits of power and thus open up multiple possibilities for interfering in relations that sustain and stabilise power” (Gorur, 2015, p. 91). Foucault (1980) suggested power was “not to be taken to be a phenomenon of one individual's consolidated and homogenous domination over others, or that of one group or class over others” (p. 98). Rather, Foucault (1980) held, power as “employed and exercised through a net-like organisation”, and individuals were “always in the position of simultaneously undergoing and exercising this power” (p. 98). They were “not only its inert or consenting target; they are always also the elements of its articulation... the vehicles of power, not its points of application” (Foucault, 1980, p. 98). To Foucault, “power is ‘always already there’, that one is never ‘outside’ it” (Foucault, 1980, p. 141). Foucault's theory of power suggests “that power is omnipresent, that is, power can be found in all social interactions” (Lynch, 2010, p.15). Foucault believed the analysis of power “should not concern itself with the regulated and legitimate forms of power in their central locations” (Foucault, 1980, p. 96), but rather:

With power at its extremities, in its ultimate destinations, with those points where it becomes capillary, that is, in its more regional and local forms and institutions... the point where power surmounts the rules of right which organise and delimit it and extends itself beyond them, invests itself in institutions, becomes embodied in techniques, and equips itself with instruments and eventually even violent means of material intervention. (Foucault, 1980, p. 96).

An examination of embodied networks of power during curriculum translation illuminates the political, social and material processes of curriculum change.

Curriculum translation is a highly complex process that involves the thoughts and feelings of individuals and groups (Brady & Kennedy, 2010). In practice, the process of translation was “eclectic, often tentative and individual” (Brady & Kennedy, 2010, p. 131). Law (1999) explained that interrelationships between actants of a network assisted them to further develop and acquire attributes. Hence, the role/s of actants were not pre-determined, rather they emerged through interactions (such as negotiations or compromises) between the actants (Harris & Marsh, 2005). Importantly, no one actant was given priority over another; rather the roles they play in curriculum change, and the perceptions they have, are considered equally. All actants have agency, however, the agency they exhibit may change over time or at particular stages in the process of curriculum change. Therefore, when investigating curriculum change processes from this theoretical perspective, it was imperative to examine “the ways in which agency translated within and between networks, and how this agency manifests itself” (Harris & Marsh, 2005, p. 32). Translation in this study moved across and around worlds of problematisation; intersement/interposition; enrolment; and mobilisation (Callon, 1986). These phases are described in this section before being explored in greater detail in Chapter 5 so to gain insight into the agency and engagement of actants within the network.

4.1.3 Problematisation

During the phase of problematisation, actants became “indispensable” to other actants in the network by using their interactions to define the problem and then suggesting that this would be resolved if the actants “negotiated the ‘obligatory passage point’” (Callon, 1986, p. 1). This “double movement” of determining the problems and identifying the actants of the network makes an actant “indispensable” in the network (Callon, 1986, p. 6). Fenwick and

Edwards (2010), elaborated on Callon's definition by stating that the obligatory passage point was used to "frame an idea, intermediary or problem and related entities [actants] in particular ways" (p. 14).

Problematization possesses certain dynamic properties which indicate "the movements and detours that must be accepted as well as the alliances that must be forged" (Callon, 1986, p. 8). The acceptance of such movements and detours and the formation of such alliances assists the actants in determining how the alliance can benefit each of them and to realise that without such alliances they cannot attain what they want by themselves (Callon, 1986). Therefore problematization describes "a system of alliances, or associations, between entities, thereby defining the identity and what they 'want'" (Callon, 1986, p. 8).

4.1.4 Interessement

During interessement an actant could be "attracted" to a network where they would then "detach themselves from their existing networks... [to] negotiate their connection and role in the emerging network" (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 14). Strategies and mechanisms could be used by one actant (entity) to "'corner' and enrol other entities" (Michael, 1996, p. 53) or discourage them as the process of interessement selected "entities to be included but also importantly those to be excluded" (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xiii). This in turn provided validity to those entities included and power (whether they were aware of it or not) to those deciding which entities to include or exclude. Ultimately, the phase of interessement confirms "the validity of the problematization" and its networks (Callon, 1986, pp. 209-210; Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 14).

During intersement actants “conceive, elaborate, circulate, emit or pension off intermediaries” (Callon, 1991, p. 141). An intermediary is described as “anything passing between actors [actants] which defines the relationship between them” (Callon, 1991, p. 134). Such intermediaries “compose, order and form the medium of the network they describe” (Michael, 1996, p. 55). Emissions from actants were considered “a point of action...” which brought “together intermediaries” (Michael, 1996, p. 55). During the “movement of intermediaries... the process of translation networks come to be durable” (Michael, 1996, pp. 55-56). Such durability was due to convergence (Callon, 1991) or when an agreement was “generated between elements in a network which work together despite their heterogeneity” (Michael, 1996, p. 56). Callon (1991) broadened this idea on the durability of the network to suggest that “the more numerous and heterogeneous the interrelationships the greater the degree of network coordination and the greater the probability of resistance to alternative transition” (p. 150).

4.1.5 Enrolment

According to Callon (1986) enrolment is designated as “the device by which a set of interrelated roles is defined and attributed to actors [actants] who accept them” (p. 211). Enrolment was “not a unilateral process of imposition” rather it was “a multilateral process” that “entails both the ‘capturing’ of the other and the other’s ‘yielding’” (Michael, 1996, p. 53). Enrolment was achieved “only with the successful disconnection from... other associations” (Michael, 1996, p. 53). Heterogeneous actants of the network were therefore persuaded in enrolment to agree that their interests were consistent with that of the other actants in the network. The heterogeneous actants were therefore translated or changed (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). Therefore actants who were included in the network, can “become engaged in new

identities and behaviours and increasingly translated in particular directions” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xiii). It was noted however that this moment of enrolment could only ever be considered to have “temporarily, succeeded” (Michael, 1996, p. 53).

To describe enrolment is thus to describe the group of “multilateral negotiations, trials of strength and tricks that accompany the intersements and enable them [actants] to succeed” (Callon, 1986, p. 211). The forging of such links or a chain of actions in the process of enrolment was assisted by examining the micro-interactions that created the connections, this included: “negotiations, forces, resistances and exclusions” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 9).

Such adjustments to the network by actants that act from a distance was what Latour (1987) originally referred to as immutable mobiles (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). Michael (1996) elaborated on this by explaining that an immutable mobile was “text – writing, graphs, figures, formulae – which can be moved, remain stable and... [be] combinable with other such texts” (p. 55). In other words, they were often everyday things which were taken-for-granted. According to Fenwick and Edwards (2010):

Entities [actants] that connect eventually form a chain or network of action and things, and these networks tend to become stable and durable. At each of these connections, one entity has worked upon another to translate or change it to become part of a collective or network of coordinated things and actions. (p. 9)

In this way immutable mobiles were “only visible within a particular network of relations... [and could be] silent, ignored, or overridden by other active objects [actants]” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 18).

Immutable mobiles could also be used during the process of enrolment to combat long distance (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010; Latour, 1987; Michael, 1996). Immutable mobiles were able to move about while holding their relationships in place due to the solidity they had developed (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). In this way immutable mobiles “function as the delegates of these other networks, extending the power of these networks by moving into new spaces and working to translate entities to behave in particular ways” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 18). At times it was apparent that immutable mobiles were “not at all immutable: they break and shift, grow and adapt and mutate as they travel” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xvi). Hence, the notion of immutable mobiles offers an “approach to understand and challenge the strategies of powerful networks in education that work to authorise, control, compel and measure practices and knowledge” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2011, p. 13).

4.1.6 Mobilisation

Once the network became apparent its translations extend in particular directions to other locations through mobilisation (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). The phase of mobilisation uses a set of methods “to ensure that supposed spokesmen for various relevant collectivities were properly able to represent those collectivities” (Callon, 1986, p. 1). Mobilisation raises key questions such as “who speaks in the name of whom? Who represents whom?” (Callon, 1986, p. 12). In this way only certain voices are heard while others remain silent, assumedly because their view are being expressed by the spokesperson who speaks in their name (Callon, 1986).

To mobilise, as proposed by Callon (1986), was “to render entities mobile which were not so beforehand” (p. 14). Callon (1986) expands on this explanation when he stated that the “designation of the successive spokesmen and the settlement of a series of equivalencies, all

these actors are first displaced and then reassembled at a certain place at a particular time” (p. 14). Such displacement enables mobilisation and makes it easier for the spokesperson to be identified within the collective (Callon, 1986).

4.1.7 ANT and the process of translation

When the process of translation succeeds the actor network is “mobilised to assume a particular role and perform knowledge in a particular way” (Fenwick and Edwards, 2010, p. 10). The Actor Network theoretical framework assisted with determining what aspects of curriculum translation were of importance and, in turn, what data to collect. Members of the Social Science faculty of the case study school were involved in Phase 1 implementation of History, Phase 2 implementation of Geography. On account of this complexity, it could be argued that in terms of national curriculum implementation, the greatest challenges were likely to be encountered by Social Science faculties. Hargreaves (1994) noted that “teachers, more than any others are the key to educational change” (p.10). This research therefore examined how the different actants (e.g. teachers, documents, resources) were brought together, and how they interrelated or were linked together in the process of curriculum delivery (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010) – or more simply, what enabled, and what constrained, agency during each phase of the curriculum change process. The most important contribution of ANT to education, as described by Neyland (2006), was providing a way to better understand:

Mundane masses (the everyday and the humdrum that are frequently overlooked), assemblages (description of things holding together), materiality (that which does or does not endure), heterogeneity (achieved diversity within an assemblage), and flows/fluidity (movement without necessary stability). (p. 45)

ANT creates a way to understand the sociotechnical assemblages of curriculum implementation. It focuses on the “circulating forces that get things done through a network of elements acting upon one another” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xvi). Further discussing elements acting upon one another, Latour (2005) stated:

Action is not done under the full control of consciousness; action should rather be felt as a node, a knot, and a conglomerate of many surprising sets of agencies that have to be slowly disentangled. It is this venerable source of uncertainty that we wish to render vivid again in the odd expression of actor-network. (p. 44)

The objective of ANT in this case study was therefore to comprehend how these things come together, even if only temporarily, to form relationships that produce agency or other effects (e.g. ideas, rules, policies, instruments). Actor Networks are not fixed entities which are constituted by actants; instead they are “fluid and contested definitions of identities and alliances that are simultaneously frameworks of power” (Nespor, 1994, p. 9). ANT, as suggested by Fenwick and Edwards (2012), focused “not on what texts and other objects means, but on what they do... in connection with other human and non-human things” (p. xi). ANT draws attention to how different entities emerge and are positioned through these relations and how they enact different forms of power (Bosco, 2006; Fenwick & Edwards, 2010). ANT can also “trace how assemblages may solidify certain relations of power in ways that continue to affect movements and identities” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 13). Earlier literature discussed the largely centralised power contestations over the official curriculum. This case study interrogates the networks of power in this regional school and examines, through the lens of ANT, how it embodies materials and practices. The Actor Network theoretical framework was used in this research to illuminate an understanding of curriculum change. ANT was deemed the most suitable framework because it was an analytical framework that could be used to examine the messiness and complexity of the curriculum change implementation. ANT also

assisted in examining how different actants within the network came together and interacted during the process of curriculum change, and what enabled or constrained agency during the implementation process. The interaction of administrators, teachers and non-human actants (including curriculum documents, Education Queensland policies, textbooks, and teacher timetables) were core to this study. When considering curriculum translation processes, it was imperative for the researcher to examine “the ways in which agency is translated within and between networks, and how this agency manifests itself” (Harris & Marsh, 2005, p. 32). The most appropriate methodology to complement the use of the Actor Network theoretical framework in this research investigation was deemed to be that of a case study methodology.

4.2 Case study

The case study methodology was deemed the most appropriate approach because of the narrow research context, namely that of a single faculty department (Social Science department) within one school (Western High School). According to Yin (2003, p. 13), a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.” VanWynsberghe and Kahn (2007) believed that a “case study could be considered a transparadigmatic and transdisciplinary heuristic that involves the careful delineation of the phenomena for which evidence was being collected (event, concept, program, process, etc.)” (p. 2). By transparadigmatic and transdisciplinary they meant that a case study was “relevant regardless of one’s research paradigm...or disciplinary orientation” (VanWynsberghe & Kahn, 2007, p. 2). It is an approach that “focuses one’s attention during learning, construction, discovery, or problem solving” (VanWynsberghe & Kahn, 2007, p. 2). Therefore, although a case study methodology may be considered by some

as “catch-all category for anything that does not fit into experimental, survey or historical methods” it is instead a “portmanteau term” that involved the observation of an individual/singular unit (Burns, 2000). For an investigation to qualify as a case study “it must be a bounded system – an entity in itself” (Burns, 2000, p. 460) The case can be an individual, a community, an organisation, a set of real-life events, a situation or a concrete affair (Robson, 1993; Yin, 2004). As this study was bounded to one department (at one school location over a set period of time), the most appropriate methodology to investigate and inform curriculum translation and innovation in light of the research context was that of a case study.

To further explain, a number of different categories of case studies have been identified. Bassey (1999) suggested there were three main categories for educational case study methodologies, namely: theory-seeking or theory testing case studies, story-telling and picture-drawing case studies, and evaluative case studies. Others have used different terms to define the same categories. For example, Yin (1993) called the ‘theory seeking’ case study ‘exploratory’, and the ‘theory testing’ case study ‘explanatory’. These studies examined general issues where “the focus is the issue rather than the case” (Bassey, 1999, p.62). ‘Story-telling’ or ‘picture-drawing’ case studies were also sometimes referred to as ‘intrinsic’ case studies (Stake, 1995) or ‘descriptive’ case studies (Yin, 1993) because they are “analytical accounts of educational events, projects, programmes or systems aimed at illuminating theory” (Bassey, 1999, p. 62). More specifically story-telling case studies were predominantly narrative accounts, while picture-drawing case studies were predominantly descriptive accounts (Bassey, 1999).

The research focus for this study was more aligned to that of a descriptive case study, as it is not an expression of a cause-effect relationship, instead it was a study that covered the

scope and depth of the case being described (Yin, 2003). A descriptive case study allowed the researcher to be both a participant and an observer; it is rare for case study researchers to be total participants or total observers (Burns, 2000). Therefore, this type of case study was appropriate, given that I was teaching at the school chosen for the study.

A common criticism of the case study methodology was that when only a small group of people were selectively sampled there was “more danger of you changing their behaviour by your presence” (Burns, 2010, p. 462). However, as I, the researcher, was a Social Science teacher at the school and was also located in the same staffroom I considered there would be less impact than that of an outsider/external researcher. As the researcher I made a concerted effort to try and minimise my power during my role as Social Science Subject Area Coordinator, so as to ensure that the teachers’ voices were heard, and that networks were not overtly impacted upon. Therefore, despite these limitations, a case study methodology was deemed the most appropriate for this research.

A case study methodology was considered very valuable because ‘cases’ are “so intensive and generate rich subjective data they may bring to light variables, phenomena, processes and relationships that deserve more intensive investigation” (Burns, 2000, p. 460). This research study clearly acknowledges and emphasises the importance of the context and time frame from which the information was gathered. This case study methodology allowed for appropriate data collection and analysis techniques to be used. The additional use of data triangulation (as discussed in section 4.9) also assisted in determining of the key enablers and constraints that teachers face in terms of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography implementation. This case study collated and examined the viewpoints of Social Science secondary staff (within a regional state high school) to the implementation of the Australian

Curriculum History and Geography. This provided a representative view of some of the constraints and enablers that Social Science secondary staff were facing during the implementation.

4.3 Phases of research within the case study approach

The first phase commenced in 2011 with reflection on school-based units for Geography, based on the *Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography* (ACARA, 2011b), and for History based on the *Australian Curriculum: History 1.1* document (ACARA, 2010e) to inform planning for the following year. The second phase in 2012 saw these History and Geography units either further refined or deleted due to changes in emphases in curriculum documents. Additional units had to be created and these were planned and developed collaboratively by the Social Science staff members using the revised *Australian Curriculum: History 2.0* (ACARA, 2011c) and the *Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography* document (ACARA, 2011a). These units have been implemented from Years 8-10.

Throughout this time, Social Science staff members met periodically to debrief by providing feedback on the units, lesson sequence, and associated resources (i.e. what worked well, what didn't work, and what could be changed for next time). During these meetings I recorded detailed and ongoing observations, as well as observations pertaining to planning processes and exchanges between actants in the network. In addition, in 2012, surveys and interviews were conducted with the collaborators (human actants) in the curriculum network to gather their perspectives and experiences. The third phase would occur following the release of History C2C materials in 2013 and Geography C2C materials in 2014. During this phase it would be determined whether the school-based History and Geography units that were

developed by the teachers would become supplanted by C2C units. The adoption of C2C units was likely to have repercussions for the timetable, resourcing and staffing of subjects. For example, it was possible that the semester rotational arrangement was not compatible with C2C requirements.

4.4 School context

The school involved in the proposed research project was assigned a pseudonym in order to protect its anonymity. Western High School was a P–12 government school that catered for approximately 1700 students, with facilities for expansion to 2100 students. The school consisted of three separate campuses: primary (Prep to Year 5), middle school (Year 6 to Year 9) and senior (Year 10 to Year 12). However, in August 2010, distinct primary and secondary school sectors, of Prep to Year 6 and Year 7 to Year 12 were introduced. This move was influenced by the Queensland Government's decision to relocate Year 7 to Queensland secondary schools by 2015 (DETE, 2011).

Western High School was an early adopter of Education Queensland's Year 7 relocation initiative. This arrangement saw Year 7 students operating within the traditional framework of a primary school classroom setting with a 'home teacher' who was responsible for the delivery of core subjects, but with access to specialist teachers for electives such as Information Communication Technology, Health and Physical Education, Manual Arts, etc. This arrangement helped create a safe and secure classroom environment for Year 7 students as they had access to one key teacher (as was the case in most primary schools) but also had access to specialist teachers to enhance and extend learning experiences (as was the case in most secondary schools).

Western High School was also part of a local ‘John Fleming’ cluster (a cluster of schools which adopted and adapted the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching to their school context) (Fleming & Kleinhenz, 2007) (See Chapter Three). Schools in this cluster had strong school-based expectations for teachers regarding the incorporation of explicit instruction in all lessons and units. Originally there was a requirement for Queensland Government schools, such as Western High School, to utilise Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C) materials such as units, lessons, assessment tasks and resources as they were developed in their daily teaching (DETE, 2013b). However, following consultation this was revised to a recommendation in that teachers and schools could choose to create their own or to ‘adopt or adapt’ the C2C resources. The creation of two distinct campuses for the case study school also assisted in the transition to the Australian Curriculum as it encouraged the teaching staff to reflect and review their current practices. This ultimately led to Western High School becoming an early adopter of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography prior to the release of C2C materials.

In 2011, the total number of student enrolments at Western State High (P-12) was 1656 students, comprising 769 girls and 887 boys. Nearly a quarter (24%) of students identified as being Indigenous, and 17% as having a language background other than English (ACARA, 2012f). There were 127 Year 12 students of whom 115 were awarded a Vocational Education and Training (VET) qualification; 60 students, a Queensland Certificate of Education (QCE); 48 students, an Overall Position (OP); and three students, a Queensland Certificate of Individual Achievement (QCIA). An OP was the position of a student in “a state-wide rank order based on their overall achievement in Authority subjects...and it was used for tertiary entrance purposes only” (QSA, 2013b). Fourteen Year 12 students studied Modern History, nine of whom were OP eligible. Eight Year 12 students studied Ancient History, three of whom

were OP eligible. Only five Year 12 students studied Senior Geography, two of whom were OP eligible. It would appear then that not all students choosing to study a Social Science subject in Years 11 and 12 wanted to become OP eligible so as to progress to tertiary studies (Education Queensland, 2012).

In 2012, there were 906 students in the secondary sector of Western State High School of whom 122 were in Year 12. Just under one fifth of the Year 12 students studied a Social Science subject. There were eight Year 12 students in Senior Geography; seven were receiving a sound level of achievement or higher in the subject. Twelve of the 14 students undertaking Ancient History received a sound level of achievement or higher. In Modern History, there were only two students, both of whom received a sound level of achievement or higher. While the majority of Social Science students were performing at a sound level of achievement or higher, 2011 data indicated that less than half were OP eligible. In the years beyond compulsory education, most students at Western High elected to undertake a VET qualification. Students' orientation to vocational pathways has implications for establishing relevance and engaging students in the Social Sciences as a compulsory part of their junior secondary program (Education Queensland, 2012).

4.5 Department context

The case study school had a combined English, Social Science, LOTE, and literacy department. This combination of disciplines, looked after by the Head of Department, (HOD) was unique to the case study school. This model was chosen after extensive discussion from members of the school community. Typically, other schools within the region either combined Social Science with the Business faculty or kept it as its own faculty, while English typically

was always a standalone faculty. The Head of Department at Western High was line manager for a Social Science Subject Area Coordinator (SOSE SAC) and 10 teachers. At the start of Term 4, 2010, I became the SOSE Subject Area Coordinator. The staffroom had nine female teachers and two male teachers (including the HOD and SOSE SAC). The remainder of the teachers who taught Social Science or English were located in other faculty departments across the school due to a lack of space. At the time of the study it was determined through discussion with administration that those teachers physically located outside the English/Social Science staffroom were not subject specialist teachers in either the Social Sciences or English, and were therefore not interviewed. In addition, neither of the two male teachers located in the Social Science/English staffroom were interviewed as neither taught junior Social Science classes, and only one of them taught a senior Social Science discipline. This was also the case for two of the female teachers, as one taught only English and the other Mandarin (Chinese), they were not interviewed. Therefore, all teachers (bar four) in the staffroom were selected as they were required to teach both Social Science and English.

It is important to the study to note that all of the staff located in the English/Social Science staffroom had been teaching for over five years. I had had the least amount of teaching experience in the staffroom (at the time of the interviews it was nine years' teaching experience). This indicated that the staff selected were highly accomplished teachers with years of teaching experience and expertise between them. For the purpose of sampling only the teachers located within the staffroom who taught a junior Social Science class were interviewed and surveyed. This was in addition to middle management and the relevant administration line managers.

The teachers and administrators involved in the research project have been assigned the following pseudonyms in order to protect anonymity: Administrator 1, Administrator 2, Middle Manager 1, Middle Manager 2, Middle Manager 3, Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 3, Teacher 4, and Teacher 5.

4.6 Myself as the researcher

During my four years at the case study school I was appointed in a number of roles. To begin with I was a general SOSE/English teacher in the middle school until the school realigned to that of a primary and secondary school model. I then became a general teacher in the secondary school sector and shifted from the middle school staffroom to the English and Social Science staffroom. I moved from a staffroom where I was the only Social Science teacher to a staffroom where I was one of nine Social Science teachers. I was then successful in becoming the SOSE Subject Area Coordinator (later renamed Social Science Subject Area Coordinator) before job sharing the Head of Department role for English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy, whilst still maintaining my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator.

Given my emersion into the structures of leadership during this dynamic period of curriculum change I became very interested in the proposed implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. My role as the researcher was to therefore examine the enablers and constraints from the point of view of those involved in the process of implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography, namely the teachers and administrators. Given my heavy involvement in the school and input during the development of units, lessons and assessment tasks I was intrigued and wished to investigate what the teachers saw as enabling or constraining our schools transition to the Australian Curriculum.

As a result, I found it necessary to identify my agency from that of the other staff members. Fenwick and Edwards (2012) maintain that teacher agency is “an effect of different forces including actions, desires, capacities and connections that move through her, as well as the forces exerted by the texts and technologies in all educational encounters” (p. xvi). It was quite difficult for me to take a step back when I have passions and ideas about teaching quality curriculum. The reason for me taking a step back was that as an actant I was conscious of the status of my position as Subject Area Coordinator, and my own educational beliefs, and did not want to direct or lead decision making choices for my teaching staff, especially as there were a lot more Social Science staff members who were experienced than myself. I therefore wanted to ensure any future curriculum decisions would be made in a collegial manner to ensure ownership and investment in the direction that was chosen by the Social Science department staff. I was part of a network, and I wanted to observe and act in this network. I also believed it would be beneficial to see how the transition process to the new Australian Curriculum History and Geography was seen by my colleagues.

My desire to see children aspire to be life-long learners, who were inspired by their dedicated teachers also underpinned my motivation for curriculum change for the betterment of students. I had come from a background where my father was a teacher (Maths/Science) but rather than directly following in his footsteps I was fascinated by the Social Sciences due to the wonderful Social Science teachers I had in senior school where I was lucky enough to study Ancient History, Modern History, and Geography. Therefore, I understood that being able to identify my own agency and that of others was necessary in understanding how it influenced other actants in the network during the curriculum change process.

My position at the case study school as both the researcher and a participant (actant) enabled me to reflect on the scope and depth of the case being described (Yin, 1993), namely that of the transition to the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. My position as an insider (or as someone who was a part of the Social Science department rather than a neutral observer) in developing and recording the case study enabled me to “gain in-depth understanding replete with meaning for the subject, focusing on process rather than outcome, on discovery rather than confirmation” (Burns, 2000, p. 460). In other words, over a period of time in the school (2011-2012) I was able to record and reflect on my own first-hand observations, informal discussions, interviews with others, and documentary analysis to gain a deeper understanding of the curriculum change process. This data assembling illuminated the process of curriculum enactment within the case study school (Merriam, 1988; Stevenson, 2007; Wadsworth, 1984). It also assisted with retaining “the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events” (Burns, 2000, p. 460), which in this case was the teachers’ perception of what enabled and constrained curriculum change implementation processes. My position as an actant needed to be considered as symmetrical (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010) to that of the other actants within the network (both human and non-human alike). According to Fenwick and Edwards (2010) when using ANT, “humans are not treated any differently from non-humans”. This ensures that all interactions between actants were equally weighted regardless of how they transpired, which, in turn, allows the network “to become stable and durable” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 9). Clearly the use of the Actor Network theoretical framework and the descriptive case study methodology assists in drawing rich data on what enabled and constrained curriculum change processes.

4.7 Start of transition to change

In the role of SOSE Subject Area Coordinator, the Social Science staff and I took the opportunity to revitalise the program, with prominent consideration given to promoting student engagement and intellectual rigour. After gaining approval from the school principal and the Head of Department (for English, SOSE, LOTE and Literacy), I worked alongside the Social Science teachers to either create from scratch or adapt the existing Year 7 to Year 10 SOSE units so that they presented as disciplinary-specific History and Geography units that aligned with the draft Australian Curriculum History and Geography documents. Additionally, as a team we decided to rename SOSE in the timetable according to the disciplines of History and Geography to reflect the shift towards the Australian Curriculum and to avoid any more confusion amongst our students, staff, parents and the wider community. This decision to change the name back to discrete disciplines was not made lightly nor in haste. As a faculty we had a number of faculty meetings, and informal discussions during lunch breaks before finally voting with a show of hands at a faculty meeting on whether to change the name. Following the successful vote to proceed with changing SOSE to discrete History and Geography subjects on the timetable further consultation with, and approval from, the administration at Western High School was sought and granted. As well as this change the 'SOSE Subject Area Coordinator' position, was renamed the 'Social Science Subject Area Coordinator'. This decision to move forward and away from the multidisciplinary approach of SOSE clearly highlighted how the Social Science staff of Western High School were early adopters of the Australian Curriculum.

Following approval for the shift away from SOSE, the Social Science faculty began implementing some of the topics outlined in the *Shape of the Australian curriculum*:

Geography (ACARA, 2011b) and the *Australian Curriculum: History 1.1* document (ACARA, 2010e) in 2011. At the start of 2012, further units were implemented from the revised *Australian Curriculum: History 2.0* (ACARA, 2011c) and the *Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography* document (ACARA, 2011a). Coverage of units was restricted due to timetable constraints. While the national History curriculum presents an overview and three depth studies (ACARA, 2011c) for each year level from 7 to 10, the faculty implemented the overview and only two of the depth studies. In Year 9, for instance, History students completed the overview and a unit on the Industrial Revolution in Term 1 and World War I in Term 2. Similarly, Geography students completed two units. Year 10 Geography students, for example, completed a unit on Climate Change (Environmental Geography) and one on Health and Poverty (Human Geography).

In terms then of the research context, there are a number of important features that made it fertile for an investigation of processes and practices involved with curriculum translation and innovation. One significant structural change at Western State High was the dissolution of the middle school sector and the early relocation of Year 7 to the senior school sector. So too, Western High was an early adopter in terms of planning and implementation of disciplinary specific programs in History and Geography and the dissolution of SOSE. In fact, in terms of planning for Geography, there was not even a draft curriculum document to plan from in 2011, as was the case for the History units. Only a Geography shape document had been released at the time. In spite of the early shift to the national curriculum, it was also important to align units with state frameworks so as to ensure compliance with school auditing processes, another stakeholder and actant.

4.8 Data sources

Due to the nature of this research, qualitative data sources are the most useful and thus the primary means of obtaining data for analysis. According to Anderson and Arsenault (1998), qualitative research was “a form of inquiry that explores phenomena in their natural settings and uses multi-methods to interpret, understand, explain and bring meaning to them” (p. 119). For instance, it may involve the studying of the meaning of people’s lives under real-world conditions (Yin, 2011). Burns (2000) defined qualitative research as an attempt to provide an explanation for the understanding of individual definitions, descriptions and meanings of events by emphasising the validity of multiple meaning structures and holistic analysis rather than the reliance on statistics. It relies on multiple sources of evidence rather than on single sources alone (Yin, 2011). The proximity of the researcher to the participants also reveals subtleties and complexities in relationships that may go undetected through the use of quantitative research methods (2000). The descriptive case study approach intends to draw out the richness of the research site and interactions, and the use of a qualitative methods allow for that depth to evolve. Key qualitative data sources used in this study are researcher observations, survey data, interview data, and document analysis.

4.8.1 Researcher observations

Throughout the research, I comprehensively documented observations about curriculum innovation processes and relevant interactions with staff in the Actor Network. Observations were a primary type of data which was invaluable because it was what you see and perceive with your own eyes, it was not based upon someone else’s observations (Yin, 2011). According to Bogdan (1972, p. 3) observations were characterised by “a prolonged period of intense social interaction between the researcher and the subjects, in the milieu of the latter, during which

time data, in the form of field notes, are unobtrusively and systematically collected.” Observations were not just based on visual observations; observations included a number of other skills such as listening, questioning, communicating, contributing, participating, pursuing, describing, recording etc. (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003).

Researcher observations were organised and analysed within a journal. Columns were dedicated to a description of events and interactions, analysis of these events and interactions, and actions that emerged from the analysis. Researcher notes were read exhaustively throughout the research project. As a participant-observer, observations were made at staff luncheons, whole of school staff meetings, faculty staff meetings and within the faculty staffroom. The observations were a description of the researcher’s understanding of the enablers and constraints of curriculum change experienced by the Social Science teachers, and as such included a layer of interpretation by the researcher as to the role they had in the process.

4.8.2 Interview data

Data collection involved the recording and analysis of semi-structured and open-ended interviews with actants in the network. The interview was chosen as a method by which to elicit rich data from participants in a short period of time. The interview method ensured the gathering of perceptions or experiences of an event or phenomenon from an ‘insider’s perspective’ (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 198). According to Lankshear and Knobel (2004), despite the fact that interviews cannot be used as “a direct representation of some definitive truth as expressed by the respondent” it was the most effective method of “accessing study participants’ opinions, beliefs, values and situated accounts of events at a particular point in time” (p. 199). The interviews provided insight into Social Science staff members and other

actants' perceptions and experiences as they engaged in curriculum innovation processes and interactions. Audio recording of interviews ensured that the participant responses occurred as naturally as possible despite the presence of recording equipment. Audio recording for transcription at a later date allowed the interviewer (researcher) to listen and respond naturally throughout the interview rather than having to take notes. It ensured that the interview transcript could be read exhaustively during analysis and that no data were lost. A small hand-held audio recorder was used to make the presence of the recording device less intrusive (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004).

Additionally, as the semi-structured interview technique utilised a set of open-ended questions, it allowed the researcher to compare participants' responses to the same questions, while at the same time allowing for unforeseen responses to be discussed in greater detail (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). Hence, there was more flexibility with a semi-structured interview than a structured interview, as although more questions were predetermined there was still sufficient flexibility to allow the interviewee an opportunity to shape the flow of information (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). If substantial variation existed between the responses, then additional lines of inquiry were able to be incorporated. Rather than adherence to a fixed schedule, a semi-structured interview approach allowed interviewer and interviewee to co-construct data as the latter was "more of a participant in the research process than just a subject on which research is done" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 199). A semi-structured interview approach also gave the researcher greater freedom in the sequencing of questions, the wording of questions, and the amount of time and attention given to each question or topic (Robson, 1993).

A comprehensive interview schedule was constructed to gather the responses of the Social Science teachers, and the school administration team (see Appendices 3 and 4). This schedule was given to the participants prior to the interview so that they had time to consider and reflect upon possible responses. At the commencement of the interview, the interviewer encouraged participants to address questions in their preferred chronology. The question types utilised in the interview schedule were a mixture of both closed and open-ended questions. While closed questions provided a limited range of possible responses, open-ended questions, on the other hand, have no predetermined answers (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). Open-ended questions were used to deliberately encourage the participants to share their perceptions and experiences.

The types of questions asked across the two groups of human actants (Social Science teachers, and the school administration team) were tailored to the groups of actants to ensure the relevance and significance of the findings. The two groups of human actants were asked questions that correlated to their varying levels of agency. All interviewees were asked questions directly in relation to their knowledge of the national curriculum documents and involvement in curriculum change processes. They were also asked questions regarding what they perceived as being major enablers and constraints of curriculum implementation, and whether or not this early adaption would better prepare students for the senior years.

The Social Science teachers within the school responded to the interview over a period of a term (Term 4, 2012). It was quite difficult to schedule all the interviews in in this short period of time, due to the numerous other commitments of the teachers and administration staff. The interviewees however were all happy to assist by answering all questions that were posed to them. The interviews ranged in time from approximately 12 minutes to 40 minutes. Typically,

the shorter interviews were with the administrators (the Principal, Deputy Principal, and the Head of Departments) while the longer interviews were with the five Social Science teachers. Despite this variation in time taken to complete the interviews staff were able to provide detailed responses to the questions.

4.8.3 Surveys

Surveys were conducted to gather the perspectives and experiences of the actants in the network. Quantitative surveys were completed anonymously by the Social Science teaching staff, the Head of Department for English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy, and the administration team (Deputy Principal for Educational Services, and the College Principal). A survey provides a high proportion of valid data within a reasonable time period and at a minimum cost (Burns, 2010). The survey questions were closed in nature wherein the respondent had to decide between two or more fixed alternatives (2010) (see Appendices 5 and 6). This was to help achieve uniformity of measurement practices and, in turn, ensure a greater reliability of the data obtained, as well as to help easily code respondents' results (2010). A limitation of the survey was that it did not provide room for probing or clarifying of respondents' answers (Mertler & Charles, 2005). In order to minimise the superficiality associated with the usage of surveys, trial questions were discussed with key actants prior to finalisation of schedules. The types of questions asked across the three groups of human actants (Social Science teachers, Head of Department, and school administration team) would vary to ensure the relevance and significance of findings. The three groups of actants were asked questions that correlated to their varying levels of agency, including whether they were a specialist trained History teacher or Geography teacher. Survey participants were also interviewed. In this case as the researcher I determined that only teachers currently teaching junior Social

Science classes would be interviewed in addition to Middle Management and Administration line managers. The reason for this was to ensure that survey feedback was current and directly relevant to the implementation process at hand. Typically by having such a narrow selection of respondents it would limit the findings to the case study alone. However, I wanted to be able to apply core generalisations from my findings to a wider community scale which is why I included the agency of other actants on the network. Therefore, it should be noted that the remaining staffroom teachers (English and LOTE), teachers not located within the Social Science staffroom but who were teaching one Social Science class, and teacher aides assisting with Social Science classes were also observed during faculty meetings and lunch time discussions.

4.8.4 Documents

Documentation of the curriculum enactment at Western High provided insightful information as to what contributing factors enabled and constrained curriculum change. Documents could provide “data on the context within which research participants operate – a case of text providing context” (Bowen, 2009, p. 29). Documents contain text (words) and/or images that have been recorded without intervention from researchers (Bowen, 2009). Documents could also take a variety of formats such as newspaper articles, books, brochures, minutes of a meeting, journals and advertisements (Bowen, 2009; Burns, 2000). In the research context, documents in part comprise the non-human actants (e.g. History and Geography national curricula and educational policies) in the Actor Network. Within an Actor Network documents move beyond this capacity to describe the context, rather they shape the interactions and in this case the processes of curriculum implementation. Documents could help suggest questions that need to be asked and may even indicate situations that need further observation

as part of the research process (2009). Merriam (1988) pointed out that “documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem” (p. 118). Documents could also facilitate or limit agency, and define roles and relationships, specify actions, attributes, particular characteristics, and philosophies to a subject or pedagogical approach. For example, documents could assist with tracking change or development and verifying findings from other data sources (Bowen, 2009). When there was a convergence of information from different data sources there was typically a higher level of confidence in the credibility of the findings of the study (Bowen, 2009). Clearly, the analysis of documents would be very beneficial in the compilation of this study.

The process of examining, reviewing and/or evaluating printed or electronic material through skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination) and interpretation is known as document analysis (Bowen, 2009). In this study, document analysis was completed in order to help elicit relevant meaning, to gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Document analysis was more efficient than other research methods as it required data selection instead of data collection (Bowen, 2009). Document analysis provided information and insights which were a valuable addition to the knowledge base of the researcher (Bowen, 2009). In the context of the research, document analysis helped track the development of the Australian Curriculum from shape papers to draft and final curriculum documents.

4.9 Process of data analysis

Analysis of researcher notes, interview data and documents occurred through elements of content analysis and thematic analysis. In content analysis, information was organised into

categories related to the central questions of the research (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). In thematic analysis, key themes emerged from the data and served as analytical categories for further analysis of the data and in doing so this became an iterative process. In other words, as research was a reflexive process (Lankshear & Knoble, 2004), emergent themes continued to inform the central research problem and foci (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). The Actor Network theoretical framework analysed key themes and concepts such as the curriculum translation processes, interactions between human and non-human actants, agency, enablers, constraints, interpretations, shifts in perspectives, and other themes identified in the literature review. To begin the process of organising key themes and concepts commonalities and differences in responses from the human actant surveys and interviews were noted against personal observations taken by the researcher. The concepts and themes that were identified in this process were then examined with the relevant literature.

Documents, survey data, interview transcripts and researcher observations provide a solid base for data triangulation. Data triangulation involved gathering the accounts of a situation from at least three quite different points of view (Burns, 2000). In using data triangulation, I attempted to provide “a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility” (Eisner, 1991, p. 110). It was important to capture meaning in its complexity through the utilisation of multiple data sources and through the triangulation of data during the analysis phase. The process of data triangulation, or the process of converging data from different sources, in turn added to the study’s credibility and trustworthiness (Yin, 2011).

4.10 Delimitations of the study

The use of a case study methodology was the most appropriate method, given that it was examining one particular location (a high school) over a particular period of time. Case studies provide rich subjective data and may also bring to light other phenomena, processes or relationships that deserve greater investigation (Burns, 2000). Case studies may also be a source of hypotheses development for future research by illustrating how things are in a particular case, and therefore might also be applied to other cases (Burns, 2000). A limitation of this project was its scale, as only one school in regional Far North Queensland, and one Social Science department. Hence, the research findings are too small for any regional generalisations to be formed (Silverman, 2013). Potential limitations raised because of the interview scale were minimised through the use of supplementary data sources such as informal discussions and reflections on collaborative decision making processes. It also needs to be reiterated that, at the time of the conception of this project, the final Geography curriculum had not yet been released. This school chose to be an early adopter rather than waiting for the inevitability of the mandatory implementation. This research could however serve as a platform for further examination of the networks in the transition and translation of curriculum.

The use of ANT helped to provide a well-balanced study of benefit for the school. The findings of this benefitted myself (the researcher), the English/Social Science and LOTE Head of Department, other teachers within the Social Science department, and school administrators, because it highlighted what enables and constrains agency in curriculum translation processes. However, the first limitation of this research stemmed from the methodology itself. A case study was simply a snapshot of a place in time (Reason & Bradbury, 2008). Hence, caution has to be exercised in claiming validity beyond this case. Nonetheless, as every other Social

Science or Humanities department within Australia was about to undergo processes of national curriculum uptake, this project encompasses aspects of third person inquiry approach (Reason & Bradbury, 2008) wherein I chose to report on the process and outcomes of the investigation so as to also potentially benefit the wider school community.

My own power and professional identity did and will have inevitably shaped my view of the network and my interpretations of the visibility of the mundane. However, multiple sources including the perspectives of other human actants and interrogation of materials and technologies assisted in minimising my bias. Data triangulation was also utilised so as not to favour disproportionately the observations, opinion, or views, of the researcher and to increase the validity of the findings. ANT stipulates that no single actant was privileged over another. All actants have agency, and the roles they play in curriculum change and the perceptions they have were considered equally (Harris & Marsh, 2005). Due to high staff turnover, there was an ongoing need to induct staff members in terms of the research project. However, such efforts maximised participation in the study as well as gaining multiple and diverse perspectives.

The high staff turn-over rate of the school also proved difficult for the researcher, however it depicts the reality of curriculum change in school contexts. During the study there were three different Heads of Department, the loss of four staff members due to leave (e.g. maternity leave, long service leave), and three teacher transfers. My posting to another school within the district also meant that the data capture phase was bound to the time I spent at the school. Given that it was such a dynamic curriculum phase it was difficult to truly encompass all aspects of variation, given how quickly things changed within the school.

A limitation of document analysis was that documents were typically produced for a purpose other than for assisting the researcher (Bowen, 2009). Biased selectivity could also occur if only a limited range of documents were examined (Yin, 1994). All relevant documents were included in the analyses: shape papers, draft curriculum, final curriculum, departmental releases, etc. However, it was necessary to be aware that documents were written with a specific audience in mind for a specific purpose and therefore they may not be totally accurate or may contain bias (Burns, 2000).

4.11 Chapter summary

This chapter provided an overview of the framing of this research project. The chapter detailed the research context, theoretical framework, case study methodology, data collection methods, and methodological limitations of the study. The Actor Network theoretical framework was adopted in order to investigate the nature of the curriculum translation processes over the time period. This framework involved the constitution of the curriculum network, and the interactions between human actants and non-human actants to investigate translation of Australian Curriculum History and Geography at a government secondary school in regional Far North Queensland. The use of a case study methodology assisted with extracting rich subjective data despite it being a snapshot of a place in time (Reason & Bradbury, 2008). The descriptive case study methodology also allowed for greater investigation of the scope and depth of the case rather than just cause-effect relationships (Yin, 2003). A limitation of this study was its scale, as only one school in regional Far North Queensland, one Social Science department, and its associated line managers were interviewed and surveyed. I also had to remain conscious of the status of my position as Social Science Subject Area Coordinator so as to avoid inadvertently influencing decision making processes of others within the network.

The next chapter will examine the various phases of the curriculum translation process and the interactions and relationships amongst actants during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography in the case study school.

5.0 The process of change and the network

In light of the previous chapter, which examined the research approach and context, this chapter outlines the process of translation or change as traced within the network, and the various phases in which actants in the social and material worlds were defined and mobilised. These worlds were recognised as worlds of problematisation; intersement/interposition; enrolment; and mobilisation (Callon, 1986). By discussing such interactions and relationships I highlight the role different actants play and their power relations; and the messiness and complexity of the interrelations and the way they are intertwined (Callon, 1986). This in turn leads to a better understanding of curriculum change in situ and the way in which power relationships fluctuate or are preserved during such change (Callon, 1986).

Curriculum change can occur within the classroom, within the school, or at a local/regional, state (e.g. state syllabus) or national level (e.g. whole education system) (Popleton, 2000). The curriculum in Australia transitioned from discrete disciplines to SOSE in 1998 (in most states) and then back to discrete disciplines under the Australian Curriculum. In Queensland, the significance of the transition away from SOSE—which was clearly losing value as a discipline—warranted further understanding of such curriculum change and the reasons for it. Curriculum change can encompass changes that occur to the intended and enacted curriculum over a period of time (whether short or long term) and can be considered as “either planned or unplanned (unintentional, spontaneous, or accidental)” (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 149). Gilbert (2011b) suggested that such change is “an ongoing and necessary part of the routine practice of schools” (p. 4). Curriculum change was witnessed within Western High School’s Social Science department during the transition away from SOSE to discrete

History and Geography disciplines where new units were developed and adopted as part of the school curriculum.

In order to identify the actants of the curriculum change network and tease out the interactions and relationships I will firstly define the boundaries of the network for the purposes of this case study. The network was bound to a particular time period (relative to my time at the school as a teacher 2011-2012) and location (the case study school – Western High School). This in turn limited the examination of interactions to those between actants within Western High School, as interactions between Western High School and external stakeholders were too numerous to encompass successfully within this study. Students were also an important part of the network, through their role of enacting and experiencing the curriculum, however this was also outside the scope of this case study. In this chapter I also discuss the phases of the translation process to highlight how actants in the network engaged with and positioned each other during curriculum change. I use visual representations, reflections as an actant in the network, and interview and survey findings, to highlight the messiness and complexity of interactions and relationships amongst the actants.

A critical issue that needed to be taken into consideration when determining the scope of the case study was where to place the boundaries of the curriculum change network. For “wherever one puts boundaries... [around curriculum] to trace its network relations, there was a danger of both privileging that network and rendering invisible its multiple supports and enactments” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 15). Otherwise there would be a “predilection to focus on the most powerful or most visible networks, or to simply reproduce participants’ views of their reality” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 15; Hassard et al., 1999; Lee & Brown, 1994). As a result, the network was ‘cut’ (Strathern, 1996) so as to focus on the interconnections and

relationships amongst the actants in one Social Science department in a regional Queensland secondary school.

The network under consideration was “simultaneously linked to multiple networks” given that the human actants cross into other disciplines and also belong to multiple other networks based on their age, sex, ethnicity, family dynamics, hobbies and interests (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 15). For instance, the commonality of all the Social Science teachers in the staffroom being mothers assisted with strengthening the social relationships between the human actants. The mothers often shared their concerns about their children and offered parental advice to each other within the staffroom. This connection between the mothers (and children) bonded the actants in way that could have influenced their engagement in the curriculum enrolment. The network itself was therefore not only “created through other networks” but influenced by them (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 15). Over time, what became apparent was that there were “layers and layers of networks” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 15) interacting and influencing each other in this school’s implementation of curriculum change. Additionally, there were wider networks of curriculum organisations that were influencers in the network including: universities, senior subject panels (e.g. District and State Geography, Modern History and the Ancient History Panels), professional associations (e.g. Queensland History Teachers Association and Geography Teachers Association of Queensland, Queensland Teachers’ Union), and state and federal government bodies. However, for the purpose of this investigation the network under consideration was bounded and limited to the new network, relative to the new curriculum, that was created for the purpose of examining the Australian Curriculum History and Geography implementation process at the case study school.

5.1 Translation process

The translation process was utilised to assist in mapping the curriculum change network at Western High School and was useful in “illuminating how some networks become so durable and apparently powerful in education, exerting influence across far-flung geographic spaces and time periods” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xiii). An examination of how the human and non-human actants interacted with each other at Western High School highlights power relationships within such a network. However, it is important to note that:

No agent [actant] or knowledge has an essential existence outside a given network: nothing is given in the order of things; but performs itself into existence. And however stable and entrenched it may appear, no network is immutable. Counter-networks are constantly springing up to challenge existing networks. Continuous effort is required to hold networks together, to bolster the breakages and to counter the subterfuges. (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xiii)

The Social Science staff of Western High presented with different backgrounds, beliefs, values, gender, ages, and qualifications. However, all had a commonality of being teachers with at least nine years teaching experience. This is quite unusual given the turnover rate of staff within schools. Despite this commonality, when such different actants come together “translation is neither deterministic nor linear, for what entities do when they come together is probable but unpredictable” (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xii). Although they were all a part of the English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy staffroom their differences could potentially influence the way they negotiated their connections to other actants (e.g., persuasion, force, mechanical logic) (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). Importantly, this sample of staff is common in secondary school settings where actants work across multiple networks. For although the

actants were teaching English, Social Science or LOTE they could potentially have had another teaching major (or majors) which would have aligned them with additional networks. Therefore, mapping the translation process at Western High School would assist in establishing the complexities and messiness of the curriculum change network.

Translation in this study moved across and around worlds of problematisation; intersement/interposition; enrolment; and mobilisation (Callon, 1986). These phases are exposed in the following sections to gain insight into the agency and engagement of actants in various networks.

5.1.1 Problematisation

During the phase of problematisation, Social Science teachers became “indispensable” to other actants in the network by using their interactions to define the problem and then suggesting that this would be resolved if the actants “negotiated the ‘obligatory passage point’” (Callon, 1986, p. 1). In my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator I observed how the teachers collated, and attempted to problematise and synthesise the concerns and issues for the Social Science department as: confusion over what the subject of SOSE (Studies of Society and Environment) actually was; how Geography and History actually fitted into SOSE; the perceived lack of importance or value of the SOSE subject (both in terms of time and staffing allocations); the lack of student knowledge and understanding as a result of SOSE; a disjointed knowledge of historical topics due to SOSE, and because of a lack of specialist teachers. From there, in my role as Social Science Coordinator, I used my agency to consult and propose a way of navigating the above issues, namely to be an ‘early adopter’ transitioning the school

away from SOSE to the Australian Curriculum History and the draft Australian Curriculum Geography.

The initial problem identified outlined confusion from students, parents, staff, and the wider community as to what SOSE was and why it was important for students' future pathways. This links to the notion of redefinition and the 'place' of History and Geography in terms of both status and significance as the place and value of disciplines are always political and contested (Erebus International, 2008; Harris, 2008). The school decision to change to SOSE meant that it was hard for some actants (non-Social Science staff) to understand that the change back to discrete disciplines of History and Geography warranted both disciplines having time in the school curriculum, as they considered it as being the one discipline (for example, if two lessons for SOSE than only one lesson was needed for History and only one lesson was needed for Geography – not two lessons for history and two lessons for Geography). This notable difference in position was due to the variance in agency exhibited by the actants. The Social Science actants voiced concern over the need to increase (or at a minimum maintain) the amount of time allocated to History and Geography, while the non-Social Science actants wanted to preserve or increase the amount of time allocated in the timetable for their discipline/s. Actants such as the various draft Australian Curriculum documents and how they embodied the *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (MCEETYA, 2008) also needed to be considered. Recommendations from the Queensland Government through the Queensland Studies Authority (now the Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority) that History would be compulsory until the end of Year 10 while Geography was only compulsory until the end of Year 8, meant that greater status and privilege was given by some staff (enacting the considerable power of the curriculum policies) to the discipline of History rather than Geography (QSA, 2012a; QSA, 2011b). The blurring and

reclassification of content between Science and Geography in terms of Environmental Science also meant that it was hard for some staff to distinguish the value of the discrete disciplines and the consequential need for a stand-alone Geography discipline.

Furthermore, neither History nor Geography were a prerequisite for entry to most universities, and this in turn created more angst amongst the Social Science staff (actants). An absence of necessity for students to study these disciplines for post-school pathways also contributed to the perceived lower status and ‘utility’ of the discrete disciplines. However, the *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (MCEETYA, 2008) and *A Study into the Teaching of Geography in Years 3-10* (Erebus International, 2008) asserted that students needed to study discrete disciplines of History and Geography to understand their own country (both historically and geographically) and the growing importance of the interrelationship with neighbouring countries and the rest of the world, in order to become active and informed Australian citizens.

Increasing the awareness of Social Science teachers, middle management, and administrators of the impending implementation of the discrete Social Science disciplines was also important. Initial awareness amongst the actants was obtained using a variety of methods, including communication within the staffroom, promotional materials handed out at in-service professional development sessions, and through populist media, educational websites, and discussion groups. Middle Manager 1 first heard of the impending change:

A few years back. Media was my first port of call with hearing about national curriculum. And then from there, I’ve had quite a bit to do with English being a Head of Department, English. And, so once that’s filtered down through our district office and through my line managers I’ve had quite a bit to do with it. And now with History

and Geography coming on board I've been asked to go through and look at History and Geography curricula, so I've heard quite a bit now through my line managers and we discuss it quite a bit in the staffroom. (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Similarly, Middle Manager 2 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) also heard of the impending change to the Australian Curriculum "probably in 2008. I was currently still studying then so a lot of talk through the university via lectures on prac as well as in the paper which provided a lot bias information." Teacher 3 first heard of the impending change by attending a professional development session which occurred:

Soon after QCAR had been introduced and people had started asking when I went to workshops how was the national curriculum going to affect the implementation of QCAR. So that's – we're talking about five years ago I think now. (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 2, on the other hand, first heard about the impending change:

About three years ago at an in-service that we went to on a student free day and then we ended up getting some printed material about it as well. I think the first time was actually in the staffroom and then we went to the in-service. (Teacher 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

While Teacher 5 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) had only recently heard about it "last year" and since then she had noticed an increasing presence of the impending curriculum change in faculty meeting discussion time "particularly towards the end of last year we started making some changes with planning of the units for this year... I heard it through my Subject Area Coordinator at the time."

Therefore, both human and non-human actants were important in the sharing of knowledge within the network of curriculum change. Teacher 1 highlighted numerous ways of becoming involved with the implementation process, such as by downloading the documents, taking part in staffroom discussions and faculty meetings, and going to the ACARA website and selecting to receive automatically generated emails about updates, consultation processes and releases (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 1 outlined how her involvement began when she stated:

One of the first places that I learnt about it was through the media and probably more in a sensationalist way. As a History teacher, History student and keen follower of what's happening in Australia, as an Australian and therefore the place of History and Geography in how we shape our country, following that long argument of the History Wars and then the involvement of politics saying: what should and should not be taught in schools to students, what do our student need to know that makes them Australian and so on. So, I followed that debate in the populist media but also through education sites, discussion groups and so forth. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Notably, administrators, middle managers and Social Science teachers had all been informed about the impending shift towards the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. However, there was no commonality in the way in which the teachers had gained this information as different interactions and sources outside of the network reflected different enactments of their agency and their different capabilities. This accounts for the varying levels of agency experienced initially by the actants in the network, however the inclusion of discussion time and reading time within faculty meetings enabled teachers (actants) to increase their agency.

Teacher 4 was the only teacher who revealed her involvement in the Australian Curriculum History consultation process. Teacher 4 stated:

One of the things I did like about the consultation sites that were up for the national curriculum was that they did actually have capacity for ordinary teachers and different people to actually respond and do so in a really concrete way and actually make informed commentary about why they did and didn't like different aspects of it. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The Australian Curriculum History consultation process may have been useful, however not all teachers were informed about how to become involved in the process, or perhaps had time to respond to it or preferred to wait until a later stage of consultation to respond.

According to Teacher 4 (personal communication, December 7, 2012), awareness of the impending change to the Australian Curriculum was nothing to be overwhelmed by, saying "it doesn't seem to matter what the approach is... you tend to find that all that changes is perhaps a resource here and there." Teacher 4, an experienced senior Social Science and English teacher, was demonstrating what some would consider as a cavalier or nonchalant attitude. However, given the vast amount of change that Teacher 4 had experienced during her teaching career it could be considered that she was demonstrating 'change fatigue' or resistance to engage with the new documents given that there seemed to be continual modification to the expected curriculum and pedagogy within schools. The attitude displayed by Teacher 4 also suggests that the process of curriculum change was continual and pervasive.

Members of the Social Science department were informed of the impending change to the Australian Curriculum through various formats, although the length of time that they had been aware of this change varied from teacher to teacher. The level of understanding and

engagement also varied between the actants; for some their understanding of what the impending changes would mean for the Social Sciences was quite limited, while for others it was apparent that they had a good understanding of the Australian Curriculum documents. Despite their growing awareness of the impending Australian Curriculum and the proposed changes it would mean for their school, only one teacher discussed how to provide feedback and had made the necessary time to provide feedback through the consultation process. Perhaps a greater level of feedback could have been provided in the consultation process if the teachers had been given time whilst at school to engage with the documents and then to complete the consultation process whether individually or as a department. Similarly, during the interviews with the Social Science staff it was apparent that most of the teachers had not had the time to engage in any great depth with the Australian Curriculum documents. Rather, they had only read sections or documents which were relevant to them. For example, they had examined the year level and disciplines that they were currently teaching. Consequently, the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy and the Social Science Coordinator provided time in faculty meetings to discuss the documents and potential History and Geography units in more detail, which in turn increased their engagement (and their agency).

Another concern within the network was how to redefine the role and agency of SOSE or generalist Social Science teachers as History teachers and Geography teachers, and how this worked alongside existing institutional structures in the school (for example within staffrooms and at meetings). SOSE teachers were asked to be specialists in History or Geography disciplines. Some teachers had not trained in either History or Geography but were expected to teach these disciplines. At times non-specialist teaching staff in the case study school had no choice but to teach junior History or Geography if they were the only teacher available on that teaching line, and sometimes specialist staff would not be able to teach History or Geography

if they were needed to teach another discipline deemed more important on that line. This in turn influenced the agency and engagement of actants in the network. It also raised the question of an actants' capacity to act in the network given how dynamic and fluid it was, because the network was constantly shifting and changing at this school setting. In such situations the power of the timetable, and Head of Departments (and the Deputy Principal) who have allocated teachers to classes in line with timetable constraints, would be deemed significantly higher than that of the teachers, as they would have no choice but to teach the class they have been allocated. This was a common issue in secondary schools where the timetable, and in its own right an actant in this study, has further problematised the curriculum change network and actant engagements. The development and 'juggling' of the timetable was informed by human and non-human actants. The agency of an actant to negotiate his/her role or identity within the network was also a consideration. Actants can "only proceed to action" in the network through their interactions, relationships and negotiations with other actants who "may surprise or exceed" (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012, p. xvi). In order to confirm the validity of problematisation the phase of *interessement* will be examined.

5.1.2 *Interessement*

Once the problem/s were established the process of *interessement* saw the various actants identify themselves (or be identified) in relation to the problem and whether or not they were part of the curriculum change process. For example, Social Science teachers (human actants) and how their professional experience and identity positioned them as part of the network and curriculum documentation (non-human actants) were identified in the curriculum change process. Throughout the phase of *interessement* I was conscious of the role and identity of actants needing stability (Callon, 1986). In relation to this study, the moment of *interessement*

would shape the History and Geography curriculum implementation process for the school. This is because the process of interessement would ultimately determine what historical and geographical knowledge to include or exclude in one's daily teaching practice, based on the roles and agency which rested with the actants.

The phase of interessement also highlights how actants assist in shaping the network. Interactions between actants during the transition to the Australian Curriculum were integral to the confirmation of the network. The phase of interessement saw actants "emit or pension off intermediaries" (Callon, 1991, p. 141). Examples of intermediaries in this study included: Social Science faculty (departmental) meeting agendas and minutes, unit overviews, lesson plans, assessment items, and resources. During the movement of intermediaries the networks came to be durable (Michael, 1996). Such durability was witnessed in the network when the Social Science teachers, despite their differences in years of teaching experience, number of schools they had taught in, age, gender, beliefs and values reached agreement on the units that were to be taught in the junior History and Geography disciplines.

During the phase of interessement the Social Science teachers were further identified as either History or Geography teachers depending on the classes they taught. Typically, the teacher timetables were finalised in negotiation with middle management and the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator (me). Therefore, actants were included or excluded in a variety of networks based on the subjects that they taught. For this study, the power granted to the Coordinator position also allowed me in my position as the researcher in situ to 'impose and stabilise' the identity and role of the actants. Actants may also have had multiple identities, because they could potentially be not only Social Science staff members, but also History and/or Geography discipline members, English staff members, and members of teacher

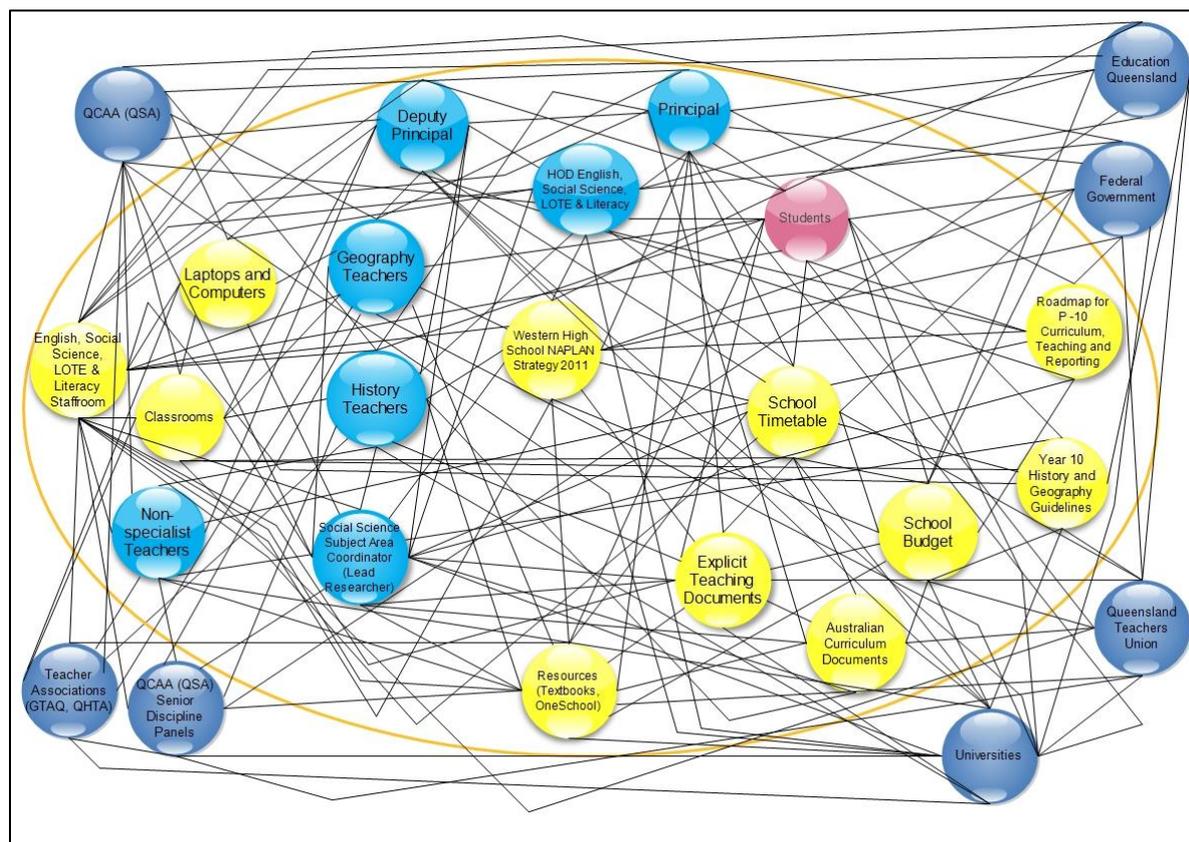
associations such as the Queensland History Teachers' Association, and the Queensland Teachers' Union. An example is Teacher 5 who at times struggled as an actant with identifying as either a Social Science staff member and/or a distinct History or Geography disciplinary member due to his/her primary training being in the Visual Arts and English.

Key texts and documents, were locked into their roles of actants in the network due to their teaching, school strategies, and the purpose of having to inform others of the new expectations for the Australian Curriculum History and Geography, and also the state governing body requirements for policy compliance. However, the allocation of such roles by me as the researcher might only be a perception as to the complexity and heterogeneous nature of the actants which resist through alternative translation.

As previously discussed, the human actants in this case study included the: School administration team (Principal and Deputy Principal), Head of Department English, Social Science and LOTE, Social Science Subject Area Coordinator, Social Science teachers (Geography teachers and History teachers) and the lead researcher (me). The non-human actants of the network included: resources (textbooks, OneSchool), computers, laptops, school budget, classrooms, staffroom and key documents (Australian Curriculum documents; DETE Strategic Plan 2013-2017; Year 10 Guidelines; Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Framework; QSA Implementation Plan 2011-2013 documents; Western High School NAPLAN strategy 2011; Roadmap for P-10 Curriculum, Teaching, Assessment and Reporting; Towards a moving school: Developing a professional learning and performance culture; Explicit instruction: Effective and efficient teaching; *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians*).

Figure 8 attempts to outline the complex nature of the curriculum change network within Western High School, but given the network is 3-Dimensional it fails to truly represent the divergent (and convergent) interactions and relationships amongst the actants.

Figure 8: Diagram of the actants of the network



Key: The orange line was the boundary of the case study; the dark blue circles were some of the actants outside of the case study but which actants within the case study had relationships or interactions with during the study; the light blue circles were human actants within the case study; the yellow circles were non-human actants within the case study; the pink circle was the students, which while a human actant, were not examined in this study; the black lines represent the interactions and relationships amongst the actants.

Defining the actants in the network is important to the network and their engagement, interactions and relationships with fellow actants:

Lead Researcher: I am the lead researcher. I am a secondary school teacher with over 10 years' teaching experience and a disciplinary background in Geography and History. In 2003 I completed a Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts with majors in Geography and History. In 2009 I completed a Graduate Certificate of Research Methods. At the time of the research I was sharing the Head of Department role for English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy, and was also the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator.

Social Science Teachers: Teachers who were teaching either History or Geography (Year 7 – 12) but may or may not have specialist training in History, Geography, SOSE, Legal Studies or Economics. These teachers were responsible for teaching and differentiating the assessment, lesson plans and units for their classes as necessary (this should have occurred in consultation with the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator).

Teacher 1: Teacher 1 had over 10 years' teaching experience at the time of the study. Teacher 1 had taught in five different schools. Teacher 1 was specialist trained in History but not specialist trained in Geography or SOSE. Teacher 1 was teaching junior Social Science subjects but not senior Social Science subject/s at the time of the study.

Teacher 2: Teacher 2 had over 10 years' teaching experience at the time of the study. Teacher 2 had taught in more than six different schools. Teacher 2 was specialist trained in Geography but not specialist trained in History or SOSE. Teacher 2 was teaching both junior Social Science subjects and senior Social Science subject/s at the time of the study.

Teacher 3: Teacher 3 had over 10 years' teaching experience at the time of the study. Teacher 3 had taught in four different schools. Teacher 3 was specialist trained in Geography and SOSE

but not specialist trained in History. Teacher 3 was teaching junior Social Science subjects but not senior Social Science subject/s at the time of the study.

Teacher 4: Teacher 4 had over 10 years' teaching experience at the time of the study. Teacher 4 had taught in four different schools. Teacher 4 was specialist trained in History but not specialist trained in Geography or SOSE. Teacher 4 was teaching both junior Social Science subjects and senior Social Science subject/s at the time of the study.

Teacher 5: Teacher 5 had over 10 years' teaching experience at the time of the study. Teacher 5 had taught in more than six schools. Teacher 5 was not specialist trained in History, Geography or SOSE. Teacher 5 was teaching junior Social Science subjects but not senior Social Science subject/s at the time of the study.

Social Science Subject Area Coordinator: A Social Science teacher who also takes on the additional role of organising the Social Science curriculum for Year 7–Year 12. The Social Science Subject Area Coordinator works closely with the English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy Head of Department. The Social Science Subject Area Coordinator was responsible for junior and senior discipline work programs, assessment, units, lesson plans, excursions and checking Year 12 Verification and Year 11 Monitoring submissions for the various Social Science subjects taught. The Social Science Subject Area Coordinator was also responsible for the Social Science budget, timetable and report card comments. The coordinator was given two additional 70-minute lessons of preparation and correction time to complete this role. This role is considered a step towards a Head of Department position.

Head of Department English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy: The line manager for Social Science Subject Area Coordinator and all Social Science, English and LOTE teachers, curriculum, assessment and student matters. The Head of Department (HOD) manages all high-level classroom behaviour issues, deals with parent/student feedback and complaints, and monitors teacher wellbeing. The HOD is responsible for English, LOTE and Literacy junior and senior work programs, assessment, units, lesson plans, excursions and checking Year 12 Verification and Year 11 Monitoring submissions for Authority English and English Communication. The HOD was also responsible for the English, LOTE and Literacy budgets, quality assurance on report card comments, and the allocation of teachers to classes for all Social Science and English classes.

Middle Manager 1: Middle Manager 1 had between 10-15 years' experience as part of an administration team. Middle Manager 1 had taught in four different schools. Western High School was the third school that Middle Manager 1 had worked in. Middle Manager 1 was on leave at the time of the study, due to successfully gaining an acting position in another government school. Middle Manager 1 had been working at Western High School since the school had started. Middle Manager 1 at the time of the study had between 10-15 years' experience. Middle Manager 1 was specialist trained in History and Geography but not SOSE. Middle Manager 1 returned to the school following her leave, but left after a year in favour of an administrative position in the Catholic Education system.

Middle Manager 2: Middle Manager 2 was successful in becoming the acting HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy for six months while Middle Manager 1 took leave to take up an acting position at another school. This was the second time that Middle Manager 2 had worked as part of an administration team. This was the second school that Middle Manager 2

had worked in. Middle Manager 2 had less than five years teaching experience prior to this promotion. Middle Manager 2 was specialist trained in History and Geography but not SOSE. Following the end of her contract at Western High School Middle Manager 2 moved interstate to take up a teaching position at another school.

Middle Manager 3: Middle Manager 3 was successful in becoming the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator while Middle Manager 1 was on leave. When Middle Manager 1 returned from leave she shared the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy role until Middle Manager 1 was successful in gaining an acting position at another school. At this stage a new acting Head of Department (Middle Manager 2) was appointed and Middle Manager 3 relinquished the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator position and returned to working a secondary school teacher. Middle Manager 3 had only taught in two schools at the time of the study. Middle Manager 3 had nine years teaching experience at the time of the study. Middle Manager 3 was specialist trained in History and Geography but not SOSE.

Deputy Principal: The curriculum line manager for the Head of Department English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy. The Deputy Principal was also responsible for developing the school timetable and the allocation of time to disciplines within the school. The Deputy Principal was part of the administrative team.

Principal: The line manager for the Deputy Principal. The school Principal was accountable for all decisions made in the secondary school sector. The school Principal was part of the administrative team.

Administrator 1: Administrator 1 had over 15 years' experience as part of an administration team. Administrator 1 had worked in more than six schools. Prior to becoming an administrator, he/she had accrued between 5-10 years of teaching experience. Administrator 1 was not specialist trained in History, Geography or SOSE.

Administrator 2: Administrator 2 had between 10–15 years' experience working as part of an administration team. Administrator 2 had worked in five different schools. Prior to becoming an administrator, Administrator 2 had accrued between 5-10 years of teaching experience. Administrator 2 was not specialist trained in History, Geography or SOSE.

OneSchool: OneSchool is Queensland's Department of Education "Smart Classrooms' flagship business-transformational initiative" (DETE, 2012, p. 1). One School is a "comprehensive and intuitive software suite used to run flexible, sustainable and consistent teaching, learning and administrative processes" (DETE, 2012, p. 1). OneSchool supports schools with: student management; curriculum and learning management; finance and asset management; resource management; and performance, reporting and analysis (DETE, 2012, p. 1). The Social Science staff utilised OneSchool to access information about their students, storing curriculum units and assessment, and reporting assessment results. The English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy Head of Department, and the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator also accessed OneSchool for budgeting, corporate card reconciling and timetabling purposes.

Textbooks: The Social Science teachers of Western High School used textbooks as a resource for teaching SOSE. Textbooks were not available at the time of this study for History and Geography.

Budget: The school budget was the funding provided to the school on an annual basis from the state government to provide a high-quality education to the students of its school. Money from the school budget was designated into separate accounts for various expenditure purposes such as the maintaining of facilities, emergency repairs, and curriculum and non-curriculum needs. Separate curriculum budgets were provided to each Head of Department to manage departmental resources (e.g. paper, pens, pencils, textbooks, DVDs) and photocopying.

School timetable: The school timetable was the separation of a school day into form class (roll marking and notices), lessons (teaching/contact time and non-contact time for teachers) and lunch breaks (morning tea and lunch). At Western High School lessons were 70 minutes in duration to make it easier for the school to ensure the 210 minutes of non-contact time was provided to teachers. This also meant that teachers only had to prepare for and teach a maximum of four lessons per day and a maximum of 17 lessons per week.

Laptops and computer laboratories: Students in Years 9–12 were provided with government funded ‘loan’ laptops to participate in lessons. The National Secondary School Computer Fund (NSSCF) was the major funding provider for this initiative. As students in Years 9–12 had laptops to use in every class there was no need for teachers to book a computer laboratory for students to complete assessment requirements. This in turn freed up existing computer laboratories within the school for students in Years 7 and 8.

Classrooms: Students have individual desks and chairs which are organised into rows within the classroom. Each classroom also has a whiteboard, data projector and speakers to enable teachers to teach using technology. The classrooms where English and Social Science disciplines were taught were all located within the same building.

Staffroom: The English, Social Science, and LOTE teachers all shared the same staffroom. The Social Science Subject Area Coordinator was situated in the staffroom; however, the Head of Department was located in a separate office. The staffroom also had a communal kitchenette and a large table where teachers could sit together to eat their lunch (if desired) or to work in small groups. The staffroom was conducive to encouraging interactions amongst the staff members due to the proximity of the teacher desks which were located side by side and in rows within the staffroom.

Australian Curriculum documents: The Australian Curriculum documents provide “the learning area content and achievement standards that describe what students will learn and teachers will teach” (ACARA, 2014). The Australian Curriculum pays explicit attention to how seven general capabilities (literacy, numeracy, information and communication technology capability, critical and creative thinking, personal and social capability, ethical understanding, and intercultural understanding) and three cross-curriculum priorities (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories and cultures, Asia and Australia’s engagement with Asia, and sustainability) contribute to, and can be developed through each of the learning areas such as Geography and History (ACARA, 2014). The Shape of the Australian curriculum: Geography (ACARA, 2011b) and the Australian Curriculum: History 1.1 document (ACARA, 2010e) were used by the case study school in 2011 to develop units, lessons and assessments for junior (Year 7, 8, 9 and 10) Geography and History. At the start of 2012, further units were implemented from the revised Australian Curriculum: History 2.0 (ACARA, 2011c) and the Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography document (ACARA, 2011a).

DETE Strategic Plan 2013-2017 (DETE, 2013c): The Strategic Plan 2013-2017 promoted the vision of engaging minds and empowering the future of students through “the provision of high

quality learning and skilling focused on preparing Queenslanders with the knowledge, skills and confidence to participate effectively in the community and the economy” (p. 2). It focused on five key ideas namely: successful learners, great people, engaged partners, empowerment and high standards (DETE, 2013c).

Year 10 Guidelines (QSA, 2009a): The Year 10 Guidelines: History Learning Area and Year 10 Guidelines: Geography Learning Area were guiding documents for the planning of a course of study in Year 10 in Queensland schools. In the Geography Learning Area Knowledge and Understanding had three organisers: Place; Space and Systems. While in the History Learning Area the key organisers for Knowledge and Understanding were: Time, Continuity and Change; Culture and Identity; and Systems. Both the Geography Learning Area and the History Learning Area used Ways of Working to describe how students investigate using the geographical inquiry process and historical inquiry process respectively. (QSA, 2009a)

Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Framework (QSA, 2008): The QCAR Framework document promoted teaching that was tailored to meet the needs of Queensland students, by providing teachers with guidance and resources. The QCAR Framework presented a way of achieving commonality in what was taught, while supporting diversity in how it was taught. The QCAR Framework has five components that were interrelated and designed to work together. The components included:

- A set of Essential Learnings across all KLAs (identifies what should be taught and what was important for students to know and do).
- Standards for the Essential Learnings (provides a frame of reference to describe student achievement).
- An online Assessment Bank (provides a range of quality assessment tools).

- Queensland Comparable Assessment Tasks (QCATs) in Years 4, 6 and 9 (provides information to teachers about student demonstrations of learning and promote consistency of teacher judgments).
- Guidelines for Reporting (to support consistency of reporting across Queensland).

QSA Implementation Plan 2011-2013 documents: These documents supported the transition of Queensland schools to the Australian Curriculum. Documents such as the Unit Overview Planning Australian Curriculum P-10 document, which identified the five elements of effective unit overview planning, and the Year Level Planning Australian Curriculum P-10 document which identified the five elements of effective year level planning (QSA, 2011c and QSA, 2011d). These documents also included the Year 7–10 Audit Tools for Australian Curriculum: History, which was a tool to map the current SOSE course taught in the school against the Australian Curriculum content descriptions for the different year levels (QSA, 2011e; QSA, 2011f; QSA, 2011g; QSA, 2011h). The Time allocations and entitlement: Implementing the Australian Curriculum F(P)–10 Document was also included, this provided advice on the allocation of time for the different disciplines under an Australian Curriculum (QSA, 2011b). The English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy Head of Department, and the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator used these documents to assist teachers to transition to the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

Western High School NAPLAN strategy 2011: A whole of school approach to preparing for NAPLAN which specified how the different faculties would assist in preparing students. For example, at Western High School students were exposed to test taking strategies needed for success in NAPLAN through History and Geography in-class exams in Years 8 and 9. Key

reading comprehension strategies were covered through reading and analysing written and visual sources in Year 9 History.

Roadmap for P-10 Curriculum, Teaching, Assessment and Reporting (EQ, 2011b): A policy document that outlined the way to ensure that every day, in every classroom, every student was learning and achieving. Central office, regions, schools and classrooms would ensure high-quality teaching and improvement in the achievement of Queensland students by focusing on five priorities, namely:

- Strong leadership with an unrelenting focus on improvement;
- A shared commitment to core priorities;
- Quality curriculum and planning to improve learning;
- Teaching focused on the achievement of every student; and
- Monitoring student progress and responding to learning needs.

Middle management often reflected on this document to monitor Western High School's progress towards achieving the five priorities.

Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C) (EQ, 2011a): Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C) resources were created to assist state school teachers in Australian Curriculum implementation by providing whole-school and classroom digital planning materials for single level and multi-level classes, students with disability, and more recently for students who study through the schools of distance education. C2C resources could be adopted or adapted to meet individual student learning needs and to suit local school contexts. C2C resources included unit overviews, lesson plans, lesson resources (e.g. teacher handouts and PowerPoints) and assessment items. The use of C2C resources by schools was not compulsory. The C2C History and Geography resources were not available at the time of this study.

Towards a moving school: Developing a professional learning and performance culture (Fleming & Kleinhenz, 2007): This text explored how schools became ‘moving’ schools, with teachers who had high levels of accountability and responsibility for improving students’ learning and their own teaching methods. It focused on how to improve the performance of schools and teachers through the use of quality teaching. This book outlined how John Fleming improved the school performance of Bellfield Primary School (a low-socio economic school in Melbourne) through a shift in the teaching model to that of explicit instruction, in which teachers’ closely directed student learning. Bellfield Primary School was also transformed from amongst the lowest achieving primary schools to the one of the top performing primary schools in Victoria, and similarly Haileybury College (an elite private school in Melbourne) improved from just above the national mean to well above the national mean in terms of relative gain. The adoption of the Fleming Model of Effective teaching was evidenced in this case study school. This text was the main resource for human actants.

Explicit instruction: Effective and efficient teaching (Archer & Hughes, 2011): This book was used to assist Western High School to support the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching ‘I do, we do, you do’ pedagogical approach. The textbook identified the elements of explicit instruction (such as breaking down complex skills and reviewing prior skills and knowledge before beginning instruction) and the principles of effective instruction (such as promoting high levels of success and addressing different forms of knowledge) (Archer & Hughes, 2011). Teachers used this book as a reference tool to assist with their individual pedagogical practice.

Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (MCEETYA, 2008): This document underpinned the “role of education in building a democratic, equitable and just

society - a society that is prosperous, cohesive and culturally diverse, and that values Australia's Indigenous cultures as a key part of the nation's history, present and future" (MCEETYA, 2008, p. 4). The document also outlined how "improving educational outcomes for all young Australians is central to the nation's social and economic prosperity and will position young people to live fulfilling, productive and responsible lives" (MCEETYA, 2008, p. 7). The two educational goals identified to achieve this prosperous Australian society were: Goal 1: Australian schooling promotes equity and excellence, and Goal 2: All young Australians become successful learners, confident and creative individuals, and active and informed citizens (MCEETYA, 2008). Middle management often reflected on this document to ensure the enacted curriculum complied with the educational goals.

The large number of actants present during the phase of interestment highlighted how the network itself was very complex. Locking the actants into place in the network (Tatnall & Burgess, 2002) assisted with weakening their links to other networks, and also the influence of other networks which were trying to pull them away (Linde et al., 2003). As mentioned, my position as the researcher was also powerful in this network creation. This process highlighted how actants exhibited their agency during their interactions and exclusions of other actants from the network. Figure 8 is a purposeful representation of the boundaries of the network; it highlights the interactions between actants as a complex web of power, relationships and agency. The figure does not show the durability of some of the interactions, e.g., the relationship between the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator and certain teachers and/or middle management and the power gained in those interactions within the school and wider community. In addition, it does not show all networks that actants interact with, for example curriculum documents and their link to federal funding, lobby groups, or the performativity discourse of assessment and testing.

Sometimes negotiations would be conducted by a spokesperson on behalf of an actant (Rivera, Gonzalez, Cox, & Flores, 2012). Such exhibitions of agency were seen in the early shift away from the SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 Guidelines in favour of the Australian Curriculum and the exclusion of teachers who had left the school (e.g. due to long service leave or maternity leave), and the inclusion of their replacement(s). The actants were also seen to use their agency to varying degrees to influence the allocation of physical resources, facilities and time provided for the teaching of History and Geography in the timetable. Such measures assist in validating the next translation phase, that of enrolment.

5.1.3 Enrolment: Belonging to History and Geography

The third phase of the process of translation was known as enrolment. Actants within the curriculum implementation network at Western High School (as outlined in the previous section) were confirmed as belonging to the network during the moment defined by Callon (1986) as 'enrolment'. The formulation and allocation of new job titles to the teachers of the staffroom (e.g. History teacher), the allocation of disciplines on timetables, and the allocation of teachers to classes all confirmed a set enrolment. Teachers were encouraged, and at times persuaded, to utilise their new titles as either History or Geography teachers so as to work in disciplinary teams to develop History or Geography units (based on their timetable allocation and preference). In this study, the redefinition of History and Geography disciplines led to enrolment in new groups. As was seen in this case study school, the actants agreed with the movement away from SOSE in favour of the transition to discrete History and Geography disciplines. However, Teacher 5 initially demonstrated resistance to the idea of teaching Geography due to her lack of specialist knowledge, but with time and support from other

specialist Geography teachers (Teachers 2 and 3) she gained more confidence and consequently now considers herself as a junior secondary (Year 7 to Year 10) Geography teacher. Middle Managers 1 and 2 often preferred to work as part of a team with the Social Science teachers due to the friendships that had been developed during their time at the school and their belief in utilising and extending teacher expertise of the group as a whole. Middle Manager 3 also demonstrated preference for the Social Science teachers to work together as a team to develop a stronger and more united department, especially given the need to have everyone assisting in the transition to the Australian Curriculum. Middle Manager 3 often used negotiation to encourage teachers to meet given deadlines. Middle Manager 3 demonstrated negotiation through his/her preference for Social Science teachers to self-nominate to work on units together rather than allocating teachers to set tasks. In doing so, Middle Manager 3 avoided potential resistance from teachers as they had been given choices as to whom to work with, and on which tasks, and when they would complete the tasks. It may have been perceived that some Social Science teachers and Middle Manager 3 were being excluded from the network at various times as some curriculum decisions on topics were being made by the Social Science teachers who were developing the History and Geography units. However, the other teachers and Middle Manager 3 assisted in the process by providing feedback on the units as they were developed which in turn assisted with providing agency to the actants.

The Australian Curriculum documents were key actants in this study. These included: *The Shape of the Australian Curriculum: Geography* (ACARA, 2011b); the *Australian Curriculum: History 1.1 document* (ACARA, 2010e); the revised *Australian Curriculum: History 2.0* (ACARA, 2011c) and the *Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography document* (ACARA, 2011a). As policy documents developed through consultation with states and territories, the directions outlined in these core documents helped to inform the curriculum

change process in this study. The Social Science teaching staff at the regional Queensland school, had not actually read the Australian Curriculum History or Geography documents in detail due to time constraints and seemed unaware that middle management had read those documents in their entirety. A number of the teachers who were interviewed acknowledged this, Teacher 1 stated “I scanned it, so the answer is probably no. Have I read it and understood it and put it in a place that fits in with my knowledge? Probably not very well.” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 3 similarly admitted:

I’ve tried to plough my way through it. It’s a pretty big document and I have tended not to read the whole thing. I’ve tended to just focus on the things that interest me so that has been Geography. I’ve had a quick look at History as well when it’s been presented to me in workshops and things like that but otherwise I tend to have focussed more on Geography because that’s my area of concern. (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 4, like Teacher 3, admitted to focusing on only one of the disciplines (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Interestingly, however Teacher 4 had focused on History while Teacher 3 had focused on Geography. Teacher 4 explained:

I’ve been to the website. I’ve certainly downloaded them. I’ve certainly got them as paper copies in draft and final formats particularly for the History because that’s my area, not very familiar with the Geography because it isn’t. Essentially, it’s been a lot of my own interest and my own hunting things down. It’s not necessarily something that was done in great detail at school because obviously there’s a lot that goes on and until these things hit us like you know, the train in the headlights, yeah often that’s when teachers move towards those things. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

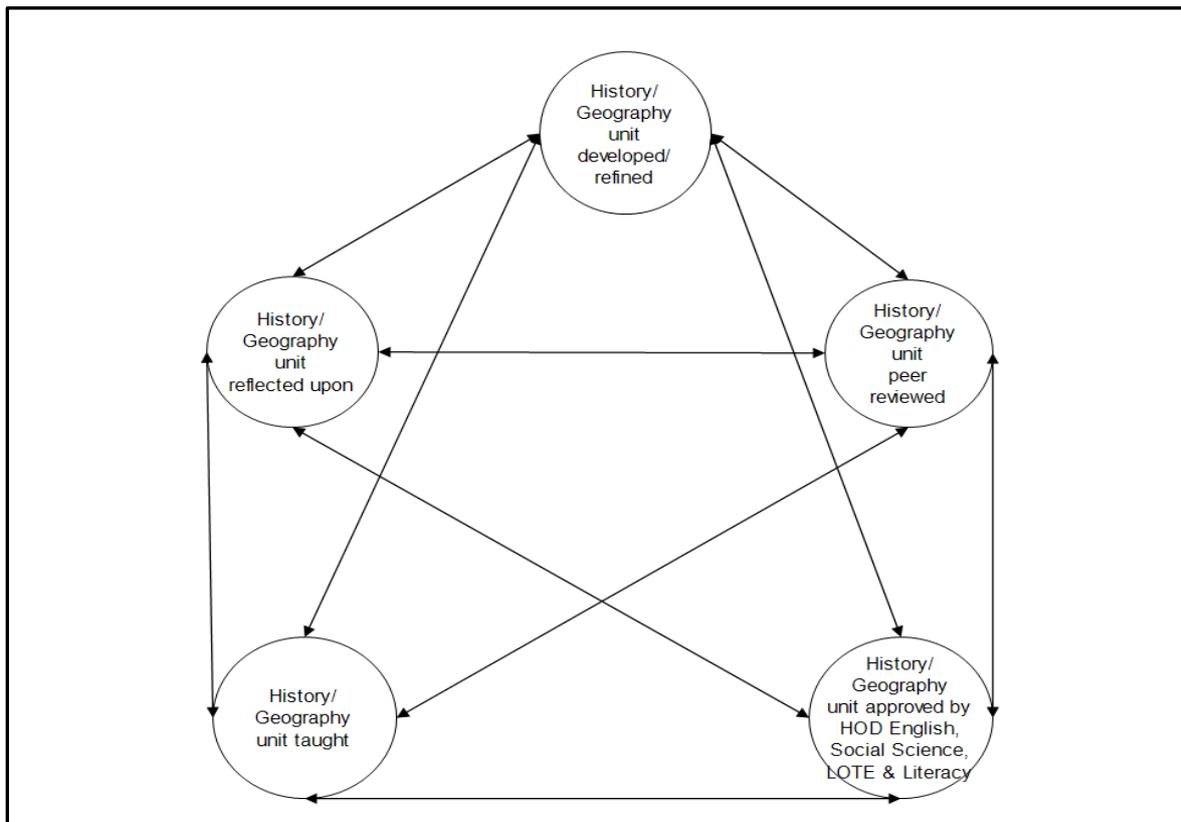
This preference towards specific areas was perceived by the researcher as teachers choosing to deepen their understanding of their specialist areas to benefit the Social Science department. This professional reading was also deepening their teacher agency and involvement in the network as actants. According to Teacher 4 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) there was “a team of us... a very strong group of teachers...that were working very much on making it all happen.” To begin with Middle Manager 3 examined the Australian Curriculum documents and from there teams of teachers based on their preference of History or Geography began work on creating or adapting and modifying existing units to fit the new Australian Curriculum requirements for History and Geography. Interestingly, qualifications in specific disciplines were not essential for their selection. The agency exhibited by Social Science teachers influenced their engagement with Australian Curriculum documents as typically they favoured the disciplines of interest to them. Despite this variance in engagement with all documents the teachers commenced the shift towards the Australian Curriculum by reflecting on past units and modifying or adapting them.

Due to the apparent doubling of unit numbers (as now rather than just SOSE units there was units for both History and Geography) Social Science teachers could potentially be asked to assist with designing a unit or an element/s of the unit. Depending on the teacher’s strengths they may have assisted with the development of the unit overview, assessment items, lesson plans and/or resources. Therefore, at any one time up to eight teachers could be working on a History or Geography unit and would be utilising at least 12 different documents and technology (non-human actants) to assist them in the process. Notably, this transition away from the SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines reduced their agency within the network whilst increasing the agency of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography documents. Social Science teachers within the enrolment group were

also encouraged to seek feedback during the development of units from other teachers both within and outside the Social Science staffroom, in this sense seeking out other enrolments at the school.

The development of discrete Geography and History units within the case study school was a complex process that at first appeared cyclical in nature (see Figure 9). However, each stage involved a number of actants with varying levels of agency which made the process much more complex and messy. This is because at various times the actants would swap between the different phases to assist other actants with the stages, and also new actants were added as others left (e.g. if a teacher left due to leave) or were made obsolete (e.g. if new editions of documents were released or new documents were created). This highlighted how the translation process of curriculum change was continual or never ending because the network constantly adjusted to reflect the change in engagement amongst the human and non-human actants.

Figure 9: History/Geography unit development process



All of the Social Science teachers located in the English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy staffroom were currently teaching junior Social Science classes, and were mothers. This additional commonality or relationship assisted in creating strong bonds between the teachers who often looked to each other for advice on not only the students in their classes but their own children. The teachers were quite at ease with each other and spoke freely (most of the time) of their understanding, likes/dislikes and concerns regarding the changes that were occurring during the research phase of this study. It was apparent that these actants worked well together, although the agency exhibited by the actants varied at times, for example when teachers (such as Teacher 5) were less confident when they were teaching outside of their primary discipline. However, the other actants rallied around, supported and assisted each other by giving additional time freely (and without expectation of anything in return) to upskill each

other so that they remained the expert in the classroom. It was also apparent that the actants included consideration of governing policy document expectations, the Australian Curriculum draft documents, and the needs of their students when planning the new History and Geography classes.

In my position as the researcher I observed how the various roles that had been allocated to the Social Science teachers had been defined and also how they interrelated with other actants. For instance, the Geography teachers worked with the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator to use the Draft F-12 Australian Curriculum: Geography document (ACARA, 2011a) to develop units, lessons, resources and assessment items. A similar process was undertaken between the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator with Australian Curriculum: History 2.0 (ACARA, 2011c) and the History teachers to develop units, lessons, resources, and assessment items. Given how the requirements for both of the curriculum documents differed, the entire Social Science staff worked collaboratively to determine how best to implement the Australian Curriculum in relation to the time available in the timetable. This process positioned actants to have voice in the curriculum process; for instance, all History and Geography teachers were given a voice in determining how to best structure the time provided for the teaching of History and Geography. Teacher 1 asserted that for successful curriculum transition to the Australian Curriculum “we need to be working collegiately, we need to be working interdependently and independently” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). The Social Science teachers worked with the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator and the Head of Department English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy to determine, as a collective, all benefits and negatives before the decision was made. In this case, it was determined by the actants of the network that it would be better to complete History and Geography on a semester rotational basis to reduce the strain on available resources (e.g., textbooks and computer

laboratories for Years 7 and 8). Middle Manager 3 explained during a faculty meeting how “staffing complexities, limited resources, and access to suitable facilities such as classrooms and computer laboratories impacted on the timetable structure” (Middle Manager 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). This new structure also enabled teachers to preference the teaching of one Social Science discipline over another, so they could choose to teach History to a class for a semester than swap over and teach a different History class for the following semester rather than having to teach both History and Geography.

The process of enrolment assisted in reconstituting or reforming Social Science teacher professional identities and roles based on not only the subjects they taught but also on their level of interaction with curriculum documents during the implementation phase. The network view of professional identity and development is discussed further in Chapters Seven and Eight. The network that had developed during enrolment amongst the actants in Western High School during the implementation phase appeared collaborative in nature. Although the network was altered as new teachers joined or new documents or resources, including technology were released, it collectively remained strong and durable, due to the engagement and strong relationships between the actants. For example, as new teachers joined the department they had to negotiate their agency within the network by creating new relationships with the other actants. The non-human actants such as the many drafts attached to the establishment of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography documents also gained power in this enrolment as old drafts were superseded. It was apparent that such interconnectivity between both human and non-human actants resulted in messiness of the curriculum implementation network for the school, due to the continual revisions and refinements of the network.

Immutable mobiles are actants which can act from a distance to make adjustments to the network (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010; Latour, 1987). For example, a school timetable set the time requirements for disciplines, students, and staff, but it would be ignored or overridden due to other school activities such as school photographs, NAPLAN testing or student immunisations. Therefore, immutable mobiles of the curriculum implementation network could be considered semipermeable. Immutable mobiles (such as group emails) would assist the growth of the network by allowing multiple connections between actants present at the school but also with actants outside of school (e.g. visiting school presenters and universities). For example, at the end of Semester I, the timetable had to be adjusted to switch students from their History and Geography classes (or vice versa as half the students were studying History and Geography at any one time) so as to allow all students the opportunity to study both Social Science disciplines within the year, and teachers to become specialist History or Geography teachers. Evidently, the immutable mobiles were able to assist the curriculum implementation network to hold its shape but also allowed it to be flexible enough to allow the inclusion of new actant/s and the exclusion of actants as the need arose. Consequently, the network could be considered as dynamic or fluid.

5.1.4 Mobilisation

During mobilisation translations of the network in particular directions were enabled (Fenwick & Edwards, 2012). For instance, Middle Manager 3 encouraging teachers to work in discipline-specific teams during enrolment gave teachers the encouragement they needed to access additional support and assistance from outside of the school (e.g. from teacher associations such as the Queensland History Teachers' Association or the Geography Teachers' Association of Queensland). Mobilisation also assists actants such as the Social Science teachers to have their voices heard (Callon, 1986).

In relation to the case study school it was vital for the different actants to be able to have their views heard and, in turn, the best decision on the behalf of the department made collectively, even if that was not the same view as the Head of Department or the Social Science Coordinator. To overcome the potential exclusion of Social Science staff (actants) contributing to the development of the newly created History and Geography units (i.e. if they had not had time due to working on one of the other units) Middle Manager 3 allocated time in each faculty meeting for all Social Science teachers to examine and critique newly developed or adapted units and assessment items. This was done to ensure that the units and assessment items were challenging but still achievable for their students whilst meeting the requirements of the Australian Curriculum.

Another issue could be that non-human actants (such as curriculum documents) could be considered silent or voiceless, and consequently powerless during the implementation process. In such a situation the human actants would be deemed to have a more dominant or more powerful voice than the non-human actants. However, this was not the case. The documents themselves did indeed have agency. For example, the Australian Curriculum History document included elective depth studies (for example Popular Culture or Migration Experiences in Year 10) as well as compulsory depth studies (for example WWII in Year 10) which clearly emphasised the greater agency of the compulsory history depth studies as opposed to the other elective depth studies. Similarly, new drafts of the Australian Curriculum also brought new mobilisation in the network. Although C2C resources were not available at this point for either History or Geography they were available for English, Mathematics, and Science, and these were deemed preferable to units that had been developed by teachers in schools as they had been quality assured.

By schools embracing C2C would also create a consistent approach to curriculum implementation and would allow for comparability and accountability amongst schools. The Western High School administrators also recommended it was “better to adopt than adapt” C2C unit plans, lessons and resources during informal discussions and staff meetings with teachers (Administrator 1 and Administrator 2, personal communication, November 2, 2012). Several of the teachers had access to C2C in other disciplines which identified them as actants outside, but also inside, the network. However, the Social Science teachers of Western High collectively asserted that waiting for these C2C resources to be developed would further disadvantage and potentially disengage their students from the Social Sciences. Therefore, they decided to move ahead with the transition away from SOSE for 2012 but would provide time for teachers to examine the C2C resources once they were released. The teachers were also mindful of how History was part of Phase 1 of the curriculum rollout while Geography was part of Phase 2. As C2C resources were being developed with the finalised and approved Australian Curriculum in mind, this meant that the C2C resources would not be ready at the same time (for both History (ready for use in 2013) and Geography (ready for use in 2014)). The Social Science teachers collectively expressed that only implementing History would not be beneficial to students, and by waiting until Geography was finalised would mean that students would have to wait even longer to experience the discrete disciplines. This illustrates how materials and resources can enact agency and how the power of such centralised resource structures can impact on the agency of other actants in the network.

The Western High School Social Science teacher used the low levels of academic achievement (performance data) that students had received for SOSE in previous years to benchmark their results now that the school had shifted to the discrete History and Geography

disciplines. These results were used as evidence of their need to transition early to the Australian Curriculum. This confirmed that documents were shaping the collection and representation of performance data as another actant within the network.

At times, both human and non-human actants exhibited agency and voice during the implementation process. Mobilisation also assisted actants to act or become active within the network. This phase of translation also confirmed how the network was durable and became stronger due to the large number of interactions and relationships that occurred amongst the actants. However, there were a number of issues which affected the process of translation.

5.2 Issues affecting translation

During the process of change, issues around continuity, significant shifts, and resistance to change amongst the various actants became apparent. A number of key issues were emphasised during the curriculum implementation process, including how network interactions and power relationships shaped or adjusted the change process including: Western High as an early adaptor of curriculum; rise in status and perceived value of History and Geography external to the enrolled group; utilisation of an explicit instruction pedagogical approach; enablers and constraints of the Australian Curriculum implementation; and improvement in school results due to the shift away from SOSE.

An initial consideration appeared to be how the enrolment and mobilising networks were part of a larger school network that had not been afforded nor positioned to enter into the curriculum change process. Importantly though, these actants were all part of a larger and more

complex network of change. To begin with the need to shift away from SOSE in the case study school will be considered.

5.3 Shift away from SOSE

In 2017, Queensland schools have moved away from SOSE. At the time of this case study (2011-2012) all schools within Queensland were teaching SOSE. The case study school chose to begin shifting away from SOSE when the Australian Curriculum documents were released. One participant's rationale for such curriculum change in the school was that in trying to get a breadth of knowledge by introducing the discipline of SOSE "we lost the depth of knowledge" (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 3 suggested that with SOSE it was "just too itty bitty, bits of this and bits of that and it never really had a very clear structure". (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Similarly, Teacher 4 said "that the character of SOSE was that it was very generalised...it was all very watered down unfortunately and very indistinct" (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Clearly, it was considered that the place for SOSE no longer existed as a part of the state or national curriculum. As Teacher 1 stated:

Was there a place for SOSE? Not anymore. Do we go into our strands and our understanding of those discrete subjects with a skill set and knowledges and so forth? Yes, we do do that and that can only benefit students. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

In relation to the concept of switching to discrete disciplines of History and Geography, Teacher 1 said "We need to keep the sanctity of our subject areas" (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 4 stated:

It's been lovely to see the shift back to insisting that History and Geography are important and that they're disciplines in their own right. I think that's been immensely important because they're research orientated subjects that aren't replicated necessarily in other areas for their depth and their breadth. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

This was validation of enrolment, and also assisted the mobilisation at the school for discrete History and Geography disciplines. Similarly, Administrator 2 supported the notion of History and Geography as standalone subjects as a "far more appropriate course of study than the combined SOSE which seemed to lack clear direction" (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Administrator 2 went on to state how discrete History and Geography better prepares students when she said:

Obviously anecdotally we have evidence that says it does...When I arrived... in 2010 we studied SOSE in Year 8 and 9 and then in Year 10 students were allowed to select History and Geography. Their only real experience of the single discipline study was in one semester of Year 9 where they were able to elect if they would do History or Geography. The uptake of students doing History and Geography in that Year 10 level then was quite low because it was an elective and it was competing against a range of other subjects that the students had studied also. We then moved away from SOSE and we moved to introducing History and Geography as compulsory subjects from Year 7 through to Year 10 and as a consequence we have many more students now taking up History/Geography in Year 11. (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Administrator 2 clearly saw the move away from SOSE as being beneficial.

Teacher 1 claimed "to go back to History and Geography, I think valuable, vital... those subject areas need to have that respect shown to them just as much as Physics does from

Chemistry and so on” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Notably, Administrator 1 also supported the shift because “the fact that they’re discrete disciplines allows for more depth and focus rather than having a discipline that’s combined” (Administrator 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 also highlighted the perceived lack of value in the school because of SOSE for Social Science disciplines:

Unfortunately, our subject is one of the ones that we always get targeted where if there’s PAT testing [Progressive Achievement Testing] or any other activities in the school that are going on they always take time from the SOSE subjects or the Geography/History subjects. It’s like it’s not valued. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Similarly, Teacher 4 stated:

I suppose it’s been wonderful to see that returned but by the same token I think what we’re seeing is a lag in the respect. So, what has happened is that people have said yes History and Geography are immensely important but what hasn’t caught up yet is that intrinsic respect for that nature yet. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Despite there being different reasons for the shift towards discrete disciplines within the Social Sciences a complex assumption that could be inferred (whilst aware of my own researcher bias) is that there was unanimity amongst staff within Western High School that this shift was a good decision, as both administrators and teachers had indicated that there was a clear lack of value and direction in SOSE within their school community. This agreement (or commonality) amongst the heterogeneous actants also demonstrates their collective agency and confirms how they were part of the same network during this process of translation.

5.4 Rise in status of discrete disciplines

A rise in status of discrete Social Science disciplines in other nations was an external issue for translation. In the UK, the introduction of a separatist approach to the Social Sciences in the national curriculum program and the introduction of the ‘English Baccalaureate’ programme in 2010 encouraged students to study more ‘academic’ disciplines, namely: English, Mathematics, a Science, either History or Geography, and an ancient or modern foreign language (Harris, Harrison, & McFahn, 2012). Similar to this, the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP) encouraged students to study at least one (and a maximum of two) discrete Humanities or Social Sciences disciplines known as ‘Group 3: Individuals and Societies’ subjects including: History, Geography, Economics, Philosophy, Psychology, Global Politics, Information Technology in a Global Society, Social and Cultural Anthropology, World Religion, and Business Management (IBO, 2015a). Each Group 3 subject was designed to foster in students “the capacity to identify, to analyse critically and to evaluate theories, concepts and arguments relating to the nature and activities of individuals and societies” (IBO, 2015a). The IBDP aims to develop students who have “excellent breadth and depth of knowledge – students who flourish physically, intellectually, emotionally and ethically... and who excel in traditional academic subjects” (IBO, 2015b). The International Baccalaureate diploma qualification is widely recognised by the world’s leading universities (IBO, 2015b). A 2013 study found that 72% of students taking the IBDP in China attended one of the world’s top 500 universities (IBO, 2015b). Clearly, the English Baccalaureate and the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme both saw value in the discrete Social Science disciplines. Therefore, the IBDP, a non-human actant in the network, appears voiceless but does in actuality have agency. Teachers at Western High School saw the IBDP’s emphasis on discrete Social Science as validation for the discrete Social Science discipline approach in the

Australian Curriculum and therefore used this as momentum to push forward with the shift away from SOSE toward separate History and Geography disciplines in their school.

Implications of an Australian Curriculum with separate History and Geography disciplines was that it would inevitably raise their status amongst the Australian community. In Australia, at a state and territory level, some disciplines have been made compulsory and others have not under the Australian Curriculum (i.e. History was compulsory until the end of Year 10 but Geography, Civics and Citizenship, Economics and Business were only compulsory until the end of Year 8). Suggested time requirements for teaching these disciplines have also been made, for example: History for 48-50 hours per year from Years 7 to 9, and 43-46 hours for Year 10 (QSA, 2011b). History was therefore inadvertently afforded greater status (core until Year 10) in the Australian Curriculum than Geography (core until Year 8). One could argue greater relevance of Geography in light of the socio-ecological issues that we currently face. However, it would seem that there was a more powerful History lobby.

Administrator 2 was also supportive of the transition away from SOSE to discrete History and Geography disciplines when she stated: “I agree that – absolutely support the notion that History and Geography as standalone subjects are far more appropriate course of study than the combined SOSE which seemed to lack clear direction” (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). However, Teacher 4 believed that what had happened was that:

People have said yes History and Geography are immensely important but what hasn't caught up yet is that intrinsic respect for that nature yet. So, what we're still seeing is people who still think it's SOSE who still label it SOSE who still think that these courses can be taught in a SOSE like fashion with Art teachers with Science teachers with Maths

teachers and HPE teachers. And the fact of the matter is – I’m sorry but if we’re trying to create quality curriculums for students that have any integrity then certainly this has to change and hopefully with the national curriculum we’re seeing the beginning of that process. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

In summary, the separatist approach to the Social Sciences in the Australian Curriculum would most likely result in the shift away from SOSE in Queensland.

5.5 Western high school early adopters and the power of audits

The Western High School Social Science teachers were quite open and willing to listen to each other’s views on the possible early transition away from SOSE. Notably, the Social Science teachers had been together in the same staffroom for a number of years – the newest member to the staffroom was in fact me, as I had been situated in the Middle School prior to the transition to two campuses. As a team the Social Science teachers used their collective agency to determine the best course of action in terms of decisions surrounding the transition to the discrete History and Geography disciplines (i.e., when there were choices as to which units they should teach they chose together the most appropriate units based on student capacity, teacher expertise and available resources). The Western High School Social Science teachers described how, following the release of the detailed draft Australian Curriculum Geography document, they thought it would be safe to begin implementing discrete History and Geography disciplines due to the unpopularity of the SOSE curriculum. At the time of the case study, Western High School was approaching its school audit and therefore the Social Science department (with approval from administration) suggested it was time to become early adopters of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. The audit represented a systematised strategy of educational review, and was a non-human actant in this study. The school audit

process included an examination of the school curriculum programs, and therefore the Social Science staff expressed that it would be beneficial to gain feedback on their early transition away from SOSE. The audit therefore had a dual purpose, for on the surface level it was to receive feedback on History and Geography units, but it was also a way of locating the school as an early adopter for status. The audit was an actant with multiple purposes. Following the school audit, advice was received that the auditors were very complimentary about the units and assessment program that had been formed by the Social Science teachers, as there was clear alignment to the QCAR Framework, the Year 10 Guidelines, and the Australian Curriculum documents. The validation of this early adoption by Western High School of the Australian Curriculum also highlighted how the curriculum change network within the school was actually part of a wider network of curriculum organisation.

The Queensland Studies Authority had provided advice to schools in May 2012 that “during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum: History, schools should continue to offer curriculum programs based on the remaining curriculum content of the SOSE KLA [Key Learning Area]” (QSA, 2012a, p. 1). However, Western High School was an early adopter and had already shifted to the draft Geography and the Australian Curriculum History documents well and truly before this advice was released (from the start of 2011). Western High School had agreed to refine the Years 7–10 Geography units after the approved Australian Curriculum Geography documents were published. Civics and Citizenship would not be introduced in the school until more time was made available in the school timetable, and a draft Civics and Citizenship document to work from was made available from ACARA. In relation to the release of C2C resources, Western High was taking a ‘wait and see’ approach and would determine in consultation with administration what changes needed to be made, if any, at the time. Administrator 1 was quite positive about the C2C resources and said at the first full staff

meeting in 2012 “C2C was actually very good, it takes work away from teachers” (Administrator 1, personal communication, November 2, 2012) As mentioned earlier, the History and Geography C2C resources were not released at the time of implementation therefore, greater agency was afforded to the units, lessons, assessment items and resources (non-human actants) that were generated by teachers (human actants) to teach the discrete History and Geography disciplines.

It was indicated at both a teacher and at an administrator level that this shift within the school to introducing History and Geography disciplines as separate compulsory subjects from Year 7 through to Year 10 better prepared students for their senior pathways than SOSE. Teacher 3 suggested that this change toward separate disciplines did indeed help students understand what those disciplines were actually about, so when they went into senior years of schooling they could make better informed subject choices. Administrator 2 also noticed an increase in students electing senior Social Sciences subjects. For instance, there were two students studying Modern History in Year 12 compared with 13 students studying it in Year 11 in 2012, and eight students studying Geography in Year 12 compared with 14 students studying it in Year 11 in 2012. Administrator 2 stated:

The numbers of students engaging now in senior History and Geography have dramatically started to increase... in Year 11 next year to the point where previously composite classes will be moving to standalone classes which is a preferred situation in our school. (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

In 2012 there was a shift to separate Ancient History classes in Year 11 and Year 12, and in 2013 there were enough students to warrant a shift to separate Modern History classes and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies classes for Year 11 and Year 12. The increase in students participating in senior Social Science subjects (which includes Modern History,

Ancient History, Geography, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies, and Tourism) could be viewed as being influenced by those who have successfully completed separate Social Science disciplines in junior secondary in Western High School.

5.6 Improving data with implementation

One way of measuring the impact of curriculum change is to examine student achievement data. Representations of performance were strong actants in the larger and complex network. According to Administrator 1, key performance indicators have been set for Principals in Queensland schools and, particular to this case study, a pass rate of 85% (students achieving A-C) in History and Geography was relevant (Administrator 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). School goals and strategies for continuous improvement were outlined in the *Western High School's School Annual Report 2012* and were informed by *Western High School's 2011 Teaching and Learning Audit*. Although Western High School still had a long way to go in order to reach the aspirational goal of obtaining a pass rate of 85% in all disciplines, at the time of this study there was considerable progress in the junior Social Sciences. Administrator 2 was confident that students undertaking Senior Social Science subjects would experience higher levels of success (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Administrator 2 said:

I'm confident that our year 11 and 12 senior History and Geography and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander studies subjects will benefit because our students will be better prepared and consequently achieve higher levels of results in the years to come because of the implementation of actual History and Geography as single discipline subjects. (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

This progress was in direct opposition to the results in the discipline of English at Western High School, which noted a decline in the success rate of students in junior secondary at the same time and in the same student cohort. In Year 8 English in 2011 66% of students passed English in comparison with 53% in 2012. Results for Year 10 History and Geography were skewed due to the fact that there was only one History class (24 students) and one Geography class (14 students) in 2011, as the Social Sciences were not compulsory in 2011 in comparison to three Geography classes (total 83 students) and three History classes (total 76 students) in 2012 when Social Sciences were compulsory. Student results in 2012 showed that in Year 9 73% of students were passing Geography and 90% of students were passing History in comparison with only 51% of students passing SOSE in 2011. In summation, Geography experienced comparable results in Year 8, a gain in the number of students passing in Year 9, and a loss in Year 10 over the 2011–2012 period. History, on the other hand, experienced comparable results in Year 8 and Year 10 and an impressive gain in the pass rate in Year 9 in the 2011–2012 period. Social Science staff noted the improvement in academic data for their disciplines, however they were concerned about the decline in results for English. The shift away from the discipline of SOSE towards separate History and Geography disciplines was seen as beneficial for Western High School students due to the notable trend of similar or better results in the Social Sciences.

Representations of this data acted to validate the timetable actant and justified the decision to maintain discrete History and Geography rather than suggesting a need for the return to the teaching of SOSE. The data therefore does not stand alone as an actant because it is shaped by its interactions with human actants.

5.7 Chapter summary

In summation, the process of translation was useful in tracing the curriculum change network and the phases of problematisation; intersement/interposition; enrolment; and mobilisation in which actants of the social and material worlds were defined and mobilised (Callon, 1986). It became apparent that during the process of translation the phases could be occurring at the same time, but in relation to different interactions within the network. This created a situation where multiple layers or dimensions of change were simultaneously occurring and where actants swapped between the phases. At times, the translation phases of intersement and enrolment melded or overlapped because through the identifying of the network, actants had to detach themselves from other networks when accepting their role in the new network. However, actants could not be identified until the problem/s had been established during the phase of problematisation. It was also apparent how the curriculum change network itself was in fact made up of multiple interwoven and interconnecting networks due to the multiple identities, roles and memberships that actants had within other networks. Consequently, a deeper understanding of the way in which the preservation and fluctuations of such power relationships within the network and use of agency to influence curriculum change was gained. Successful curriculum change therefore needs to be implemented gradually and in such a way that the various stakeholders see value in the proposed curriculum change. Furthermore, in this case, the transition away from SOSE was seen to be the precursor to an increase in the status of discrete disciplines of History and Geography amongst the wider Australian community. While it is too premature to see the effect on the status of History and Geography as separate disciplines, the separate approach to the Social Sciences in the Australian Curriculum will most likely result in the demise of SOSE in Queensland and other cross-curricula Social Science/Humanities disciplines within Australia. The next chapter will

examine the constraints and enablers of implementation of curriculum change in Western High
School.

6.0 Constraints and enablers of implementation at Western High School

The previous chapter focused on illuminating the network of curriculum change and the ways in which that change was problematised, and how the actants of the network engaged in a process of translation. The messiness and complexity of the curriculum change were attributed to the multiple identities, roles and memberships that actants had within other networks. This chapter is focused on what shaped the engagement of actants by identifying particular themes that enabled and constrained the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography and the consequential shift away from SOSE. The themes that engaged and enabled translation at Western High School included: specialist teachers; teacher professional development; time; resourcing of the curriculum; ownership of new programs; and the role of middle management, technology and explicit instruction. At times some of these themes could in fact constrain translation. To begin with there will be an examination of how specialist teachers use their agency to engage in curriculum change.

6.1 Specialist teachers

Disciplinary knowledge and skills underpin a teacher's agentic capacities for engaging in curriculum change. Western High School employed many teachers who were teaching outside their teaching areas. The National Inquiry into School History in 2003 highlighted the importance of subject-matter expertise (Taylor & Young, 2003, p. 160). The Inquiry noted that teachers with "a deep knowledge of history process information with ease and readily connect ideas and topics within and across curriculum areas to enrich student understanding" (Taylor & Young, 2003, p. 160), while teachers with a poor knowledge basis "may misrepresent subject matter, fail to recognise learners' misconceptions, shy away from pedagogical

experimentation, resort to transmission teaching and restrict student participation” (Taylor & Young, 2003, p. 160). During interviews for The Inquiry, secondary school teachers and the subject coordinator expressed their concern over the common practice of “topping-up non-history staff workloads with residual history classes” (Taylor & Young, 2003, p. 160). Similar concerns to those expressed in the inquiry were raised by Western High School Social Science staff. Expert knowledge and skills interplay to impact on a teachers’ (actants’) agency within the network. It should be kept in mind that the lack of specialist teachers, while at first glance would appear to be a negative, in actual fact may be a positive as a motivated non-specialist teacher may spend more time planning and preparing for the lesson and in turn be more prepared to teach the lesson than a specialist teacher. As was seen with Teacher 5, a non-specialist Social Science teacher, her level of dedication and commitment to her students meant that she put abundant time into planning and preparing for her lessons so as to ensure she was always the expert in the classroom. This could be due to her high level of professionalism, and conversely, another non-specialist teacher could have become openly resistant and refused to plan or prepare to that same extent, which could be detrimental to the discipline.

At Western High School, Teacher 1 had a double degree in English Language and Literature and History but was expected to teach Year 9 Geography. Likewise, Teacher 5 was a Visual Arts teacher with no training in SOSE or Geography but was expected to teach Geography to Year 8, Year 9 and Year 10 students. Teacher 5 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) stated:

My major concern is the fact that there will be a lot of teachers required to teach in these areas that don’t have a clue... obviously there are going to be teachers not trained in that area that will be required to teach this and there is no extra time given for preparation.

Similarly, Middle Manager 1 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) stated:

The data is very clear with classroom results that when you have a specialist teacher in front of that class kids do well. When you don't you have a lot of behavioural issues, you have lower class results or students who should be achieving a hell of a lot more just gliding along – Cs, even failing when they shouldn't be. So, we've had that issue to deal with in the past and it will continue.

Therefore, Middle Manager 1 perceived that when an experienced and suitably qualified teacher was available they should be prioritised for teaching that class, as the student results would be better, and the number of behavioural issues would be lower. However, despite the need for qualified staff to assist students, junior Social Science classes were often allocated staffing last, i.e., after senior disciplines, after specialist disciplines such as LOTE, Home Economics, or Manual Arts, and after core disciplines such as English, Mathematics, and Science. Administrators of Western High School considered any generalist teacher capable of teaching a SOSE class. This was confirmed by Administrator 1 (personal communication, December 7, 2012) who stated: "I think at the lower levels it's okay because a lot of the stuff is generalist, but I think the more complex the content becomes then not having necessarily specialised teachers in those areas could be a problem."

Teacher 5 confirmed the viewpoint that like junior SOSE, anyone can teach junior History or Geography, stating that the assumption was problematic:

People assume that it's just everyday stuff that everyone knows about. But the topics that we're looking at now, yeah, some of it is but some of it is still, especially for me talking a Geography perspective, some of it is quite scientific. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 4 stated that an implication of this was that:

We're now probably facing a little bit of a shortage in terms of History trained professionals, Geography trained professionals which despite the label of general teacher that is no reality certainly [of what they can teach]. I work with staff who are non-History trained and they struggle immensely with the incredibly explicit skill base that is part of the History discipline. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Middle Manager 1 was also concerned about the shortage of suitably qualified staff and the struggle faced by those who were non-specialist History or Geography teachers:

Some of our major issues is that we've had the subject of SOSE for so long and universities have been delivering SOSE to undergraduates. So, we don't necessarily have expert History and Geography teachers but now they're being asked to specialise in History and Geography. So, working with staff who aren't confident in their teaching of the two disciplines has been a hurdle to say the least. (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 4 also raised the concern that universities were still geared towards SOSE rather than discrete History or Geography electives for trainee teachers:

For quite a few years what's happened is the universities and a lot of tertiary institutions have geared themselves to SOSE related teaching and of course we've seen a lot of expertise in History and Geography simply disappear. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The study identified a growing need to offer suitable training for staff expected to teach History or Geography, and/or upskilling and additional time allocations when it was an area outside their field of specialisation. This perhaps also established the need to stop considering

and classifying secondary staff as ‘generalist’ teachers when in reality they were expected to teach subject specific disciplines.

The making of Social Science disciplines compulsory in the junior years of high school meant that other elective subjects would lose time on the timetable and that those teachers would be expected to teach the junior Social Science classes. Teacher 5 believed that “there will be a lot of teachers required to teach in these areas that don’t have a clue... many I believe are going to struggle” (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Similarly, Teacher 2 suggested that teachers who were trained in teaching SOSE rather than History or Geography may not necessarily “have been familiar with some of the information and detail that’s needed in the other area” (Teacher 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 1 stated:

Like in any school where the Humanities are not seen as important subjects they’re not valued there whatsoever, the staffing of it becomes a major problem and that will become a major problem in the implementation of it. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 5 and Middle Manager 1 also highlighted that this lack of specialist staff would impact on those teachers directed to teach, as it would create a more stressful environment as they would struggle. Teacher 5 stated:

If they’re (non-specialist teachers) a bit slack or have the idea that you know they work to a certain time 9 to 5 or whatever what they’re delivering may not be good. Other teachers are obviously a bit more dedicated or passionate or spend stupid amounts of times where they probably burn out. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

There was obvious concern that teachers without specialist knowledge would struggle to teach discrete History or Geography. Similarly, Teacher 1 raised the concern that:

We have people teaching who've only ever learnt SOSE. My concern is that we have people teaching who do not have very good literacy levels themselves. I don't mean to read and write I just mean in terms of critical literacy, in terms of being able to teach in a literate way. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The concerns of Teachers 1, 2 and 5, and Middle Manager 1 illustrate some of the unequal power relationships between teachers in the network, created by the unequal balance of specialist knowledge and skills. These concerns also highlight some of the conflicting views amongst key stakeholders in the network (Brady & Kennedy, 2010). The positioning amongst the teachers themselves within the network could also be affected by these power relationships due to their differing levels of engagement and agency.

To overcome this deficit in disciplinary knowledge, skills, and teaching practices, Social Science teachers in the school were asked to declare their preference for teaching either History or Geography, and consequently the administrator, in consultation with middle management, allocated the teachers to classes according to their teaching speciality or preference. This could be interpreted as enabling agency for teachers to engage in the network. However, due to line clashes this was not always possible, as seen with Teacher 1 who had to teach Geography despite being a History teacher. Teacher 3 however was pleased with the opportunity to specialise:

For me it's been that I've been able to focus on my specialist area. I've been able to teach Geography rather than SOSE which incorporated History and Citizenship and all those other things. Whereas... [now] I was able to... use my deep knowledge of

Geography... to help students to understand Geography. (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

At the point of implementation some of the Social Science teacher actants were more willing to embrace change than others, and this was reflected by their agency and engagement. Teacher 3 was able to increase her agency and also assisted others in increasing their agency through her engagement with the Geography curriculum. While, on the other hand, some teacher actants could be very experienced teachers but still be very resistant or apathetic to change. Teacher 5 was reluctant to embrace either History or Geography but found that over time due to the assistance from other actants (such as Teacher 3) she increased her knowledge (and consequently her agency). Despite the willingness of some teachers to specialise in a particular discipline there was a clear need for training and/or upskilling in their preferred area of the Social Sciences to assist teachers with this change.

6.2 Professional development

The majority of Western High School Social Science teachers flagged the issue of the lack of professional development in the specialist areas (disciplines) they were expected to teach. Professional development is defined in the Teaching and Learning International Survey as ‘the full range of activities, formal and informal, that develop an individual’s skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher or education administrator’ (OECD, 2009, p. 48). Currently, in 2017, Queensland teachers ‘must complete at least 20 hours of CPD [Compulsory Professional Development] for any calendar year in which... [they] teach 20 days or more’ (QCT, 2017). It was a teacher’s ‘professional responsibility... [to maintain their] knowledge and skills... [so as to meet their] responsibilities as a member of a team and school

staff’ (QCT, 2017). At the time of the study (2011-2012) teachers were expected to complete 30 hours of professional development (QCT, 2010). Teacher 1 stated “whatever professional development that we’ve had I think has been very superficial, piecemeal – I better go attend this for an hour because I can add it to my professional development for Queensland College of Teachers” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Although the school administrators were willing to send teachers to attend specialist professional development there were limited opportunities (if any) available. The administrators of Western High School therefore decided to provide generalist whole of school professional development to assist teachers and to help them meet the required number of hours, e.g., by offering after school (during staff meetings) professional development on managing challenging behaviour and the school’s pedagogical approach. Therefore, concern was raised that the pressure placed on teachers to obtain their 30 hours of professional development to maintain their Queensland College of Teachers registration (QCT, 2010) was not actually assisting teachers in developing expertise in their current teaching areas. Openly reluctant teachers such as Teacher 5 needed encouragement and support to transition to encourage their engagement with the process of change. Therefore, the policy decision to have teachers complete 30 hours of professional development to maintain their registration was seen as just another hoop teachers had to jump through, because the professional development offered by schools was often generalist in nature and not relevant to their specific disciplinary needs.

A recent study by Dr Loan Dao (2017) found that a lack of relevant professional development created challenges for staff in planning for the transition to the Australian Curriculum. This lack in relevant professional development was also highlighted by middle management and the school administrators of Western High. Middle Manager 1 stated: “more

money is needed in schools to give us time out to teach our teachers how to teach this new curriculum” (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Similarly, Administrator 2 highlighted the issue where, due to the cost of releasing staff to attend professional development, not all staff teaching the subject were able to attend critical professional development, and therefore teachers had to apply to attend (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teachers who were selected to attend professional development were expected to return to the school and upskill their peers, but often there was not sufficient time given (if any) to release staff to do this.

In addition, due to the lack of school funding to release teachers from teaching, professional development often had to occur in staff member’s own time when unfortunately, not much relevant professional development was offered. Administrators also found that by suggesting teachers attend professional development in their own time to reduce costs to schools (i.e., after school or on weekends or school holidays) was also not working as teachers often had other commitments (e.g., lesson planning, marking student work, and reporting deadlines, family commitments and/or sporting commitments) and therefore would not be available to attend.

Teacher 5, a non-specialist Geography teacher, also raised the issue about the lack of professional development in upcoming curriculum areas that were being implemented (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Despite the administrators offering to cover the Teacher Relief Scheme (TRS) for non-specialist staff at Western High to attend professional development there was no suitable training available. Teacher 5 stated:

There actually hardly ever is any Geography professional development (PD) around in the region at all and that’s one thing that I’ve struggled with not being trained in the area

is that usually I could say OK can I go on a PD in these areas to learn about it but there's been nothing available. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Contrary to this Teacher 2 maintained that in-servicing provided by curriculum specialist staff within the school (e.g., regional panel members and Teaching and Learning Head of Departments) and discipline specific staff within the staffroom did assist her learning, when she said:

Most of the information and support I got was from the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator so I felt very comfortable because I was given quite a lot of comprehensive detail about the unit and a lot of day-to-day activities and plans and resources to go with it. So yes, I think I was supported quite well mainly because they were giving me the support I needed. (Teacher 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The experience of the teachers in the staffroom is quite distinctive for the case, given the staff mobility in regional schools. Within the Social Science staffroom there were four regional panel members (two Geography panel members and two English panel members) while three other teachers had belonged to various regional panels in the past. Teacher 2 went on to elaborate that having access to discipline specific staff within the staffroom also “put us in the right direction with resources that we had to use, and having them in the staffroom was probably the biggest factor in terms of assistance” (Teacher 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

The aforementioned contradictions in perspectives on the availability of suitable professional development demonstrated the power relationships between actants (human and non-human) both within the network and outside of the network (professional organisations

and regional disciplinary panels) during the process of curriculum change. Professional learning occurred amongst staff members within the school through peer tutoring and also through accessing external organisations. This in turn increased the agency of the members of the network. Multiple networks were at work at any one time within the school. Some actants were empowered by their experiences in these positions of peer accountability during the curriculum enactment. It was apparent that staff needed to have access to both disciplinary specialist staff and outside providers in order for a smoother transition to new curriculum programs.

The teachers at Western High also raised concern about how suitable professional development was often located in Brisbane and was not offered in regional centres. Therefore, money was also needed for organisations running professional development sessions so that they could travel to regional areas and offer sessions in more locations across Queensland, as locational constraints often made it logistically next to impossible for staff to attend the professional development that was being offered in the major cities. Professional development that was offered online, such as webinars, was not deemed as beneficial, due to time constraints and issues with technology. Training that included pre-recorded information did not allow for questioning from the viewer, and was often more generalist than specific to the viewer's needs. Evidently, the cost of professional development for teachers in regional areas needs to be addressed, to better assist teachers with the implementation process of the Australian Curriculum. The provision of professional development for Social Science staff within the school would in turn be beneficial for students, as it would improve the teaching capacity of the department as a whole. Even if only some of the teachers were able to access professional development they would be able to return to school and upskill their fellow teachers on what they had learnt during the professional development and ultimately this would increase the

engagement of actants within the network. Professional development was therefore an enabler of curriculum change, but financial and locational constraints inhibited the capacity of actants to access suitable professional development.

6.3 Time

The manifestation of time in the socio-material world occurs in varying ways. Schools are organised by a timetable (non-human actant). The school timetable is developed as a result of the engagement and interactions amongst heterogeneous actants with a range of competing rationales and values. Such power relationships amongst actants consequently result in the unequal distribution of time and resources within the school timetable.

The timetable format of 70-minute lessons meant that some subjects at Western High School were not getting the required minimum times while other subjects were getting more than the required or recommended time. The 70 minutes in length was in order to make it easier to calculate the 210 minutes required by teachers for preparation and correction time (i.e., teachers would have three lessons for preparation and correction or non-contact time allocated to them on their timetable). This also meant that teachers only had to prepare for four lessons a day rather than five (or more) lessons as was the practice in some other schools in the region. Clearly, this inequity of time allocation for some subjects within Western High School and (assumedly other schools within the region that follow the 70-minute lesson model) would need to be addressed.

Grundy (2005) proposed that the most important resource for teachers was time, and this research study illustrates how the teachers of Western High School were more concerned about the provision of lesson time in the timetable to enact the new History and Geography

curriculum rather than their own individual time allocation for planning. Teacher 4 raised his/her concern regarding how most schools only provided compulsory subjects with the minimum recommended time allocation. The teaching time recommendations for the Australian Curriculum provided by QSA accounted for 79% of the teaching time in Years 7 and 8, and 49% in Years 9 and 10 (See Table 11) (QSA, 2012a). This complied with ACARA's position that: "The Australian Curriculum will take no more than 80% of the teaching time available in schools, with the proportion peaking in Years 7 and 8 and reducing significantly in Years 9 and 10 as core expectations are reduced" (QSA, 2012a, p. 4).

Therefore, there was approximately 21% of time unallocated in Years 7 and 8, and 51% of time unallocated in Years 9 and 10. The allocation of teaching time for History and Geography was included in the allocated time for Year 7 and Year 8, but only History was considered in the allocated time in Year 9 and Year 10 as Geography was an elective according to the QSA advice on implementing the Australian Curriculum (QSA, 2012a). In 2012 the teaching of Social Sciences at Western High School was allocated two lessons per week so as to allow students to study a variety of other electives; this meant that students only engaged with History and Geography for one semester for two lessons per week from Year 7 to Year 10. Similar timetable concerns to those mentioned by Teacher 4 were also raised by middle management. In relation to the allocation of time on the timetable for classes at Western High School Middle Manager 1 stated:

Getting the extra time is very difficult and I think we've got a major challenge with regards to time requirements needed for each of these core areas. It doesn't necessarily fit with our timetabling we've had to pinch minutes from here and lose minutes to other areas. In our particular school LOTE, Languages Other Than English, is either taking or suffering losing time for History and Geography. The fact that History has more time

allocated to it than Geography is difficult at the moment. And then knowing that in a couple of years' time we need to allow for the Civics and Economics streams that are coming on well that's going to be difficult as well. (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Although no additional time was given to History in the timetable this decision actually increased the amount of time for Geography, as Geography was made compulsory for both Year 9 and 10. Before this SOSE had been compulsory until the end of Year 9 and students could elect to study either History or Geography in Year 10. Teacher 4 insisted that the provision of two lessons per week was not adequate and that three lessons per week were needed for the teaching of History and Geography for all junior year levels (Years 7, 8, 9 and 10). Teacher 4 stated that the allocation of time for lesson delivery was:

A massive, massive issue because I mean I talk to people who had four lessons a week, three lessons a week, and had that for the whole year just for History alone. And then they had extra time for Geography on top of that, so they could teach their History and Geography courses at the same time as opposed to having to split it into everyone does History, everyone does Geography either in semester one or semester two. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 4 also voiced her concern about how no further additional time was allocated to the teaching of History and Geography at Western High and how time was actually being taken away from the Social Sciences in Year 10 which used to have three lessons per week when it was an elective. Teacher 4 stated:

With History as a mandatory/mandated subject up to Year 10 it does concern me that lack of time provision and the fact that a lot of schools are taking it literally and saying well we're going to give you the bare minimum and I don't think that that's true to what

people were trying to do with quality curriculums. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

In this way the school timetable worked as an actant in including/excluding and exerting culturally hegemonic power (the hierarchy of the disciplines) in legitimating and justifying which knowledge and skills were valued by the school.

Tensions in the allocation of time to certain disciplines were not just technical (as previously described), they were underpinned by political and ideological power knowledge relationships within and beyond the school. During the formation of the timetable school administrators prioritised ‘core curriculum’ disciplines, such as English, Mathematics, and Science, in order to meet regional literacy and numeracy targets. Such core curriculum disciplines therefore had greater power and status than non-core disciplines. The school administrators would then allocate time to the other disciplines based on facility availability, teacher availability (due to availability of specialist teachers and timetable constraints due to crossed timetable lines), and the recommended time allocations as suggested by governing bodies such as QSA/QCAA. In this way, other policy documents, and guidelines were afforded agency in the network as the intent of the curriculum (as text) was comprised and enacted in various ways by different state and local policies, operations, and micro-politics.

Neither of the school administrators within the network were from a Social Science background, and at times they struggled to maintain impartiality towards all disciplines. During a middle management meeting Administrator 1 stated “we need to ensure Maths and English are given additional time”, which would ultimately mean that other disciplines would have to lose time (Administrator 1, personal communication, October 9, 2012). This statement by Administrator 1 could be considered either bias towards his own disciplinary background or

perhaps the regional priority foci (and consequently school foci) which at the time was heavily focused on improving literacy and numeracy. Again, the presence of outside networks (such as the influence of the regional foci) had influenced the curriculum change network.

The allocation of time to disciplines in the timetable was also influenced by school priorities. The focus on literacy and numeracy within the school was influenced by policy documents (or non-human actants such as the DETE Strategic Plan, Roadmap for P–10 Curriculum, Teaching, Assessment and Reporting, and the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians). At the case study school, it was determined by administration—after discussion with middle management—to exempt some very low achieving students from LOTE if their literacy was too low. Students who were exempted were allocated additional intensive literacy support time to help catch up to the required level, based on their age. However, it was found that students did not like being singled out for not achieving as well as other students, and therefore rather than exempting students from lessons entire year levels were given literacy and numeracy activities that they were supposed to complete during class time in addition to core class work. For example, during English and History/Geography lessons students were required to complete standardised ‘Cars and Stars’ literacy activities in addition to their normal classwork, typically as part of the lesson warm up. Despite the expectation that these activities were to be completed in class time no additional time was given to either English, History or Geography. The inclusion of ‘Cars and Stars’ literacy activities also devalued the context and skills of History and Geography, as the Western High School teachers were not allowed to adapt and integrate the activities as part of the communication and literacy of the unit they were currently teaching. For example, the teachers were expected to teach a ‘Cars and Stars’ comprehension activity with the theme of the circus coming to town, but the students were studying a unit on WWI in Year 9 History. This further reinforces the

competing agendas and power of different stakeholders within the network, as greater agency was given to the literacy and numeracy activities than the History and Geography curriculum.

In this way the timetable also constrained the curriculum purpose of developing student knowledge, and more importantly skills, through sustained engagement over time. Pressure from the wider school community to offer a variety of subjects to cater for different subject pathways meant that certain subjects were only taught for a term or for a semester rather than over a full year. For example, at Western High a student would study History in Semester 1 in Year 8 but could potentially not get to do History again until Semester 2 of Year 9. This in turn created the potential risk of students forgetting core knowledge and skills needed in elective disciplines due to the nature of timetable. Time in the new unit would then have to include revision of core skills in History and Geography (from past units from previous years, e.g., source analysis in History, and construction and analysis of graphs or maps in Geography) so as to ensure students were adequately prepared to build on their current understanding. Unfortunately, this repetition meant a further reduction in the available teaching time of the new unit content and skills (whether for History or Geography).

Middle Manager 3 highlighted how another local high school taught subjects on rotational basis over a two-year period wherein students would only study an elective for one semester once over the Year 7 and Year 8 period (i.e., one semester for Digital Technology, one semester for Practical Art, one semester for Business Studies, and one semester for Civics and Citizenship) (Middle Manager 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Another school gave each discipline a lesson a week for a year (i.e., one lesson a week for Year 7 or Year 8; the discipline would not be taught in the alternate year). Despite this model appearing to be better than that of the other school—as students would be building on their skills over a

year—this also created a risk wherein any additional loss of time due to public holidays or school events (school photo day or athletics carnivals etc.) would see a further loss of teaching time (i.e., a 10-week term would have 10 lessons but could potentially be reduced to 5 or 6 lessons due to interruptions). This loss of teaching time would be considered a threat to implementation as it would limit the ways the teachers of the school could assert their power in the network and in turn limit their own agency to enact what they saw as the aims of curriculum transition. It would also potentially see teachers prioritising certain knowledge and skills within the enacted curriculum at the expense of others, due to a lack of time. Arguably this always happens in the process of interpretation and enactment. Again, the power relationships within and beyond the network shaped which knowledge and/or skills to prioritise or omit, and revealed the unequal agency of the actants.

Teacher 4 also voiced her concern for the students and their level of achievement as a result of the timetable constraints (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 4 said:

They've only got two lessons a week because we've condensed our entire course into six months which does not allow us to teach true to the nature of the course which was meant to be three modules, three units which we cannot provide. We can do two reasonably well and we can do maybe a bridging. But, in essence we cannot do the full course as it's intended and that's not a problem at the moment in all honesty because there's no one checking but when the day comes that someone is checking and there are very tight guidelines around this then we will be in real trouble if our school can't see its way clear to actually giving a decent provision of time. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 4 was revealing the perception and relationship of accountability to governing bodies which implied 'covering' the curriculum in its entirety. Currently in Queensland the senior curriculum assessment items are checked during monitoring (Year 11) and verification (Year 12). Teacher 4 was openly resistant to the loss of time, given the aforementioned concerns that were raised (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). However, despite these concerns Teacher 4 still preferred to shift to the new timetable model as she agreed with the other Social Science teachers on the need for discrete disciplines (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 4 explained how:

It's been lovely to see the shift back to insisting that History and Geography are important and that they're disciplines in their own right. I think that's been immensely important because they're research orientated subjects that aren't replicated necessarily in other areas for their depth and their breadth. And so, I suppose it's been wonderful to see that returned but by the same token I think what we're seeing is a lag in the respect. So, what has happened is that people have said of yes History and Geography are immensely important but what hasn't caught up yet is that intrinsic respect for that nature yet. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Despite such teacher concerns, the collective agency of the Social Science teachers was more powerful than the administrators in terms of positioning discrete History and Geography disciplines within the school timetable, as it highlighted how the teacher agency exhibited by the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy during the middle management meetings persuaded the other middle managers and administrators to agree with giving Geography equal time to that of History in the timetable. The allocation of time to both History and Geography on the timetable gave them greater status and power than subjects with less time. The school timetable therefore both enabled and constrained curriculum change, as it provided additional

time for the discipline of Geography in Years 9 and 10 but reduced the amount of time provided to the study of History. Additionally, through this allocation of time to disciplines their associated knowledge and skills were prioritised or omitted depending on the agency of the school foci or regional priorities. This in turn impacted the depth of the enacted curriculum.

The allocation of time within the timetable was directly related to the breadth and depth of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography (non-human actants). ACARA (2010b) maintained that all students were expected to undertake the overview and depth studies as indicated in the Australian Curriculum History within any given year. The QSA (2012a) through its interpretation of the Australian Curriculum maintained that:

Schools and teachers make decisions about how they plan and deliver challenging and engaging programs of learning that match the learning needs of their students, so the students can demonstrate achievement of the learning expectations — that is, the curriculum content and achievement standards... The content can be used to contextualise learning; the inquiry questions adapted and used to make the learning within the context meaningful, relevant and challenging; and the level of skills adjusted to match the learning needs of the student. (p. 7)

It was therefore apparent that it was the role of the Social Science teachers and the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator to interpret the Australian Curriculum, while it was the Head of Department English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy, and administration's role to ensure compliance with the state and national guidelines. Teacher 4 was constantly positive in the staffroom, saying "this new curriculum would have to be better than the other models that I had previously taught despite whatever pitfalls it would have" (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). However, once the timetable for Western High School

was released Teacher 4, along with the other Social Science teachers, voiced their concerns during a staff meeting regarding how to teach the discrete History and Geography units with enough rigor and depth in the time provided. The teachers were worried about how they were expected to teach the history depth studies in enough detail to firstly still call them depth studies and secondly to enable students to build upon their historical understanding given the school's timetable constraints. Teacher 5 was "majorly concerned about the amount of time" allocated to the teaching of the History and Geography disciplines at Western High School, in that they were now teaching History and Geography in the same timeframe that they used to have to teach SOSE (two lessons a week) (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 was also concerned that there was not enough time "to teach the content properly, to explicitly teach the concepts and any information that is required for the assessment" (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 3 raised similar concerns about how to teach the depth of the curriculum in the given time when she said:

I do worry about whether I'm going to be able to go into the depth that I would like to with each unit. If I teach everything that they suggest is taught I worry that it's going to be too flimsy. I prefer to make sure when a student goes away that they have a very deep understanding and I'm worried that they're not going to have that. (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 5 also highlighted how at a recent Australian Curriculum History professional development session undertaken by the Social Science department, the facilitator said:

They knew that the content couldn't be taught in the amount of areas—what were they called—three depth studies that were required to be covered. They realise that that is a lot yet they're still running with it. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 5 again emphasised this as:

A major concern for me that they know that we're time poor, that they're not sure how schools are going to deal with it but yet they're still running with it. That's a really big concern because we will just be teaching to tests. Teachers will be cutting out sections and that concerns me that the program might not be rich if you know what I mean or what is actually needed. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Although, Teacher 4 suggested that the Australian Curriculum structure allowed:

Enough guidance for there to be that comparability across the state and as a national curriculum. I think it allows for that. But at the same time, I think it does allow people to tailor a bit to it... So, it does allow that capacity to look at what you've got in terms of teacher capacity and in terms of resources go, this aspect of the national curriculum would suit us better than that aspect. At least it's not like England where it's immensely rigid curriculum in a lot of ways where there really isn't a lot of room to move, so I like that aspect of it. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

However, Middle Manager 3 raised concern about how the Australian Curriculum History could be perceived as an Australian Curriculum given the schools would be able to determine to an extent which depth studies would be studied in History (Middle Manager 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). This concern stemmed from the fact that only a few of the depth studies had been made compulsory for students to study. Middle Manger 3 also voiced concern about how Geography was only made compulsory until the end of Year 8 given the high number of Common Curriculum Elements that were taught in Geography (Middle Manager 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Teacher 5 also highlighted how it was quite difficult to fit the three depth studies, plus the overview for History, into one year if only one lesson of 70 minutes (the minimum time

requirement) was allocated per week (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 described how the school had chosen to shift to a model wherein they had two lessons per week in Year 8 and Year 10, but students were only taught History for one semester rather than two (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). This in itself created a new issue as despite having more time per week and easier access to existing resources it was too hard to compress the teaching of the three depth studies into only one semester whilst also conducting meaningful assessment. In my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator I recall a discussion during a staff meeting on how the Australian Curriculum History had been written to 100 hours of teaching time (NCB, 2009a, p. 8) while only 46-50 hours of teaching time was recommended to schools (QSA, 2011b), and that in-school decisions would have to be made as to how to best address the depth and breadth of the curriculum in the time they had.

The National Curriculum (2009a) *Framing paper: Consultation Report*, which collated feedback from stakeholders, had called for significant rationalisation of topics, especially in secondary school. Staff in the Social Science department therefore chose to only teach two of the three History depth studies and the overview, so that the teacher could cover those two depth study topics in sufficient detail. They decided to do this to ensure that the students were at least taught two of the depth studies to develop comprehensive historical thinking skills amongst the students. Clearly this was not meeting the expectations of the Australian Curriculum History and the Social Science department was therefore investigating whether to change it for 2013.

One option that had been suggested to the department from another school was to teach a general overview of all content for all three depth studies during the first term of the semester but to give students a choice within the assessment of aspects from all units. For example,

students could choose to do a research assignment on Australia during WWII, or on The Stolen Generation, or on Australian popular culture. However, this option was also flawed, given that it takes away from the three depth study topics actually being a 'depth study', as students would only engage superficially or at a basic level with all the content, except for the topic covered by the assessment item. The chosen assessment item was designed to take an entire term and would therefore be a way of giving students depth in that particular unit's component and the associated historical skills. However, this option would only provide students with one opportunity to engage in depth with the historical knowledge and skills, as opposed to the two they would receive under the current model. Therefore, the Western High School Social Science department staff decided to wait and monitor the effectiveness of their current model, as they were also considering another proposal of changing to teach all three historical depth studies using a model that had one term of the semester allocated to the overview and a depth study, and the other term was allocated to the remaining two depth studies. This proposal also meant that no assessment was carried over the term break and that all content would be taught. This model would mean that the content of depth studies two and three would be taught at a more superficial level than that of the first one, given that they had less time available (i.e., approximately five weeks as opposed to eight weeks). This negotiating amongst actants in determining the best model for implementing the Australian Curriculum History within their school illustrated the complexity of incorporating the depth and breadth of the Australian Curriculum History within the boundaries of the school timetable.

Concerns from the Western High School Social Science teachers also echoed some of the issues raised in the Australian Curriculum Review (Donnelly & Wiltshire, 2014). The Social Science teachers raised concern about how Geography was only compulsory until the end of Year 8, while History was compulsory until the end of Year 10. Although Western High

School mandated Geography as compulsory until the end of Year 10 most other Queensland schools were not doing this. Rather, Geography was being offered as an elective in Year 9 and Year 10. Teacher 3 stated:

I think it's one of the most important subjects for young people to have to give them the knowledge that they need. These days kids seem to have a very insulated world and they don't necessarily know what's outside of their very local area. I think Geography gives them the opportunity to start looking at different views, different things that are happening around the world, consequences of different things that happen around the world and there are certain skills in Geography that I think is very necessary for students. They're able to learn it better than any other subject that I know... it gives them a different way of thinking; a very analytical way of approaching things and I worry that when they get into senior and they're doing QCS (Queensland Core Skills tests) that they're not necessarily going to have those skills and they won't necessarily perform as well as they could if they did have those skills. (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The Social Science teachers of Western High were concerned that if Geography was not made compulsory until the end of Year 10 their students would not be prepared adequately for their future pathways as Geography covers 45 of the 49 Common Curriculum Elements that students need to do well on the QCS test (as was determined by experienced teachers in a review conducted of senior syllabuses by QSA in 2013) (QSA, 2013a). The Common Curriculum Elements, a non-human actant, therefore exhibits agency in the determination of which subjects to offer at a school. Western High School administrators, in consultation with middle management, consequently chose to make Geography compulsory until the end of Year 10 despite opposition from non-Social Science teachers. However, as mentioned previously, the allocated time in Year 10 went from three lessons to two lessons per week for a semester

(students would complete a semester of History and then a semester of Geography). Therefore, Geography was equally as valued as History within Western High School, but the Social Science teachers were aware of an imbalance in status between the History and Geography disciplines in wider Queensland due to Geography only being compulsory until the end of Year 8.

The Social Science teachers found it easier to allocate time within the semester to teaching the Geography discipline than the History discipline, due to the way the Australian Curriculum Geography was written. The Geography curriculum was constructed with two discrete units per year – a human geography and an environmental geography unit which could be taught as one unit per term. This was also easier for reporting periods as it meant that Geography assessment could be finalised prior to the end of each term. However, it was noted that there was greater depth (more content) to be covered in each Geography unit. Despite this notable increase in depth per unit it was actually easier for the Social Science teachers to be selective on what to teach when backwards mapping from the Australian standard descriptors. This is because the Social Science teachers found it easier to limit or determine which resources and case studies to focus on as it was only two units rather than the three that were expected to be taught in the same time for History. Therefore, the discipline of Geography was to some extent easier to implement than History, but there was ongoing concern amongst the actants as to why Geography was not compulsory in all Queensland schools until the end of Year 10. The decision by Western High School administration and middle management to make Geography compulsory until the end of Year 10 was acknowledged by staff as having afforded both disciplines equal status within the school.

6.4 Resourcing the curriculum

Resourcing constraints are felt across many areas during new phases of curriculum implementation in schools. Assistance provided to the Social Science faculty to allow for the transition to the Australian Curriculum was minimal, as there was no room in the school budget to provide teachers with additional time or resources. Western High normally required resources to be budgeted for a year ahead, and even if the school had been in a position to provide funding there were minimal appropriate resources available given the ‘newness’ of the curriculum. This is because publishers and other companies were waiting for the curriculum to be finalised before releasing any new resources (e.g., textbooks, posters, DVDs). Middle Manager 1 stated in relation to the purchasing of new up-to-date relevant textbooks:

We can't purchase for next year now (December) we needed to know ahead of time what we were delivering. And what we did own, let's say text books may have delivered the unit of Ancient History, Ancient Egypt or Ancient Rome it may have had a chapter on that but it's not necessarily at the year level that the new national curriculum wants you to deliver it at. (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Despite this lack of resources, the Social Science faculty decided to persevere with the early transition to the Australian Curriculum as they truly believed it was the best decision for their students. Therefore, teachers needed to ‘start from scratch’ in some cases to create suitable resources to go with the new units, as the old textbooks were unsuitable or did not contain up-to-date relevant activities. Also, because the school was an early adopter they could not access C2C resources such as English, Mathematics, and Science. The middle managers outlined how eventually a textbook would be needed to assist teachers who were teaching outside their specialist areas (or for when teachers were away). However no funding was available at the time because it needed to be allocated in the previous years’ budget. Additionally, textbooks

had not been released for publication as they were still being developed. Furthermore, the cost of replacing hundreds of textbooks at approximately \$60-\$70 a textbook was a very costly exercise and it really would not be possible to replace all textbooks across Years 7 to 10 at the same time for both History and Geography disciplines, as there were up to seven classes per year level at the case study school. The consideration was that one SOSE textbook would eventually be replaced by three textbooks – one for History, one for Geography, and one for Civics and Citizenship or even made redundant by C2C resources. As Teacher 4 said “the fact of the matter is that we don’t have tens of thousands of dollars next year to buy brand new textbooks” (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Therefore, the school chose to teach half the students History at one stage and the other half Geography, and then the students switched subjects. This would eventually enable the school to purchase only half the required textbooks, and rather than the books only being utilised for half the year they would be able to be used for the entire year – but by two different groups of students. This in turn would reduce the number of required textbooks per year level and would also give teachers the opportunity of becoming subject specific teachers. Rather than teaching both History and Geography to their class they could choose to swap classes and teach the same unit again but to a different class, thus giving teachers the time to reflect upon, and refine, the unit they had taught.

Some publishers were offering digital subscriptions with online resources or e-books of the textbook; however, this would mean purchasing new subscriptions each year for each student, which would be more expensive in the long run than just purchasing the textbooks, as students would only be using them for a semester due to timetable restrictions. This would mean that students would not gain the full benefit of having the subscription or access to online resources as they would not be able to utilise them fully given the time constraints. The future

need for textbooks as a resource was also a consideration given that English C2C resources were provided and that there was indication that C2C resources would be provided in the future for History, Geography, and Civics and Citizenship.

When a discussion of the need for textbooks was undertaken during a Social Science faculty meeting all staff agreed that the school needed new History and Geography textbooks that were aligned with the new the Australian Curriculum. Teacher 3 stated textbooks were vital for “assisting students due to the use of suitable age appropriate language and images to convey critical meaning” (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 highlighted how textbooks “were extremely helpful for when teachers were away as suitable activities could be set from these in addition to classroom handouts” (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). During an informal lunchtime discussion, all of the teachers acknowledged how the textbooks were just one resource that was available (or in the case of new curriculum would become available), and that teachers should not become overly reliant on these for teaching content and skills. This lack of reliance on textbooks by the Social Science teachers during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum was contrary to the findings of Lambert and Balderstone (2010) who discussed how there was typically a heavier reliance on textbooks during substantial curriculum change. It was also contrary to Kleeman (2011) who had found that teachers who use explicit instruction tend to rely on textbook-dependent modes of teaching. This was not the case in Western High School as the Social Science teachers preferred to use a wide variety of resources in addition to textbooks (e.g., newspaper articles, political cartoons, documentary clips, activity sheets, educational games, interactive websites) when teaching. As Teacher 1 explained, “textbooks were typically set at a standard level of achievement and did not differentiate for students... but this was okay as differentiation was best left to the teacher who knew their students best” (Teacher 1, personal

communication, December 7, 2012). In this way textbooks can be enabling (depending on how they act in alignment with the intent of the teacher) or could be constraining (if they do not provide enough variety in activity type). Clearly, the teachers saw a need for textbooks, although given the school's shift towards digital literacy they saw the inflexibility of the textbook subscription system as unviable for their students given the exorbitant costs.

Similar to the research of Kleeman (2011), Teacher 5 also highlighted how textbooks were useful for helping non-specialist staff to upskill, but she maintained that it was only to a certain degree (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 stated:

I just use the GeoActives [textbooks] and I've also come across a Heinemann's, they've been very helpful to me. But, again reading through if you don't get it because you haven't learnt it you need to ask someone who's trained so you've got the time. You're taking away the time from your colleagues. My colleagues have all been very helpful and pleased to help me, but I am conscious that it is their time that is being eaten into and again they're not given any time to compensate with that. There's no we'll sign you off on this time and you can work with that person. There's no consideration as to the fact that they will need to have that extra coaching I guess you call it. It's almost feels like you're teaching full time and you are studying a degree. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The provision of textbooks does not assure teacher proficiency and confidence or standard levels of implementation.

Concerns such as feelings of frustration at being a burden on other staff and the lack of time allocated for such assistance was also apparent in administration responses. Administrator 2 suggested that this was the most pressing constraint on an already stretched budget and

timetable (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Administrator 2 stated it was very difficult:

Actually finding time and budgeting for release time for curriculum development... No additional time has been allowed in the implementation of the Australian Curriculum for any staff in any facility area, so the school has had to make time within its own internal relief mechanisms to provide time to History/Geography staff. (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Often schools had to pay for teachers to not only attend the professional development but also to cover the cost of the replacement teacher for while they were at the professional development session. At particular times of the year there were also less relief or supply teachers available (as they may be already employed at another school), so schools would be unable to release teaching staff to attend the professional development. Evident from these perspectives above, is that teachers have different ideas and concerns about resources to that of administrators. While the budget was a constraint, it also enabled teachers to exercise agency to determine the units, lessons, resources and assessment items to use in their classrooms, as C2C resources and textbooks had not been published at the stage of implementation.

6.5 Ownership of new program

The strong agency exhibited by teachers through collective engagement with the curriculum development facilitated a sense of ownership over the new programs. The extensive range of teacher experience and expertise amongst the actants also assisted the teachers in increasing their agency and the agency of other actants during the process of curriculum change.

A number of ideas were presented by Social Science teachers regarding how to implement a new curriculum successfully in a school setting. Middle Manager 2 maintained that:

A high school is at an advantage rather than a primary school because of the expertise there. So, we've got these people already that are trained and interested in these subjects and that's going to bring passion and engagement to those classes...so that's making the shift extremely easy. (Middle Manager 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

While discussing how to successfully implement a new curriculum in a school Teacher 1 stated:

An important part of implementing a new program is everyone who's teaching it needs to feel like they belong to it and they're involved in it and I think that's a part that really needs to become a part of good practice for implementation of a new curriculum in any school. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The allocation of teachers to 'look after' different year level subjects also assisted in providing team work situations where teachers would assist other teachers by finding or creating new resources, for not only themselves, but other teachers who were also teaching the discipline. This distribution of power assisted teachers with strengthening their collective agency and in turn their capacity to act. The teachers would work collaboratively together to develop the unit and the assessment item and then differentiate them when necessary. One member of that team would also take on a leadership role and would be responsible for ensuring that all teachers were staying on track with the unit and moderating at the end of the unit to ensure equitable marking of student work. Teacher 4 proudly stated:

We've designed units, we've designed all the lessons, we've designed the assessment, we've designed resources. It was provided for me in so much as there was a team of us I think that were working very much on making it all happen. It wasn't so much that my department provided me with it, it was more that you had a very strong group of teachers

who went ‘let’s get the Year 8 Geography set up, let’s get...’ yeah, so it was more a bit of a group approach in terms of it [the Australian Curriculum] being provided to us and adapting and modifying and making the units. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

This ownership of the new programs exhibited by Teacher 4 highlights how the collective nature of agency in the network assisted the curriculum change process. Teacher 1 also identified how they were involved in the development of the new units, lessons and resources when she explained:

My involvement in terms of designing lessons has come from that master plan for the unit and a collection of resources all ready. What I’ve done is looked at that, used some resources, added, adapted; adopted, modified felt my way a lot in terms of resourcing the day-to-day class tasks. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Factors which can affect the success of curriculum change are quite broad (Gilbert, 2011b; Sims & Sims, 2004; Smith, 2008). This is because “teachers are at the centre of curriculum change, but their preparedness (in both senses of the word) cannot be assumed” (Gilbert, 2011b, p. 11). It was noted by Teacher 1 that the success of the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography could become jeopardised due to the pressure placed on teachers to comply. Teacher 1 stated “I think the problem is if it becomes just another piece of paper, if it becomes just another new thing that has to be fitted into a teacher’s life then that’s when it doesn’t get implemented properly” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Therefore “leaders of curriculum change need the capacities to engage teachers in committing to the process” (Gilbert, 2011b, p. 11), for without such commitment curriculum change would ultimately fail. Schools would therefore find it easier to transition to a new curriculum if they had motivated and experienced staff who were capable of involving all members of staff in the developmental process so that they feel like, and ultimately become, valued team members. However, schools would struggle if they did not have teachers who were willing to engage with, and lead such processes.

6.6 Middle management

The Social Science teachers and administration team maintained that the new curriculum implementation was made easier by having a staff member (such as a Head of Department) who was informed and knowledgeable about the discrete subject disciplines and the impending changes. Therefore, middle management at the school could be perceived as having greater agency within the network. Administrator 2 stated “I had confidence in the staff here... [so] I’ve really left that implementation up to those people who are passionate and knowledgeable in that area” (Administrator 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Likewise, Teacher 1 said:

We had a Subject Area Coordinator who was involved, who was passionate, who had an absolute interest in how it was going to – not what was happening but also how it was going to happen then things happened. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Teacher 1 outlined how passionate people can inspire others to move forward with change regardless of the unknown variables, when she said:

For me it's been other staff's knowledge and commitment and enthusiasm that have pulled me forward. I think that's human nature to be honest it comes back to that point I made before about it we don't learn together as teachers then it's just always going to be piecemeal. We need to be working collegiately, we need to be working interdependently and independently but I think for me that the main factor is having someone who knows and has a depth of understanding not just 'this is the paper what do we do' but where has this come from, why are we doing this, what place does this have within our school, our community, our district, our state, our nation so someone who can contextualise it, someone who understands the academic developmental underpinnings of it. So, you need a key person, and this is no surprise I don't think with the implementing of anything. What people do who don't have that I don't know. (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

The presence of motivated specialist staff who were willing to lead and motivate during the time of curriculum change assisted with the implementation of Australian Curriculum within the case study school, through their individual passion, and encouragement.

6.7 Technologies as actants

The utilisation of technology such as desktop computers and laptops (non-human actants) within the school also assisted with the transition to the Australian Curriculum. Teachers used their laptops to communicate via email and webinars with other teachers and organisations external to the school. This communication between actants in turn assisted with strengthening the network and also expanding it. Teachers also used their laptops on a daily basis to assist with preparing for their classes by creating resources and assessment items. Administrator 1 stated "the fact that we've got a one-to-one laptop program and most of our teachers are

confident in the use of the technology certainly helps teachers to be able to better implement the curriculum” (Administrator 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). However, Middle Manager 1 highlighted that not all staff to date have been up-skilled in the use of ICT, when she said:

The expectation is for all teachers to be using ICTs in their classroom to be able to deliver curriculum digitally not just the old talk and chalk. But what they haven’t done is given us time to teach our teachers how to do that. (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Time was therefore needed to upskill the teachers to ensure they were able to deliver the new curriculum using the latest technology. Teacher 5 found laptops were useful for student research and at assignment writing time. However, Teacher 5 also found that they were not encouraging students to use them much in normal classroom situations “because of the problems with students getting off task” (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 stated that “kids just want to play games all the time” and this has limited student laptop usage within the classroom (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 1 supported the inclusion of more technology into the classroom through the student laptop program, the issuing of laptops to teachers and the placement of data projectors in all classrooms. Teacher 1 said “I’ve tried to incorporate more into my teaching in the digital – access to digital technologies and digital texts are just an everyday part of the teaching lesson” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Ultimately, the use of ICT within schools is growing given the demand in the wider community. This technology (non-human actant) was being utilised by the teachers (actants) to assist with the implementation of the Australian Curriculum, although uptake was at varying levels based on the technological skills of the teacher.

6.8 Explicit instruction

Explicit instruction as a pedagogical approach to deliver the Australian Curriculum was accepted by actants of the network. Overall, the Social Science teachers were happy to use explicit instruction in the classroom. Most of them had already been using explicit instruction in their day to day teaching practice. Teacher 2 actually found it easier to implement explicit instruction with Geography than English “because it was based on more concrete skills and information” (Teacher 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 4 did not find that there was a change in their teaching practice as they were already using an explicit instruction approach (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 4 stated:

No matter how I do things it’s always done in very scaffolded, very accessible ways. I like to get a lot of high interest resources that really engage students so it’s funny it doesn’t seem to matter what darn outcomes, I’ve done all the different trends that have gone through in the last 22 years of teaching and the funny thing is it doesn’t seem to matter what the approach is, if you’re a teacher who enjoys your subject area and you really enjoy engaging students then you tend to find that all that changes is perhaps a resource here and there. But often in terms of being very explicit that hasn’t changed. I still do that the same as I’ve done that with any other course I’ve ever taught. (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Middle Manager 1 suggested that explicit instruction did change teaching pedagogy (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Middle Manager 1 stated:

It has changed teaching a little, but I expect that Australian curriculum will continue on its path as will Explicit Teaching [instruction]. They’re not necessarily joined at the hip but it’s two things that we need to do in Queensland and we’ve got to work through that,

so it must impact on our teaching pedagogy otherwise we're not following directive.

(Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

While Middle Manager 2, on the other hand, suggested that it should not change teaching pedagogy but rather be an addition to it, when she stated:

I think that all teachers have a particular way they teach and regardless of the curriculum or syllabus or the lesson intent. They're going to pick up that document, they're going to pick up what they have to do and they're going to teach in the way that they're designed to teach. I think that for a document to tell you, you have to talk about this for five minutes and then talk about this for five minutes and then you do a group discussion for five minutes, I don't think that – we're creating robots. We're not creating teachers and teaching is a profession where you allow your human side to come out and you allow those connections and the rapport building and C2C, from what I've seen, does not allow for that. I think it has affected my pedagogy in terms of adapting to the region priorities of explicit teaching. It's affected my pedagogy in trying to fit everything in and take on board some of their things and try new things out and reflect on them. But, as a teacher I refuse to follow a document that tells me what to do every second of my lesson because I don't feel that they know my students and I'm stubborn. (Middle Manager 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Middle Manager 2 perceived that explicit instruction should be another tool in a teacher's toolkit rather than the only tool (Middle Manager 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Middle Manager 2 also highlighted how the C2C resources (non-human actants) exhibited higher agency at the expense of other actants (teachers) (Middle Manager 2, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Teacher 5, on the other hand, did not find that the directive to use an explicit instruction methodology had impacted on her teaching pedagogy in Geography, due to her lack of a Geographical background (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Teacher 5 stated:

I would if I actually had more of a [Geographical] background. I would do more explicit teaching activities with them but I'm starting from scratch so sometimes it's a matter of surviving through the content. Definitely the more times I teach it I can implement explicit teaching. And, I have done that with some of the units that were already introduced last year but the ones that are new yeah it's just been a matter of how do I teach this, how do I get through the content that's needed for the assessment so yeah. (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012)

Social Science teachers were confident in their capacity to act in the classroom using an explicit instruction approach. However, some non-specialist staff members were struggling to adopt an explicit instruction approach as a part of their teaching pedagogy when delivering Social Science subjects, due to the large amount of content that had to be covered. The use of an explicit instruction approach can therefore both enable and constrain the enactment of History and Geography. The explicit instruction approach enables teachers to teach historical and geographical knowledge and skills in a logical and methodical way, but it can constrain teachers as they may find this approach too confining for them.

At Western High School the typical lesson sequence follows the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching whole school approach to explicit instruction (Fleming, 2011), known as the 'I do, we do, you do' approach, which was adapted from the Pearson and Gallagher's Gradual Release of Responsibility Model (1983) and the model created by Archer and Hughes (2011) (See Figure 5, Chapter 3.8). The use of the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching was

perceived by some of the Social Science teachers at Western High School as being too confining in its 'I do, we do, you do' scaffolded approach. Teachers 1 and 3 explained how sometimes the entire 70-minute lesson consisted of just one step, or a combination of one or two of the steps the 'I do' step or the 'we do' step or the 'you do' step rather than all three steps (Teacher 1 and Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). While other lessons could be the 'I do and we do' steps or the 'we do and you do' steps or the 'I do and you do' steps (Teachers 1 and Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012). It was therefore perceived that the Fleming Model didn't really suit a secondary school as well as it did a primary school where there was more flexibility in the timing of lessons. Therefore, the school differentiated the Fleming Model so that in the secondary school it was acceptable to teach an entire lesson on the any of the 'I do', 'we do' or 'you do' steps. Despite their initial concerns regarding the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching, the Social Science teachers were still positive about using an explicit instruction approach in their daily teaching. Like Gerstein and Baker (2001), the Social Science teachers observed that the explicit instruction approach helped to improve student results through the use of more frequent teacher/peer guided feedback and instruction. The Social Science teachers also highlighted how it was easier for both the students and the teachers to track achievement of learning objectives through the use of an explicit instruction approach (Laslye, Matczynski, & Rowley, 2002). Therefore, despite some reservations regarding the suitability of the Fleming Model of Effective Teaching, the Social Science teachers accepted the need to create lessons for History and Geography that complied with the suggested explicit instruction scaffolded approach.

6.9 Chapter summary

In summary, the enabling and constraining themes that influenced curriculum change could be both positive and negative. It was firstly observed how the success of the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography could become jeopardised due to the pressure placed on teachers to comply. However, the use of encouragement from other actants in the network enhanced the engagement amongst the teachers during the process of curriculum change. Political and ideological power/knowledge relationships also influenced and shaped processes of curriculum change within the school. For instance, teachers enacted their agency by being more assertive and vocal, but all of the Social Science teachers' perspectives were considered.

The use of Actor Network Theory (ANT) for investigating this case of curriculum change highlighted how the agency and engagement of various actants (whether human or non-human) fluctuated at times within the network. Enablers of curriculum change included: greater ownership amongst Social Science staff over the proposed new History and Geography curriculum, as they would be able to develop the units, resources and assessment items; an informed middle management; the wide use of ICT in the classroom; and the use of an explicit instruction pedagogical approach. Additionally, the lack of textbooks or lesson resources (C2C) encouraged the Social Science teachers of Western High School to take greater ownership over the curriculum programs through the creation of their own resources to assist in the delivery of Historical and Geographical content and skills. The research found that constraints of the curriculum change included the lack of specialist History and Geography teachers; the lack of professional development available for teachers; resourcing constraints; concern regarding how to deliver the Australian Curriculum in enough depth given time

constraints; and the apparent lack of value afforded to Geography due to time recommendations which relegated it to an elective study for Years 9 and 10. History was notably more valued within Queensland than Geography as it was compulsory until the end of Year 10. Structural implications that assisted the network of actants within Western High School with enabling curriculum change included support from the school's administration team in mandating the study of Geography until the end of Year 10, and the capacity of experienced and specialist teachers within the staffroom who were willing to assist and support other Social Science teachers during the transition process.

The presence of specialist teachers could both enable curriculum change as well as constrain it. However, although a specialist teacher has the capacity to implement the discrete discipline successfully it does not mean that they would spend as much time planning and preparing, and perhaps their lesson would not be as effective as it could be. Similarly, the school timetable could both enable curriculum change as well as constrain it. Western High School's middle management and administrators' decision to support compulsory Geography teaching until the end of Year 10 reflected their perceived value of the discipline within the school.

The presence of motivated middle managers assisted with the implementation of the Australian Curriculum within the case study school. However, the lack of motivated staff can inhibit curriculum change, as without such encouragement and support reluctant and resistant staff would find it hard (if not impossible) to become engaged with the curriculum change. Clearly, Western High School was fortunate to have both a Head of Department and Subject Area Coordinator who were willing to champion and promote such change in their school. While the focus of this chapter has been on the various actants in the change process and

interplay principally between school staff and structural actants, the next chapter (Chapter Seven) will discuss the specific role of teacher agency in curriculum change.

7.0 Teacher's agency in curriculum change

The previous chapter examined the engagement of all actants by identifying particular themes which enabled and constrained the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. The Actor Network theoretical framework was useful in illuminating the messiness and complex nature of curriculum change within the case study school. Actor Network Theory (ANT) also gives new insights into teacher's work and their agency in curriculum change. This chapter will now focus on the agency of teachers to provide a greater understanding of how such teacher agency influences other actants and their engagement in the network during the curriculum change process.

7.1 Illustrations of teacher agency

The agency of teachers in the study was influenced by their forms of engagement in the network. Agency is an "effect of different forces, including actions, desires and capacities and connections that move through her [him], as well as the forces exerted by the texts and technologies in all educational encounters" (Fenwick & Edwards, 2010, p. 21). More specifically, the agency of human actants denotes the effect of forces and desires to influence action, while the agency of non-human actants highlights their capacity to influence action through their various connections and interactions. The agency exhibited by the teachers in this case study fluctuated depending on: the power associated with school structures and hierarchies; a teacher's disciplinary background; the advantages and disadvantages of staffrooms; and belonging to multiple networks.

7.1.1 Structures and hierarchies

School structures and hierarchies influenced the agency of teachers in the case study school. In my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator I had to be conscious of my own institutional/structural power attached to the position and how I positioned other Social Science teachers within the network to engage and act. My formal leadership role combined with my previous experience in teaching History and Geography, and my professional values and identity shaped my agentic capacities. In my time as a teacher I have taught both Senior Ancient History, Modern History, and Senior Geography. At the time of the study I was also a Geography district panel member (today I am the District Geography panel chair). My strong support for the Social Sciences was also perceived by other Social Science teachers as illustrated by Teacher 1, who said “we had a Subject Area Coordinator who was involved, who was passionate, who had an absolute interest in how it was going” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). I enacted my agency through facilitating democratic/collaborative power structures. I preferred to encourage team work where all Social Science teachers could have a say in the final decision about the units and assessment items. During this process, my teacher agency was acknowledged but not allowed to commandeer the decision-making process. Furthermore, the Social Science teachers demonstrated their collective agency during this process to enact curriculum change as a team. A sense of belonging was also created amongst the human actants as it gave greater ownership of the units and the curriculum to the teachers.

I found that my teacher agency allowed me in my role as Social Science Subject Area Coordinator to assist other teachers to increase their teacher agency and engagement during the curriculum change process. For instance, I assisted Teacher 1 and Teacher 5 with upskilling

their geography skills in preparation for the implementation of discrete Year 8 and 9 Geography units, and I assisted Teacher 3 by peer tutoring her on historical knowledge. Such peer tutoring and upskilling was necessary as although the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy and I tried to ensure specialist teachers were able to teach in their preferred teaching areas, at times (due to timetable constraints), teachers had to teach outside their preferred fields. Peer tutoring and upskilling of teachers assisted with reframing the professional identities and roles of the teachers, and in turn influenced their agency and engagement within the curriculum change network. A wider implication for future professional learning opportunities is that it must be offered to all teachers in a school, as often, again due to timetable constraints, teachers were teaching outside of their primary disciplines.

My role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator saw me working with the Social Science staff as a team to begin the transition process to the new Australian Curriculum. As I was not actually their line manager in terms of performance review, the staff freely expressed their thoughts and opinions in relation to the draft curriculum and how they felt it best to implement it given the students in their classes. Wider implications of this for school structures is the need for both vertical and horizontal alignment of accountabilities within schools. The use of vertical and horizontal accountabilities enhanced the agency and engagement of teachers during curriculum change within Western High School. Vertical alignment ensured clear understanding of accountability for teachers while horizontal alignment enabled teachers to become more confident in their capacity as educators through the use of supportive leadership roles. All schools should have supportive leadership roles which are not performance based, so as to assist teachers with becoming both better educators and change agents (Marsh & Willis, 2007). The role of the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator in this study was more that of a facilitator of change or as a change agent (Marsh & Willis, 2007) in terms of guiding the

curriculum change process wherein, due to collegial encouragement and support, Social Science faculty staff attempted early adoption and implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography.

At the school level the structures and opportunities that could enable teacher agency in curriculum change was the opportunity for teachers to voice their concerns in meetings, discussions, and unit feedback. It is important to note that in my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator I did at times have to represent the teacher voice to the Head of Department English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy, and speak on behalf of the teachers to get final decisions that had been made by the History and Geography teams approved. On each occasion that I approached the Head of Department she was more than happy to support the teachers, as she had full confidence in them as professionals to make the best decisions for the students. The Head of Department's value-laden decision making during such occasions highlighted her conscious choice to support me in my role as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator and the Social Science teachers (Dinan-Thompson, 2005; Young, 1971). It should also be noted that an unconscious choice could be the Social Science teachers' collective acceptance of the content of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography, due to their varying levels of disciplinary knowledge but their strong understanding of the inquiry approach (Young, 1971). The role of structures and hierarchies is therefore significant in discussions of teacher agency within the case study school.

7.1.2 Disciplinary identities and teacher agency

Teacher's disciplinary identities co-constituted agency and were usually strongly shaped by their disciplinary background or lack thereof. Typically, the Social Science teachers of

Western High were quite positive about the proposed transition to the discrete History and Geography curriculum as opposed to that of the SOSE Essential Learnings. During an informal discussion prior to a faculty meeting the Social Science teachers all expressed that they had concerns about SOSE prior to its implementation whereas they did not feel the same concern about the proposed national curriculum, rather they were “looking forward to the change” (Teacher 3, personal communication, December 7, 2012) and agreed that “it was about time” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). The Social Science teachers were also quite positive about the purpose of the new curriculum, and agreed with the purpose and aims of the *Australian Curriculum: Geography Shape Paper* which was designed to give students “the geographical understanding needed to make sense of their own world, an appreciation of the diversity, complexity and interdependence of places and their peoples” (ACARA, 2011b, p. 32). They also agreed with the *Australian Curriculum: History (version 1.1)* which was aimed at ensuring that students developed “interest in, and enjoyment of...knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the past and the forces that shape societies” (ACARA, 2010e, p. 1). Therefore, the Social Science teachers chose to shift away from SOSE towards a discrete History and Geography curriculum well before they were required to do so, as they firmly believed that this shift away from SOSE would assist with not only improving their student results but also in creating more active and informed citizens. Hence, supporting the growing belief that changes that occur in the school curriculum were “fundamental to people’s lives” (Paechter, 2000, p. 3).

All teachers belong to multiple networks which influences both their discipline identity and agency (e.g. their family network, friend network, sport/hobby network, History/Geography teacher network, Social Science teacher network, school network, Queensland History Teachers’ Association network) and often these networks compete against

each other to ensure interessement by attracting them to their network and consequently forcing disengagement from other networks (albeit often temporarily). McNeil (2003) suggested that the engagement of teachers in curriculum development can be diminished by standardised testing. However, a teachers' influence on the enacted curriculum can be very powerful, as it is "not casual or incidental... teachers always make decisions about how curricula are enacted in their classrooms" (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 307).

Teacher 4, an experienced senior teacher, demonstrated change fatigue wherein she became resistant to the continual modifications to the enacted curriculum and pedagogy within the various schools that she had taught in during her teaching career. Despite this apparent disengagement her engagement and teacher agency did increase as time progressed as she was persuaded by the agency of the other Social Science teacher actants within the network to assist with the transition. Therefore such "resistance is not unchangeable" (Hökkä, Vähäsantanen, & Mahlakaarto, 2017, p. 37). Although for a teacher actant to transition away from resistance and become more positively engaged they need to feel supported (Hökkä et al., 2017; Sannino, 2010). Evidently, the agency of teachers can fluctuate during the curriculum change process and can be influenced by the agency and engagement of other actants.

In relation to the identity and roles of the Social Science teachers I had to be careful not to simplify their agency by associating their identity and role with one discipline and not another within the network. This was because collective identities (i.e., Geography teachers or History teachers) might, in reality, simplify their involvement. However, teachers would associate their own identity and role as a History or Geography teacher upon being allocated to classes as per the timetable. This in turn assisted with empowering the staff to become specialist History or Geography teachers, in that they would no longer be just a generalist

teacher. Again, their engagement in the network and their teacher agency appeared to be heavily influenced by their personal and professional experiences as teachers. This was due to the fact that they were all experienced teachers who had taught in a number of schools, and that experience helped them to reposition and navigate the impending curriculum change.

The formal allocation of subjects was catalyst for a reframing of teacher associations with particular sets of disciplinary knowledge and skills. The extent to which institutionally nominated identities or the identities nominated by multiple, shifting, dynamic associations were congruent with how the teachers constructed their own professional identity was unclear. There may have been confusion when there was more than one identity and role that a teacher could be identified as having, for example Geography teacher, History teacher and Social Science staff member, the problem being that how can someone else allocate the teacher when they themselves are unsure as to which identity and role they feel more strongly aligned to (if any). For example, in regard to my own agency and how it was shaped by my past experiences, I felt strongly aligned to both the identity and role of a History teacher and the identity and role of a Geography teacher in terms of the authority that comes from the senior subjects. I spent equal time studying these fields at university as well as teaching these disciplines to students over my teaching career (having taught senior Ancient History, Modern History, and Geography). This in turn made me as the researcher feel quite empowered in discussions with other Social Science teachers concerning the History or Geography curriculum. Teacher 5, for example, expressed a self-concept that was less agentic. During a faculty meeting when the conversation turned to discuss the Year 8 History curriculum Teacher 5 resisted involvement when she stated: "I'm not sure, you had better ask one of the History teachers" (Teacher 5, personal communication, December 7, 2012). This statement highlighted the teacher's self-concept as a non-History teacher and her self-efficacy as a non-specialist teacher who was not

as capable as that of a trained History teacher in producing the same level of student results. However, given that Teacher 5 had been teaching junior Geography for a year prior to the interview with me (as the researcher), Teacher 5 *did* start to demonstrate some alignment to the identity and role as a Geography teacher. Teacher 5 expressed to me (as the Social Science Subject Area Coordinator) in a check-in meeting that she was “starting to like the logical format of Geography and its inquiry process” (Teacher 5, personal communication, August 16, 2012). Therefore, it was apparent that the agency of Teacher 5 had been influenced by both her professional and personal experiences as a teacher. Clearly, my disciplinary background in History and Geography assisted in maintaining my agency and engagement in the network whereas the agency and engagement of Teacher 5 increased over time as her disciplinary knowledge increased.

In the same way, the agency of teachers involved in the development of units fluctuates depending on their identity and role within the network. As part of the curriculum implementation process teachers would swap between phases during the development of lessons so as to assist other actants. For example, Teacher 1 (who had a History disciplinary background) expressed that she wasn't as proficient as other teacher actants at creating new Geography lessons due to her lack of disciplinary expertise, but that she was capable of providing feedback on the effectiveness of lessons and assessment items that she had taught due to her years on the senior English panel. Clearly, Teacher 1 exhibited lower levels of agency during the creation of new Geography lessons and exerted higher levels of agency during the review and refinement of lessons and assessment items. However, as time progressed Teacher 1 also exhibited growing confidence in developing new lessons due to the increase in her disciplinary knowledge of Geography and her understanding of the needs of the

students in her class. Clearly, the agency and engagement of teachers in the network can fluctuate during curriculum change.

Such processes of change also highlight how power relationships are reshaped between individuals and institutions during the selection and organisation of historical and geographical knowledge. For example, in terms of the Australian Curriculum History Year 9 depth study electives, schools determine whether students investigate in depth the history of Australia or an Asian society in the period 1750-1918 (ACARA, 2012g). By investigating an Asian society during the period 1750-1918 students have the opportunity to examine topics such as the confrontation between Japan and Western powers (for example the Russo-Japanese war) and the emergence of Japan as a major world power, whereas if they chose to study the Making A Nation (Australian History) depth study students would investigate how the major social legislation of the Federal Government affected living and working conditions in Australia (ACARA, 2012g). This determination by a school, through the choices of its teachers and Head of Department (Middle Manager) of the depth study electives, would give greater power and agency to some knowledge at the expense of other knowledge. Therefore, the process used by teachers to determine which units were selected became significant in terms of influencing or shaping the process of change in the school. If the final decision rested with one person, they would have greater power and agency than that of other staff members. Typically, it would be assumed that Subject Coordinators or Head of Departments would have more power than teachers. However, in the case study school the Head of Department and Social Science Subject Coordinator worked with their Social Science staff to determine the depth study electives, decisions that were based on resource availability. Some teachers exercised greater agency in being more vocal during the determination of the chosen elective depth studies, but all of the Social Science teacher's perspectives were considered. Therefore, this use of a consultative

process highlighted how political and ideological power/knowledge relationships influenced and shaped processes of curriculum change within the school.

7.1.3 Teacher agency and the materiality of teachers' work

Co-location and shared space enabled closer and more frequent interactions within the network. The staffroom configuration within Western High School also assisted with creating multiple networks. The Western High School English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy staffroom was not limited to that of one disciplinary area as was typical of a “balkanised culture” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 213) as the staffroom consisted of teachers with English, Social Science and/or LOTE backgrounds. Yet there was a strong presence of collaboration and collegiality amongst the teacher actants within the staffroom. The collaboration and collegiality amongst the teachers assisted with creating and strengthening interactions and relationships amongst the teacher actants during the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. This in turn helped to create a sense of belonging amongst the teachers within the staffroom. The staffroom configuration also influenced the engagement and agency of teacher actants in the curriculum change network. The teachers voluntarily worked together in the staffroom on planning and developing unit overviews, assessment items, lessons, and resources. They would also begin and participate in informal discussions during lunch times to seek advice or suggestions from other teachers within the staffroom on the unit or assessment item that they were working on. Clearly, the collaboration and collegiality amongst the teachers could influence the engagement and agency of teacher actants during the process of curriculum change.

The materials and technologies available in the staffroom also influenced curriculum change and teacher agency. For example, one of the teachers saw the transition away from OHT's (Over Head Transparencies) to using Microsoft PowerPoint and data projectors as challenging. Potentially this would have created disengagement of the experienced teacher from the network; however, the collective agency of the other Social Science teachers supported and helped her during the transition. To ensure this teacher didn't disengage she was paired up with other teachers so that she could still use her knowledge and expertise to assist with the development of units while she developed her typing skills. This was done in a supportive manner where the teacher did not feel threatened or overwhelmed. The allocation of school resources and technologies to assist with the implementation process by the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy also helped to increase the agency of teachers. By allocating specific homerooms to teachers (rooms which had data projectors and speakers), providing funding for teacher resources (e.g., photocopying student worksheets, the purchasing of textbooks and documentary DVDs), and allocating time for planning, enabled teachers to increase their engagement in the network and consequently their agency.

It was also noted how if the teacher agency of an actant in a network alters or reduces it may create disengagement of other actants within the network. For example, when the HOD English, Social Science, LOTE and Literacy (Middle Manager 1) chose to relocate to another school to take up a similar position there was a period in which there was potential for the teacher actants to become disengaged. However, the collective agency of the Social Science teachers remained strong during this transition and the replacement (acting) HOD English Social Science, LOTE and Literacy (Middle Manager 2) was able to become emerged and engaged in the network due to her interactions with the teachers. Middle Manager 2 explained during an informal meeting with me how she "didn't want to cause waves", rather she wanted

to see how we worked together and provide the necessary support to us so that we could successfully implement the Australian Curriculum History and Geography (Middle Manager 2, personal communication, August 17, 2012).

7.2 Collaboration, collegiality, and collective agency

Curriculum change is a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous in nature. According to Hargreaves (1994) a number of academics considered the “keys to educational change” as being teacher collaboration and collegiality (p. 188). Hargreaves (1994) outlines how collaboration and collegiality amongst teachers can take the form of “team teaching, collaborative planning, peer coaching, [and] mentor relationships” (p. 188). Hargreaves (1994) suggested that collaboration and collegiality promoted “professional growth and internally generated school improvement, they are also widely viewed as ways of securing effective implementation of externally introduced change” (p. 186).

The Social Science teachers of Western High School exhibited high collective teacher agency. Hökkä et al. (2017) suggested that the crucial issue for building such collective agency amongst actants was “the development of trust... [as] everyone needed the experience of being seen, heard, understood, and accepted as a group member” (p. 44). The Social Science teachers’ bond as educators, women and mothers meant that they maintained their strong personal identification despite their discipline-specific History or Geography sub-group formation. They often celebrated each other’s birthdays (with morning teas) and shared their concerns about their children within the staffroom. The resultant high levels of trust and respect between the teachers meant that even when some of them were reluctant to engage with phases of the curriculum change process they were persuaded to by the collective agency of their peers. It

also meant that their teacher agency and engagement increased within the network due to the help and support that was provided to them by other Social Science teachers. Although at first appearances such collegiality between the teachers could be daunting or intimidating to new teachers who joined the staffroom, the group were very welcoming to all new staff members (whether permanent or contract) and often maintained contact with these teachers if they left the school community.

The collective teacher agency exhibited by the Social Science teachers was able to persuade both administrators and the school auditors of the need for, and the success of, the early implementation of the Australian Curriculum. The school administrators had supported the decision-making process of the middle management team which chose to support the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography and the decision to make Geography compulsory until the end of Year 10 despite the Australian Curriculum Geography not being finalised. This highlighted how they believed that the Social Science staff were capable of implementing such change and how such change would be beneficial for their students in becoming active and informed citizens. Additionally, although school administrators in their positions have greater institutional power than Social Science teachers during decision making processes, in this case their power and agency was reduced due to the collective agency of the Social Science teachers and the middle management team.

Given that most of the Western High School Social Science teachers had not participated in the curriculum consultation process, the influence of their individual and collective teacher agency on the development of the Australian Curriculum was minimal. More dedicated time at work was needed for teachers to have greater input into the consultation process. Despite the lack of consultation, the Social Science teachers were relatively happy with the Australian

Curriculum in the first instance as it created discrete disciplines of History and Geography although they were concerned about the depth of the topics, given the time available in the timetable.

The teachers themselves participated in professional growth not only by attending relevant professional development when offered, but also through upskilling and supporting each other. Hargreaves (1994) elaborated on how the creation of teacher collaboration and collegiality promoted “effective school-based curriculum development” (p. 186). Hargreaves (1994) saw the failure of curriculum change as being partly attributable “to the failure to build and sustain the collegial working relationships essential to their success” (p. 186). Collaboration and collegiality amongst teachers therefore:

Form significant planks of policies to restructure schools from without and to improve them from within. Much of the burden of educational reform has been placed upon their fragile shoulders. School improvement, curriculum reform, teacher development and leadership development are all seen to some extent as dependent on the building of positive collegial relationships for their success. Consequently, while collaboration and collegiality are not themselves usually the subject of national, state or provincial mandates, their successful development is viewed as essential to the effective delivery of reforms that are mandated at national or local levels. (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 187)

This was apparent in Western High School where the Social Science staff worked together to successfully implement the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. By the Social Science staff working together to transition away from SOSE towards the Australian Curriculum it could be considered a situation that promoted “contrived collegiality” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195). Hargreaves (1994) maintained that during such situations of contrived collegiality, “teachers’ collaborative working relationships are not spontaneous,

voluntary, development-oriented, fixed in time and space and predictable” (p. 195). However, I would argue that the situation at Western High School evolved spontaneously from the initiative and collective agency of the Social Science teachers rather than administration. So arguably, while some were reluctant (it was not voluntary) for others it was development orientated.

Another feature of contrived collegiality was that it was compulsory in nature where in staff had to work together (Hargreaves, 1994). However, the situation at Western High School highlighted how some of the Social Science teachers were reluctant to step into a new/less familiar discipline, but the experienced teachers collectively navigated the change and were active in shaping that at a school level. As Teacher 1 stated “an important part of implementing a new program is everyone who’s teaching it needs to feel like they belong to it and they’re involved in it” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Therefore, the Social Science teachers were able to have ownership over the new programs and were willing to be involved in the transition process. In this way, contrived collegiality was also implementation-orientated where teachers were:

Required or ‘persuaded’ to work together to implement the mandates of others – most directly those of the principal, or head teacher, or indirectly those of the school district or Ministry. Such mandates may take the form of a national curriculum, accelerated learning programs, or cooperative learning strategies. (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195)

The Social Science staff of Western High School were all highly experienced teachers and had been working in the same staffroom for a number of years, and had developed strong bonds of friendship, so they did not need to be persuaded to work together, as they did this on a regular basis without being instructed or directed to by the Head of Department or Social Science Subject Area Coordinator. Although Teacher 5 had to be persuaded at first to shift towards

discrete History and Geography disciplines she saw value in the transitioning away from SOSE. All the other Social Science teachers were supportive from the inception of the transition. As Teacher 1 said “for me it’s been other staff’s knowledge and commitment and enthusiasm that have pulled me forward... we need to be working collegiately, we need to be working interdependently and independently” (Teacher 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Therefore, although one Social Science teacher had to be persuaded at the onset of the transition away from SOSE, the majority of the Social Science staff did not need to be persuaded or coerced to assist. Hargreaves (1994) determined that there were two consequences of contrived collegiality, namely:

Inflexibility and inefficiency...the inflexibility of mandated collegiality makes it difficult for programs to be adjusted to the purposes and practicalities of particular school and classroom settings. It overrides teachers’ professionalism and the discretionary judgement which comprises it. And it diverts teachers’ efforts and energies into stimulated compliance with administrative demands that are inflexible and inappropriate for the settings in which they work. (p. 208)

The Western High School Social Science teachers chose to work together on the development of units and also had full authority over the development of the unit overviews, lesson plans, resources, and assessment for the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. This could indicate that the contrived collegiality as witnessed in this case study did not have the same negative representation as has been documented in other studies as the teachers could create units that were suited to their classroom environments, the available technology, and the varying needs of their students (Hargreaves, 1994). Furthermore, the contrived collegiality did not override the teachers’ professionalism or their discretionary judgement, rather I believe it

enhanced it, because it enabled the Social Science teachers to learn from each other through the sharing of their experience and expertise.

Collaboration and collegiality amongst teachers could be considered a way that divides or “separates teachers into insulated and often competing sub-groups within a school”, for example, Mathematics teachers and Social Science teachers, or primary school teachers and secondary school teachers (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 213). This type of teacher culture is referred to as “balkanised” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 213). According to Hargreaves (1994) the balkanised culture of teachers is defined by “particular patterns of interrelationships among teachers. In balkanised cultures, these patterns mainly consist of teachers working neither in isolation, nor with most of their colleagues as a whole school, but in smaller sub-groups within the school community” (p. 213).

There were four qualities that distinguish the balkanised culture of teachers namely: low permeability; high performance; personal identification; and political complexion (Hargreaves, 1994, pp. 213-214). The quality of low permeability refers to how sub-groups are:

Strongly insulated from each other. Multiple group membership is not common. Balkanised teachers belong predominantly and perhaps exclusively to one group more than any other... and membership are clearly delineated in space with clear boundaries between them. (Hargreaves, 1994, pp. 213-214)

As stated earlier, the staffroom configuration at Western High School saw Social Science, English and LOTE teachers sharing the same staffroom, so in this way it was not considered a true balkanised culture. However, the Social Science teachers still aligned strongly to the Social Science department, except for Teacher 5 who transitioned across and only acknowledged belonging towards the end of the study. The alignment of teachers as Social Science teachers did not inhibit their capacity to expand their current network or to create new networks during

this process of curriculum change, rather it enhanced it. The Social Science teachers freely contacted a number of external organisations for support with the transition to the Australian Curriculum, including the Queensland History Teachers' Association, the Geography Teachers' Association of Queensland, district panel chairs and/or panel members, universities, and other teachers outside of the school. Clearly, sub-groups such as the Social Science teachers, while bounded by their staffroom, *did* have network memberships with others outside of their staffroom.

In terms of high permanence (where groups tend to remain together throughout the years) this was also true of the staff at the case study school. Some Social Science teachers did come and go from the network due to sick leave, long service leave, and maternity leave, although their teacher identities and roles did remain "relatively stable" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 214) for the two-year period because they did not just consider themselves secondary school teachers but also specialist Social Science teachers. In this way the Social Science teachers illustrated personal identification as Social Science teachers and *did* distance themselves to some extent from other teachers, e.g., Social Science teachers didn't interact very often with HPE (Health and Physical Education) teachers (only at full staff meetings or morning teas) as they were located at the other end of the school and did not teach in the same General Learning Areas as the Social Science teachers. This was because under the new primary and secondary school model that was adopted by Western High School teachers were allocated to staffrooms based on their primary area of specialisation, whereas under the old Middle School model teachers from different subject specialisations shared staffrooms (e.g. one SOSE teacher, one English teacher, one Mathematics teacher, one HPE teacher all in the same staffroom), and so got to interact with teachers from other areas on a daily basis. The high permanence amongst the Social Science teachers was also enhanced by their further identification as either History or

Geography teachers. The teachers were able to create smaller teams or networks within the curriculum change network and in doing so this further strengthened their teacher agency in the network. However, despite this discipline specific History or Geography sub-group formation the Social Science teachers did not distance themselves from each other. Rather, their bond as educators, women, and mothers, meant that they maintained their strong personal identification as Social Science teachers. Hargreaves (1994) also suggested that the balkanised culture of teachers also have:

A political complexion to them. Teacher sub-cultures are not merely sources of identity and meaning. They are repositories of self-interest as well. Promotion, status and resources are frequently distributed between and realised through membership of teacher subcultures. These goods are not distributed evenly, nor are they contested by different subcultures on equal terms.... In balkanised cultures, there are winners and losers. There is grievance and there is greed. Whether they are manifest or muted, the dynamics of power and self-interest within such cultures are major determinants of how teachers behave as a community. (pp. 214-215)

Middle Manager 1 indicated the concept of ‘winners and losers’ in relation to the amount of time allocated to disciplines in the Western High timetable when she stated:

Getting the extra time is very difficult and I think we’ve got a major challenge with regards to time requirements needed for each of these core areas... we’ve had to pinch minutes from here and lose minutes to other areas (Middle Manager 1, personal communication, December 7, 2012).

Similarly, Teacher 4 highlighted this struggle for additional time when she said the allocation of time for lesson delivery was “a massive, massive issue” (Teacher 4, personal communication, December 7, 2012). Any additional time for History and Geography would

have been at the expense of other elective disciplines given the current timetable structure. Clearly, as Hargreaves (1994) determined “imbalances of power and status between tightly bounded groups make it difficult for teachers to reach common agreement in areas that threaten their career opportunities, resources or conditions of work” (p. 215).

Despite the apparent struggle for time, middle management and administration chose to support the early transition away from SOSE to the discrete disciplines of History and Geography. Although Hargreaves (1994) suggested that when major innovations (such as the Australian Curriculum) were introduced it would divide teachers into supporters and opponents, in this case it actually assisted Western High School by creating a stronger school community that was supportive of the Social Science department (and its teachers). Therefore, there was no risk that such curriculum change “would be aborted or defeated for want of shared understanding and support” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 226). The collaboration and collegiality amongst the teachers was strengthened by this curriculum change.

7.3 Chapter summary

This chapter examined the importance of teacher agency within curriculum change. The concept of teacher agency was firstly defined and then ways this agency manifests during curriculum change was discussed. When the agency of teachers was specifically examined in this study it highlighted how the forces and desires of the teachers created or influenced action. By the Social Science teachers becoming engaged in the network their agency assisted with the transition to the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. It also revealed how teacher agency influences other actants and their engagement in the network during the curriculum change process. This in turn highlighted how the Actor Network theoretical framework was

most appropriate for examining the multiple interactions and relationships that were present amongst the actants in the network during the process of curriculum change.

The chapter also discussed how teacher agency and engagement was not fixed, rather it fluctuated depending on the interactions and relationships of the actants. This aligns with Biesta and Tedder (2007) who claimed that actants “always act by means of their environment rather than simply in their environment” (p. 137). The study found that the agency of teachers fluctuated depending on the place and time, and the power associated with their position in the school hierarchy, their disciplinary background, the cross-curricula configuration of the staffroom, and their sense of belonging to multiple networks. The use of technology and the allocation of facilities and resources confirmed that non-human actants could also influence teacher agency and engagement within the network.

The collective agency of teachers was paramount in assisting the Social Science teachers to increase their agency and engagement within the network. Teacher collaboration and collegiality amongst the five teachers enabled them to form a close knit group of like mind which *did* in turn assist them with the successful implementation of curriculum transition. Although at first glance the teacher collegiality appeared to be contrived, in reality it was a voluntary and spontaneous initiative of the Social Science teachers. Therefore, although major innovations such as curriculum change can divide teachers this was not the case in Western High School, rather it created a stronger and more supportive school community. This is because the collaboration and collegiality amongst the Social Science teachers was strengthened by this curriculum change. Curriculum change is clearly a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous and pervasive in nature. The next chapter provides an overall

summation of key findings and implications, addresses the research problem, and suggests additional research that could be conducted in the near future.

8.0 Conclusion

The ubiquitous nature of curriculum change has become quite pervasive since Paechter (2000) wrote about how such change can be destabilising for teachers and schools. Through my investigation of the network, the incredible messiness and complexity surrounding the implementation of the curriculum change in the case study school became apparent, and this appeared to become more intricate and complex as time passed. In this concluding discussion I draw together the themes that have emerged that both enable and constrain the engagement and agency of teachers during the curriculum change process. This is in response to the research problem: *What is enabling and/or constraining actants' engagement and agency during the implementation of Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department in a regional Queensland secondary state school?*

Following my discussion of key findings, I examine the implications for policy and practice in relation to curriculum change. Finally, I suggest some future research opportunities, summarise my concluding thoughts, and draw some broad conclusions about the future of the discrete disciplines of History and Geography.

8.1 Case summary

The case study school, Western High School, is a P–12 government school located in regional Far North Queensland. While my research was confined to the Social Science department within the case study school, the use of an Actor Network theoretical framework was extremely useful in understanding the messiness and complexity of the curriculum change process. ANT also assisted in examining how different actants within the network came together and interacted during the process of framing curriculum change, and what enabled or

constrained their engagement and agency during the implementation process. The use of a descriptive case study methodology was ideal, given that I was teaching at the school at the time of the study and it allowed me to be both a participant and an observer in the study (Burns, 2000). I was able to integrate and make observations in our staffroom and classrooms to gain a deeper insight into the research problem.

Curriculum change is a very dynamic process and understandably it can create anxiety and uncertainty for some stakeholders when implemented too quickly. However, the findings demonstrated that teachers within this case study school were willing to change and were advocates of change when they saw the changes as beneficial for their students. Interestingly, despite awareness of the political debate surrounding the development of the curriculum there was minimal contestation surrounding the chosen content of the Australian Curriculum within the case study school. Teachers did not appear to assert any critique of the disciplinary specific historical and geographical content. Rather, teachers raised initial concerns about the value and status of the discrete Social Science disciplines and whether the time provided would be sufficient to teach the depth of the curriculum. Western High School administrators and middle management used their power and collective agency to support the transition by allocating equal time for History and Geography until the end of Year 10 despite Geography not being compulsory in wider Queensland after Year 8. The need for stand-alone discrete disciplines of History and Geography were considered as valuable and worthwhile within the case study school due to this allocation of time. Such processes of change illustrate how political and ideological power/knowledge relationships are shaped and reshaped between individuals and institutions.

8.2 Summary of findings

In this section I summarise the main findings in terms of the foci of my study. Firstly, I discuss the extent of alignment between the structure of the SOSE Essential Learnings and the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines with the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. I then explore the curriculum implementation processes undertaken by Western High's Social Science teachers including the planning, implementing of actions and review of actions during the implementation phase of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. Then I examine the major enablers and constraints of the curriculum change process, before finally examining the Social Science teachers' agency during the curriculum change process.

8.2.1 The extent of alignment

The interactions and relationships amongst various actants of the network illustrated the complexity and messiness of curriculum change in the translation and comparison with 'official' curriculum, and the implications for teaching and learning in the Social Sciences within a particular school locale and structure. To gain an understanding of the alignment of the structure of SOSE Essential Learnings and Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines with the Australian Curriculum History and Geography an assessment of the applicability of current assessment processes and practices was undertaken. There was some alignment and similarity, but the Australian Curriculum History and Geography organisers were simplified to allow for easier understanding by teachers and parents. The structural organisers of the SOSE Essential Learnings were simplified from four Knowledge and Understanding sub-strands, while the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines were simplified from three sub-strands to one under the Australian Curriculum (ACARA, 2011a; ACARA, 2011c; QSA, 2008; QSA, 2009). Additionally, the Australian Curriculum History was organised sequentially by time periods

with a notable emphasis on Australian History, while the Australian Curriculum Geography focused on two sub-strands, that of environmental geography and human geography (ACARA, 2011c; ACARA, 2011a).

Although there was some alignment between the SOSE Essential Learnings and the Year 10 History and Geography Guidelines with the new Australian Curriculum History and Geography approach, the new discrete disciplinary approach was the preferred curriculum model for junior secondary Social Sciences in Australia. The Australian Curriculum's discrete History and Geography approach was seen as less confusing and easier for teachers to map both horizontal and vertical alignment between all subjects. It also enabled Social Science teachers to ensure that they were not unintentionally favouring one sub-strand over another in the multidisciplinary SOSE approach. This approach can therefore assist teachers with planning and preparing lessons and assessment items that enable students to meet the high, rigorous national education standards so as to become active and informed Australian citizens.

8.2.2 Exploration of the implementation process

This research explored the curriculum implementation processes, including the planning, and implementing of actions, and the review of actions undertaken by Western High's Social Science department during the implementation phase of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. In the first instance, the Social Science teachers' rationale for curriculum change addressed Western High's teachers concerns about SOSE and the gaps in their students' knowledge and understanding, a concern shared by other critics of SOSE prior to the release of the Australian Curriculum (Harris, 2008; Lidstone, 2006). Due to their concerns regarding SOSE, the Social Science teachers chose to support the early adoption of the Australian

Curriculum because they saw the introduction of discrete History and Geography disciplines as a better way to prepare their students for senior pathways. This early adoption occurred because SOSE was not working (as was shown by poor student achievement results) and was resulting in a devaluing of Social Science disciplines by students, parents, and the community alike. The same Social Science teachers also observed improvement in student historical and geographical knowledge, understanding, and skills because of this transition to the Australian Curriculum. This anecdotal improvement in student outcomes was later confirmed through an examination of the school's latest academic results. This early transition to the Australian Curriculum History and Geography achieved validation from the stakeholders at this case study school.

8.2.3 The major enablers and constraints

Several enablers and constraints were identified in relation to the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography at the level of the Social Science Department in Western High School. The presence of specialist staff, the allocation of time on the timetable and the role of middle managers could be perceived as both enablers and constraints during the process of curriculum change. Within the case study school, major enablers of the curriculum change included: the presence of specialist staff who were confident in transitioning to discrete disciplines; the perceived increase in status of disciplines due to the gaining of time on the timetable; the perceived ownership of the new curriculum programs by Social Science teachers; an informed middle management who were confident in their capacity to lead transition and implementation processes; the confident use of ICT and associated ICT skills in the classroom by teachers because of the one-to-one laptop program; and the use of the explicit instruction pedagogical approach in the classroom. However, there were also several constraints to

curriculum change including: concerns regarding time constraints for teachers to effectively plan and teach the new curriculum; budgetary constraints for schools to release staff for planning and/or to purchase new resources; the lack of suitable professional development to upskill staff; the lack of motivated staff (whether middle managers or teachers); and the lack of suitably qualified specialist History and Geography staff. The ambiguity in the enablers and constraints demonstrates the messiness of the interactions and shows how difficult it is to pose an effective curriculum change process. Enablers and constraints can therefore shape and reshape the extent to which the intent of the Australian curriculum is realised.

8.2.4 The social science teachers' agency

The study of networks highlighted that a wide variety of stakeholders (actants) were involved with the implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography in the case study school. All actants, whether human or non-human had agency in the network. Teachers, the primary human actants, used their agency to navigate competing demands and sometimes to resist in subtle, and not so subtle ways, these demands in their everyday practice. Similarly, the agency of teachers in this process of translation varied at different times but could be seen to influence the chosen curriculum. At times a teachers' influence was seen as being very powerful within the curriculum change network, it was "not causal or incidental" (Marsh & Willis, 2007, p. 307). For example, the agency of teachers adjusted from resistant to action to being willing to act and vice versa depending on the situation context. This varying teacher agency and engagement depended on the interactions and relationships of the actants (both human and non-human) within the network. This is an important finding, as much research suggests the teacher is the most influential factor. The agency of teachers also varied depending on other influencing factors such as their areas of teaching specialisation, the

number of years they had been teaching, the number of schools they had taught in, and the experiences they had had whilst teaching. For example, the extensive range of teacher experience and expertise amongst the actants assisted the teachers in increasing their agency and engagement, and the agency and engagement of other actants, during the process of curriculum change. Through the examination of the curriculum implementation network in the case study school it was apparent that heterogeneous actants within the network were able to take advantage of the opportunity to assert their agency, but that due to the complex social and material interactions within the network their agency was not able to be isolated. Nevertheless, key structures, resources, experiences, values, and characteristics, shaped and impacted on how agency manifested within the network.

The curriculum change network itself was made up of multiple interwoven and interconnecting networks due to the multiple identities or roles and memberships that actants had with other networks. Such multiple networks were at work at any one time within the school. Actants could also switch between identities, roles and the translation phases within the network depending on the situation at hand. For example, during the development of the new History units, teachers could switch between the phases to assist and support other teachers with refining, reviewing or reflecting on the unit or with implementing the lessons. They could also participate in (and influence) other networks at the school.

The collective agency of the Social Science teachers assisted in increasing their agency and engagement within the network, and in turn their capacity to act. At times, their collective teacher agency was quite high and powerful, and this assisted them with maintaining their professional identities as Social Science teachers despite their disciplinary specific History or Geography sub-group formations. This in part was due to their high levels of trust and respect

for each other and their strong bond as educators, women and mothers. This adds a personal interaction in agency not evidenced in earlier studies. The resultant collegiality amongst the teachers aided their collaboration and the consequential successful implementation of the Australian Curriculum History and Geography at Western High School. Although the collegiality amongst the Social Science teachers appeared to be contrived, it was a voluntary and spontaneous initiative of the teachers themselves with human and non-human actants. So, although curriculum change can divide teachers, in this case it actually assisted with creating a stronger and more supportive school community for Western High School. It was also apparent how at times the collective agency of the Social Science teachers and the middle management team was greater than that of the school administrators. Curriculum change can therefore be seen as a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous and pervasive in nature.

8.3 Limitations of this study

A limitation of this study was its scale, as only one school in regional Far North Queensland, and one Social Science department and its associated line managers, were interviewed and surveyed. Hence, the research findings were too small for any regional generalisations to be formed (Silverman, 2013). However, the use of the Actor Network theoretical framework and a case study methodology assisted with extracting rich subjective data despite it being a snapshot of a place in time (Reason & Bradbury, 2008). Therefore, caution had to be exercised in claiming validity beyond this case. The use of a descriptive case study allowed for greater investigation of the scope and depth of the case rather than just cause-effect relationships (Yin, 2003). The descriptive case study also allowed the researcher to be both a participant and an observer in the study, while potential researcher bias was overcome through the use of data triangulation (Burns, 2000). My position in the school and my

professional identity did, and will have, inevitably shaped my interpretation of the network. However, the consideration of other actant perspectives and the interrogation of materials and technologies assisted in minimising my bias. Data triangulation was also utilised to increase the validity of the findings and to ensure that I did not disproportionately favour my observations, opinions or views. Despite the aforementioned limitations, the use of an Actor Network theoretical framework and a case study methodology allowed for insightful and rich data to be collated and analysed.

8.4 Implications

In this section I discuss the implications of this case study at the school level, teacher level, and at the curriculum disciplinary level. I also discuss the implications for ANT at a theoretical level. At the school level, I discuss the gradual nature of the curriculum change, and how this assisted with successfully implementing the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. In relation to the teacher level I discuss the importance of a teacher's role and agency in fostering curriculum change. Finally, at the curriculum disciplinary level I discuss how the place of History and Geography is highly contested and how there could be further adjustments and refinements to their status over the coming months and years.

8.4.1 Implications for curriculum change at the school level

The curriculum change that occurred in Western High School was a gradual process (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). The gradualness of change was apparent in regard to the time it took the Social Science teachers to: consider and decide on whether they were willing to engage; check alignment between the existing SOSE units and resources; plan and prepare suitable History and Geography lessons, resources and unit overviews; review and reflect on the units

and assessment once they were taught so as to improve them before using them to teach in the following semester; and upskill each other as needed. Additionally, as new teacher actants joined and others left the network it was important to gain their view on the enacted curriculum. The Social Science teachers were also eager to compare how the History and Geography C2C units and assessment would align once they were released. Curriculum change could therefore be considered a continual process that cannot be achieved over a short period of time, especially given that all actants have agency but some oppose the change, ignore the change, or simply do not understand the need for change. Curriculum change is a continual “erratic or fortuitous process dominated by fads and pendulum-like swings from one ideology or theory to another” (Gilbert, 2011b, p. 3). Ravitch (2004) sums up these trends, as follows:

Many failed and forgotten innovations continue to live in schools where they were introduced with great fanfare and subsequently forgotten... some schools are like archaeological sites; digging would reveal layer after layer of fossilised school reforms and obsolete programs. (p. 36)

Gradual curriculum change allows the various stakeholders to see value in the proposed curriculum changes, not only for the wider community or nation, but for the students themselves. Although teachers need time to interpret and respond to curriculum change and the way it shapes their dynamic professional identity. When proposals for curriculum change are structural and considered outside the capacity of teachers to act on it limits their agency. However, the Social Science teachers gained greater agency through membership with various associations such as the Queensland Teachers’ Union, the Queensland History Teachers’ Association, and the Geography Teachers’ Association of Queensland. This membership also increased the collective agency of these organisations.

Future curriculum change at the case study school could therefore be successful if it is implemented gradually (over a number of phases) and on a small-scale (i.e., only a limited number of disciplines and year levels at a time) (Brady & Kennedy, 2014). However, given the notable loss of key experienced staff, who were trained as a consequence of the roll out of the new Australian Curriculum, there could potentially be greater anxiety amongst new teachers who have not previously experienced such transition. However, evidence gathered for the case study implies that the other teachers within the school would assist and support the new teachers by mentoring them through the transition process. These teachers could also assist the new teachers with building support networks with agencies, associations, and local universities. Conversely, new staff and graduates may be more open to such change and the support might be necessary for the 'routined' staff in the school environment. Furthermore, despite the willingness of some teachers to specialise in a particular discipline (History or Geography) there was a clear need for training and/or upskilling in their preferred area of the Social Sciences to assist with change. Professional learning had occurred amongst staff members within the school through peer tutoring, peer upskilling, and through the accessing of outside organisations. Some teachers were empowered by their experiences in these positions of peer accountability during the curriculum enactment. It could therefore be considered advantageous for Social Science staff to have access to disciplinary specialist staff when transitioning to new curriculum programs.

A wider implication for curriculum change within a school setting is that there are multiple enabling and constraining themes that influence its success. The provision of support and guidance from administrators, middle management, teachers and outside agencies and organisations (such as discipline specific teacher associations and local universities) is essential for supporting teachers during curriculum change processes. In addition, the study showed that

there are non-human resources and structures that are essential too. Support for teachers could take the form of peer tutoring, peer coaching, professional learning, and professional development. The presence of such support could create a sense of belonging to the curriculum change network and would in turn increase a teacher's inclination to support such change due to their greater feeling of ownership over the school curriculum.

Another implication of curriculum change within the case study school could be further review and revision of the curriculum. Once the teachers have had successive years of enactment they may identify concerns such as gaps or repetition within the knowledge and skills covered by the Australian Curriculum History and Geography. Due to the ubiquitous nature of curriculum change, teachers may find themselves concerned if further time constraints impact on the allocated time to teach the disciplines within the timetable e.g., the loss of time for History and Geography due to the implementation of Civics and Citizenship, or Business and Economics. The messiness and pervasive nature of the networks needs to be made explicit to teachers.

8.4.2 Implications for fostering teacher agency

Depending on the scale and nature of the curriculum change there are implications for supporting curriculum change—and specifically a teachers' role in that change—for Western High School that may also be applicable for consideration at other schools. Professional identities and epistemologies about teaching and learning shape the dispositions towards any change from outside the network. Professional judgements about the needs of learners are the overriding factor in the development of school curriculum programs. Arguably professional development was seen through this investigation as an input rather than a separate network.

The consequential supporting of teacher agency through a networked view could enable curriculum change to occur.

The co-location and staffroom configuration at Western High School encouraged teacher collaboration and collegiality amongst the five Social Science teachers in the case study school as it enabled them to form a close knit group of like mind and in turn assisted them with the successful implementation of curriculum transition. Providing teachers with the opportunity to work collaboratively in disciplinary groups on the development of units, lesson plans, and assessment items increased their engagement and collective agency within the network. Contrived collegiality did not override the teachers' professionalism or their discretionary judgement, rather a type of genuine and spontaneous collegiality enabled the Social Science teachers to learn from each other through the sharing of their experience and expertise (Hargreaves, 1994). Consequently, schools could find it easier to transition to a new curriculum if they had experienced staff who could include and involve all members of staff in the developmental process, so that they feel like, and ultimately become, valued team members with ownership over the curriculum.

Professional development in the networked view goes beyond an input model and could be framed holistically in policy and practice to support shifts in professional identities through peer learning, networking, and the creation of formal and informal spaces. Similarly, given budgetary and locational constraints, repeat sessions of the professional development need to be offered at different times and in different ways (for example, face to face, webinar, skype, online course). Funding for organisations to travel to different regional areas to run multiple professional development sessions (for example, over a number of days so as to allow more teachers to attend) is also needed so as to minimise locational constraints. In this way teacher

professional development could be considered a form of collective agency that enables curriculum change.

This study emphasised experiences within the case study network, but these have wider implications for educational policy, specifically in terms of national curriculum reform. Educational policy reforms by the Australian Government were aimed at aligning educational outcomes with national and global interests through the implementation and delivery of a national curriculum (Henderson, 2012). It was recognised that achieving such large-scale reform may be difficult (Henderson, 2012). Effective educational policy could consider and value the role that teachers play in its implementation. Teachers could also be given a greater sense of ownership over the curriculum that they are teaching. For example, teachers could assist with the reflection and review phase of the curriculum by considering how the chosen curriculum meets the current needs of students and the government expectation of creating active and informed citizens. This in turn could help teachers feel like their contributions and role as educational professionals is valued and respected by both their colleagues and line managers. Teachers could also be given the opportunity to create their own units, lessons, resources and assessment items in alignment with the Australian Curriculum as this could assist teachers (like it did with the Western High School teachers) to increase their sense of ownership of the curriculum and sense of self-worth as educators. The rigid adoption of C2C resources by schools could be seen as reducing the level of ownership that teachers have over the curriculum as they are not involved in the creation of units, lessons, resources or assessment items. Teacher education at universities could include pre-service teachers working both individually and in teams to develop curriculum units across a range of year levels and disciplines so as to better prepare graduates for when they enter the teaching profession. Teacher education at universities could also include making pre-service teachers aware of and

involved in networks of curriculum change. Furthermore, having teachers focus on the inquiry or skill based component of the units would increase the agency and engagement of graduate teachers when faced with the reality of having to teach a subject outside their disciplinary expertise. Teachers could be upskilled by fellow teachers (or other organisations) on the knowledge component of the unit, and understanding the way the inquiry process is similar across the Australian Curriculum would make the transition easier for non-disciplinary specialist teachers to adjust to the change.

Wider implications for policy and practice are that more opportunities need to be provided by administrators for teachers to build collegiality, both in small groups (faculty specific) and large groups (whole of staff) within and outside of the school. Additionally, the offering of more networking opportunities with other teachers and industry representatives in the district would be beneficial in building collective collegiality amongst teachers.

8.4.3 Implications for History and Geography

The place within a school curriculum for discrete History and Geography disciplines is often contested, and could potentially result in further rebranding or adjustments to the disciplines over the coming months and years both at the school level and the higher education level. There are strong rationales for maintaining both discrete History and Geography disciplines to assist students with developing their appreciation and understanding of the world. History assists students with developing their personal identity and understanding of the world in which they live by developing a historical consciousness of the way the past has influenced the present, and in turn how it could shape the future (Harris et al., 2012). Geography assists by creating individuals with an understanding of their place in the world and a strong sense of

place and space so that they can understand the contemporary world in which they live (Harris et al., 2012; Huckle, 1997). However, these rationales currently focus on the historical and geographical inquiry skills rather than the knowledge of the disciplines, such rationales could further heighten tension over teaching the breadth and the depth of the discrete disciplines in the time required.

A future iteration of curriculum change within the Social Sciences could relate to the implementation of the new senior Social Sciences (Ancient History, Modern History, and Geography) for Years 11 and 12, and the implementation of the Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS) in the primary years. If this occurred, teachers would need to be flexible to shift or adjust to the impending curriculum change. Strong networks of support (e.g., teacher associations and institutional support) could assist teachers with such processes of change. Another implication for curriculum change could be the requirement to have more pre-service teachers study a Social Science discipline in Years 11 and 12, or at university, to prepare them for the likelihood of having to teach a junior Social Science class given that subject specialisation may be constrained by such factors as timetabling, staffing and student enrolment.

8.4.4 Implications for Actor Network Theory

During the time of this study ANT has been used elsewhere (Elder-Vass, 2015; Harding, 2017; Kerr, 2016) and researchers have returned to using the hyphen in Actor-Network. I deliberately chose not to use the hyphen in Actor-Network. I contend that Latour (1999) was correct in his earlier writings where he chose to disregard the hyphen between Actor and Network. The use of the hyphen suggests a debate between agency and structure and a coupling

of terms rather than a “theory of the space or fluids circulating in a non-modern situation” (Latour, 1999, p. 22). I also discovered during my research that the term actor was too restrictive given its unintended favourable positioning of humans. As Latour (1996) himself laments the term ‘actor’ implies “a human intentional individual actor” (p. 372). The term ‘actant’ more appropriately describes how it can “literally be anything provided it is granted to be the source of an action” (Latour, 1996, p. 373). I therefore propose that Actant Network Theory would be a better name as it more accurately encompasses the interactions and relationships of all human and non-human actants in the network and is worthy of exploration in further studies.

8.5 Considerations for further research

In consideration of further research opportunities, an evaluation of a number of schools with different education systems (private or public) could be conducted to compare the enablers and/or constraints of curriculum change. Further investigation of other Social Science disciplines could also be undertaken, i.e., examining the curriculum implementation for the Civics and Citizenship or Business and Economics disciplines. Given the implementation of the senior Australian Curriculum syllabi has been postponed until 2019, perhaps examining the curriculum change process for these disciplines for Years 11 and 12 could also be investigated. Additionally, the current shift away from discrete Social Science disciplines in primary school back to a composite method of Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS) could also be investigated, to examine the advantages and disadvantages of moving into Year 7 from a multidisciplinary approach.

Further research using ANT to examine socio-material interactions during curriculum change or the influence of teacher agency and the nature of teachers' work could also be examined. Potentially expanding the number of actants examined within the curriculum change network could also be insightful. For example, this would be done by examining the agency of students, their parents, textbook providers, and online resource developers in the enacted curriculum. An in-depth analysis of the influence of curriculum change on student learning outcomes could also be useful in shaping a review of the enacted curriculum. Additionally, expanding the duration of the study to a longer period of time would provide rich subjective data on the engagement and agency of actants during the process of curriculum change (Burns, 2010).

8.6 Significance of the study and summary

In summation, this research used a network viewpoint to highlight the interactions and relationships of power and agency within the curriculum change process by a secondary Social Science department in regional Far North Queensland. This research focused not only on the curriculum change network but the bits and pieces (namely teachers, documents, and processes) that were heterogeneous actants within the network. The curriculum change network itself was made up of multiple interwoven and interconnecting networks due to the multiple identities, roles and memberships that the human and non-human actants had within other networks. This research therefore presents a theoretical method that illuminates interactions and power relations amongst the network, and in turn highlights some of the normalised socio-material practices of curriculum implementation.

Prior to this study there was limited literature in Australia on the use of an Actor Network theoretical approach to curriculum change. The use of ANT for investigating the curriculum change network highlighted how the agency and engagement of various actants (whether human or non-human) could fluctuate at times within the network. The themes that enabled, and at times constrained, curriculum translation included: specialist teachers; teacher professional development; the timetable; depth and resourcing of the curriculum; ownership of new programs; and the role of middle management, technology, and explicit instruction. Curriculum change is therefore a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous and pervasive in nature. Consequently, this research is not only significant for Social Science teachers but a range of stakeholders, as it demonstrates the necessity to provide support to schools and their teachers in the form of opportunities to work together collaboratively during phases of curriculum change. It will therefore be interesting to monitor and reflect upon the dynamic nature of curriculum change over the coming months and years.

9.0 Epilogue

Following the completion of this study several details have come to light that are noteworthy of mention. The case study school experienced significant staff turnover following this study. Staff turnover was noted in key administrative positions and also in experienced senior teaching staff positions from the Social Science faculty as a result of retirement, maternity leave, and/or teacher transfers. Despite this loss of experienced staff at the school, the new replacement staff were very keen and enthusiastic to work in the school and to assist the students on their educational journey. The new staff require greater support and guidance from agencies, associations, and local universities, and from experienced teachers from other schools to ensure the curriculum transition continues to be successful.

Since this research study was completed the case study school has also notably transitioned to embrace a greater emphasis on literacy to improve student academic performance. This was mainly because an intake of Year 7 students from other schools in the district revealed that the new students were at a different literary and numerical standard to the students at the case study school (as was highlighted in NAPLAN and MySchool data). Consequently, a school based decision was made to further reduce the time given to the study of discrete History and Geography Disciplines in Years 7–10 to give students greater time to focus on core literacy and numeracy skills. Despite this loss of time in the short term for the Social Science disciplines, the school administration was confident that in a few years' time the district emphases on literacy and numeracy improvement across all schools would be apparent in student results. This in turn would support a return to the recommended time allocations for the discrete disciplines of History and Geography within the case study school. Given the added emphasis on literacy and numeracy, the case study school also chose not to

implement Civics and Citizenship or Business and Economics, as there was no time available in the timetable to support the implementation of additional Social Science disciplines. Clearly, school level curriculum change can be a messy and complex process that is ubiquitous and pervasive in nature and this was apparent within Western High School's Social Science department.

Upon reflection, I enjoyed my time teaching in the case study school and see true potential in the school for continued improvement both in the short and long term. The dedication exhibited by the Social Science teachers was demonstrated by their passion for teaching and their desire to see students improve. I found that my own teacher identity and agency were shaped and influenced by these dedicated teachers and by my involvement and engagement in the curriculum change network. I also found that my values and capacities as both a History and Geography teacher and curriculum leader were strengthened through the various interactions and relationships that I had with other teachers in the network. I am concerned however, that the shift in primary schools away from discrete disciplines back towards a multidisciplinary approach could impact negatively on both the status and value of the discrete disciplines at a secondary and tertiary level and on future curriculum change within the school.

References

- Abetz, P. (2014). *Submission to the Review of the Australian Curriculum*, pp. 4-5.
- Allen, B. (2008). School history and Australian history: Dead on the vine, or signs of new growth? *Curriculum Perspectives*, 28(1), 57-62.
- Allen, B., & Vidovich, L. (2008, September). Understanding curriculum through policy analysis: A study of the upper secondary history curriculum in Western Australia. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 28(3), 13-26.
- Anderson, C. (1999). *Australia's transition to a globally competitive economy: the business agenda*. Address to The Economist's Sixth Foreign Investor Roundtable, Canberra, 30 March 1999. Retrieved October 10, 2011, from:
www.bca.com.au/content.asp?newsID=87561
- Anderson, G., & Arsenault, N. (1998). *Fundamentals of educational research*. (2nd ed.). London: The Falmer Press Teachers' Library.
- Apple, M.W. (2004). *Ideology and curriculum*. (3rd ed.). Great Britain: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Archer, A. L., & Hughes, C. A. (2011). *Explicit instruction: Effective and efficient teaching*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Attwood, B. (2005). *Telling the truth about aboriginal history*. Sydney, Australia:
Allen & Unwin.

Australian Broadcasting Corporation. (2006). *PM urges history teaching overhaul*, 7.30
Report, created 26 January 2006, Retrieved April 9, 2015, from:
<http://www.abc.net.au/7.30/content/2006/s1556052.htm>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2010a). *Consultation
feedback report: Draft shape of the Australian curriculum: Geography paper*. Retrieved
December 1, 2010, from:
http://docs.acara.edu.au/resources/ConsultationReportonDraftShapeoftheAustralianCurriculumGeography010211_file.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2010b). *Draft
consultation 1.0: Australian curriculum: History*. Retrieved March 15, 2010, from:
<http://resources.news.com.au/files/2010/02/28/1225835/373527-draft-curriculum-history.pdf>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2010c). *Draft shape of
the Australian curriculum: Geography*. Retrieved June 25, 2010, from:
http://docs.acara.edu.au/resources/Draft_Shape_AC_Geography21062010.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2010d). *The draft K-10
Australian curriculum consultation report*. Retrieved August 20, 2010, from:
http://docs.acara.edu.au/resources/Draft_K-10_Consultation_Report_v4.0.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2010e). *The Australian curriculum: History, 1.1*. Retrieved December 15, 2010, from:

<http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/History>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2011a). *Draft F-12 Australian curriculum: Geography consultation report*. Retrieved October 26, 2011, from:

http://docs.acara.edu.au/resources/Final_Geography_consultation_report_28082012.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2011b, January). *Shape of the Australian curriculum: Geography*. Retrieved October 9, 2011, from:

http://docs.acara.edu.au/resources/Shape_of_the_Australian_Curriculum_Geography.pdf

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2011c). *The Australian curriculum: History, 2.0*. Retrieved November 1, 2011, from:

<http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/History>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012a). *ACARA About Us*. Retrieved June 11, 2012, from: http://www.acara.edu.au/about_us/about_us.html

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, (2012b). *Australian curriculum*. Retrieved May 24, 2012, from:

<http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum/curriculum.html>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012c). *Civics and Citizenship*. Retrieved June 8, 2012 from:

http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum/civics_and_citizenship.html

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012d). *Civics and citizenship: Draft shape paper*. Retrieved June 15, 2012 from:

http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum/civics_and_citizenship_1.html

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012e). *Geography*. Retrieved January 16, 2012, from: <http://www.acara.edu.au/geography.html>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012f). *My school website*. Retrieved May 1, 2012, from: <http://www.myschool.edu.au>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2012g). *The Australian curriculum: History, 3.0*. Retrieved May 21, 2012, from <http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/History>

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2014). *F-10 overview*. Retrieved November 9, 2014 from: <http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/curriculum/overview>

Australian Education Council. (1994). *A statement on studies of society and environment for Australian schools*. Melbourne: Curriculum Corporation.

Australian Education Council, Curriculum and Assessment Division. (1992). *Studies of society and environment for Australian schools. Proposed draft for consultation*. Carlton South, Vic: Australian Education Council.

Australian Meteorological and Oceanographic Society. (2014). *Submission to the review of the Australian curriculum*, p. 2.

Australian State of the Environment Committee. (2006). *Australia State of the Environment 2006*. Retrieved December 10, 2009, from:
<http://www.environment.gov.au/soe/2006/index.html>

Bammer, G. (2005). Integration and implementation sciences: Building a new specialisation. *Ecology and Society*, 10(2), 6. Retrieved June 2, 2009, from:
<http://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol10/iss2/art6/>

Barab, S.A., Hay, K.E., & Yamagata-Lynch, L.C. (2001). Constructing networks of activity: An in-situ research methodology. *Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 10(1-2), 63-112.

Bassey, M. (1999). *Case study research in educational settings*. Buckingham (England): Open University Press.

Beagle, D. (2001). The sociotechnical networks of scholarly communication. *Libraries and the Academy*, 1(4), 421-443.

Beck, J. (2013). Powerful knowledge, esoteric knowledge, curriculum knowledge.
Cambridge Journal of Education, 43(2), 177-193.

Bernstein, B. (1990). *Class, codes, and control: Volume 4: The structuring of
pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.

Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research,
critique*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Bernstein, B. (2003). On the classification and framing of educational knowledge. In D.
Scott (Ed.). *Curriculum studies: Major themes in education: Volume II: Curriculum Forms*
(pp. 245-270). London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Biancotti, S. (2009). *The responses of SOSE secondary school departments to
Queensland state and national curriculum initiatives*. (Unpublished paper). Cairns: James
Cook University.

Biddle, D. (1999). Geography in schools. *Australian Geographer*, 30(1), 75-92.

Biddle, D. (1996). Geography in schools in the United States 1960 - 1996: Implications
for geographical education in Australia. *Geography Bulletin*, 28, 99-102.

Biesta, G., Priestley, M., & Robinson, S. (2015). The role of beliefs in teacher agency.
Teachers and Teaching, 21(6), 624 - 640. doi:10.1080/13540602.2015.1044325

Biesta, G. J. J., & Tedder, M. (2006). *How is agency possible? Towards an ecological understanding of agency-as-achievement* (Working Paper 5). Exeter: The Learning Lives Project.

Biesta, G. (2014). Pragmatising the curriculum: Bringing knowledge back into curriculum conversation, but via pragmatism. *Curriculum Journal*, 25(1), 29-49.

Biesta, G., & Tedder, M. (2007). Agency and learning in the lifecourse: Towards an ecological perspective. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 39, 132-149.

Bishop, J. (2006a). *Minister Bishop's address to the Australian history summit dinner: Forgetting our past, failing our future: The teaching of Australian history*. Retrieved November 25, 2015 from: <http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/64134/20061011-0000/www.dest.gov.au/Ministers/Media/Bishop/2006/08/b001170806.html>

Bishop, J. (2006b). *Our classrooms need to make a date with the facts, insists Julie Bishop*. Retrieved November 25, 2015 from: http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/64134/20061011-0000/www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school_education/policy_initiatives_reviews/key_issues/australian_history_summit/Ourclassroomsneedtomakeadatewiththefacts.pdf

Blasé, J. & Anderson, G. (1995). *The micropolitics of educational leadership - From control to empowerment*. London: Cassell.

Board of Studies Teaching and Educational Standards NSW (2015). *Memorandum to principals: New geography K-10 syllabus for NSW schools*. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from:

<http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/australian-curriculum/memo-to-principals-geo-k10-syl.html>

Board of Studies Teaching and Educational Standards NSW (2012). *Memorandum to principals: Update on the implementation of Australian curriculum in NSW: K - 10 Preparing for English, mathematics, science and history*. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from: <http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/australian-curriculum/memo-to-principals-geo-k10-syl.html>

Bogdan, R. C. (1972). *Participant observation in organized settings*. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27 - 40.

Brady, L., & Kennedy, K. J. (2007). *Curriculum construction* (3rd ed.). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.

Brady, L., & Kennedy, K. (2010). *Curriculum construction* (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.

Brady, L., & Kennedy, K. (2014). *Curriculum construction* (5th ed.). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.

Brophy, J. E., & Good, T. L. (1986). Teacher behaviour and student achievement. In M.C. Wittrock, (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed.) (pp. 328-377). New York: Macmillan.

Bryan, L.A. (2012). Research on science teacher beliefs. In B.A. Fraiser, K. Tobin, and C.J. McRobbie (Eds.), *Second international handbook of science education* (pp. 477-495). Netherlands: Springer.

Burns, R. (2000). *Introduction to research methods*. (4th ed.). South Melbourne: Longman.

Callon, M. (1980). Struggles and negotiations to define what is problematic and what is not: The social-logic of translation. In K.D. Knorr, R. Krohn & R. Whitley (eds.), *Sociology of the Sciences Yearbook 4: The social process of scientific investigation* (pp. 197-219). Dordrecht, London and Boston, Mass., D. Reidel.

Callon, M. (1986). Some elements of a sociology of translation: Domestication of the scallops and the fishermen of St Brieuc Bay. In J. Law (ed.), *Power, action and belief: A new sociology of knowledge* (pp. 196-233). London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. Retrieved October 19, 2014, from: https://bscw.uni-wuppertal.de/pub/nj_bscw.cgi/d8022008/Callon_SociologyTranslation.pdf

Callon, M. (1991). Techno-economic networks and Irreversibility. In J. Law (ed.), *A sociology of monsters: Essays on power, technology and domination* (pp. 132-164). London: Routledge.

Calvert, L. (2016). The power of teacher agency. *Journal of Staff Development*, 37(2), 51-56. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.elibrary.jcu.edu.au/docview/1912117672?accountid=16285>

Campbell, E. (2006). Curricular and professional authority in schools, *Curriculum Inquiry*, 36 (2), 111-118.

Campbell, E. (2012). Teacher agency in curriculum contexts. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(2), 183-190. doi:10.1111/j.1467-873X.2012.00593.x

Carnine, D.W., Silbert, J., Kaméenui, E.J., & Tarver, S.G. (2009). *Direct instruction reading*, (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Casinader, N. (2015). Geography and the Australian curriculum: Unfulfilled knowledges in secondary school education: Geography in the Australian curriculum. *Geographical Research*, 53(1), 95-105. doi:10.1111/1745-5871.12081

Casinader, N. (2016). Secondary geography and the Australian curriculum - directions in school implementation: A comparative study. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education*, 25(3), 258-275. doi:10.1080/10382046.2016.1155325

Catholic Education Commission New South Wales. (2014). *Submission to the Review of the Australian Curriculum*.

Christenson, S. L., Ysseldyke, J. E., & Thurlow, M. L. (1989). Critical instructional factors for students with mild handicaps: An integrative review. *Remedial and Special Education, 10*(5), 21- 31.

Clark, A. (2006). *Teaching the Nation: Politics and pedagogy in Australian history*. Carlton: Melbourne University Press.

Clark, A. (2008). *A comparative study of history teaching in Australian and Canada: Final Report*. Retrieved May 21, 2009, from:
http://www.historyteacher.org.au/files/200804_HistoryTeachingReport.pdf

Coffman, A. N. (2015). Teacher agency and education policy. *The New Educator, 11*(4), 322-332. doi:10.1080/1547688X.2015.1087759

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cosgrove, P. (2003). *Understanding Asian culture: Helping the ADF achieve in the region, Keynote Address, National Summit*. Studies of Asia in Australian Schools at a Crossroad: Strategic Directions, 2004 - 2006, Report of National Summit. Melbourne: Asia Education Foundation.

Council for the Australian Federation. (2007, April). *Federalist paper 2: The future of schooling in Australia*. Retrieved May 21, 2009, from:
<http://education.qld.gov.au/publication/production/reports/pdfs/2007/federalist-paper.pdf>

Counsell, C. (1999). Editorial. *Teaching History*. 98(2).

Creswell, T. (2008). Place: Encountering geography as philosophy. *Geography*, 93, 132-139.

Crowther, F. & Boyne, K. (2017). *Energising teaching: The power of your unique pedagogical gift*. Camberwell: ACER Press.

Curthoys, A. and Docker, J. (2006). *Is history fiction?* Sydney: University of New South Wales.

Dao, Loan. (2017). *Leading the implementation of the national curriculum: A case study in one Queensland school*. PhD thesis, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Australia. doi:10.5204/thesis.eprints.103197

Department of Education, Science and Training. (2006). *The Australian history summit: Transcript of proceedings*. Retrieved April 9, 2015, from:
http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/64134/20061011-0000/www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school_education/policy_initiatives_reviews/key_issues/australian_history_summit/transcript1.pdf

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2011). *A flying start for Queensland children: Queensland government white paper*. Brisbane: Queensland Government.

Department of Education, Training and Employment (2012). *OneSchool - Overview*.

Retrieved July 5, 2016, from: www.education.qld.gov.au/smartclassrooms/working-digitally/oneschool.html

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2013a). *Pedagogical approaches: Alignment matrix*, Retrieved July 11, 2014, from:

<https://learningplace.eq.edu.au/cx/resources/file/f66ebbde-9978-4bfd-e445-b0f06cf4849f1/section-02/s02-01.html>

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2013b). *P-12 curriculum, assessment and reporting framework*, Retrieved July 11, 2014, from:

<http://education.qld.gov.au/curriculum/framework/p-12/index.html>

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2013c). *The strategic plan 2013-2017*, Retrieved July 11, 2014, from:

<http://deta.qld.gov.au/publications/strategic/pdf/strategic-plan-13-17.pdf>

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2014). *Pedagogical framework*, Retrieved July 11, 2014, from: <http://www.education.qld.gov.au/teach/index.html>

Department of Education, Training and Employment. (2015). *Curriculum into the classroom (C2C)*. Retrieved October 1, 2015, from: <http://education.qld.gov.au/c2c/>

Department for Education UK. (2013). *The national curriculum in England framework document: Geography Programmes of Study, Key Stages 1, 2, 3*. Retrieved December 8, 2015, from: www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-geography-programmes-of-study

Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts. (2009). *Living sustainably: The Australian government's national action plan for education for sustainability*. Retrieved December 10, 2009, from: <http://www.environment.gov.au/education/nap>

Dinan-Thompson, M. (2002). *Curriculum construction and implementation – A study of Queensland health and physical education*. Unpublished PhD thesis. Brisbane: University of Queensland.

Dinan-Thompson, M. (2005). (Non)neutrality of curriculum in Queensland. In C. Harris, & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends* (pp. 145-158). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Donnelly, K. & Wiltshire, K. (2014). *Review of the Australian curriculum - Final report*. Canberra: Australian Government Department of Education. Retrieved November 10, 2014 from: https://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/review_of_the_national_curriculum_final_report.pdf

Education Queensland. (2011a). *Curriculum into the classroom*, Retrieved December 18, 2011, from: <http://oslp.eq.edu.au>

Education Queensland. (2011b). *Roadmap for P-10 curriculum, teaching, assessment and reporting*, Retrieved May 1, 2012 from: <http://education.qld.gov.au/curriculum/roadmap/>

Education Queensland. (2012). *Term 1 LOA by learning area and year level*, Cairns, Retrieved May 1, 2012, from: <http://oslp.eq.edu.au>

Eisner, E. W. (1991). *The enlightened eye: Qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice*. Toronto, Canada: Collier Macmillan.

Elder-Vass, D. (2015). Disassembling actor-network theory. *Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, 45(1), 100-121. doi:10.1177/0048393114525858

Ellis, E. S., & Worthington, L. A. (1994). *Research synthesis on effective teaching principles and the design of quality tools for educators* (Technical Report No. 5). Eugene: University of Oregon, National Center to Improve the Tools of Educators.

Engelmann, S. & Carnine, D. (1982). *Theory of instruction: Principles and applications*. New York: Irvington.

Erebus International. (2008, February). *A study into the teaching of geography in years 3-10*. Retrieved November 23, 2009, from: <http://www.dest.gov.au/NR/rdonlyres/8221F0DF-E962-402E-A64E-0D26B910F328/21023/geographyreport.pdf>

Eteläpelto, A., Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., & Paloniemi, S. (2013). What is agency? Conceptualizing professional agency at work, *Educational Research Review*, 10, 45-65, Retrieved September 5, 2017 from:
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254863609_What_is_agency_Conceptualizing_professional_agency_at_work

Fairgrieve, J. (1926). *Geography in school*. London: University of London Press.

Fenwick, T., & Edwards, R. (2010). *Actor-network theory in education*. London: Routledge.

Fenwick, T., & Edwards, R. (2011). Introduction: Reclaiming and renewing actor network theory for educational research, *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 43(S1), 1-14, Retrieved July 7, 2016 from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2010.00667.x>

Fenwick, T., & Edwards, R. (eds.) (2012). *Educational philosophy and theory special issues: Researching education through actor network theory*. Somerset, NJ, USA, John Wiley & Sons.

Fereday J. & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). The role of performance feedback in the self-assessment of competence: A research study with nursing clinicians. *Collegian*, 13(1), 10-15.

Ferrari, J. (2006, September 28). *The geography wars*. Retrieved May 29, 2009, from:
<http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20876,20487109-28737,00.html>

Finnish National Board of Education. (2003). *National core curriculum for upper secondary schools 2003*. Finland: Finnish National Board of Education.

Fleming, J. (2011). *John Fleming model of effective teaching*. [Powerpoint slides].

Fleming, J., & Kleinhenz, E. (2007). *Towards a moving school: Developing a professional learning and performance culture*. Camberwell, Victoria: ACER Press.

Foucault, M. (1980). *Power/Knowledge: Selected interviews and other writings (1972 - 77)*. C. Gordon (Ed.). New York: Pantheon Press.

Fullan, M. (2001). *The new meaning of educational change – School development*. (3rd edition). New York: Teachers College Press.

Gilbert, R., & Hoepfer, B. (2017). *Teaching humanities and social sciences: History, geography, economics and citizenship in the Australian curriculum* (6th edition). South Melbourne, Victoria: Cengage Learning.

Gardner, D. (1986). Geography in the school curriculum. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*. 76, 1-4.

Gersten, R., Schiller, E. P., & Vaughn, S. (Eds.). (2000). *Contemporary special education research: Syntheses of the knowledge base on critical instructional issues*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Gilbert, R. (2011a). Can history succeed at school? Problems of knowledge in the Australian history curriculum, *Australian Journal of Education*, 55(3), 245-258.

Gilbert, R. (2011b). *Leading Curriculum Change: Literature review*, Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership: Melbourne.

Gorur, R. (2015). Situated, relational and practice-oriented: The actor-network theory approach. In K. Gulson, M. Clarke, & E. Bendix Peterson (eds.), *Education policy and contemporary theory: Implications for research* (pp. 87-98). New York: Routledge.

Gregory, J. (2007). At the Australian History Summit [online]. *History Australia*, 4(1), 10.1-10.5. Retrieved April 15, 2015, from:
<http://journals.publishing.monash.edu/ojs/index.php/ha/article/view/349/361>

Grundy, S. (2005). Junctions and disjunctions, collaboration and contestation, positions and oppositions – the strange dynamics of curriculum construction. In C. Harris & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends* (pp. 159-168). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Guyver, R. (2011). Reflections on the History Wars [online]. *Agora*, 46(2), 4-12.

Retrieved April 15, 2015, from:

<http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=093365114398726;res=IELHSS>

Harding, A. (2017). Actor-network-theory and micro-learning networks. *Education for Primary Care*, 28(5), 295. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14739879.2017.1344882>

Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age*. London: Cassell.

Harris, C. (2008). Time perspectives: Examining the past, present and futures. In C. Marsh (Ed.), *Studies of society and environment: Exploring the teaching possibilities*. (pp. 268-290). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.

Harris, C., & Bateman, D. (2007). Playing with time: history and the extended present. In J. Kiggins, L. Kervin, & J. Mantei (Ed.), *Quality in teacher education: Considering different perspectives and agendas: Proceedings of the 2007 Australian Teacher Association National Conference* (pp. 1-9). Australia: ATEA.

Harris, C., & Bateman, D. (2008, May). Teaching Australian history: A temporally inclusive approach. *School Educator*, 26(1), 25-31.

Harris, C., & Marsh, C. (2005). Analysing curriculum change: Some reconceptualised approaches. In C. Harris & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends* (pp. 15-38). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Harris, R., Harrison, S., & McFahn, R. (2012). *Cross-curricular teaching and learning in the secondary school: Humanities: History, Geography, Religious Studies and Citizenship*. London: Routledge.

Harris-Hart, C. (2008, April). Journal: History versus SOSE: Is that the question? *Curriculum Perspectives*, 28(1), 55-56.

Harrison, N. (2013). *Country teaches: The significance of the local in the Australian history curriculum*. *Australian*, 57(3), 214-224.

Hart, C. (2011a). Exploring the importance and relevance of the social sciences and humanities to student learning in the 21st century. In C. Marsh, & C. Hart (Eds.), *Teaching the social sciences and humanities in an Australian curriculum* (6th ed.) (pp. 1-27). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Australia.

Hart, C. (2011b). History: Time, continuity and change. In C. Marsh & C. Hart (Eds.), *Teaching the social sciences and humanities in an Australian curriculum* (6th ed.) (pp. 219-244). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Australia.

Hart, C. (2015). The preferable and probable futures of Australian curriculum: History (years 7-10): What insight does the review of the Australian curriculum offer? *Curriculum Perspectives*, 35(1), 58 - 60.

Hassard, J., Law, J., & Lee, N. (1999). Introduction: Actor-network theory and managerialism, *Organisation*, 6(3), 387-391.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible Learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London: Routledge.

Haubrich, H. (1992). *International charter on geographical education*. Commission on Geographical Education. International Geographical Union: Freiburg, Germany.

Haydn, T., Arthur, J. & Hunt, M. (1997). *Learning to teach history in the secondary school*. London: Routledge.

Heads of Geography Programs (at Australian Universities). (2014). *Submission to the review of the Australian curriculum*.

Henderson, D. (2005). What is education for? Situating history cultural understandings and studies of society and environment against neo-conservative critiques of curriculum reform. *Australian Journal of Education*, 49(3), 306-319.

Henderson, D. (2008). The apology, the Aboriginal dimension of Australian history and a national history curriculum: Beginning a new chapter? *QHistory (Journal of the Queensland History Teachers' Association)*, 8-15.

Henderson, D. (2011). History in the Australian curriculum F-10: Providing answers without asking questions. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 31(3), 57-63.

Henderson, D. (2012). Thinking about Australia and its location in the modern world in the Australian curriculum: History. *QHistory, Annual Ed*, 24-33.

Henderson, D. (2015). Introduction to point and counterpoint: What does the review of the Australian curriculum mean for history? *Curriculum Perspectives*, 35(1), 49-51.

Hill, A. (2014). Geography (Foundation to year 12). In Australian Government Department of Education [DoE] (Ed.), *Review of the Australian curriculum: Supplementary material* (pp. 225-235). Canberra: DoE. Retrieved November 30, 2014 from: http://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/review_of_the_national_curriculum_supplementary_material_0.pdf

Hirst, J. (2006). *Questions will alter the course of history*. Retrieved April 9, 2015, from: <http://www.smh.com.au/articles/2006/08/20/1156012408313.html?page=fullpage>

Hoadley, U. (2011). Knowledge, knowers and knowing: Curriculum reform in South Africa. In L. Yates, & M. Grumet (Eds.), *World yearbook of education 2011: Curriculum in today's world: Configuring knowledge, identities, work and politics* (pp. 149-154). London: Routledge.

Hoepper, B., & Quanchi, M. (2000). *History in years 1 to 10: Studies of society and environment key learning area*. Retrieved June 1, 2009, from: http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/publications/research_qscq_bose_history_00.doc

Hökkä, P., Vähäsantanen, K., & Mahlakaarto, S. (2017). Teacher educators' collective professional agency and identity – Transforming marginality to strength, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 63, 36-46, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.12.001>

Howard, J. (2006). *Address to the national press club by the prime minister*, John Howard, in the Great Hall, Parliament House, Canberra, Australia, 25 January. Retrieved December 15, 2007, from: <http://australianpolitics.com/2006/01/25/john-howard-australia-day-address.html>

Howard, J. (2007). *Guide to teaching Australian history*. Retrieved June 9, 2009 from: http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school_education/policy_initiatives_reviews/key_issues_Australian_History/documents/guide_teaching_australian_history.pdf.htm

Howard, J. (2012). *A proper sense of history*, Sir Paul Hasluck Foundation Inaugural Lecture, Winthrop Hall, The University of Western Australia, 27 September 2012. Retrieved April 17, 2015 from: <http://resources.news.com.au/files/2012/09/27/1226482/801957-sir-paul-hasluck-foundation-inaugural-lecture.pdf>

Huckle, J. (1997). Towards a critical school geography. In D. Tilbury & M. Williams (Eds.), *Teaching and learning geography* (pp. 241-244). London: Routledge.

Hughes, C. A. (1998). Effective instruction for adults with learning disabilities. In B.K. Lenz, N.A. Sturmski & M.A. Corley (Eds.), *Serving adults with learning disabilities: Implications for effective practice* (pp. 27-43). Washington, DC: National Adult Literacy and Learning Disabilities Center.

Hunter, M. (1982). *Mastery teaching*. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.

International Baccalaureate Organisation (2015a). *Individuals and societies*. Retrieved June 30, 2015 from: <http://www.ibo.org/programmes/diploma-programme/curriculum/individuals-and-societies/>

International Baccalaureate Organisation (2015b). *What is the DP?* Retrieved June 30, 2015 from: <http://www.ibo.org/programmes/diploma-programme/what-is-the-dp/>

Jones, R. (1970). Towards a new history syllabus. *History*, 55, 384-396.

Kelly, A.V. (1999). *The curriculum: Theory and practice* (4th ed.). London: Paul Chapman.

Kennedy, K. (2005). Charting the global contexts of the school curriculum: Why curriculum solutions are never simple. In C. Harris & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends* (pp. 1-14). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Kennedy, K. (2009). The idea of a national curriculum in Australia: What do Susan Ryan, John Dawkins and Julia Gillard have in common? *Curriculum Perspectives*, 29(1), 1-9.

Kerr, R. (2016). *Sport and technology: An actor-network theory perspective*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Kleeman, G. (2009). Through the eyes of others: The role of curriculum perspectives in Australian school geography. *Geographical Education*, 22, 18-27.

Kleeman, G. (2011). Evolution rather than extinction: The future of the geography textbook. *Geographical Education*, 24, 8-13.

Klein, M.F. (1991). *The politics of curriculum decision making: Issues in centralising the curriculum*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Lam, C., & Lidstone, J. (2001). The implementation of a new integrated social science syllabus: Case studies from Brisbane secondary schools. *Education Journal*, 29(2), 61-83.

Lambert, D., & Balderstone, D. (2010). *Learning to teach geography in the secondary school* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2004). *A handbook for teacher research: from design to implementation*. New York: Open University Press.

Lasley, T. Matczynski, T., & Rowley, J. (2002). *Instructional Models: Strategies for teaching in a diverse society*. (2nd ed.). Australia: Wadsworth Thomson Learning.

Latour, B. (1987). *Science in action: How to follow scientists and engineers through society*. Cambridge MA; Harvard University Press.

Latour, B. (1996). On actor-network theory. A few clarifications plus more than a few complications, *Soziale Welt*, 47, 369-381.

Latour, B. (1999). On recalling ANT. *The Sociological Review*, 47(S1), 15-25.
doi:10.1111/j.1467-954X.1999.tb03480.x

Latour, B. (2005). *Reassembling the social: An introduction to actor-network theory*.
Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Law, J. (1992). Notes on the theory of the actor-network: ordering, strategy, and heterogeneity. *Systemic Practice and Action Research*, 5(4), 379-93.

Law, J. (1999). After ANT: Topology, naming and complexity. In J. Law & J. Hassard (Eds.), *Actor network theory and after* (pp. 1-14). Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Law, J. (2007). *Actor network theory and material semiotics*. Version of 25th April 2007. Retrieved April 23, 2008 from:
<http://www.heterogeneities.net/publications/Law2007ANTandMaterialSemiotics.pdf>

Leander, K. M., & Osborne, M. D. (2008). Complex positioning: Teachers as agents of curricular and pedagogical reform. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 40, 23-46.

Lee, N., & Brown, S. (1994). Otherness and the actor network: The undiscovered continent. *The American Behavioral Scientist*, 37(6), 772. Retrieved July 6, 2016 from the JCU Library Web site: <http://search.proquest.com/docview/214752683?accountid=16285>

Lidstone, J. (2006, October 19). Focus: Geography's place in today's schools.

Futureminds 1.

Linde, A., Linderoth, H. & Raisanen, C. (2003). An actor network theory perspective on IT-projects: a battle of wills. *Action in language, organizations and information systems 2003*, Linkoping University.

Little, N., & Mackinolty, J. (Eds.) (1997). *A new look at history teaching*. Sydney: History Teachers' Association of New South Wales.

Lynch, R.A. (2010). Foucault's theory of power. In D. Taylor (Ed.), *Michael Foucault: Key concepts* (pp. 13-26). Durham, Acumen.

Macintyre, S. (2013). Rewriting history: It's not about taking sides, it's about understanding the process. *Australian Educator*. 80, 13.

Maiden, S. (2007, February 9). *National curriculum would drive out sludge: Howard*. Retrieved June 8, 2009, from:

<http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,21195773-2702,00.html>

Marchand-Martella, N. E., Slocum, T. A., & Martella, R. C. (Eds.). (2004). *Introduction to direct instruction*. Boston: Pearson Education.

Marsh, C.J. (2005). Curriculum players operating on a not so level playing field: The official and the “real players.” In C. Harris & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends* (pp. 105-126). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Marsh, C. J. (2008a). *Key concepts for understanding curriculum* (4th ed.). Hoboken: Taylor & Francis.

Marsh, C. (2008b). *Studies of society and environment: Exploring the teaching possibilities*. Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.

Marsh, C., & Hart, C. (2011). *Teaching the social sciences and humanities in an Australian curriculum* (6th ed.). Frenchs Forest: Pearson Australia.

Marsh, C., & Willis, G. (1995). *Curriculum: Alternative approaches, ongoing issues*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill.

Marsh, C. & Willis, G. (2007). *Curriculum: Alternative approaches, ongoing issues* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Maton, K., & Moore, R. (2009). *Social realism, knowledge and the sociology of education: Coalitions of the mind* (1st ed.). London; New York: Continuum.

Matthews, J., & Herbert, D. (2008). *Geography: A very short introduction*. Oxford: University Press.

Maude, A. (2014). *Submission to the review of the Australian curriculum*.

McCalman, J. (1996, December 10). *Students losing out as history goes unheeded*. The Age, Melbourne.

McGaw, B. (2014). ACARA's statement to the review of the Australian curriculum [covering letter]. *Curriculum and Leadership Journal*, 12(5), 1-2. Retrieved 20 February 2014 from:
http://www.curriculum.edu.au/leader/acara_statement_to_review_of_australian_curriculum_37073.html?issueID=12859

McInerney, M., Berg, K., Hutchinson, N., & Sorensen, L. (2009). *Towards a national geography curriculum for Australia*. Retrieved July 3, 2010, from:
http://www.ngc.org.au/report/Toward_a_nat_geog_Curric_Final.pdf

McNeil, J.D. (2003). *Curriculum: The teachers' initiative*. (3rd ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Melleuish, G. (2006a). *Story of a true blue country: What should Australian children be taught about the nation's past? Gregory Melleuish offers his ideas*. Retrieved November 23, 2014 from: <http://www.theaustralian.news.com.au/story/0,20867,20172818-601,00.html>

Melleuish, G. (2006b). *The teaching of Australian history in Australian schools: A normative view*. Retrieved November 23, 2014 from:

<https://www.htansw.asn.au/docman/2006-historysummit.../download>

Melleuish, G. (2014). History (Foundation to year 12). In Australian Government Department of Education [DoE] (Ed.), *Review of the Australian curriculum: Supplementary material* (pp. 173-224). Canberra: DoE. Retrieved November 30, 2014 from:

http://docs.education.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/review_of_the_national_curriculum_supplementary_material_0.pdf

Merriam, S.B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mertler, C.G. & Charles, C.M. (2005). *Introduction to educational research*. (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Michael, M. (1996). *Constructing identities: The social, the nonhuman and change*. London: Sage.

Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. (2005a). *Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis report*. Washington, DC: Island Press. Retrieved December 10, 2009, from:

<http://www.millenniumassessment.org/documents/document.356.aspx.pdf>

Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. (2005b). *Living beyond our means – Natural assets and human well-being*. Washington, DC: Island Press. Retrieved December 10, 2009, from: <http://www.millenniumassessment.org/documents/document.429.aspx.pdf>

Ministerial Advisory Committee for Education Renewal. (2006). *Education for sustainable futures: Schooling for the smart state*. Retrieved June 2, 2009, from: http://education.qld.gov.au/publication/production/reports/pdfs/2006/macer_report_web.pdf

Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs. (2008, December). *Melbourne declaration on educational goals for young Australians*. Retrieved May 24, 2009, from: http://www.curriculum.edu.au/verve/_resources/National_Declaration_on_the_Educational_Goals_for_Young_Australians.pdf

Moore, R., & Young, M. (2010). Reconceptualizing knowledge and the curriculum in the sociology of education. In R. Moore & K. Maton (Eds.), *Social realism, knowledge and the sociology of education: Coalitions of the mind* (pp. 14-34). London: Continuum.

National Curriculum Board. (2008a). *National history curriculum: Framing paper*. Retrieved April 20, 2009, from: <http://www.ncb.org.au/communications/publications.html>

National Curriculum Board. (2008b). *The shape of the national curriculum: A proposal for discussion*. Melbourne: National Curriculum Board.

National Curriculum Board. (2009a). *Framing paper consultation report: History*.

Retrieved May 10, 2009, from: <http://www.ncb.org.au/communications/publications.html>

National Curriculum Board. (2009b). *The shape of the Australian curriculum*.

Retrieved May 10, 2009, from: <http://www.ncb.org.au/communications/publications.html>

National Curriculum Board. (2009c). *The shape of the Australian curriculum: History*.

Retrieved May 10, 2009, from: <http://www.ncb.org.au/communications/publications.html>

Nespor, J. (1994). *Knowledge in Motion: Space, Time and Curriculum in Undergraduate Physics and Management*. 1st ed., Oxon: Routledge.

Neyland, D. (2006). Dismissed content and discontent: An analysis of the strategic aspects of actor-network theory, *Science, Technology, Human Values*, 31(1), 29-51.

Noffke, S. (1998). Multicultural curricula: "Whose knowledge?" and beyond. In L.E. Beyer and M.W. Apple (Eds.), *The curriculum: Problems, politics, and possibilities*. (2nd ed.). (pp. 101-116). Albany, N.Y: State University of New York Press.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments: First results from TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey)*. Paris: OECD.

OnePortal (2016). *Curriculum into the classroom*. Retrieved January 16, 2017 from:
<https://oneportal.deta.qld.gov.au/EducationDelivery/Stateschooling/schoolcurriculum/Curriculumintotheclassroom/Pages/default.aspx>

Oolbekkink-Marchand, H., Hadar, L., Smith, K., Helleve, I. & Ulvik, M. (2017). Teachers' perceived professional space and their agency, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 62, 37-46. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.11.005>

Paechter, C. (2000). *Changing school subjects: Power, gender and curriculum*.
Buckingham: Open University Press.

Pearson, P. D., & Gallagher, M. C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8, 317-344.

Pinar, W.F., Reynolds, W.M., Slattery, P., & Taubmann, P.M. (1995). *Understanding curriculum*, New York: Lang.

Pinar, W.F. (2004). *What is curriculum theory?* Mahway, NJ: Lawrence, Erlbaum.

Poppleton, P. (2000). *Receptiveness and resistance to educational change: Experiences of English teachers in the 1990s*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Portelli, J. P. (1987). On defining curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 2(4), 354 - 367.

Posner, G. (1995). *Analysing the curriculum*. New York: McGraw-Hil.

Powell, J. (1997). The pulse of citizenship: reflections on Griffith Taylor and 'nation-planning'. *Australian Geographer*, 28(1), 39-52.

Pratt, D. (1980). *Curriculum*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.

Priestley, M., Edwards, R., Priestley, A., & Miller, K. (2012). Teacher agency in curriculum making: Agents of change and spaces for manoeuvre. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 42(2), 191-214. doi:10.1111/j.1467-873X.2012.00588.x

Pyne, C. (2014a). *Review of national curriculum, students first education reforms*. Press Conference at the State Library of South Australia, Adelaide. Retrieved from: <http://ministers.education.gov.au/pyne/press-conference-adelaide-1>

Pyne, C. (2014b). *Review of national curriculum to put students first*. Retrieved June 29, 2017 from: <https://ministers.education.gov.au/pyne/review-national-curriculum-put-students-first>

Queensland College of Teachers. (2010). *Continuing professional development framework*. Retrieved May 21, 2012 from: <http://www.qct.edu.au/renewal/CPDFramework.html>

Queensland College of Teachers. (2017). *CPD requirements*. Retrieved September 11, 2017 from: <http://qct.edu.au/professional-development/requirements>

Queensland School Curriculum Council. (2000). *Studies of society and environment: Years 1 – 10 syllabus*. Retrieved November 23, 2009, from:
http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/learning/kla_ose_syll.pdf

Queensland School Curriculum Council. (2001). *Studies of society and the environment: Years 1 to 10 sourcebook guidelines*. Retrieved April 8, 2010, from:
http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/p-9/kla_ose_sbg.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2008). *Queensland Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting (QCAR) Framework*. Retrieved April 28, 2009, from:
<http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/assessment/qcar.html>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2009a). *Year 10 guidelines: Beginning the senior phase of learning*. Retrieved April 20, 2009, from: <http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/learning/7070.html>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2009b). *Years 4-9 literacy indicators*, Retrieved March 19, 2011, from: <http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2009c). *Years 4-9 numeracy indicators*, Retrieved March 19, 2009, from: <http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011a, September). *Assessment, standards and reporting: Implementing the Australian curriculum P-10*. Retrieved September 30, 2011, from The Queensland Studies Authority Web site: www.qsa.qld.edu.au

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011b, July). *Time allocations and entitlement: Implementing the Australian curriculum F(P)-10*. Retrieved August 2, 2011, from Queensland Studies Authority Web site: www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/early_middle/ac_time_alloc_entitlement_advice.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011c, January). *Unit overview planning: Australian curriculum P-10*. Retrieved January 31, 2011, from: https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/p_10/ac_p10_unit_overview_planning.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011d, January). *Year level planning: Australian curriculum P-10*. Retrieved January 31, 2011, from the Queensland Studies Authority Web site: https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/p_10/ac_p10_year_level_planning.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011e, January). *Year 7 Audit Tool: Australian curriculum: History*. Retrieved July 31, 2011, from: https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/.../ac_yr7_audit_tool_history.doc

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011f, January). *Year 8 Audit Tool: Australian curriculum: History*. Retrieved July 31, 2011, from: https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/.../ac_yr8_audit_tool_history.doc

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011g, January). *Year 9 Audit Tool: Australian curriculum: History*. Retrieved July 31, 2011, from the Queensland Studies Authority Web site: https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/.../ac_yr9_audit_tool_history.doc

Queensland Studies Authority. (2011h, January). *Year 10 Audit Tool: Australian curriculum: History*. Retrieved July 31, 2011, from:
https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/.../ac_yr10_audit_tool_history.doc

Queensland Studies Authority. (2012a). *Australian curriculum: History and studies of society and the environment: Advice on implementing the Australian curriculum P-10*, Retrieved May 24, 2012, from: http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/aust_curric/ac_imp_p-10_hist_sose_advice.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2012b). *Australian curriculum auditing tools: History*, Retrieved May 30, 2012 from: <http://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2012c). *Important advice about implementation of the P - 12 Australian Curriculum*, Retrieved December 14, 2012 from:
<https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/memos/12/074-12.pdf>

Queensland Studies Authority. (2013a). *Common curriculum element occurrence matrix*. Retrieved June 30, 2014 from:
https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/downloads/senior/qcs_cce_matrix.pdf

Queensland Studies Authority. (2013b). *OPs*. Retrieved June 30, 2014 from:

<https://www.qsa.qld.edu.au/senior/tertiary-entrance/op>

Queensland Teachers' Union of Employees. (2012, March 9). *Getting it right on C2C*.

Retrieved March 30, 2012, from: <http://www.qtu.asn.au>

Ravitch, D. (2004). Recycling reforms. *Education Next*. Winter, 34-40.

Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2008). Introduction. In P. Reason & H. Bradbury (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice* (2nd ed.) (pp. 1-10). London: SAGE.

Rediscovering Geography Committee. (1997). *Rediscovering geography: New relevance for science and society*. Washington D.C.: National Academic Press.

Reid, A. (2005). The politics of national curriculum collaboration: How can Australia move beyond the railway gauge metaphor? In C. Harris & C. Marsh (Eds.), *Curriculum developments in Australia: Promising initiatives, impasses and dead-ends*. (pp. 39-52). Adelaide: Openbook Publishers.

Reynolds, R. (2009). *Teaching studies of society and environment in the primary school*. South Melbourne, Vic.: Oxford University Press Australia.

Rivera Gonzalez, G., Cox, A.M., & Flores Zambada, R. (2012). A human resources project implementation: An actor-network theory perspective. *Accounting and Administration*. 57(3), 9-39.

Rizvi, F., & Lingard, B. (2010). *Globalizing education policy*. London: Routledge.

Robson, C. (1993). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Rosenmund, M. (2006). The current discourse on curriculum change: A comparative analysis of national reports on education. In A. Benavot, C. Braslavsky, & N. Truong (eds.), *School Knowledge in Comparative and Historical Perspective: Changing curricula in primary and secondary education* (pp. 173-194). Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre.

Rosenshine, B. (1987). *Explicit teaching and teacher training*. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 38 (3), 34-36.

Rosenshine, B. (1995). Advances in research on instruction. *Journal of Educational Research*, 88(5), 262-268.

Rosenshine, B. (1997). Advances in research on instruction. In J.W. Lloyd, E.J. Kame'enui, & D. Chard (Eds.), *Issues in educating students with disabilities* (pp. 197-221). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rosenshine, B., & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed.) (pp. 326-391). New York: Macmillan.

Ross, A. (2000). *Curriculum construction and critique*. London: Falmer Press.

Royal Geographical Society of Queensland Inc. and Geography Teachers' Association of Queensland Inc. (2014). *Submission to the Review of the Australian Curriculum*.

Rusen, J. (2004). Historical consciousness: Narrative structure, moral function, and ontological development. In Seixas, P. (Ed.), *Theorizing historical consciousness* (pp. 63-85). Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Rüsen, J. (2005). *Historical narration – interpretation – orientation*. New York: Berghahn Books.

Salter, P. (2015). Local history; Going, going...gone? *Qhistory: The Journal of the Queensland History Teachers' Association*, 42-46.

Sarason, S. (1990). *The predictable failure of educational reform*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Saylor, J., & Alexander, W. (1966). *Curriculum planning for modern schools*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Scott, D. (2014). Knowledge and the curriculum. *Curriculum Journal*, 25(1), 14-28.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research*. (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Simmons, H. (1998). Developing curriculum through school self-evaluation. In L.E. Beyer, & M.W. Apple, *The curriculum: Problems, politics, and possibilities* (2nd ed.) (pp. 358-379). Albany, N.Y: State University of New York Press.

Simmons, D. C., Fuchs, L. S., Fuchs, D., Mathews, P., & Hodge, J. P. (1995). Effects of explicit teaching and peer tutoring on the reading achievement of learning-disabled and low-performing students in regular classrooms. *Elementary School Journal*, 95(5), 387-408.

Sims, S., & Sims, R. (2004). *Managing School System Change: Charting a course for renewal*. Greenwich CO: Information Age Publishing.

Slater, J. (1989). *The politics of history teaching: A humanity dehumanised*. London: Institute of Education.

Slavin, R.E. (2008). *Educational psychology: Theory and practice*. (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Smith, L. (2008). *Schools That Change: Evidence-based improvement and effective change leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin.

Smith, B., Stanley, W., & Shores, J. (1950). *Fundamentals of curriculum development*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Social Educators' Association of Australia, Studies of Society and Environment
Association of Queensland and Primary HSIE Teachers Association. (2009). *Submission to:
National and state/territory principals' associations; Parents and citizens associations and
teacher unions*. Retrieved April 14, 2009.

Sorensen, L. (2009). Literature review: For the national geography curriculum.
Geographical Education, 22, 12-17.

Spillane, J. (2002). Local theories of teacher change: The pedagogy of district policies
and programs. *The Teachers College Record*, 104(3), 377-420.

Spring, J. (1993). *Conflict of interests: The politics of American education* (2nd ed.).
New York: Longman.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oak, CA: Sage
Publications.

Stevenson, R. B. (2007). Constructing knowledge of educational practices from case
studies, *Environment Education Research*, 10(1), 39-51.

Strachan, G. (2009). Systems thinking. In A. Stibbe (Ed.), *The handbook of
sustainability literacy: Skills for a changing world* (pp. 1-4). Darlington: Green Books.

- Strathern, M. (1996). Cutting the network. *Journal of the royal anthropological institute*, 2, 517-535.
- Supovitz, J.A. (2008). Implementation as iterative refraction. In J.A. Supovitz & E.H. Weinbaum (Eds.), *The implementation gap: Understanding reform in high schools* (pp. 151-172). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Swanson, H. L. (2001). Searching for the best model for instructing students with learning disabilities. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 34(2), 1-14.
- Sylvester, D. (1994). Change and continuity in history teaching 1900-93. In H. Bourdillon (Ed.), *Teaching history*. London: Routledge.
- Tao, J., & Gao, X. (2017). Teacher agency and identity commitment in curricular reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 63, 346-355. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2017.01.010
- Tatnall, A. & Burgess, S. (2002). Using actor-network theory to research the implementation of a BB portal for regional SMEs in Melbourne, Australia. In C. Loebbecke, R.T. Wigand, J. Cricar, A. Pucihar, & G. Lenart (Eds.), *15th Bled Electronic Commerce Conference –E-Reality: Constructing the E-Economy* (pp. 179-191). Bled, Slovenia: University of Maribor.

Taylor, T. (2000, May). *The future of the past – Final report of the national inquiry into school history*. Retrieved June 8, 2009, from:
http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school_education/publications_resources/national_inquiry_into_school_history

Taylor, T. (2001). *Disputed territory: Some political contexts for the development of Australian historical consciousness*. Paper presented at the Canadian Historical Consciousness in an International Context: Theoretical Frameworks. Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia.

Taylor, T. (2007, May 7). *Too many cooks spoil the SOSE*. *The Age*, p. 14.

Taylor, T. (2008, January 14). *Howard's way fails school test*. Retrieved April 9, 2015, from: <http://www.theage.com.au/news/opinion/howards-way-fails-school-test/2008/01/13/1200159274540.html?page=fullpage>

Taylor, T. (2012a). Why history matters. In T. Taylor, C. Fahey, J. Kriewaldt, & D. Boon (Eds.), *Place and Time: Explorations in Teaching Geography and History*. (pp. 27-53). Sydney: Pearson Education.

Taylor, T. (2012b). Under siege from right and left: A tale of the Australian school history wars. In T. Taylor, & R. Guyver (Eds.), *History wars and the classroom* (pp. 22-50). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Taylor, T., & Clark, A. (2006). *An overview of the teaching and learning of Australian history in schools*. Retrieved November 23, 2014, from:

http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/64134/20061011-0000/www.dest.gov.au/sectors/school_education/policy_initiatives_reviews/key_issues/australian_history_summit/HistorySummit_DESTMapping_004FINALtotal.pdf

Taylor, T., & Guyver, R. (Eds.). (2012). *History wars and the classroom*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Taylor, T., & Young, C. (2003). *Making history: Guide for teaching and learning of history in Australian schools*. Carlton: Curriculum Corporation.

Tomazin, F. (2007, April 24). *Back to basics: Studies scrapped in curriculum revamp*. Retrieved June 8, 2009, from: <http://www.theage.com.au/news/national/studies-scrapped-in-curriculum-revamp/2007/04/23/1177180567877.html>

Tudball, L. (2008, April). History versus SOSE: Revisiting the old curriculum debate in new ways. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 28(1), 63-67.

United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. (1992). *Earth summit: Agenda 21: The united nations programme of action from Rio*. Retrieved June 16, 2010, from: <http://www.un.org/esa/dsd/agenda21/>

Van Driel, J.H., Beijard, D., & Verloop, N. (2001). Professional development and reform in science education: The role of teachers' practical knowledge. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 38(2), 137-158.

VanWynsberghe, R., & Khan, S. (2007). *Redefining case study*. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 6(2), Article 6. Retrieved July 12, 2014, from:
http://www.ualberta.ca/~iiqm/backissues/6_2/vanwynsberghe.htm

Wadsworth, Y. (1984). *Do it yourself social research*. Melbourne: Victorian Council of Social Service.

Wallace, C. S., & Priestley, M. R. (2017). Secondary science teachers as curriculum makers: Mapping and designing scotland's new curriculum for excellence. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 54(3), 324-349.

Weedon, P., & Butt, G. (2009). *Assessing progress in your KS3 geography curriculum*. Sheffield: Geography Association.

Weedon, P., & Butt, G. (2010). *Thinking about progression in geography*. Retrieved April 14, 2011, from:
<http://www.geography.org.uk/projects/makinggeographyhappen/progression>

Wilkinson, D., & Birmingham, P. (2003). *Using research instruments: A guide for researchers*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Willis, G. (1998). The human problems and possibilities of curriculum evaluation. In L.E. Beyer, & M.W. Apple, *The curriculum: Problems, politics, and possibilities* (2nd ed.) (pp. 339-357). Albany, N.Y: State University of New York Press.

Wineburg, S. (2001). *Historical thinking and other unnatural acts: Charting the future of reading the past*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Yates, L. (2016). Europe, transnational curriculum movements and comparative curriculum theorizing. *European Educational Research Journal*, 15(3), 366-373.
doi:10.1177/1474904116644939

Yates, L. (2017). Schools, universities and history in the world of twenty-first century skills: "The end of knowledge as we know it"? *History of Education Review*, 46(1), 2-14.

Yates, L. & Grumet, M. (2011). Knowledge, knowers and knowing: Curriculum reform in South Africa. In L. Yates, & M. Grumet (Eds.), *World yearbook of education 2011: Curriculum in today's world: Configuring knowledge, identities, work and politics* (pp. 3-13). London: Routledge.

Yates, L., & Millar, V. (2016). "Powerful knowledge" curriculum theories and the case of physics. *Curriculum Journal*, 27(3), 298-312.

Yin, R.K. (1993). *Applications of case study research*. London: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Applications of case study research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (Ed.). (2004). *The case study anthology*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Young, M. F. D. (1971). An approach to the study of curricula as socially organised knowledge. In M.F.D. Young (Ed.), *Knowledge and control: New directions in the sociology of education* (pp. 19-45). West Drayton, UK: Macmillan.

Young, M. F. D. (1998; 2002). *The curriculum of the future: From the "new sociology of education" to a critical theory of learning*. London: Falmer Press.

Young, M. (2013). Powerful knowledge: An analytically useful concept or just a 'sexy sounding term'? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 43(2), 131-136.

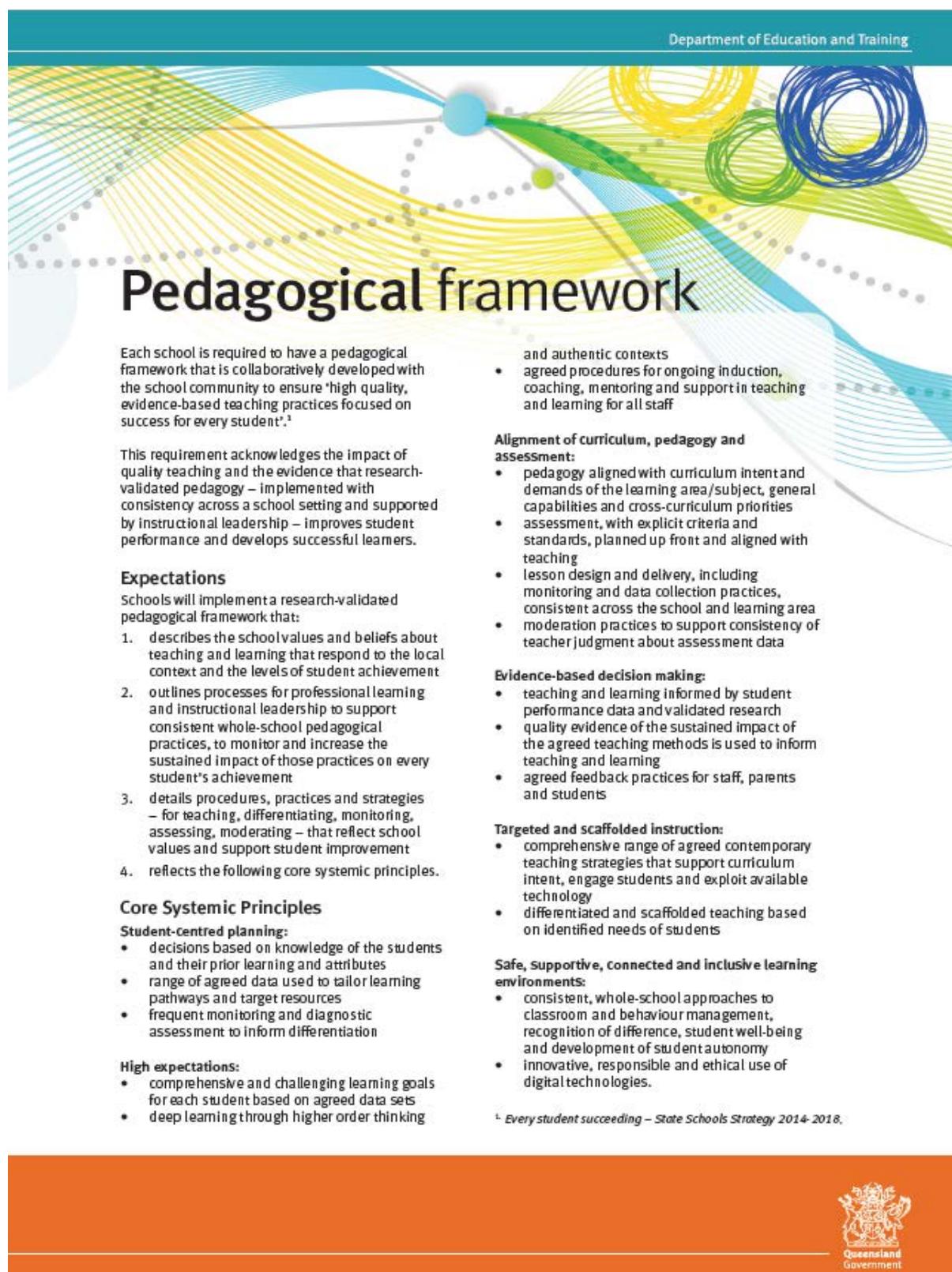
Young, M. (2014). What is a curriculum and what can it do? *Curriculum Journal*, 25(1), 7-13.

Implementation of National History and Geography Curriculum Initiatives by a Regional Queensland
Secondary Social Science Department: Actants, Agency, and Curriculum Change

Young, M., & Muller, J. (2013). On the powers of powerful knowledge. *Review of Education*, 2(1), 229-250.

Appendix

Appendix 1: Pedagogical framework



Department of Education and Training

Pedagogical framework

Each school is required to have a pedagogical framework that is collaboratively developed with the school community to ensure 'high quality, evidence-based teaching practices focused on success for every student'.¹

This requirement acknowledges the impact of quality teaching and the evidence that research-validated pedagogy – implemented with consistency across a school setting and supported by instructional leadership – improves student performance and develops successful learners.

Expectations

Schools will implement a research-validated pedagogical framework that:

1. describes the school values and beliefs about teaching and learning that respond to the local context and the levels of student achievement
2. outlines processes for professional learning and instructional leadership to support consistent whole-school pedagogical practices, to monitor and increase the sustained impact of those practices on every student's achievement
3. details procedures, practices and strategies – for teaching, differentiating, monitoring, assessing, moderating – that reflect school values and support student improvement
4. reflects the following core systemic principles.

Core Systemic Principles

Student-centred planning:

- decisions based on knowledge of the students and their prior learning and attributes
- range of agreed data used to tailor learning pathways and target resources
- frequent monitoring and diagnostic assessment to inform differentiation

High expectations:

- comprehensive and challenging learning goals for each student based on agreed data sets
- deep learning through higher order thinking

- and authentic contexts
- agreed procedures for ongoing induction, coaching, mentoring and support in teaching and learning for all staff

Alignment of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment:

- pedagogy aligned with curriculum intent and demands of the learning area/subject, general capabilities and cross-curriculum priorities
- assessment, with explicit criteria and standards, planned up front and aligned with teaching
- lesson design and delivery, including monitoring and data collection practices, consistent across the school and learning area
- moderation practices to support consistency of teacher judgment about assessment data

Evidence-based decision making:

- teaching and learning informed by student performance data and validated research
- quality evidence of the sustained impact of the agreed teaching methods is used to inform teaching and learning
- agreed feedback practices for staff, parents and students

Targeted and scaffolded instruction:

- comprehensive range of agreed contemporary teaching strategies that support curriculum intent, engage students and exploit available technology
- differentiated and scaffolded teaching based on identified needs of students

Safe, supportive, connected and inclusive learning environments:

- consistent, whole-school approaches to classroom and behaviour management, recognition of difference, student well-being and development of student autonomy
- innovative, responsible and ethical use of digital technologies.

¹ *Every student succeeding – State Schools Strategy 2014-2018.*



© State of Queensland, (Department of Education and Training) [2014].

Appendix 2: Strategic Plan 2013-2017

Department of Education, Training and Employment
Strategic Plan 2013–17

Our vision
Engaging minds. Empowering futures.

Our purpose
Providing high quality learning and skilling focused on preparing Queenslanders with the knowledge, skills and confidence to participate effectively in the community and the economy

Our focus

Successful learners
Strong foundations for lifelong learning and global citizenship
Creative thinkers shaped by inspiring and challenging learning experiences
Improved outcomes for all students
Successful transitions to further learning and work
Skilling to enhance employability

Engaged partners
Parents and carers involved in their child's learning and development
Students, parents, carers, the community and industry involved in decision making
Employers engaged in identifying and prioritising the critical skills for the economy
Strong cross-sector relationships

Empowerment
Autonomous schools delivering improved outcomes
Empowered leaders making local decisions in consultation with communities, business and industry
Evidence informed practice and collaboration driving innovation and improvement

Great people
Skilled and committed workforce focused on high quality care for each child
Professional and dedicated teachers focused on each student's learning and achievement
High quality industry experienced trainers focused on student and apprentice completions

High standards
Performance information focused on improving services and outcomes
Quality standards and regulation
Safe and inclusive learning and working environments

Our outcomes

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| Early years Queensland families accessing quality early years services | School education Queensland students engaged in learning and successfully transitioning to further education, training and work | Skills and employment Queenslanders skilled to successfully participate in the economy and broader community | Resourcing and capability Resources targeted to improve learning and skilling outcomes |
|--|---|--|--|

© State of Queensland, (Department of Education and Training) [2013].

Appendix 3: Teacher interview schedule

1. When did you first hear about the History and Geography initiatives?
 - a. Consultation?
 - b. Media?
 - c. Staffroom?
2. What engagement have you had with the ACARA documents?
 - a. Website?
 - b. Paper resource?
 - c. Downloaded?
 - d. Staffroom table?
 - e. Intranet?
3. If you have read the Australian History and Geography curriculum how do you feel about the structure of the national History/Geography curriculum? Do you feel supported by it?
4. One of the key criticisms of SOSE was that it did not adequately prepare students to go onto senior Social Science disciplines. Do you think History and Geography better prepares students?
5. What involvement have you had with the Australian History/Geography curriculum implementation in your school?
 - a. Design units?
 - b. Design lessons?
 - c. Design assessment?
 - d. Design resources?
 - e. Was it all provided for you?
 - f. Do you feel that your contributions in relation to the national History and Geography curriculum implementation in your school have been appreciated? Discuss.
6. Has your engagement with new units aligned to the Australian curriculum impacted on your teaching pedagogy?
 - a. Your own teaching practice? (Explicit teaching).
7. What factors have been of assistance so far in this shift to History and Geography in the Australian curriculum in the junior secondary years?
8. What challenges have you encountered so far in this shift to History and Geography in the Australian curriculum in the junior secondary years?
9. What are your main concern/s regarding the implementation of the national History and Geography curriculums in your school?

Appendix 4: Administration interview schedule

1. When did you first hear about the History and Geography initiatives?
2. What engagement have you had with the ACARA documents?
3. If you have read the Australian History and Geography curriculum how do you feel about the structure of the national History/Geography curriculum?
4. One of the key criticisms of SOSE was that it did not adequately prepare students to go onto senior Social Science disciplines. Do you think History and Geography better prepares students?
5. What involvement have you had with the Australian History/Geography curriculum implementation in your school?
6. What factors have been of assistance so far in this shift to History and Geography in the Australian curriculum in the junior secondary years?
7. What challenges have you encountered so far in this shift to History and Geography in the Australian curriculum in the junior secondary years?
8. What are your main concern/s regarding the implementation of the national History and Geography curriculums in your school?

Appendix 5: Teacher survey

Please circle the most appropriate answer to you:

1. How long have you been teaching?

0 – 2 years

2 ½ - 5 years

5 ½ - 10 years

10+ years

2. How many schools have you taught in?

1 school

2 schools

3 schools

4 schools

5 schools

6+ schools

3. Are you a specialist trained History teacher?

YES

NO

4. Are you a specialist trained Geography teacher?

YES

NO

5. Are you a specialist trained SOSE teacher?

YES

NO

6. Do you currently teach a senior Social Science subject?

YES

NO

7. Do you currently teach a junior Social Science subject?

YES

NO

Appendix 6: Administration survey

Please circle the most appropriate answer to you:

1. How long have you been a part of an administration team (this includes all time at all schools as HOD, DP or Principal)?

0 – 5 years 5 – 10 years 10 - 15 years 15+ years

2. How many schools have you worked in?

1 school 2 schools 3 schools 4 schools 5 schools 6+ schools

3. How many years teaching experience did you have prior to becoming part of an administration team?

0 – 5 years 5 – 10 years 10 – 15 years 15+ years

4. Are you a specialist trained History teacher?

YES NO

5. Are you a specialist trained Geography teacher?

YES NO

6. Are you a specialist trained SOSE teacher?

YES NO