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A PRAXIS FOR DEVELOPING A MODEL OF SHARED
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The University of North Carolina at Greensboro,
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A PRAXIS FOR DEVELOPING A MODEL
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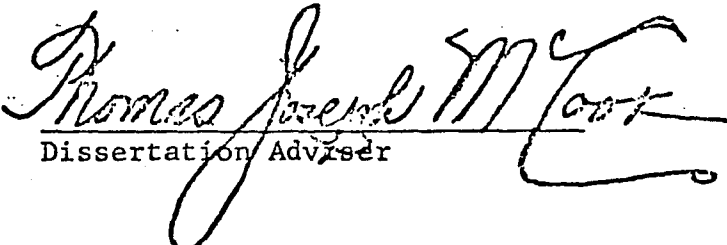
by

James E. Calkins

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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ABSTRACT

CALKINS, JAMES EUGENE. A Praxis for Developing a Model of Shared Governance in the Secondary School.

The work of this study has produced a thorough review of the literature that involves the concepts of shared governance and shared power in the public schools. The implications of humanizing and democratizing the administration and the environment of the public schools were extensively reviewed. Antecedents and precedents for current practices were sought in industry and business, the social sciences, the management of junior colleges and colleges, and at other levels of public education.

It became clear that there were many sources of logical precedents and antecedents to be applied to models for a public secondary school. These antecedents and precedents were applied to a description and exposition of an operational model of shared governance at Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut.

These same sources served further to provide the basis of a theoretical model that was constructed to provide both a theoretical and philosophical basis for the operational model. The operational model was described completely. The format and the operation of the model were delineated in detail. A brief summary of the actions taken by the operational model (SGB) during the course of its existence has been provided. A number of actual bills and other actions taken by

the SGB have been included in the appendices. Other pertinent information helpful to obtaining an understanding and appreciation of the theoretical and operational models of this study have been included in the appendices as well. The presentation throughout the study has been supplemented by figures and tables designed to clarify the exposition of the text.

To assist a possible innovator in the task of implementing the concept of a shared governance in the public secondary schools, both a calendar of events and a flowchart have been offered as guides to replicating an operational model. Suggestions for handling change and moving people through the dialogic stages of consciousness raising explained and used by Freire (1972) have been incorporated in the study.

The intention of this study was to seek out a rationale for both a model and concept of democratic organization in the public secondary school, devise a theoretical model for that concept, describe in great detail the operational model related to the theoretical model, and, finally, to show a potential innovator how to replicate the operational model.

This study has successfully concluded both the recording of the development and the means of replicating a practical experience of shared governance in the management of a public secondary school.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I had hoped to provide a revolutionary document that could be tacked up on the schoolhouse door, and the institution would have been shaken to the core with the vision of its message. Somehow the reality of my vision is more nearly akin to that of the Polish visionary as described by Bennis (1960):

who claimed that he could see the synagogue burning to the ground in the town of Lwow (45 miles away). Late the next day, a visitor from Lwow appeared on the scene and discounted the whole story. The local villagers were still proud of their visionary--so what if he was wrong. Look how far he could see (p. ix).

I acknowledge with gratitude the efforts of Mrs. Sally Deegan and Mrs. Betty Bardes, who typed this vision. Most of all, I am in the debt of my wife, who patiently added this dissertation to her long list of ordeals. And finally I wish to acknowledge the encouragement and direction of my Irish mentor, Dr. T. Joseph McCook, who, if he had thought of it, would have been the first to say to me: "So what if you are wrong. Look how far you can see!"

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Since the murder of President John Fitzgerald Kennedy on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas, there has been a series of startling shocks to the complacency of the citizens of the United States. However, none was more severely felt than the death of its young leader. Perhaps in the only way possible the fragile quality of democracy was brought home to millions of Americans for the first time. It was true in spite of the fact, as pointed out by Allen (1969), that Dallas had already experienced ninety-eight murders up to November 1, 1963. It was a city in the United States where Ambassador Adlai Stevenson had been assaulted and spat upon by its citizens, where persons unknown had circulated handbills carrying the picture of the President with the label, "Wanted for Treason." It was such a city that Pierre Salinger, the President's press secretary, described when he responded to a woman from Dallas who had written to warn the President not to go there, "It would be a sad day for this country if there were any city in the United States he (the President) could not visit without fear of violence (Allen, 1969, p. 47)."

In rapid succession since that tragedy in Dallas the United States has experienced the assassinations of Dr. Martin Luther King and

Senator Robert F. Kennedy, student activism, student revolts, student violence, racial revolt and violence, a series of skyjackings resulting in extortion, death, and destruction, and more recently political kidnappings of prominent people. These sad events have transpired against a background of violence and destruction throughout the world that augurs poorly for the fate of individual freedom.

In the United States, one more devastating shock hung over its democracy in the potential impeachment of the President. Even if President Richard M. Nixon was not impeached, the effects of the Watergate scandal and the involvement of his top aides had severely shaken the faith of the citizens in its leadership. In a national survey, Gallup (1974) reported that only 27% approved of the way that President Nixon was handling his job. Even lower were poll findings about the public view of the efforts of members of Congress. The succession of these shocks felt by the American people may well have shaken them loose from their past complacency.

At the very least it was necessary to seek ways to restore faith in American democracy. There was no better place to begin than the public schools. The public secondary school particularly represented a good starting point. It has been suggested that now more than ever high school students needed to learn quickly how to become prepared for participation in self-government. The need rested at the vector of several forces created by rising teacher militancy, recognition of students' legal rights, the lowering of the age of majority, increasing taxpayer revolts in the form of

defeated school building bonds and budgets, and a disenchantment with the leadership of the United States.

As early as 1845 Horace Mann (1891) had called attention to the need to provide experiences for students in the public schools in order that they might learn to be independent citizens when he noted:

In order that men may be prepared for self-government, their apprenticeship must commence in childhood. The great moral attribute of self-government cannot be born and matured in one day; and if school children are not trained to it, we only prepare ourselves for disappointment if we expect it from grown men (p. 35).

Education for citizenship has always been cited as a basic part of public education. It is a theme reiterated throughout the writings of Dewey (1963) and many others. Learning to accept the responsibilities of citizenship was not a new goal for public education. The succession of negative events in recent years, however, had underscored the attainment of responsible citizenship as not just a highly desirable goal but a necessity for survival.

It was obvious to the most casual observer of the social scene that there had developed serious problems which could only be faced and solved through each citizen's accepting the full measure of his responsibility as a citizen. If Boyer (1971) was correct:

Four major survival problems are cataclysmic war, uncontrolled population, resource depletion, and pollution of the biosphere on which human life depends. Projects in each of these three areas give little hope that mankind can long survive. If nothing is done to change trends in any of these areas, even short-range future survival chances are very low--most of the human race is not likely to survive this century (p. 260).

The recent happenings in the United States measured against Boyer's four major survival problems may not seem too severe. Yet they were related, and there was hope to be found as Boyer continued:

This is the first period in human history where man has the means to reflect not only on his social policies, but also on the values that underlie them. His new capacity to engage in fundamental replanning, including intentional reconstruction of the culture itself, is the most important achievement of the twentieth century. This capacity is not yet being realized, yet no institution can be more useful than the schools in helping to bring this new knowledge to the general citizenry. But to do so schools must extricate themselves from many of their old habits and avoid merely trying to adapt the young to a world gone by. Schools are inextricably involved in social change, either because of what they do or what they fail to do. In an age where relevant education is desperately urgent, the ritualistic trivia and bureaucratic games that occupy most schools are not merely a waste of time but a form of pathology (p. 261).

The public school system had to provide the setting and the experiences for young people to learn about responsibility of citizenship for survival.

For the purpose of this discussion responsibility of citizenship has been dichotomized to cover responsibility for self and responsibility for others. To assume responsibility for one's own words, thoughts, and actions may not appear a difficult test for citizenship. Yet there has been increasing evidence that such responsibility is not easily accomplished by citizens at all levels ranging as high as the President of the United States himself. Greater difficulty was anticipated in the assumption of responsibility by one citizen for another. Again there has been increasing evidence that the assumption was true. "I did not want to get

involved." seemed to have become the most common explanation or rationalization for not performing one's duty as a citizen.

If the United States was to survive and if its democracy was to survive with it, something had to be attempted to raise the level of consciousness of the citizens in order to have them accept their responsibility toward self and others. The call then was for the humanization of man's endeavors and the elimination of dehumanization at a very pragmatic level. As Freire (1972) pointed out:

While the problem of humanization has always, from an axiological point of view, been man's central problem, it now takes on the character of an inescapable concern. Concern for humanization leads at once to the recognition of dehumanization, not only as an ontological possibility but as an historical reality. And as man perceives the extent of dehumanization, he asks himself if humanization is a viable possibility. Within history, in concrete, objective contexts, both humanization and dehumanization are possibilities for man as an uncompleted being conscious of his incompleteness (p. 27).

While there was yet time for the democracy and the country, it was necessary to take affirmative and courageous action. It still was possible to take at least one institution in the United States and examine its conditions of dehumanization and to substitute processes of humanization. The public secondary school offered the possibility to anyone who was willing to take risks.

Can democratic institutions be made to work? Reimer (1971) raised the question. If the democratization of the institution was not completely possible, at least the natural tendency of institutions to seek domination of their members could have been inhibited or restrained. As Reimer pointed out, "Institutions are so

identified with hierarchy, control, privilege, and exclusion that the very notion of democratic institutions seems strange (p. 103)."

The logical assumption was that a public secondary school must be a democratic institution. However, upon closer study the origin of the organizational structure of that school would seem to have indicated a less democratic characteristic than anticipated. Management of the public schools logically developed as a close parallel to what existed in business and industry in the United States. From the beginning business and industrial management had been patterned after the ideal theory of Max Weber. As Blau and Scott (1962) carefully pointed out, Weber's conceptualization of bureaucratic structure followed an ideal theory. It was a theory that was anything but democratic either in conception or execution.

Over the years, especially during the present century, business and industry have explored a wide range of new approaches to management, and they have followed a diverse group of leaders in the process. In outlining the sequential development of their leadership Bennis (1966) found that the democratization of bureaucratic institutions was inevitable. There has been a trend in business and industrial organization that seems to suggest progress toward the finding of Bennis if not the inevitability of it.

Likert (1961) offered support for a trend toward democratization when he wrote: "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each

member will in the light of his background, values and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance (p. 103)."

While a variety of more democratic approaches to management have been tried or proposed in business and industry, there has been very little attempted to modify and improve the organizational structure and leadership of the public schools. The public secondary school has been especially inactive in this regard. Inactivity was not surprising in the light of the monolithic structure of the typical public school system. It has become apparent that a change needs to be made in the management of the public secondary school if for no other reason than that level afforded the last opportunity for most public school systems to demonstrate to young people that democracy was viable and practical. If the changes away from the domination of the individual by management within the business and industrial organizations represented a profitable course of action to follow, and it must have made profitable sense or they would not have done it, then the management of the public schools may well have benefited from a parallel venture. The domination of the individual has been no less real or severe in the institutions of public education.

Henry (1972) described with candor and insight this domination of the individual in the institution of public education. His thesis was that "it is also essential that society make men vulnerable. If a man is invulnerable, society cannot reach him, and if society produces men who cannot be reached, it cannot

endure (p. 9)." It was the societal basis for the systematic ordering of vulnerability characterizing Weberian bureaucracy that Henry depicted so well:

How does society make people excruciatingly sensitive to the possibilities of and dangers of losing reputation, and how does society make one sensitive to one's vulnerability? It is done through placing reputation--the social person--in the center of consideration and making reputation destiny; by degrading the inner self to second, third, or merely adventitious place, and making the social facade supreme, so that at every step the self will be sacrificed to the facade (p. 10).

Within the institution of the public school system vulnerability has been maintained through the hierarchical structure of dependency in the bureaucracy. As Henry continued:

Every teacher in a public school system, for example, knows that if he asserts his self the probabilities of getting a raise or even keeping his job are reduced. But behind the principal who makes this clear to him is a superintendent who can punish the principal; and behind the superintendent is a board of education, while behind them is a state department of education ready to punish them all. Now the circle is complete, for the people, after all, are interested largely in preserving their good names. Since so many among them have given up self-striving, why should they allow it to anybody else? Furthermore they are frightened about what might happen to their non-conforming children (p. 13).

It was obvious that the student and teacher occupied the lowest levels in the hierarchy of vulnerability and dependency. The greatest degree of dependency existed at the lowest level in the hierarchy. The greatest degree of independence rested at the top level of the hierarchy. Within the public school system at the local district or town level, the student who was supposed to be learning to understand, to appreciate, and to practice democracy had the least opportunity to do so if this practice correctly assumed a high degree of independence and strength. From this

reasoning and glancing at Figure 1 it is clear that both students and teachers were at once the most vulnerable and dependent. There is what may be called a mirror effect of vulnerability and dependency in the typical public school system.

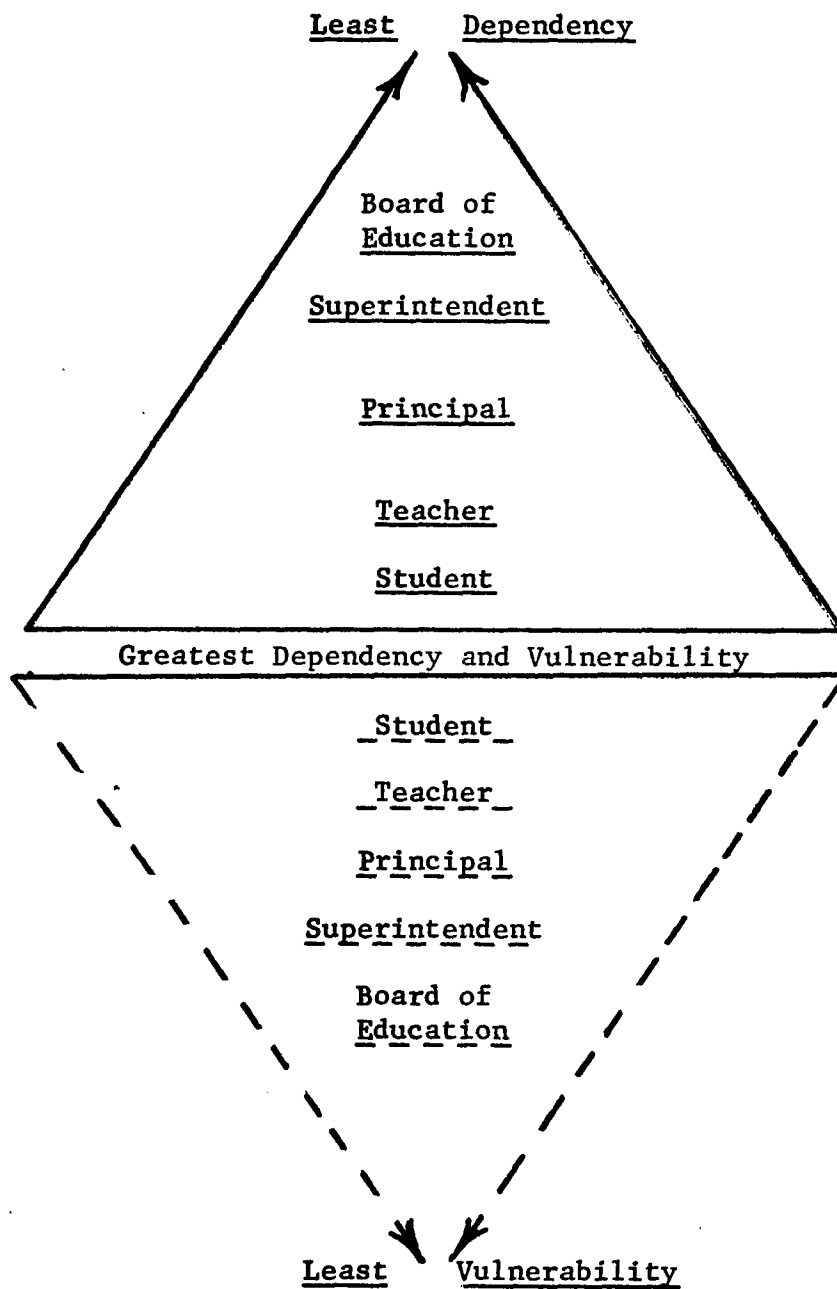


Fig. 1. Mirror effect of vulnerability and dependency.

A similar mirror effect could be depicted for a hierarchy based on power and authority. Power and authority as used here and subsequently throughout this writing reflected the definition of Corwin (1965), who said that "power refers to the ability to perform an act and authority to the right to do so ... (p. 24)." In a bureaucratic structure authority has become the institutional right to employ power. While power was a special kind of influence, it had to be recognizable and understood to be real. Similarly authority was not real or manifest unless it was enforceable. In any case the greatest power and authority have been held traditionally by those who were at the highest levels of the hierarchical structure. The least amount of power and authority has been held by those at the lowest levels of the hierarchy. Figure 2 depicts the board of education and the superintendent at the former levels and the teachers and students at the latter levels. The boundaries of Figure 1 and Figure 2 have been left incomplete to suggest that dependency and vulnerability, on the one hand, and power and authority, on the other, were not always clearly understood, felt, or exercised strictly according to placement in the hierarchical structure. The patterning, positioning, and effect are generally actualized in the manner described nevertheless.

It is fair to say that business and industry have been attempting to change their organizational patterns and the way in which they view the members of their organization. A great deal of progress has been made since the inception of the traditional and

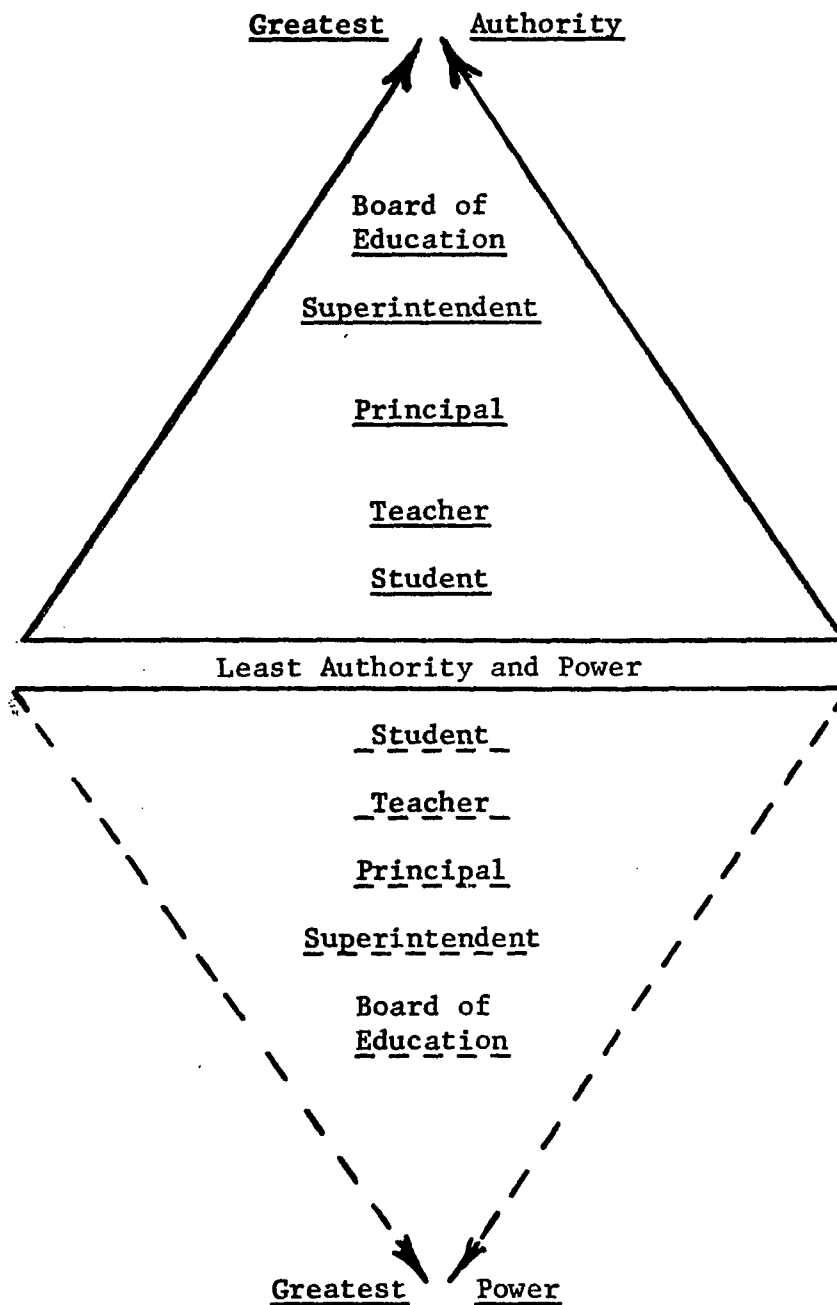


Fig. 2. Mirror effect of authority and power.

scientific approaches to bureaucratic management. It was time for management of the educational enterprise to assume an equal interest and willingness to initiate change.

Purpose

The salient purpose of these considerations was to provide a praxis for developing both a theoretical and working model of shared governance in the public secondary school. A praxis, both an action and course of action, has been explored in detail through the development of models that lend themselves to replication. The models provided a blueprint and guidelines for the praxis. The conceptualization of the models and the praxis have been geared to the goal of establishing shared governance and shared power as fundamental to the model organizational structure of the public secondary school.

It was proposed to take advantage of what the industrial and business management counterparts have discovered and achieved for the betterment of the management of the public secondary school. By reviewing, assessing, and adapting what has been learned in business and industry it was assumed possible to develop and implement a workable model in the public secondary school. To leap from the theoretical to the practical in one move represented a tremendous undertaking. It was a major tenet here that this represented a necessary and prudent risk at this time in the history of the public schools and this country.

It was necessary to provide an orientation to the meaning of a few of the words and phrases used in this presentation if the purpose was to be understood. Shared governance, shared power, and democracy in particular have special, but not unusual, interpretations and meanings.

Shared governance has reference to the actual process of sharing in decision-making by those who are being directly governed or their representatives. Representative governance and shared governance have been used interchangeably. Since a public secondary school is a kind of community, albeit institutionalized, it followed from this definition that the direction of that community should reflect the ideas, opinions, and wishes of the members of that community on a collaborative or shared basis. An additional condition of the definition was that the form of governance should evolve from the consent of the governed.

Shared power involved the basic control of the organization at least at the level of the public secondary school. It meant to actually share the control of the organization, directly or indirectly, through the available sources of power wherever and whenever legally possible. Corwin (1965) pointed out:

Power may be obtained from a variety of sources, e.g. money, influence, and control over resources; but two bases of power are of special importance, control over allocation and the principle of reciprocity. Whoever controls the assignment of personnel and students, whether it is a teacher, a secretary, or a principal, will be in a position of power. Similarly, whoever can influence the evaluation of others or control the school's finances will be in a position to obtain power (p. 26).

Both shared power and shared governance have reference to meaningful and significant involvement in the management of the public secondary school. To borrow a current phrase, it literally meant "to have a piece of the action." It involved a commitment and a willingness on the part of those who held power to share it with

those who didn't. It required this sharing in the absence of threat or violence. It demanded a mutuality of faith, trust, and confidence. In essence it represented a peaceful revolution.

Democracy was the philosophy or system of values that provided the foundation for these concepts of shared governance and shared power. Marcuse (1955) said that the necessity of repression and the suffering derived from it decreased with the maturity of the civilization. Bennis (1966) added: "Democracy becomes a functional necessity whenever a social system is competing for survival under conditions of chronic change (p. 19)." Democracy as used here has been based on the system of values by Bennis:

- (a) Full and free communication, regardless of rank and power.
- (b) A reliance on consensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise, to manage conflict.
- (c) The idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge rather than on the vagaries of personal whims or prerogatives of power.
- (d) An atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression as well as task-oriented acts.
- (e) A basically human bias, one which accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization and the individual but which is willing to cope with and mediate this conflict on rational grounds (p. 14).

More specifically the purpose of this study proposed to:

- (a) Provide a thorough and comprehensive review of the literature related to the topic.
- (b) Establish precedents and antecedents from business and management for seeking change in the management of the public secondary school.
- (c) Review and identify existing types or models of organizational structures in the public secondary schools.
- (d) Construct a theoretical model for shared governance based on shared power in the public secondary school based on an existing operational model.
- (e) Provide a detailed description by means of a case study of the operational model.

(f) Outline in detail the conditions favorable to implementation and the conditions unfavorable to implementation, the functions and dysfunctions the achievements and failure, the strengths and weaknesses of the operational model.

(g) Offer a means of replication for such a model through a detailed procedure and suggested calendar of events.

(h) Point the way for future development of both the theoretical model and the operational model within the public secondary school.

(i) Cite needed research to assess the operational model and compare it with other models or to indicate new directions to follow.

These elements combined to form the major purpose of devising an alternate management system, a viable and practical alternative, for a public secondary school. The models to be developed and considered would contain the basic elements of shared governance, shared power and democracy as defined. If this attempt worked, not only will there have taken place the successful combination of theory and practice, but also for all students, teachers, administrators, parents to see, there will have been created a microcosm of democracy in action.

Problem

There were two basic problems to contend with in achieving the purposes as outlined for this study. The more obvious one was that an operational model had been developed without the benefit of a theoretical guideline or blueprint. The operational model developed more by serendipity than by design. In effect having met the pragmatic test of operating successfully, the model needed a theoretical base after the fact of its creation and development. While the reversal of normal procedures did not lesson the importance of the

model, it did make it somewhat more difficult to establish a legitimate relationship between the two models.

The second basic problem in seeking to develop the working model in question in the public secondary school rested in the lack of precedence or antecedence and the unwillingness of educators in general to take even prudent risks. School governance based upon traditional hierarchical, bureaucratic structure stood squarely in the path of innovation and change. For all practical purposes prior to 1970 there were no outstanding examples of shared governance in the public secondary schools.

As a matter of fact, with very few exceptions there were only limited and condescending attempts at involving students at the junior and senior college levels in any form of shared governance. Whether it was junior college, college, or the public high school there was very little sharing of power among the members of the school communities. Much of the student activism of the late 1960's criticized and dramatized the lack of student involvement in decision-making from junior high school through graduate school. Tremendous pressure was brought to bear on administrators and institutions to effect changes that would bring students more directly into the meaningful decision-making process of the schools.

Students openly rejected the "make believe" involvement of student councils and student governments. Many administrators hurriedly mongrelized existing faculty and administrative organizational structures to include students, more often than not,

as non-voting members or as such vastly out-voted members that the tokenism deceived no one. However, more progress has been made at the junior college and college levels than at the high school level.

Schmerler (1972) believed that: "For whatever the reasons, the public acceptance of the concept of student participation--at least in its rhetorical forms--has been remarkably widespread (p. 2)." Unfortunately if this was true at all, it was only true in the "rhetorical forms," or in forms that were truly tokenism. Fahey (1971) interestingly reported: "It is noteworthy that this study clearly indicates the large gap that exists between the rhetoric and educators vis-à-vis shared power in decision-making and the actual implementation of such practices (p. 185)." The direction of student involvement in shared power was less clear than it was at the height of student activism in this country.

At a time when administrators should have been joining forces with students, faculty, and parents to effect changes in the power structure of the public schools, there seemed to be a phenomenon of regression or retreat taking place. It would not be long before there would appear again observations similar to these reported by Fahey:

In 1950, some astute and expert observers of the American educational scene, particularly those whose expertise lay in the field of psychology, were questioning the wisdom of educating children for participation in a democratic society by means of an educational system that was restrictive, oppressive, and nearly void of opportunity for individual expression (p. 4).

Again there would be questions about what was wrong with the young people. There would be great concern about their apathy and indifference to the world about them. Already these concerns and questions have been raised. The country will have gone full cycle, and the golden opportunity of student activism will have passed. As Chesler (1970), Frankel (1968), Hart and Saylor (1970), Kaye (1970), Rogers (1970) among others have suggested, student activism represented an opportunity and a challenge for education to direct a tremendous motivational force into constructive channels. If they haven't taken advantage of this opportunity, educators have missed a chance to collaborate and reinforce the development of new concepts or at least variations on the old management models.

The situation was not hopeless, but the conditions impinging upon the success of any new administrative venture had become more severe and the risks concomitantly greater. It would have been possible to have had a host of schools experimenting with the concept and the form of shared governance. Usually nothing encouraged boards of education like the "Keeping up with the Joneses" syndrome. Hardly anyone really tried. As Fahey (1971) discovered on the basis of a national study conducted under the auspices of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) through its Commission on Training Programs--Implementation of Shared Power, there were finally only seven schools reportable in terms of adherence to the defined concept of shared power in the management

of the school. Although it was not identified by name in the study, Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut was the school cited as demonstrating "the most promising procedures for shared power in decision-making through their Governing Board (Fahey, 1971, p. 179)." Staples High School had few, if any, counterparts at the time throughout the country.

The traditional adversary relationships that existed among students, teachers, and administrators were being resolidified. Unless parents and other adults forced the local board of education to involve them directly in controlling and running the school system, there was little likelihood of parents and other adults becoming involved in shared governance. At the time the schools were under heavy attack because of rapidly rising costs of education. Parents and other taxpayers were much more interested in how much they were paying rather than for what they were paying in the public schools.

Rising taxes, rising costs of everything, and increasing numbers of scarcities, not the least of which was gasoline, preoccupied the average American citizen. These problems, along with daily unsettling news of the world, increasing violence in this country, and continuing scandal of unknown dimensions in Washington took precedence; it was not surprising that the average citizen didn't get too excited with concepts such as shared governance in the public secondary school.

Still the public schools faced the realities of dealing with young people who were about to become "legal adults" or already were. Many schools in this country were still in the position of requiring young men who had registered for the draft and who could vote to obtain a pass to go to the lavatory. As ridiculous as this was, there were other archaic examples of inhumane and just plain stupid treatment of young people that could have been cited. The tragic aspect of all of this was that educators had a golden opportunity within their grasp to bring about significant changes in the management of their schools.

The courts, the advancing sophistication of our young people, and the acceleration of their maturation provided an excellent opportunity to initiate change for the educator who was willing to take a risk. There was a growing interest of taxpayers in teacher accountability as teacher militancy and rising pay scales became more obvious through negotiations. The ineffectiveness of traditional management patterns in dealing with teachers assumed increased visibility in the public schools. The ineffectiveness of the traditional student governments mounted annually. All of these instances would have become facilitating influences in the hands of a resourceful and imaginative risk-taker.

The problem was ultimately one of leadership at two levels in the typical public school system where the level at issue was the secondary (senior high) school. First, there had to be a principal in the school itself who was willing to take a very strong

leadership role both at the school and in the community. He had to be willing to forfeit his job or at least place himself in the position where this might happen. Second, the principal had to be supported by a superintendent of schools who not only shared his convictions at least in general but also was willing to put his job on the line as well. The real problem was to find two such leaders in one public school system. It might even have been questioned if finding a board of education to hire two such leaders was the greatest problem of all.

Assuming that this problem could be resolved, and it could have been as difficult as it may have seemed, there was also the very real problem of determining how to initiate change. Who should be involved? What procedures or process should be followed? How would change be effected with the least amount of disruption? When should actions be taken? How would the process or procedures be monitored? All these questions, and there were many more that could have been asked, pointed to the problem of how to sell the product of shared governance in whatever form it took. Schmerler (1972) wrote:

Student participation as a concept has wide appeal; but those with sufficient authority in the schools have seemingly lacked sufficient commitment to the idea to provide enough full-scale models for thorough evaluation. As a result, what we now know as "student participation" lies somewhere in between teaching about participation as a civic virtue and actual governance structures with students fully participating (p. 10).

If a logical case for developing a model of shared governance somewhere on the continuum suggested by Schmerler could have been established along with the model itself, would the educational

leadership in the public secondary schools have tried it? The dilemma was at once the question and the problem.

Statement of Need

The greatest need in the public schools of the United States, if not the world, has been to humanize the process of education. If the belief prevailed that society would not improve unless children were forced to learn those things that they would not normally do under their own volition, then the likelihood of humanizing the public schools was dim. Scobey and Graham (1970) in describing the three years prior to 1970 wrote:

Much has happened during the past three years to confirm our belief that developing humane capabilities is an educational imperative. The nation has been racked with group tensions and domestic disorders. At the same time, not much has happened to convince us that American educators have made progress in nurturing humane capabilities. We wonder, in fact, whether it is possible through formal education to raise the level of man's humaneness (p. ix).

It was necessary to develop a new view of human nature in the public school--one that was based on McGregor's (1960) Theory Y. Only then would the humanization of the schools be possible. This could not happen until the schools were willing to view young people with trust, confidence, and love.

Put in the most simple terms, there has been a need to preserve both integrity of individual freedom and the process through which it has been obtained. Both were in danger. As Gardner (1972) warned: "Our nation is in the gravest possible danger—danger of

losing its vitality and confidence and coherence as a society. Citizen action can play a significant role in averting that danger (p. 110)." There were obviously real questions of who was a citizen, what did a citizen do, and what were the elements of characteristics of citizenship? If Gardner (1972) was correct at the national level, and Boyer's (1971) warnings about the dangers of survival internationally were correct, citizenship had a tremendous need for individuals to learn not only to recognize their responsibilities but also how to carry them out.

The public secondary school was in an especially strategic position to meet the need of citizenship. Whether agreeable or not, the public high school, for example, had to cope with the challenge of accelerating social maturation of adolescents. The high school because of changes in the age of majority now had to deal with young people who could make contracts, vote in primaries and elections, run for office, drink hard liquor, and be held accountable under the law. There had been a compression of the range of experiences legally available to young people that made it essential to review the way that they were treated and involved in the management of the school. Many of the problems posed by these changes were not even recognized, let alone understood, by the administrators of many of the secondary public schools. It was a time of challenge and a period for innovation and change.

Ackerly (1969), Schwartz (1971), Nolte (1969), and Ladd (1971) have all alerted the principals of the public high schools that they

must recognize the rights of their students, their rights as free individuals, and exercise authority in a reasonable and just manner. Now that the rights of all young people had been clearly reinforced by the Supreme Court of the United States (*Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District*, 1969 and in *re Gault et al.*, 1967), it was essential that the public secondary schools demonstrated to their students the viability of both the law and their freedom. There existed a strong need to demonstrate the meaning and strength of the law by providing meaningful involvement for young people in the decision-making process of the school. Such participation would have been meaningful only when the students were able to share in making decisions that were significant in determining the policy of the school.

Interestingly, in the typical public secondary school the teachers had not enjoyed much of a share of the decision-making process either. Brubaker (1970) described the teacher as a decision-maker in a school as a social system. Schmuck and Blumberg (1969) and Sasse (1966) discussed the role of teachers in the decision-making process within the public school. It is clear that what had existed in the public schools was a kind of "benevolent autocracy." Teachers only stood above the students in proximity to the real power structure of the public school.

There was a compelling need for teachers as well as students to share the decision-making power of the public school system if the vulnerability in education described by Henry (1972) was to be

eliminated or diminished. There had to be a way of involving them in the process of decision-making. Also, since those who have power only reluctantly gave it up or shared it, administrators interested in shared governance had to be willing to surrender their autocratic possession and use of power.

Those structures of the traditional administration that created the discrepant distribution of power had to give way to a more democratic organization and process. Outmoded and ineffective student governments needed to give way to patterns of shared governance that honestly and realistically involved students and teachers in the decision-making process of the school. The means for doing this needed to be clearly provided in a vehicle for effecting change that was both visible and effective. The vehicle or organization had to share real power, and it had to evolve through a process of participation and consensus of the constituencies to be served by the organization.

If such an organization could have been created in the public secondary school, definite and inescapable leadership roles would have been established immediately. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the school would have provided the key leadership in bringing organizational change about. Since the principal had to be the leader on the spot, his role was crucial. He had to be able to convince the students and staff of his school that he not only believed in the concepts of shared power and shared governance but also pledged an unswerving commitment to them. It was essential

that the principal demonstrated the sincerity of both his beliefs and his pledges through consistent adherence to them in all kinds of adversity.

Under the potential pressures created by change, the principal in order to survive had to have the strong backing of the superintendent. The superintendent was required not only to help the principal with the public but also to keep the board of education at bay. Since superintendents are political creatures, this presented a special problem. However, if the superintendent was provided with the ammunition to fight off attacks or take the offensive in support of what had been proposed, he was able to hold his own. He could have been in this position only if he was involved in the process from the very beginning. If the superintendent and the principal developed the strategy from the inception of the planned change, not only would their roles have been clearly delineated but also their commitments as well.

Only with the cooperative leadership of the principal and the superintendent could the board of education have become convinced that the change was either necessary or desirable. It was essential that the board of education had been apprised of the plans and actions before they were implemented. They had to be convinced of what was planned. The task of educating the members of the board of education was a formidable one, but it had to be done. The local board of education had to stand ready to answer their constituents. They also had to be ready to respond to questions and criticisms from the state board of education or the commissioner of education.

Teachers and students had a dual role to play. They were sharers in the authorship of the drama, and they were also the players on the stage. If the proposed change was to work, teachers and students had to be involved in the process. Their commitment also had to carry over to active participation in the new structure. Students especially could greatly influence their parents' and other laymen's perceptions and understanding of the change. Generally speaking, if it captured student interest and involvement, but kept a low profile of disruption, did not cost more, nor lower the regular indices of student achievement, parents and other adults were not too concerned.

The need for a change agent of considerable ability emerged. Clearly and unmistakably the principal had to be that change agent. He had to possess the strength of his convictions. To orchestrate all the diverse groups of people involved in order to achieve acceptance of an innovation of significance in the public secondary school demanded courage, ability, energy, and dedication of a very special dimension. The source of these characteristics was the belief that there were still unfulfilled challenges of freedom and dignity for the individual, that it was possible to reestablish respect for the individual and his rights, that there were unlimited opportunities for individual development and growth, and that the public secondary school could convey these beliefs to young people through their involvement in a concept of shared governance.

Statement of a Belief

The change that was stressed in the theoretical and operational models of this study was predicated on strong convictions. These convictions or beliefs suggested that there were circumstances, organizations, actions, values, and attitudes that were amiss in the public schools. They stood as bases for corrective actions that were inherent in the development of the theoretical and operational models of the study.

The beliefs forming the basis of the study included:

- (a) The necessity for correcting and eliminating dehumanizing practices in the public secondary schools such as a marking system based on unfair competition, corporal punishment, curricular tracking, misuse of records, and treatment based on distrust instead of faith.
- (b) The modification of governance that discriminates against both teachers and students by not providing equal participation or any participation.
- (c) The right of members to share in the determination and direction of their organization through direct participation or representation.
- (d) The assumption of responsibility by the individual for his own behavior, the behavior of others, and the "behavior" of the institutions to which he belongs.
- (e) The legitimacy of democratic action determined by the extent to which real power is shared among the members of the organization.
- (f) The necessity of official recognition of this legitimacy of democratic action in the policy of the board of education.
- (g) The integrity and humane behavior of most of the people most of the time, the desire of most people to do the right thing most of the time.
- (h) The viability of shared governance through participatory democracy.
- (i) The ability of members to participate within the limitations of their knowledge, understanding, and experience.

These beliefs were obviously idealistic. It might be argued that democracy as a concept is idealistic. If democracy is to work,

it would have to depend upon the idealism of man. Man would have to be a rational as well as a feeling animal or there was little hope for democracy. Adolescence has been described as the time of idealism in the age of man. It affords the best time to establish an organizational structure based on idealistic beliefs, and the public secondary school was the best place to do it.

Procedure

The method of the study has followed the sequence of reviewing pertinent literature, analyzing and categorizing selected theoretical and operational models, developing a theoretical model of shared governance for public secondary education, presenting a case history of an operational model in a public high school, establishing a blueprint or guideline for the replication of the operational model, providing a summary of the study with implications for future research and study.

The review of the literature has been analyzed to determine if there were any discernible trends emerging in the management and organization of the public secondary schools involving the relationship among students, teachers, and administrators. Related developments in the governance of public schools, junior colleges, and colleges have been examined for their possible relevancy to the models of the study. Antecedents and precedents from the social sciences and industrial and business management have been sought to establish a rationale for the models. A comprehensive and thorough

review of the literature and relevant research findings was conducted and organized to provide a convenient means of following the development of the study.

Where they existed and were relevant to this study, theoretical and operational models have been carefully studied in business and industry. The model conceptualization by Likert (1967, 1961) of his "linking-pin" management for industry and business was carefully reviewed, for example. In particular a thorough search was made to determine if there were comparable or relevant theoretical or operational models extant in the public schools. In addition, the models available for study in the junior colleges and colleges were analyzed and categorized to determine if they had applicability for this study.

The operational model presented in the study was the actual system of governance that had been employed at Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut. It was called the Staples Governing Board (SGB). The development, description, and operation of this model have been presented in great detail. This model has been presented first because its development preceded the creation of a theoretical model for its design.

The theoretical model grew out of work completed in courses taught by Professor James B. Macdonald at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The theoretical model has been presented as suggestive rather than definitive. It has been designed to promote the freedom of the individual and the democratization of the public secondary school in which he has to learn.

The steps by which the organizational model (SGB) was developed have been reconstructed and modified to provide a blueprint for replication. Through a calendar of events replication has been made easier for anyone who wished to follow in this direction.

In order to provide a better understanding of the conditions surrounding the development of the operational model, a brief history of governance at Staples High School has been provided. The community and the population have also been described in some detail to provide insight into the acceptance of the model. The existing conditions that may have influenced the development and acceptance of the model have been identified.

Since the development of the operational model represented the effecting of change in a traditional public secondary school, the process of influencing change has been reviewed. In effect the process of developing and implementing the operational model at Staples High School amounted to providing a vehicle for change. Facilitating change to a large extent has been incorporated in the development of both an operational and theoretical model.

The summary of the study has been written as a call for action and a guide to the future. The implications for further study and related research have suggested that only one small step has been taken for the young people of the public secondary schools. The necessity for a peaceful and enlightened revolution that must first take place in the hearts and minds of public school officials has been proposed.

CHAPTER II
ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE

The available literature dealing specifically with the concept of shared governance in the public secondary school has been found wanting. This lack was not surprising since public school administrators have not rushed to share their power with anyone. It quickly became evident that a more comprehensive search was necessary to assist in understanding the task of this study. The search was broadened to include findings at the junior college and college levels and to seek out antecedents and precedents from business and industrial management at least related to the concept of shared governance. The final area under investigation centered around the efforts of the Mershon Center at The Ohio State University to promote political education in the public schools.

For purposes of organization and clarity in presentation, the information reviewed has been divided into eight categories. There was obviously opportunity for overlap, but this categorization attempted an ordering of the writings as they were considered in relation to the models of this study. The categories were identified as:

- (a) Philosophical and historical considerations.
- (b) Related research.
- (c) Process of effecting change.
- (d) Rights and responsibilities.
- (e) Student and teacher militancy.
- (f) Antecedents and precedents in social sciences and business and industry.

- (g) Existing concepts of governance at all levels of education.
- (h) Implications of political education.

Philosophical and historical considerations came from relatively few sources. However, they indicated that the problem of shared governance has been around many centuries. Although actual related research did not offer much assistance, several studies were reviewed. One in particular by Fahey (1971) was especially relevant because the operational model at Staples High School was the key model described in that research. The process of effecting or facilitating change was briefly reviewed to establish guidelines for constructing a model that would essentially become a model for change.

Rights, responsibilities, and militancy of teachers and students were reviewed as they appeared in the literature. Not unusually the literature dealing with the militancy or activism of students was the most plentiful in the light of the recent happenings in the United States. Closely related to the activism of students in recent years there was a considerable amount of writing dealing with governance at the junior college and college levels. Relatively little has been written about governance in the public schools.

However, there has been a proliferation of writing about management in the social sciences, business, and industry. There was so much available in these areas that it was very difficult to report properly on antecedents and precedents for shared governance in the schools. However, subjective selection was employed to review key writings. Finally, a category devoted to the consideration and applicability of the writing and thinking from the writers

dealing with political education in the public schools offered an excellent source of relevant ideas and actions.

This has been a difficult undertaking, but it has provided relatively thorough coverage of the existing writing that related to the concept of shared governance as viewed in the study. Each of the writings cited has contributed in some way to the development of the theoretical and operational models of the study.

Philosophical and Historical Considerations

It was not surprising to discover that the process of shared governance in a school setting created problems even for Aristotle. According to Durant (1933), the problem arose and was resolved in a democratic way:

When in the fifty-third year of his age, Aristotle established his school, the Lyceum, so many students flocked to him that it became necessary to make complicated regulations for the maintenance of order. The students themselves determined the rules and elected, every ten days, one of their number to supervise the School. But we must not think of it as a place of rigid discipline; rather the picture which comes down to us is of scholars eating their meals in common with the master, learning from him as he and they strolled up and down the walk along the athletic field from which the Lyceum took its name (p. 44).

Skipping many centuries to about 1200 A.D., McGrath (1970) described the existing university as "a privately established guild, created by students (p. 10)." Initially the term university simply meant all of a group. It was made up solely of students. It wasn't until later that the teachers banded together in the collegium to provide protection against the students. McGrath (1970) continued:

In sharp contrast with its faculty counterparts today, the collegium had little authority over educational policies and practices, and virtually no parietal control over the lives of students. In fact the present faculty-student relationships in policy formation are a diametrical reversal of their medieval antecedents. Then the students through their own elected executive officer, the rector, imposed rigid controls over the teachers' professional activities and indeed over his community relationships. They prescribed the hours when the teacher should meet his classes, the character of his lectures, the scheduling and the content of his examinations, the amount of his compensation, and the times when he could be absent not only from the classroom but from the town as well (p. 11).

The teachers then did control the membership of the collegium with admission procedures that they established. While to a large extent this practice still existed, the role of students in the power structure of the modern university has drastically changed. There has been a shift in parietal controls, but the students have regained very little of the shared power they had once held.

Following McGrath's (1970) background of the history of student participation in the governance of colleges and universities, the inevitability of change from student control to paternalism became clear. This happened at the end of the medieval period when more and more power passed to external governors of the universities who controlled the funds. When the students lost control of the purse strings, for all intents and purposes they lost control of the teachers and the university. The control of the university was firmly in the hands of governors who were either civil or ecclesiastical authorities or both.

In England in succeeding centuries there was a gradual shift of power from outside authorities back to the professors of the university.

Academic authority again prevailed. The students were really young apprentice clerics. Wealthy patrons caused the universities to be relatively independent financially, and the professoriate grew in numbers and status. The control of power had returned to the academic authorities. As McGrath (1970) noted: "Hence, the leaders of church and state in England considered it entirely proper to turn over power for the internal operation of the colleges to the doctors and masters--the faculty (p. 15)."

It was logical for the early Americans to follow the English pattern of college organization. This was done with regard to control of student life by the faculty, but interestingly there was not a carry over with regard to control of the institution by the faculty. McGrath (1970) noted: "The colonial American colleges adopted the Scottish form of academic governance, whereby a group of laymen served as the ultimate governing body for the institution (pp.15-16)."

From the historical antecedents of the American college and university it was learned that control has shifted back and forth among students, faculty, and laymen. McGrath cited a trend in recent years that has put more and more de facto power at the disposition of faculty with regard to practically all academic matters and policies. McGrath carefully noted:

As part of this trend, the power of students has been subordinated. Their role has been that of children--wards of a paternalistic institution, to be disciplined and molded into maturity. Unlike their Bolognese forerunners, who had dominant control over academic establishments, university students of recent centuries have been financially dependent. They have been sent to college by their families or accepted on scholarships; they themselves have not paid the bills. ... From the establishment of Harvard until

today, with only the most atypical exception, the influence of students has been limited to indirect action. They might voice their opinions of their teachers, their courses of study, or the conditions of campus life; they might petition for redress of grievances; they might object to regulations and restrictions; they might forment demonstrations and rebellions; all these things American college and university students have done over the past three centuries. But theirs was the privilege of protest, not of power, and theirs was the duty of obedience, not of participation (pp. 16-17).

Thus the roots of protest go back deeply into the historical and philosophical background of the American colleges and universities. A careful study of the history of higher education would have revealed a range of student protest from "dirty tricks" on authority on the one hand to outright rioting and rebellion on the other. Student protest using violence was not new to the academic world. The neglect of students has been an historical tradition in colleges and universities.

Although student protest did effect some significant changes, for the most part the subservient role of students did not change from the paternalistic pattern. The decision of Amherst in 1880 as a result of rioting and wholesale disobedience to give students the right to make decisions about their own affairs was still subject to the veto of the president. When student government developed on campus, it was relegated to an extracurricular status, and even then the rule was to have the student decisions subject to review by faculty or administration. Rarely, if ever, were the students permitted to assist in making policy decisions (McGrath 1970).

And so the situation stood until the student upheaval of the late 1960's. The student activism began at the college and university

level, but it soon spread downward until even the students of elementary and junior high schools became involved in addition to the senior high school students. Television and radio coverage provided instant communication of what was happening throughout the United States.

Not surprisingly in many areas parents, laymen, faculty, and students formed a coalition that disrupted, closed, and changed many educational institutions in the United States. Normal adversary relationships were discarded in the struggle against the common enemy--the administration --generally referred to as the "power structure."

The Vietnam War became a convenient rationale for license. Property was destroyed and stolen, people were killed and injured, rights were ignored and thwarted, and disruption became an everyday occurrence. The public secondary school was right in the middle of the action. (Student activism has been explored more fully in the category of student and teacher militancy.) It was important to recognize that all the forces impinging upon the colleges and universities were the same as those affecting the public secondary school. They took only slightly longer to get there.

It was a frightening time in the history of the United States. Boyer (1971) posed a special kind of education directed at raw survival in a world that he viewed on the brink of self-destruction. His hope for survival rested in the strong conviction that the public schools had to reconstruct themselves if they were to become relevant. He believed that students must have the opportunity to participate in planning if the expectation was to have them share in planning

processes later on. This understanding paralleled the warning of Mann (1891) that: "One of the highest and most valuable objects, to which the influences of a school can be made conducive, consists in training our children to self-government (p. 36)." Simply stated, one learns by doing (Dewey 1963).

While Boyer (1971) questioned the survival of mankind, Loving (1968) asked whether or not America would survive. If the premise that democracy would not survive without its schools was accepted, and if the dire statement by Reimer (1971) that the public was dead was accepted, then the fate of America would have been sealed. Happily the future of public education has not ended nor the future of America with it.

There has been a plethora of writings that proposed what to do with public education. They not only told what was wrong with the schools but they also offered the solution as well. Reimer (1971) pronounced the school dead and offered the observation that: "Schools will have to be replaced by opportunity networks that provide universal access to essential educational resources--including things and people (p. 112)." Illich (1971), as critiqued by Gintis (1972), proposed simply to deschool society and substitute his own educational alternatives that would bring man back to the pleasure of performing tasks for himself. Where Illich offered a kind of do-it-yourself kit of training experiences, Hutchins (1969) came forward with the idea that a learning society was needed to account for the increased amount of leisure time that a growing technocracy would provide. It was almost necessary to have a scorecard to keep track of the critics and protectors of public education.

At times it appeared that the critics and protectors were not talking about the same institution. While Holt (1964) described how children failed in the public schools, and Silberman (1970) described the crisis that existed in the classroom, Leonard (1968) wrote about the ecstatic experiences in education, and Cremin (1965) extolled "the genius of American education" in its "commitment to popularization (p. 1)."

Perhaps the nub of the problem resulted from the ability of man to create and act upon values. Eiseley (1971) wrote: "Man has become, in other words, a value-creating animal. He sets his own goals and more and more exerts his own will upon recalcitrant matter and the natural forces of the universe (p. 11)." Lest man become cocksure, Eiseley (1957) reminded him that in the evolutionary scheme of things: "There are things still coming ashore (p. 54)." He warned man quite eloquently that his view was still Ptolemaic:

We teach the past, we see farther backward into time than any race before us, but we stop at the present, or, at best, we project far into the future idealized versions of ourselves. All that long way behind us we see perhaps inevitably through human eyes alone. We see ourselves as the culmination and the end, and if we do indeed consider our passing, we think that sunlight will go with us and the earth be dark. We are the end (p. 57).

There was hope to be found in Eiseley's perspective because there is always the hope for new life. He underscored this hope with assurance although:

Perpetually, now, we search and bicker and disagree. The eternal form eludes us--the shape we conceive as ours. Perhaps the old road through the marsh should tell us. We are one of many appearances of the thing called Life;

we are not its perfect image, for it has no image except Life, and life is multitudinous and emergent in the stream of time (p. 59).

Bronowski (1959, 1965) described the necessity for the scientist to develop a basic or fundamental set of values. Education certainly has not developed to the level of a science. Neither have the practitioners of education developed or acquired a set of values that were either clearly identified or generally accepted among their professional peers. Wiles (1964) called for the prioritizing of values by determining those which were fundamental and those which contributed to the attainment of the fundamental values. He described the maintenance of human life as the primary value. Other values cited included the "development of the potential of each individual," the establishment of a "single moral community," the preservation of the means to permit "objective evaluation of ideas and values," and broadening the base for "participation in decisions (pp. 502-504)."

There has to be a reason for creating a set of values. Educators, because they deal with young people, must have access to such guidance almost constantly. Menninger (1974) made a strong case for the use of the word sin: "Thus, as an operative term sin has this value: it identifies something to be eliminated or avoided (p. 49)." In the absence of sin Fromm (1956) advocated the exercise of the power of love. In order to be able to reach the art of loving, a person had to learn and achieve mastery of the theory of love and then become skillful of the practice. Unless a set of values evolved among educators that viewed man and his nature differently than explained

by McGregor (1960) in his Theory X, there was not much chance for anything radically different to happen in the public schools.

Polanyi (1966) has written reassuringly what he described as a fact: "We can know more than we can tell (p. 4)." He called for us to become a nation of explorers, and his writing paralleled the thinking of Habermas (1971), who asserted that "The analysis of the connection of knowledge and interest should support the assertion that a radical critique of knowledge is possible only as social theory (p. vii)." Both writers would have concurred with Bronowski (1965) when he wrote:

I hold that each man has a self, and enlarges his self by his experiences. That is, he learns from experience: from the experiences of others as well as his own, and from their inner experiences as well as their outer. But he can learn from their inner experience only by entering it, and that is not done merely by reading a written record of it. We must have the gift to identify ourselves with other men, to relive their experience and to feel its conflicts as our own (pp. 77-78).

What had these notions to do with what had happened or what was needed in the public secondary school? All of them contributed to an awareness that the social arena of the public secondary school was just a way station along the evolution of a people and their culture. If Polanyi and Bronowski were correct, then the only proper experience for a public secondary school was one of collaborative learning. This was learning, according to Macdonald (1974), that promoted and demanded the sharing of experiences between individuals based upon the recognition of mutual contributions and the respect for each other's freedom. The sharing of values had to come about through the experience of collaborative learning.

Unless values and experiences were shared through a collaborative learning experience, there was little likelihood for love, freedom, or any other positive value to prevail. Freire (1970) has long been a strong advocate of freedom. His advocacy included the admonition:

Any situation in which some men prevent others in the process of inquiry is one of violence. The means used are not important; to alienate men from their own decision-making is to change them into objects (p. 73). ... No one can be authentically human while he prevents others from being so. Attempting to be more human, individualistically, leads to having more, egotistically: a form of dehumanization. Not that it is not fundamental to have in order to be human. Precisely because it is necessary, some men's having must not be allowed to constitute an obstacle to others' having, must not consolidate the power of the former to crush the latter (pp. 73-74).

His advocacy of freedom required that only by the oppressed gaining their freedom could oppressors achieve theirs. In fact, Freire (1970) pointed out that the oppressed were actually afraid of freedom; freedom was attainable only by conquest; freedom was not freely given. He emphasized the significance of freedom when he wrote: "Freedom is not an ideal located outside of man; nor is it an idea which becomes myth. It is rather the indispensable condition for the quest of human completion (p. 31)."

In a recent speech on individualization and socialization Macdonald (1974) warned that to attempt to provide both socialization and individualization simultaneously in the public schools immediately created a functional dilemma. Socialization represented the attempt of the society to self-actualize itself. Individualization within that same society represented the attempt of self-actualization. The result inevitably was to create conflicts between the society

and the individual. These conflicts have been obvious throughout the history of schools. Each generation has witnessed its own conflicts between the self-actualization of society and individuals.

Bennis (1966) called attention to the same conflict between the self-actualization of the individual and the self-actualization of the organization. McGregor (1960) gave shape to the dilemma according to Bennis (1966) when he wrote that "he (McGregor) more than other recent students of organizational behavior, has attempted to stress the sticky problem of integration of task requirements with the individual's growth (p. 77)." This problem presented a formidable obstacle to humanizing and democratizing business and industrial organizations.

And yet Macdonald (1971) in the organization of public education has a vision of a humane school where conflict resolution can take place. He explained, "a vision of a humane school is a vision which is predicated upon the idea that the educational process is a humanistic process which flows out of the integration of substance with values and becomes operative through the feelings and personal meanings of the participants (pp. 12-13)." This school has an amorphous design at best. It did not resolve the basic conflict between socialization and individualization identified by Macdonald himself.

The conflict remained and the vulnerability that it engendered has been described eloquently and forcefully by Henry (1972). The essential nature of the power structure within the bureaucratic organization of the typical public school system forced the members

of that organization to be vulnerable. Neil (1966) and Glasser (1969) have attempted to create new organizational structures for schools that would eliminate the more obvious manifestations of the vulnerability syndrome. Glasser advocated the elimination of failure, and Neil created a special kind of learning environment which he has recently described anew as freedom without license. The public schools have not beaten a path to the door of either writer.

A great deal more has been written about humaneness in the public schools than has been done to enhance that quality there. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has devoted at least one yearbook (1970) and many other writings (1971) to the subject. Writers such as Trump (1972) and Wilhelms (1972) have written convincingly on the subject. The question of what was to be done persisted nevertheless.

It was possible to assimilate the writings of Rogers (1958, 1959, 1961) and to understand the applicability of his teachings about helping others in their development as persons to providing more humane treatment of students in the schools, but it was almost impossible to find reports in the literature that spoke in glowing and comprehensive descriptions of schools that had been so humanized.

The issue of socialization versus individualization remained. At the crux of this issue was the control of power in the public schools. Power and authority over the years have captured the attention of a great many writers such as D'Antonio and Ehrlich (1961), Hodgkinson and Meeth (1971), Estes (1971), James (1959), Dodson (1974), Goldhamer and Shils (1939), and McGrath (1970).

Della-Dora and House (1974) advocated an open society to provide participation of all members of society in the decision-making procedure. They described open-society as a model that "would involve using power not only for the needs of individuals and groups, but also for the mutual benefit of all groups, and individuals in creating and maintaining an open society (p. 97)." Dodson (1974) carried the idea to the point of describing a conflict model which recognized that:

We are now in an era of participatory democracy. People are no longer content just to give their "consent" for authority which is practiced upon them. They insist that they be included in the decision-making process. Not even the expert is trusted in this phase of participatory democracy. Professional people are being required increasingly to allow the consumers of their services to participate in determining the goals toward which "expertness" is directed. The populace wants "a piece of the action (p. 102)."

This was the "revolt of the client" as described by Haug and Sussman (1969).

D'Antonio and Ehrlich (1961) expressed many pertinent insights into democracy. They said, "The ultimate rationale for a democracy is that it alone, among the political systems which man has devised to govern himself, best protects the integrity of the individual (p. 130)." They saw power as the control of the decision-making process. Conversely, freedom became the ability of the individual to make choices. Authority and influence were seen as two main elements of power. Authority represented the right to control the decision-making procedure, and influence affected control of the decision-making procedure based on personal characteristics or qualities (charisma). They saw "Power, grounded in knowledge and

framed by respect for human dignity, as the necessary tool for the development of the democratic system (p. 152)."

Goldhamer and Shils (1939) wrote about various types of power and status. They felt a person possessed power when he could influence others to do his wishes. This power came in three variations of force, domination, and manipulation. These classifications of power were adopted from the writings of Max Weber.

Hodgkinson and Meeth (1971) in writing about freedom, authority, power, and governance said:

If, as Robert Frost says, freedom is "working easy in harness," then power is the horse and authority the hand on the plow. The plow, the instrument of fulfillment, needs both power and authority to accomplish its task. We understand power as the force and authority as the mandate or right that moves institutions of higher learning. Carrying the analogy one step further, we also differentiate between government and governance, government being the plow, the instrument, or the entity to be moved, and governance being the act of plowing or the process of governing by setting freedom, power, and authority loose in the production of furrows (p. xi).

It appeared to Eaton (1961) that the concept of a democratic organization, at least in the public school system, was more a myth than a reality. Even at the college level Frick (1969) in writing about studies done at Findlay College (Ohio) found that in the final analysis very few staff members wanted to become formally involved in the administrative decisions of the college. He concluded: "I believe that all involved must recognize the need for leadership, whether it be faculty, student or administrative leadership. The college cannot, finally, be governed by decisions which are a series of compromises where one decision checkmates the second, and so on,

creating thereby a stalemate (p. 270)." The statement amounted to a rejection outright of the concept and the practice of participatory democracy at that college level.

Frankel (1968) adopted a more liberal outlook about student power on the college campus:

Thus the question raised by present demands for student power is not really whether students should finally be given the right to say something about what happens to them. It is whether it would be educationally desirable to create arrangements permitting students to participate more visibly and formally in the making of educational decisions. Considered as a general proposition, there can be little doubt, I think, that this is the direction in which change should proceed (p. 23).

It was interesting to note that Frankel's article did not recognize the success of Antioch College with its unique form of shared governance that involved students, faculty, administrators, and others in the process of participatory democracy since 1926. For that matter, none of the other references for this study mentioned it either with the exception of McGrath (1970). The governance of Antioch College has been summarized succinctly by Reagin (1971) and Keeton (1971).

The references that were available at the time of this study raised more questions than provided answers. It was clear, however, that a great deal of confusion and many honest differences of opinion prevailed about the current status of organizational decision-making and sharing power. From either a philosophical or an historical prospective, the basic dichotomy between socialization and individualization endured. As long as it remained, perhaps the only way to bridge the dichotomy and resolve conflicts between the individual and the organization was through an ombudsman as described by

Freedman (1974) in Philadelphia. This procedure, unfortunately, dealt only with the symptoms of the basic problem. The vehicle for effecting a conflict resolution between individualization and socialization still needed to be developed for the public secondary school. Brown (1972) ignored the dilemma completely, and Briggs (1972) typified the unwillingness of educators to face up to their responsibility. At the conclusion of this study there was no new vehicle for change coming down the pike.

Related Research

Two categories of research surfaced from a review of the literature. The first category dealt specifically with the problem of establishing shared governance and shared power in the public high school. Fahey (1971) and Schmerler (1972) were the sources of this information. A secondary category provided only peripheral information to the problem. Guilliams (1972), Sasse (1966), Sharma (1955), McPartland and McDill (1970), Duggal (1969), and LeKander (1967) provided assistance in the second category. There has not been very much research activity related to this problem.

Fahey (1971) based his study on a survey of examples of shared power and shared decision-making in the public high schools in the United States conducted by the Commission on Training Programs/Implementation of Shared Power. In the final phase of the survey nine schools were identified according to criteria previously identified. Because of cancellations by two of the schools only seven of the nine were finally visited by survey teams. On the basis

of this procedure one high school was identified: "School (G), a large three-year high school, demonstrated the most promising procedures for shared power in decision-making through their Governing Board. The participants perceived themselves as having a share in the ownership of the governance body; authorization and accountability had been granted by the school board and the areas of operation were quite clearly defined (Fahey, 1971, p. 179)."

The high school identified in this study was Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut. The study did provide a considerable amount of information about the Governing Board, but it did not describe how it came about, nor did it provide a guideline for replication. It did not provide a case study of the origin and operation of the Governing Board, nor did it offer any analyses of its strengths or weaknesses, achievements or failures, and functions or dysfunctions. For example, no attempt was made to analyze the functional dilemmas of this form of governance. Finally, there were no indications of conditions that would foster the innovation of a similar concept of shared governance elsewhere. In defense of Fahey it should be noted that the Staples Governing Board had been in existence for only a short period of time--functionally about a year--when his study was completed.

Perhaps more than any other source in the literature Fahey's work prompted the completion of the present study. It seemed to be a logical next step to provide those innovators who desired to replicate the Staples Governing Board all the information and guidance possible to assist them in that achievement.

Schmerler (1972) affected the initiation of the present study for the reason primarily that he ignored the recognition accorded the Staples Governing Board by the ASCD Commission on Training Program/Implementation of Shared Power. Schmerler wrote: "An inclusive literature search--extending well beyond the traditional library boundaries--has provided the bulk of the material presented in this study (p. 13)." Surprisingly he did not mention the Staples Governing Board in his study.

Yet his work was helpful in that it added a considerable number of sources that went far beyond the Fahey (1971) dissertation. Also, in particular his identification of "five basic approaches to increased student participation" has been very helpful. The approaches, based primarily on the relationship of students to the decision-making process, were reported as:

- (1) collaborative, in which students join with faculty and/or administrators and (occasionally) parents to consider jointly the various academic and administrative issues which confront, to a greater or lesser extent, all the groups;
- (2) parallel, in which students in their own independent groups deal with much the same agenda items as adult decision-makers and transmit their recommendations;
- (3) adversary, in which students promote their own interests through tactics of organized pressure and negotiation;
- (4) independent, in which students are given primary decision-making responsibility for specified programs and operating procedures;
- (5) individual choice, in which the somewhat different focus is on providing the individual student the leeway to design his own program and regulate much of his own academic activity (pp. 124-138).

These approaches actually became the bases for the five models of governance presented by Schmerler. They proved helpful in providing a designation for the Staples Governing Board.

The second category of research was only peripherally involved with the problem of shared governance. Duggal (1969) among others, sought to check the hypothesis that "student unrest is related to student participation in school management (p. 2)." That promising lead was rejected on the basis of the results of the study. Sharma (1955) and Sasse (1966) found that there was a desire among teachers to assume greater professional responsibility in the school. This feeling was especially true in instructional areas. Sharma's study disclosed that the satisfaction of teachers:

was directly related to the extent to which current practices in decision-making in their schools conformed to the practices which they felt should be followed. Furthermore, their satisfaction was related directly to the extent that they participated in decision-making as individuals or groups (1955, p. 21).

The research conducted by LeKander (1967), disappointingly for the purpose of this study, actually reported a self-fulfilling prophesy. As Schmerler (1972) pointed out in reviewing the study: "The criterion of measurement was the extent to which 100 Southern California high schools were achieving the goals of citizenship enumerated in their student council constitutions. Not surprisingly for this study, the conclusion was that they were achieving these goals (p. 45)."

McPartland and McDill (1970) in a study which was limited because of a narrow definition of academic decision-making as "restrictions on students' academic choices" found a positive relationship between student participation and major school goals. Their investigations were restricted to existing procedures which they categorized as content of courses, academic requirements, time allocation, and

selection of teachers and grading methods. While their study did offer some consideration of providing greater student participation in these categories, there were no practical guidelines suggested for effecting change.

Guilliams (1972), as the result of his research effort, concluded:

- (1) Attitudes elicited by the RSI appeared to be only one set of factors influencing teachers' perception of students' classroom behavior for certain interaction of both persons when sex, race and grade are considered;
- (2) The majority of educators, both teachers and principals, either do not understand the relationship between student rights and the principles underlying the democratic process or they feel that students should not be given the same rights as other American citizens;
- (3) Male students may not generally receive the same positive reward as female students because teachers tend to perceive their behavior as being more deviant.

If students are to be provided a genuine equality of educational opportunity in our schools, considerable effort must be given to the re-education of teachers, principals and other educators in the areas of human relations and human rights. Teacher perception of deviant behavior may often be due to inadequate understanding of these matters and fixed behaviors regarding the control factors in the school (p. 82).

These sources have all contributed to the focus on developing the models of this study. Yet, it was surprising to find so little research activity surrounding what has been a very traumatic period in public education. It appeared that the rhetoric concerning the concepts of shared power and shared governance was not supported operationally in the schools or theoretically in the literature to the extent anticipated. The public schools still resisted change mightily, and leadership for this change was still unwilling to come forward in large numbers.

Process of Effecting Change

Boocock (1972) has provided an excellent framework for the work of this study. She has summarized in excellent fashion and with scholarly detail the best available research and findings through a study of the sociology of learning. She noted: "I do feel that many of the structural features of our schools and school systems are at the crux of learning problems. Further, I believe that we must change such structures quite radically (p. x)." The major purpose of her book was its analysis of the contribution sociology could make to understanding and using learning theory. Whereas psychological studies of learning theory generally sought to eliminate the contamination of environmental influences, Boocock offered to tackle this problem of research in order to discover the optimum conditions for learning and to discover what caused learning failures.

She offered an interesting view of children:

The goals a society sets for its educational system and what and how children are taught in school depend not only upon what is perceived as valuable and necessary for the smooth functioning of society but also upon society's view of what children are like. Although we tend to take for granted the way children are treated in our own society, it is important to remember that what we see--the aspects of children's behavior to which we are sensitive--is filtered through a cultural lens (Boocock, 1972, p. 7).

Surprisingly, young people in the public schools were not treated and viewed in a manner that reflected the views of their parents. Boocock went on to describe many crosscultural differences in this respect. The inescapable conclusion of a considerable amount of study in this area was that American adolescents were treated as children much longer than was true in other countries (p. 295).

Again Boocock (1972) summarized an important assumption of this study that there was an inescapable relationship between societies and their schools (p. 289). This was not surprising since societies tend to perpetuate themselves and to provide boundary maintenance through their schools. Boocock's work provided an excellent source of research to support the worth of attempting to effect change in the meaningful involvement of adolescents in the governance of their microcosm of the democratic society--the secondary public school.

Barry and Wolf (1965) warned:

For Americans, the values associated with democracy are the first of many possible general values. Freedom and equality together with responsible citizenship are values about which most Americans would agree, although many do not give evidence of this agreement in their actions. The Constitution guarantees to everyone the right to express his own individuality as long as he does so with respect for the rights of other citizens. That Americans are tending less and less to respect the right of the individual is evident in the writings of some authors and in the growing concern with conformity and stifling of talent (p. 46).

If the values associated with democracy were in danger, action to provide a vehicle for change within the public schools was necessary.

Hearn (1972), McAndrew (1970), Voegelé (1969), Carlson (1965), Chesler, Schmuck, and Lippitt (1963), and Novotney (1967), concerned themselves with innovation and change in schools. Hearn (1972) wrote about "the where, when, and how of trying innovations." McAndrew (1970) raised the question of whether institutions could change, a question which he answered affirmatively. Voegelé (1969) made a strong case for involving students in change. Carlson (1965) described the change process within the public schools in terms of the dynamics of social interaction. Chesler, Schmuck, and Lippitt (1963) identified

and described the principal's role in bringing about innovation. Finally, Novotney (1967) dealt with the management of change through what he called a "change implementation model (p. 25)." Common threads ran through the fabric of these writings. In each instance the leadership role of the principal was spelled out or implied. He was assumed to have discerned the need for change and made a decision to bring about that change.

Providing a model for change or innovation occupied Griffiths (1963), Morris (1967), Taylor (1971), Novotney (1967), and Bennis, Benne, and Chin (1961) as a primary element in the change process. While Morris (1967) described the process of creating and designing models as an art, Novotney (1967) joined him in providing a model to effect change in providing an answer to the question by Taylor (1971) of "how effective is a model for introducing planned change (p. 450)."

Novotney (1967) described a model for implementing change that comprised the elements of objectives, inventory, organization, operation, evaluation, and alteration. Objectives referred to the goals set for the change process. Inventory referred to the resources (people and things) available to assist in making change. The inventory included an assessment of the resistance to change that might be anticipated. He described organization as "the sequence in which activities must take place, the points at which various resources must be introduced, and the time required for each task (p. 26)." Operation provided the dynamic force of the model. It could have come, according to Novotney, from "a form of group consensus to act, an oral command, a written memorandum, or a powerful leadership

act (1967, p. 26)." The monitoring, controlling, and correcting of the change process was the evaluation. Novotney emphasized the statement: "The success or failure of a change implementation process can be measured only in terms of the degree to which one has or has not achieved the objectives originally sought (p. 26)."

Hearn (1972) spelled out the conditions favorable to implementing change in a public school system. The most favorable community would be one where a liberal attitude prevailed particularly toward "governmental intervention for social progress, where the income and educational levels were high, where the ethnic, religious, educational, and economic backgrounds of the citizens were relatively homogeneous, where the administrators and the citizens were cosmopolitanistic in outlook and perception of self, where administrators and staffs tend to be younger and highly educated (pp. 358-359)." Interestingly, he noted that often older administrators who are secure in their positions will become risk takers and effect change. All of these conditions were applicable to Westport, Connecticut, when the operational model of this study was introduced.

Taylor (1971) in responding to his own question "How effective is a change model?" outlined the following:

- (1) A change model is effective.
- (2) In the implementation of a model, the administrator plays a major role in producing constructive change.
- (3) The administrator, while effective in establishing a climate favorable to change should not take the role of a change agent.
- (4) Early negative perceptions of contemplated changes are difficult to modify even though they are not verified by later positive experiences.
- (5) Some changes are stabilized more easily than others.

(6) A model may generate changes more rapidly than they can be stabilized in the system.

(7) A model should include provision for a cybernation component which will give it greater potential for success.

(8) In the application of a model, some stages of the process may be omitted, and at times it is possible to recycle a stage in order to reduce resistance to change.

(9) Innovations introduced through a change model will usually meet with less resistance than those which are introduced by administrative mandate.

(10) A model provides for change agents coming from either inside or outside of the school system (pp. 451 ff.).

Taylor's final thought well worth remembering was "A change model has great potential for bringing about educational innovation. It can help a school achieve its goals. This is a far better approach to the process of change than the outdated practice of administrative mandate (p. 531)."

Gardner (1968) suggested a judicious answer to the change problem in society, in its institutions, and in the organization of the institutions when he argued that there is an inherent tendency for all institutions to rigidify and decay. Such institutions, he said, "smother individuality, imprison the spirit, thwart the creative impulse, diminish individual adaptability, and limit the possibility of freedom. To avoid destructive confrontation with its critics, a society must of necessity plan and provide for the revolutionary and imaginative redesigning of its institutions. Then, and only then, could orderly social changes be effected (p. 1)."

Gardner (1972) advocated citizen action when he wrote:

If the citizen is to regain command of his political institutions, he must begin at the beginning. And the beginning is "access"--the citizen's access to his political and governmental institutions. As we shall see, he has been deprived of that access by the skillful, deliberate, and systematic use of two instruments--money and secrecy. The two most important forms of access are

adequate information and a means of participating: the right to know and the right to have one's say (p. 44).

In a very real sense the most obvious theoretical model of democracy to emulate has been visible for all to see in the form of the Constitution of the United States. The operational model of this democracy is the government of the United States. It could logically be argued that these models represented the best examples for effecting change in our society, in the institutions of that society, and in the organization of these institutions.

Rights and Responsibilities

The rights and responsibilities under consideration belonged to teachers as well as students. Both groups operated relatively far down on the scale of authority and influence of the power structure with the student at the bottom of the heap. Farber (1969) likened the student's status to that of a "nigger," which placed him at the demeaned and dehumanized status the black man once held in this country. The protest literature of the recent years of student activism has given way to the writings that have explored the rights and responsibilities of students.

It was interesting to note that the results of the efforts of students at the college and university levels have produced a greater consolidation of power and authority in the hands of the collegium. McGrath (1970) reviewed with clarity the cycle of historical change that seemed inevitably to vest the power in universities and colleges in the faculties. At the public secondary level a similar happening

has occurred, but this has primarily been the outgrowth of a growing teacher militancy that is accelerated by the competition between the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers. As the public school teachers through these organizations vied with the administrations and the boards of education for power in determining the educational decision-making process, the student was left with little, if any, opportunity for a piece of the action.

Roberts (1970) reported on a story involving student violence and destruction of property at the state university's (California) Santa Barbara campus. He noted that the violence and destruction caused by students resulted from their feeling of powerlessness. He quoted the student newspaper's story of the incident: "If we have any community at all, it is a community based on common frustrations--born of powerlessness, alienation from one's programmed life and contempt for authoritarian institutions (p. L72)." The student's view of himself probably has changed either to the point of apathetic resignation or grudging acceptance of what seems to be a better lot in the academic life. This has been encouraged by a considerable effort to recognize the student's rights and responsibilities at all levels of our educational institutions.

Maybe the "Tinker" case was simply the emancipation proclamation for the student as "nigger," and there will have to be a succession of civil actions by students to win their rights in court. Fortunately this has not been necessary. There have been a number of writers who have pointed out the necessity for recognizing the rights of students in the public schools as well as their responsibilities.

Kleeman (1972), Nolte (1969), Clute (1968), Combs (1970), Williamson (1966), Vaccaro (1969), Schwartz (1968), Ladd (1971), Fish (1971), McGrath (1970), Richardson (1969), Ackerly (1971, 1969), Lieberman (1973), and McPartland and McDill (1970) have all described in varying detail the rights and responsibilities of students.

Kleeman (1972) has supplied the most comprehensive and current summary of student rights and responsibilities. He not only covered the topic thoroughly but also pointed out the areas in which there was still doubt and confusion. For example, the doctrine in loco parentis suffered a mighty blow with the Tinker decision although this decision had been foreshadowed by the Supreme Court (In ré Gault et al.) when in 1967 it had noted that "neither the Fourteenth Amendment nor the Bill of Rights is for adults alone." As Kleeman (1972) made perfectly clear "in loco must yield to the broader concept of the constitutional rights of the individual, whatever his age (p. 4)."

The Evanston Township (Illinois) High School adopted a policy that spelled out student rights in terms of "protected activities" but these were circumscribed by general limitations which greatly outnumbered the enumerated "protected activities." The Flint (Michigan) Community Schools outlined a list of student rights and parallel responsibilities. The San Francisco Unified School District prepared a statement that consisted of a general preamble describing student responsibilities in broad terms followed by a detailed listing of student rights. These examples pointed up the attempt of a variety

of institutions to recognize student rights that must be balanced by student responsibilities (Kleeman, 1972, pp. 51-61).

The Education Task Force of the 1971 White House Conference on Youth as quoted by Kleeman (1972) declared:

"America's democratic system is rooted in the belief that all citizens who are affected by the system should have a voice in deciding how the system is to be set up. This concept of a representative democracy has not been universally accepted in our nation's educational institutions." Students "must be thought of as participants, not merely recipients of the educational process," the task force said (p. 5).

The task force urged the adoption of codes of student rights, responsibilities, and conduct in all educational institutions throughout the country.

Kleeman went on to cite numerous examples of progress in this direction. He also reported on a survey conducted by Education U.S.A. of the state departments of education to determine what they had done to take a stand on questions relating to student rights and responsibilities. Only 37 state departments responded to the survey. In answer to the question "Do you have or are you preparing a policy on student rights?" only 15 responded yes. Of the 15 which answered yes, only 11 had students help write the policy. In reply to the question "Do you encourage students to serve on school boards or advisory councils?" 25 of the 37 respondents answered yes. In answering the question "Are students in your state concerned about their civil liberties?" one state (South Dakota) replied no. In answering the final question "Have schools in your state been involved in any civil liberties court cases?" 16, fewer than half of the 37 respondents,

offered affirmative answers. There was obviously a long way to go at the state department of education level (pp. 45-46).

In summarizing the status of student rights and responsibilities, Kleeman (1972) drew heavily from the Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities prepared by the NEA Task Force on Student Involvement (1971), A Guide to Student Rights and Responsibilities in New Jersey jointly sponsored by the New Jersey Association of High School Councils and the New Jersey Association of Secondary School Principals (1971), Student Rights Handbook for New York City sponsored by the Civil Liberties Union (1970), The Reasonable Exercise of Authority written by Ackerly (1969), and Student Rights and Responsibilities: A Position Paper adopted by the Massachusetts Secondary School Principals' Association (1971). Kleeman's was the best and most comprehensive source dealing with student rights and responsibilities.

With all the emphasis on the rights and responsibilities of students, the status of teachers might have been overlooked. One significant finding by Kleeman (1972) concerned the rights and responsibilities of teachers being considered concomitantly with students' rights and responsibilities. He reported:

In several recent delineations of student responsibilities, they are ingeniously set forth in tandem with student rights or with the rights and responsibilities of teachers. An example of this sort of parallel presentation is the two-column tabular statement of "Teacher and Student Rights and Responsibilities for the 1970's" issued by the Educational Policies Commission of the Connecticut Education Association.

Under the heading of "atmosphere," for example, Connecticut students are said to have the "right to learn, free from arbitrary restrictions," and the corresponding responsibility to "utilize the learning process effectively and to take

maximum advantage of educational opportunities, with respect for teachers as individual persons." Across the page, teachers are said to have the "right to teach, free from arbitrary restrictions" and the responsibility for providing effective learning and offering maximum educational opportunities "with respect for students as individual persons." Similarly balanced teacher-and-student rights and responsibilities are set forth under headings of "participation," "due process," and "expression" (p. 39).

In addition to this emphasis on teachers' rights and responsibilities Hawkins (1969), Friedl (1968), and Gorton (1966) discussed other dimensions of the teachers' participation in selecting principals, in areas of academic freedom and in the decision-making process of the school.

Cusick (1973) saw what has been happening in the determination of both the student's and teacher's rights and responsibilities as part of the process of conflict between the maintenance and change theories of the function of the schools in society. He asked and answered the question:

"Can we expect a reasonable resolution to the conflict between those who see schools as maintainers of society and those who see schools as changers or perhaps producers of a new society?" I would say "No." Schools really are set up to maintain society. They are supposed to keep the present world before them as a model and train their young charges to take respectable places in that world. But, on the other hand, society never stands still and, because they deal with the young, schools are integrally bound up in the processes of change. Therefore, perhaps schools should be more free, more open, more liberal in the hope of preparing the young not for the fleeting present, but for a future in which they will have to work out their own lives, not the lives envisaged for them by the maintainers of the present society. The conflict between the two views is endemic to civilization. We set up schools in the hope that through institutionalization the processes of growth and change can be made procedural and orderly. But pain and conflict are inevitable companions of change, and cannot be alleviated through rational organizations. There is simply no solution to the conflict, and

teachers and administrators, regardless of their personal views on the matter, will continue to face that conflict every day of their professional careers (p. 225).

Hopefully this pessimistic view will not have been the final word on effecting change in an orderly and painless way. The goal of this study has been set to provide otherwise.

Student and Teacher Militancy

This category of the reviewed literature has been placed in what may appear to be almost a secondary position of importance for the purposes of this study. It is a fact of student life that the militancy of students has cooled to the point where "streaking" (the practice of briefly dashing naked in public places but usually on a school campus) has become the reported form of student activism on campus. Researching student activism and militancy was almost anticlimatic. Only echoes of the tumult and the shouting remained, and these were rapidly dimming along with the painful memories of the Vietnam War. It was possible, however, to seek a perspective on the original militancy of students who in many instances were supported and even joined by their teachers in their activism.

Frymier (1970) focused the confrontation, regardless of the original causes for the student militancy, on the rigidity of the educational organization. He admitted that this was a simple explanation, but he insisted: "The system is rigid. The system is not capable of rational, deliberate change. The system must be changed (p. 347)." Frymier felt that many of the students' complaints were

valid. He believed that the rigidity of the educational system required fundamental changes in its governance structure.

Halleck (1968) pointed out the uselessness of trying to explain student activism of the time in terms of simple hypotheses. These attempts at explaining the student behavior in elementary terms included the "critical hypothesis," which blamed moral weakness; the "permissiveness hypothesis," which "fingered" the parents because of laxity in child rearing; the "non-responsibility hypothesis," which cited the scientists of sociology and psychology as the culprits because they explained behavior to the point of excusing it; the "affluence hypothesis," which blamed the affluent society; the "family-pathology hypothesis," which pointed to unresolved conflicts in the family; the "sympathetic hypothesis," which viewed the student favorably as a hapless victim of the world and/or a hero trying to change it; the "two-armed-camps hypothesis," which determined the blame in the competition between communism and capitalism; and others of a similar vein (pp. 3-8). Halleck demonstrated his point through this cataloging of hypotheses that it was intellectually futile to seek simple explanations for involved and complex social phenomena. He believed that "neutral hypotheses" provided the best sources for exploring the causes of student unrest. These hypotheses suggest that the "causes of unrest ... are not to be found in the actions or philosophies of other men, but are believed to reside in changes in our highly complex society which seems to create the need for new modes of psychological adaptation (p. 6)."

Henderson (1968), Honn (1969), Erickson (1969), Sparzo (1968), Bridges (1969), Hart (1970), Hein (1968), and Heffner (1968) offered calm and dispassionate views of student unrest in the schools and colleges. They are best represented by Bridges (1969), who sought explanations and understanding of demands for involvement in the management of the schools within the subjective and objective aspects of that involvement. He described these aspects in terms of degrees of freedom:

in the objective sense, involvement consists of the degrees of freedom participants have available for action. Objectively, involvement becomes greater as individuals in the situation have more freedom to act and decide what should be done. Subjectively, involvement is how one experiences the degrees of freedom open to him and is reflected in the feeling he has of being involved. An individual who has less leeway to behave than he desires or believes that he should have is not apt to define the situation as providing him genuine involvement (p. 1).

The need for change to create opportunities for greater involvement in the direction of the organization has been recognized.

Taking a further step and viewing the activism of students as a potentially positive source for improving the governance of the organization were Kaye (1970), Frankel (1968), Fish (1970), Kramer (1968), Chesler (1970), Hart (1970) and Hein (1968). Kramer (1968) wrote: "Student power does not mean total student control of the university. It does not mean the elimination of a university administration, or the elimination of faculty power. Students seek a shift in the balance of power (p. 32)." He would leave most of the power divided between the students and the faculty at the college and university level.

Using Chesler (1970) as the focal point for the latter group of writings a strong case for changing the existing pattern of governance in the public schools emerged:

One of the generic categories of needed change lies in the governance of local schools Increasing the legitimate and formal power of students in local decision-making does not mean merely revamping the traditional student government. That must be clear! Student governments in the overwhelming majority of our schools are hoaxes, and cruel hoaxes at that; they are farces of representative political or democratic processes Students who learn that self-government is a hoax generalize that attitude beyond schools to forms of democratic self-government across our society It is important as well to think about establishing new organizational forms of governance of the school We need to design new representative structures that increase the reciprocal dialogue and influence necessary for political efficacy or constituent power (pp. 117-118).

Frankel (1968) concurred with Chesler and others when he noted:

Thus, the question raised by present demands for student power is not really whether students should finally be given the right to say something about what happens to them. It is whether it would be educationally desirable to create arrangements permitting students to participate more visibly and formally in the making of educational decisions. Considered as a general proposition, there can be little doubt, I think, that this is the direction in which change should proceed (p. 23).

Hechinger (1970), under the headline "Why Johnny Wants to Run the School," wrote that student governments in the public schools "were originally invented to allow students to learn something about governing, without the actual exercise of real power. Often referred to as 'sandbox government' by cynical students, it has inspired apathy and neglect (p. E13)."

In perspective it became clear that student activism took dead aim at sharing the real power in their schools. Student governments,

whatever their form, were only that--student governments. They were artificial forms of the real thing and poor substitutes at that. Because they did not permit meaningful involvement in the decision-making process, they increased the frustration of students and often resulted in outright rejection by students.

In some instances well publicized examples of real power sharing in a public school have not fulfilled their promise. Schmerler (1972) described such an instance where a suburban high school in the New York metropolitan area promoted a Student-Faculty-Administration Council (SFA) with practically unlimited power. The council had not managed in three years of operation to deal effectively with academic or curriculum decisions, for example. The effective involvement in shared decision-making among the members of the SFA could have been legitimately questioned.

The need to come to grips with the issue of real power was recognized by a number of writers. Fish (1970), Frankel (1968), Chesler (1970), Mayhew (1968), Powell (1971, 1969), Met (1974), Haug (1969), Rogers (1970), Kaye (1970), Estes (1971), and Katz and Sanford (1966) among others viewed power in relation to student activism as a legitimate and necessary issue within the public schools and at the college and university level. It was an issue that was forced upon educators then with tremendous emotional pressure. Educators throughout the United States came dangerously close to learning the historical truth that power is generally seized from those who have it by those who have been denied it.

Chesler (1970) pointed out that:

If educators share power with students, that does not mean they will have less of it. There is no evidence that that has to be the case. There is not necessarily a certain amount of power in a system, divided in several ways, such that if we divide it in more ways each of the original forces has less. It may well be that when more and different people have more power there will be less unilateral control and more broadly based self-directive control within the entire organization. One essential variable may well be whether you can take the lead in sharing power in ways that promote trust or whether it has to be stripped from you in ways that perpetuate defensiveness and mistrust (p. 119).

It was that final point dealing with trust that served to get at the nub of the power issue. Chesler also pointed out the need for students to comprehend criteria for use in judging whether or not an administrator can be trusted.

Up to this point little has been said about teacher militancy or activism. It most likely could have been observed in a vein similar to student militancy or activism except that teachers have enjoyed the collective power of their associations or unions to support their concerns and demands. This power has been reinforced by state statutes that have given them the right to negotiate with local boards of education in matters of salary and other benefits. They have also been able to negotiate conditions of work. In the process it was interesting to note that the students about whom the teachers and boards of education were negotiating, had nothing to say in the matter.

Bain (1970) stated the case for teachers, when it came to the power issue, in terms of the teaching profession receiving the power to govern itself first. When the teaching ranks have achieved the

self-governing status of the medical profession, for example, then they will be ready to accept accountability. If accountability, taken in the most simple terms, required the teachers to accept responsibility for what they do, it might be argued contrarily but logically that accountability should precede self-governance. Bain's position smacked of self-licensing without being held accountable. Intended or not, this position has made it difficult for laymen to accept the growing militancy of teachers aside from the economic issues at stake. In fact, it has been difficult for other unions to accept this position in a spirit of brotherhood and cooperation.

Both Sharma (1955) and Bridges (1967) found that if teachers have an opportunity to participate in decision-making, there are generally positive consequences. Sharma (1955) reported that teacher satisfaction was positively correlated with the extent of teacher sharing in decision-making. Bridges (1967) developed a presentation that purported to outline the conditions under which it was appropriate and desirable to involve teachers in decision-making. The procedure and the philosophy of this approach represented more the leadership of a benevolent despot than an attempt at genuine sharing of power. In many ways the status of the teacher has remained only slightly more favorable than that of the student in the hierarchical structure of the public school.

There has not been a large-scale movement toward allowing teachers to participate in organizational decisions as noted by Schmuck and Blumberg (1969). However, they noted that: "Teachers report greatest

satisfaction with their principal and the school system in general when they perceive that they and their principals are mutually influential, and especially when their principal's influence emanates from their perceiving him as an expert (p. 90)." Their recommendation was to establish an advisory council of teachers to share in the decision-making for the school. Nothing was suggested about involving the students in the process.

Both teacher and student have increasingly had to face up to what Haug and Sussman (1969) described as "the revolt of the client (p. 153)." In fact, there has been considerable evidence that "the revolt of the client" has become the revolt of the taxpayer. Parents of school children have joined with other taxpayers throughout the country in defeating school budgets and referenda on building bond issues. The public school will have to become a place where both teacher and student responsibility will be recognized and encouraged by the general public. Like it or not, the teacher and the student have been viewed similarly by the general public.

Antecedents and Precedents

This portion of the related literature represented an intellectual excursion into the fields of business and industrial management and the social sciences to seek out logical antecedents and precedents for new directions in educational administration. Management of the public

schools and management of industry and business have long shared a common ancestry. Both have derived originally from the classical and ideal bureaucratic construct devised by Max Weber. In describing Weber's theory of bureaucracy, Blau and Scott (1962) enumerated the following characteristics:

- (1) Workers were assigned tasks by position. Specialization was encouraged according to official duties.
- (2) Authoritative relationships among all the positions were established according to a pyramidal, hierarchical structure. Authority was clearly delineated.
- (3) Decisions were made according to the "book." Regulations were carefully drawn and followed to insure uniformity of behavior and operations.
- (4) Clients and subordinates were treated in an impersonal manner. Formality rather than informality characterized the relationships among the members of the organization.
- (5) Officials in the organization were chosen on the basis of ability and competency, and they were expected to assume career obligations with the organization (pp. 32-33).

These characteristics of a bureaucratic organization represented the best means to insure an efficient operation. Blau and Scott continued:

In Weber's view, these organizing principles maximize rational decision-making and administrative efficiency. Bureaucracy, according to him, is the most efficient form of administrative organization, because experts with much experience are best qualified to make technically correct decisions, and because discipline performance governed by abstract rules and coordinated by the authority hierarchy fosters a rational and consistent pursuit of organizational objectives (p. 33).

It became clearer why the management of the public school system was so highly structured and rigid from its inception in as much as it copied elements of the classical bureaucratic model from business and industry. The very nature of this organizational structure

contradicted the democratic process. It was appealing because it was tidy, and it gave the impression of efficiency. The production of a school was assumed to be similar to that of a business or industry. As the public school enterprise flourished and the size of the organization grew, the bureaucratic structure was reinforced. Nevertheless dysfunctions in the structure became apparent.

Weber's bureaucratic concept was an idealized model that assumed perfection. In a service organization such as a public school system where people are the beginning and end of the organization, it was not practical to assume perfection or even hope for it. In such a situation it was practical to view the idealistic concept only as a theory and to concentrate on testing the hypotheses that contributed to that theory. Weber accentuated those things that contributed to the strength of the organization, but he ignored any attempt to identify and cope with dysfunctions among the elements of the structure. He also ignored the informal relationships that are part of every formal organization. Finally, a basic flaw in Weber's model was that the hierarchical structure assumed administrative and technical expertise sufficient in any position to solve every problem below that level. As Blau and Scott noted, "This was not a realistic assumption" (p. 35).

The management of the public secondary schools has not changed much in the past fifty years. It still adheres rather closely to the

Weberian model although there is a gradual awakening on the part of public school administrators and boards of education that changes were taking place in industry and business. These changes were significant and far-reaching in design, scope and philosophy. It was surprising to note that while the administration of the public schools was still following, for the most part, many of the formal ritualistic patterns of Weberian bureaucracy, a tremendous number of changes were taking place in industry and business.

Bennis (1966) took note of the bureaucratic creation by Max Weber as the beginning of the recognition of formal organizations. He described Weberian bureaucracy as "an apparatus of abstract depersonalization, a system that would rationally dispense solutions without the friction of subjective coloring and human effort (p. 66)." Scientific management that stressed the objectivity and impersonal nature of measure was introduced by Frederick W. Taylor. Weberian bureaucracy, combined with Taylor's scientific management, provided the basis for what came to be known as classical organizational theory in which "the conflict between the man and the organization was neatly settled in favor of the organization (p. 67)." With the recognition of a classical organizational theory that was essentially autocratic and undemocratic, Bennis proceeded to describe subsequent developments that appeared to him to lead to a more democratic management of the organization.

For example, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) provided the leadership for the "human relations" approach in management.

McMurray (1950) made a strong case for "benevolent autocracy" based on a Weberian bureaucratic model. Parsons (1956) suggested a sociological approach to organizational theory. Argyris (1960, 1961) postulated the need for managers' developing interpersonal skills so that both individuals and organizations might become "self-actualized" or reach optimal functioning levels. Drucker (1954) contributed the concept of "management by objectives" to business and industry, and this was more fully developed by Odiorne (1965). McGregor (1960) recast the "target setting" inherent in management by objectives with his Theory Y of human personality suggesting that self-control, collaboration, and integration could create conditions to enable the worker to achieve what he wanted most by his assisting the organization to achieve its goals. Likert (1967) provided a synthesis and eclectic selection of management by objectives, self-actualization, human relations, and the hierarchical structure of Weberian bureaucracy when he proposed his "linking-pin" concept of management to industry and business. His process of superordinate sharing goal-setting and goal-achieving responsibility with subordinate represented a major step toward the democratization of any business or industry that employed the approach. These developments constituted the major steps from the theory of management in its classical inception through what is now modern management theory.

The significance of these developments, whether or not one agrees with the theory of inevitable democratization of the

organizations espoused by Bennis, rested in their relevance for the management of public education. However, it was much more than an organizational pattern or form that had been at stake. The crux of the relevancy rested in the view taken of people. According to Bennis (1966), the traditional or classical Weberian model, while admittedly an ideal theory and rarely found in an ideal form, viewed man "as a passive, inert instrument, performing the tasks assigned to him (p. 67)." The worker in the organization was viewed according to what McGregor described as Theory X. The recent developments in management have been more in keeping with McGregor's Theory Y. A consideration of his postulates of Theory X and Theory Y offered a better understanding of what existed in the management of public secondary education and what might have been acceptable alternatives.

McGregor (1960) added an interesting dichotomy of theories about human nature and human behavior as viewed by business and industrial management with which to put these changes in perspective. Theory X contained a listing of basic assumptions about human nature and human behavior that McGregor felt traditional managerial decisions reflect:

- (a) The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
- (b) Because of this characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

(d) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all (p. 33).

Theory Y countered with the following observations about human nature and human behavior:

(a) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

(b) External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

(c) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

(d) The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.

(e) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

(f) Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized (p. 47).

Thus viewed in terms of McGregor's thinking, the changes in management could be conceived as representing a shift in the direction of a more humanistic approach. Indeed, McGregor's ideas may have served as the basis for considering the shift not only toward the humanization of the enterprise but also toward its democratization as well. Certainly Bennis (1966) had viewed it as such when he stressed the inevitability of democratization of the organization.

The Scanlon Plan was an excellent example of the trend in industry and business toward a more democratic organization and management. Likert (1967) described the Scanlon Plan:

This is a rather unique plan for profit-sharing based on labor-management cooperation. It was developed by Joseph N. Scanlon just prior to World War II and extended by him to several companies prior to and subsequent to the war. Since then many additional companies have adopted it, some with great success. . . . All too often the Scanlon Plan--like all profit-sharing plans--is thought of only as a device for increasing the motivational forces arising from the economic needs of the members of an organization. As Scanlon emphasized, however, the plan requires the development of an interaction-influence system in which ideas for developing better products and processes for reducing costs and waste can flow readily, be assessed, improved and expeditiously applied (p. 40).

Interaction-influence systems required that people within an organizational structure recognize one another as human beings with feelings, abilities, skills, and knowledge which could contribute materially to the success of the enterprise if properly handled. Communications had to be able to flow upward as well as downward. The understanding and effective management of individuals and groups were essential to the operation of interaction-influence systems.

Likert (1961) described essentially the same process when he wrote: "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance (p. 103)."

The emphasis on the individual in the organization received its greatest impetus from the human relations approach. Bennis

(1955) summarized the contributions of this approach succinctly in terms of the men involved.

The men primarily associated with this pioneering work are Elton Mayo, with his emphasis on the significance of the human group and affiliation as the strongest human need; Kurt Lewin, who stressed the promise of democratic and group decision-making as well as the importance of participation in motivating people; J. L. Moreno, with his emphasis on positive feelings and liking as fundamentals in effective group action; and Carl Rogers, the father of "nondirective therapy," who underscored the need for understanding, empathy and self-realization. These men and their associates, spanning the range of the behavioral sciences, forged the conceptual framework of the human relations approach (p. 68).

Kast and Rosenzweig (1970) would have made a strong case for adding Abraham Maslow and his need-hierarchy concept to this group of "human relationists."

Argyris (1957, 1960, 1961, 1962) probably has published more than any other writer in the field of interpersonal relationships within business and industrial organizations. More than any other author in recent years he has tackled the individual versus the organization problem. He described inevitable conflict between the needs of individuals and the needs (objectives) of the organization. The work of Drucker (1954), Odiorne (1965), McGregor (1960, 1934), and Likert (1955, 1961, 1967) assumed that it was possible to achieve a reconciliation between the two sets of needs. Intrinsic in this assumption was the belief that productivity was positively correlated to morale.

Likert (1955) voiced his disappointment in failing to prove that productivity was positively linked to morale when he wrote:

"On the basis of a study I did in 1937, I believed that morale and productivity were positively related; that the higher the morale, the higher the production. Substantial research findings since then have shown that this relationship is much too simple (p. 13)." Correlated to this was a recent study by Alutto and Belasco (1972) in which they noted: "This research also suggests that some assumptions about the consequences of increased participation in decision-making should be modified. For example, no evidence was found supporting the assumption that decisional participation leads to increased organizational commitment (p. 124)." Interestingly this contradicts the findings of Sharma (1955) and the strong conviction held by Kurt Lewin, who was one of the prime movers behind the human relations approach in business and industrial administration. Contradictions among research findings in the social sciences have happened frequently, and they reflected the difficulty in doing such research and achieving comparability of results.

Strykker (1956) described how Robert Hood, the young president of the Ansul Chemical Company, "applied practically all of the new doctrines of good communications, and human relations (p. 134)." The company was prospering but paradoxically it was losing top management personnel at an inordinately high rate. The "leavers" were either fired because they could not give themselves wholeheartedly to the concept of participative management or they just opted out of

their own accord. Strykker noted that "by insisting on participative management, Hood is not making Ansul attractive to able individualistic managers unwilling to conform to Ansul's system (p. 135)."

The observations by Strykker suggested the possibility that in a public school administrative setting based upon shared governance, similar problems in holding strong individualistic leaders might develop. Another functional dilemma would have to be added to a growing list already apparent in the operational model of shared governance at Staples High School.

There has been a wide range of possible antecedents and precedents suggested for consideration in establishing models of shared governance in the public schools. It would seem that a logical goal for these models might be what Argyris (1957) called fusion, which describes the mutual achievement of self-actualization by the employees and their organization. Kast and Rosenzweig (1970) described fusion: "This term implies an ideal mix of company and individual objectives, where they become indistinguishable from each other--literally fused (p. 237)."

While admitting that fusion of individual and organizational goals might be unattainable and utopian, Kast and Rosenzweig asked: "If integration or fusion of individual and organizational achievements cannot be attained in the work environment, what is the outlook for man in society (p. 238)?" If educational administration hasn't attempted to follow the logical antecedents and precedents

from the positive and profitable experiences of business and industry, particularly in the direction of humanizing the organization, the answer to the same question applied to education portends an even more frightening possibility for society.

Governance in Education

Perhaps the most surprising characteristic of the literature dealing with governance in education was the almost complete absence of recognition given to what had been taking place in the management of business and industry, particularly since 1960. There have been twenty-five years of significant developments in the organization and management of business and industry. These developments had to be relevant to educational administration. The fact that educational administration had its roots in business and industrial management was sufficient reason for checking out these developments.

It was difficult at first glance to see how a public secondary school could be anything but a democratic institution. However, upon closer study the origin of the organizational structure of the public schools developed as a parallel structure to what existed in business and industry in the United States. Business and industrial management had been patterned after classical management theory which was based on the ideal bureaucratic theory of Max Weber. In the light of the rigidity of such a management system, the current inflexibility of educational management was understandable if not acceptable.

It was especially difficult to understand how the trend toward humanizing and democratizing business and industrial management could have been so long ignored by practitioners of educational administration. They have long been accustomed to institutional introspection, and they have long suffered from a kind of myopia with respect to change. These propensities have resulted in a "hardening of the attitudes" that has stifled innovation and creativity in the management of the public schools. In fairness to school administrators, there have been other potent forces that held them in check. In particular, the vulnerability engendered by the institution was a primary reason for administrators to don blinders and maintain status quo. Henry (1972) has described the vulnerability of the educational institution vividly and accurately. The fear thus created in individuals, especially among the administrators who have the most to lose, may have accounted for their inactivity in seeking changes in organization of management.

The relative inactivity of administrators in educational institutions since 1960 in becoming more involved with the concepts of humanization and democratization was even more surprising in the light of the student activism that transpired and the growing teacher militancy that faced them. If the public schools were to transmit the heritage of society and provide for its needs, it was surprising indeed that little notice had been paid to what might

have proven helpful in coping with student activism and teacher militancy.

Schools have been and will continue to be the most important institutions in this or any democratic society according to K. Wiles (1964). He raised an interesting and relevant point:

The question, if the world continues, is not whether we will have world government. This is a certainty. The question is whether it will be a totalitarian one or a government in which people have opportunity to participate through their representatives. We need to put a primary value on participation and constantly seek a form of international government in which participation in making decisions that will affect them is a right for all individuals. To hope to achieve a world government that will incorporate this value means that we must demonstrate that it works by being sure that it functions in our schools and in every town, county, state and national government operation (p. 554).

In order to make participatory democracy work in society at large, every possible means to make it work in the public schools should be uncovered, analyzed, and tried when found promising. There have been a wide variety of promising practices that will serve as precedents and antecedents for improving the governance of educational institutions.

The majority of the literature about governance of education at all levels concerned the maintenance of the existing structures. Knezevich (1962), Shaw (1962), Hullfish (1958), Foote, Mayer, et al. (1968), Corbally, Jensen, and Staub (1961), Corson (1960), Harlow (1963), and Hack (1965) provided fairly standard treatment of the status quo in educational governance at all levels. Current practices were presented and analyzed. In some instances preference

was indicated. However, these writers and hundreds like them did not offer anything truly innovative and certainly did not suggest the replacement of the existing bureaucratic structures. A thorough review of the literature did not reveal evidence to support a different conclusion.

Educators were not stupid, however, and many of them were aware that their institutions were in trouble. Most notably one organization, The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), has sought to make educators aware of problems in the public schools particularly as they affect young people. Scobey and Graham (1970) edited the ASCD 1970 Yearbook, which offered a commitment to nurturing humaneness in the public schools during the 1970's.

Zahoric and Brubaker (1972) responded with assistance in making instruction more humanistic. Wootton and Selwa (1971) offered several basic conditions for humanizing education. These conditions were related to the need for humanism--accomplishing this need through structure that encourages interpersonal interaction, providing machines to release teachers for this interacting, and teaching humanism through subject matter (p. 12). Trump (1972) listed twelve characteristics of a humane school along with a school rating scale on humaneness. Hodgkinson (1970) suggested that it was possible to create an ideal governance that would provide an optimum balance between largeness and smallness. Larson (1972) described a combination of "humanitarian and pragmatic bases

for school governance (p. 59)." These writers and many others attested to an awareness that something drastic needed to be done to humanize and democratize the educational institutions.

Shoben (1968), Schmuck and Miles (1971), and Hallberg (1969) were among a few writers who began to suggest the desirability of modifying the existing organizations of the educational institutions. Not surprisingly, they represented what became a rapidly increasing number of reactors to the surge of student militancy.

Hallberg (1969) was representative of this group of writers. He noted that "any governmental form should grow out of mutual need and purpose expressed by those governed (p. 538)." He pointed out the contradiction at the college and university level between the notion of an academic community and adversary relationship typically established among students, faculty, and the administration. The usual faculty senate and the form of student government were more often than not at war with each other and the administration separately. Hallberg (1969) saw three governmental alternatives developing within the next ten years:

One, students will find their place as "necessary" representatives in faculty government as it now exists. This is the simplest and most likely alternative.

Two, each power group, the faculty and the students, will retain a separate organization and pressure group and vie for power. In this case, a long and severe power struggle would surely result, leaving the ideal of an academic community mere fiction and the sensitive relationship between teacher and learner in complete disarray.

With coalitions improbable and simple domination imperfect,

there remains the third alternative of an all-college government (p. 538).

As envisioned by Hallberg, the academic congress or all-college government would be a "general policy body with representatives from faculty, student body, and administration (p. 539)." He still saw the respective participants--faculty, student, and administration--retaining interest roles. The congress would concern itself with what he called "general university promotional criteria such as the balance between research and teaching (p. 540)."

Shoben (1968) presented a bicameral example of participatory involvement for colleges and universities:

In this design, the central administration is conceived as occupying a position analogous to that of the federal executive. Responsible for certain housekeeping functions such as plant management, accounting, etc., for fund-raising, and for public relations (the administration) also has the initiative for leadership through the ways in which it reports on the state of the academic community, through the programs it formulates and recommends for action by appropriate legislative bodies, and through the style with which it implements the rules and enterprises enacted and defined by the suitable agencies within the community (p. 2).

This participatory model was representative of the last of three general approaches to governance cited by Deegan, Drexel, Collins, and Kearney (1970). They identified a group of models which they labeled "traditional." These were based on the in loco parentis concept and followed the traditional bureaucratic structure traceable back to Weber. The second group of governance concepts identified were categorized as "separate jurisdictions models." These represented attempts to create separate autonomous schools or departments outside the campus or to establish "certain areas of jurisdiction

for the various 'interest groups' that exist on campus (pp. 17-18)."

The third approach as categorized by these authors was the participatory model group in which "the emphasis is on cooperation and participation, no separate power blocks (p. 20)."

The example favored by Deegan et al. (1970), is that of a participatory model called a "college senate," which is similar to what Hallberg has proposed (1969). As they pointed out:

What is sought is a change from arbitrary and hierarchical authority to a more collegial model for decision making. These models may offer hope and the opportunity to participate in decisions, or they may degenerate into power conflicts or chaos. The results will vary by campus. The administration, as mentioned earlier, is still the key component. Collegial models should neither seek to eliminate the voice of administrators nor to reduce their role to that of a token errand boy (p. 21).

One condition was constant throughout these writings--the necessity for strong and imaginative leadership.

Was it possible to view the school as a social model as Sieber (1969) had done? Sieber argued that the school was better described as a partial rather than a full-scale model of society:

If schools were full-scale models of society, one would suppose that a student self-government would be a paramount feature in the United States. But only token recognition is given to student government by administrators, and these councils are closely watched to insure that they do not take themselves too seriously. In essence student governments are hedged in by bureaucratic rules limiting their authority over school operations, a mock democracy in the authoritarian institution. This conflict between widespread social values and the structure of schools is no longer invisible to many students today, as witnessed by the wave of student protest in secondary as well as in higher education. The result may be that students are actually being socialized into rebellion by our school system --

because, rather than in spite of the school's emphasis on standardized authoritarian treatment of youngsters (p. 180).

It was not surprising that students were found by Gallup in 1969 to be acting the way that they were. Students at the height of the protest movement were probably more aware of the hypocrisy of not being able to participate in the governance of their educational institution than they had ever been before in this country. It was not surprising that they protested.

In the light of what has been learned about what was happening in business and industrial management to humanize interpersonal relationship and provide for more worker "say" in the direction of the enterprise, the treatment of students and teachers in educational institutions continued to pose a fundamental dilemma. How was it possible to reconcile undemocratic practices with democratic goals, especially in the minds of adolescents?

The typical student council in a public secondary school was a good case in point. Many writers have questioned the legitimacy of an organization that has very little real power, if any. This was especially true when the membership was restricted because of scholastic grades, and the council simply did the bidding of the administration. Miklos and Miklos (1970) suggested ways that they believed would render the student council useful rather than useless. They believed that the council should be an educational experience and not an administrative device. Recognizing the undemocratic nature

of many student councils, they nevertheless advocated making that idea work.

Armstrong (1970) provided insight into how to make the student council more useful. He spelled out a longer and fairer election-eering and election process. Also, he urged the administration to provide more responsibility for the council. Finally, he made a good point in suggesting that a clear distinction be made between the areas in which the council could take direct action and those areas in which it could only advise. Svoboda (1966) corroborated this point when he wrote:

The main cause of this conflict between the theory of student government and its consistent application is the non-specific manner in which student governments are assigned responsibility. Students who are given nebulous limits, or no limits at all, to the boundaries within which they must operate are likely to make decisions that are lawfully delegated to school personnel. It is doubtful that student governments legislate just to put school officials in a position where this legislation must be overruled. Most decisions that "the students have no business making" are sincere and are legislated because the students are not aware that the responsibility to make those decisions has already been delegated to the school administration (p. 180).

It was necessary to take stock and determine if there was any evidence that the educational institutions were continuing blindly along their way, oblivious to and unaffected by the changes and experiments of business and industrial organizations. The extent of the writings in the literature about student participation in school governance may be used as a criterion. A considerable amount of evidence was uncovered to support the possibility that educational institutions were reacting vaguely to what was going on in business

and industrial management, were pressured by student and teacher militancy, or were bothered by their own consciences.

Bass (1965), Mitau (1969), Morison (1969), Morris (1969), McGrath (1970), Martin (1967), Powell (1970), Smith and Reitz (1970), House (1970), Bowles (1968), Hodgkinson (1969), Werdell (1968), Deegan (1970), and Weldy (1970) were among the early writers who called for consideration of student participation in post-secondary campus governments. Most of the early writing during and after the height of the student activism of the late 1960's concerned student participation in governance at the college and junior college levels. What little writing there was about the student participation in the governance of the public schools stayed within the framework of the existing structures, such as the student councils.

However, writing about student participation in governance at the college and junior college levels did not mean that there were rapid or widespread changes being made. Blandford (1972) reported on a survey made to determine the extent of "student participation" on institutional governing boards. The survey went to 491 colleges and universities, and 430 returns were made. Blandford wrote the following interpretations of the results:

The results of this survey seem to indicate that, although institutions are now including students on their boards more than they did in the past, those who do are still a small minority. The great majority are using various alternative means to involve students in decision making on the board level. Moreover, very few intend to include students on governing boards. It is also clear that, even in cases where students do hold membership, they serve chiefly as advisors rather than as policy-makers (p. 4).

Educational institutions were still finding it easier to co-opt students than to be completely honest and fair with them. This manipulation was not surprising in the light of the history of these institutions. What was surprising was that the students let them get away with this charade.

Have there been any examples of change in the administration of the schools and colleges that reflect the influence of antecedents or precedents in business and industry as the latter have sought to humanize and democratize their administrative practices? Again it was only possible to infer any influence between what happened in the two institutions in the writings of Bridges (1967), Miller (1970), Zatz (1971), Stilley (1972), Schwartz (1971), and Sirken (1971). In addition, there was a considerable amount of writing about Philadelphia's The Parkway Program (1972).

John Adams High School in Portland, Oregon, provided one of the initial bona fide attempts to change completely the educational process for students in a public high school and at the same time establish new professional roles for teachers and administrators. It was conceived, designed, and implemented as a completely new educational enterprise. The plan and the people were chosen and brought together before the school was finished. Consequently students, teachers, parents, and administrators entered a completely new experience of their own making and choosing. Not many public high schools have this opportunity (Schwartz, 1971).

Another public high school that has received considerable attention because of its commitment to humanizing its operation and its provision of a relatively unique concept of shared governance was Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut. DeFlumere (1972), Roth (1973), and Davidoff (1973) have all written about the operation of the school through the Staples Governing Board which embodies the concept of shared governance. While the direction of this school and its governing board did not result from the recognized influences of antecedents and precedents from business, industry or the social sciences, a case has been made in this study for these relationships in the construction of a theoretical model and an operational model of shared governance for the public secondary school.

Of historical significance was the public school organization described by Chatto and Halligan (1946). The authors gave an interesting account of a plan to create "loyalty to four kinds of democracy (p. xvii)." They identified religious, political, economic, and social democracy as goals for their plan. It was for its time an advanced attempt to promote democracy through the public schools. A high school town meeting made up of twenty-five high school seniors was the basic instrument of democracy in the plan. The authors, in describing the action of this representative body, noted: "This was not a class reciting its lesson on a fixed assignment; it was a conference of young Americans attending to the business of their country (p. 85)." It was not clear just what limits were imposed upon the authority and power of the governing body.

More recently the Sudbury Valley School in Framingham, Massachusetts, has embarked upon the creation and implementation of a prototype democratic school. In 1968 The Sudbury Valley School, a day school for students four years old and up, claimed to be "the only school in which political democracy is the form of government--genuine political democracy, not a sham front that reserves power for real decisions in the hands of a power elite (p. 87)." Unfortunately, neither a description of the operation nor the constitution of this "genuine political democracy" was provided in The Crisis in American Education (1970).

Special recognition should be given to Antioch College, for it has long enfranchised its students by allowing them to have three representatives on the administrative council of the school. Student enfranchisement had been originally granted in the early 1920's. Students participated in "making all policies affecting curriculum content, teaching practices, admissions standards, graduation requirements, student life, the budget, and the election, promotion, and tenure of faculty members and administrative officers other than the president (McGrath, 1970, p. 23)."

Other American colleges and universities that have granted full voting privilege to students in their legislative and policy-making bodies included Roosevelt University, Bennington College, Sarah Lawrence, Marlboro, and Goddard Colleges. These institutions all permitted in varying degrees student involvement directly in the decision-making processes as part of the power structure.

Most recently Otterbein College on June 6, 1970, gave "an equal and full voting voice in all phases of campus governance on the board of trustees and in the college senate (McGrath, 1970, p. 40)."

McGrath (1970) also noted that tremendous strides had been taken in Canada to enable students to share in the governance of their universities and colleges:

- (1) With few exceptions the members of the Association of Canadian Universities and Colleges have brought students into the top policy-making bodies, which until very recently included only administrative officers, faculty members, and trustees--or governors, as they are usually called. ...
- (2) In the large majority of Canadian institutions students now generally elect or appoint their own members to sit on the senate and its committee. ...
- (3) Canadian administrative officers overwhelmingly believe that students are making valuable contributions to the deliberations of academic bodies (p. 34).

Also abroad, Duster (1968) and Olson (1973) described a similar view of young people as reflected in the Antioch College and the Canadian college and university treatment of their students. In Denmark Olson (1973) described the Folk High Schools, which offer a unique experience called "enlightenment for life (p. 20)." The idea of these schools was conceived more than a century ago, and "in one form or another the concept has spread to all of Scandanavia (Olson, 1973, p. 20)." The schools provided experiences in character building, emphasizing cultural and social topics in the curricula. The schools required no examinations and offered no credits. As Olson noted: "The high schools provide an opportunity to return to school, not for vocational knowledge, but to revitalize the spirit, learn how to live, develop the human character, awaken

the soul, and inspire an application for life itself (p. 19)." It would appear that these schools were attempting to assist students along the path toward self-actualization—a goal of American public education often expressed but difficult to realize.

American educational institutions have many opportunities to learn about humanizing and democratizing their operations from foreign educational systems. There have also been for some time in this country worthy examples for replication should they choose to do so. Conditions have existed that made it possible to learn from one another, but this change did not seem to be happening very rapidly.

Implications of Political Education

Through the study of a wide range of literature that appeared to relate to the concepts of shared power and shared governance, there surfaced from time to time a variety of concerns that fell into the broad category of political education. The American Political Science Association Committee on Pre-Collegiate Education (1971) specifically identified political education in the public schools as its challenge. Battle (1969), Simon (1955), Gillespie (1972), Eaton (1961), Bailey (1955), Quillen (1948), Massialas (1970), and Hess (1967) have all written about political education in the public schools.

Quillen (1948) sensed that there were limitations of high school social studies programs in producing social competence. Unfortunately he was willing to accept the reproduction of information by

students as evidence of political education. Two significant findings by Hess (1967) have been noted. He found that political attitudes are definitely acquired during the elementary school years, and that among the agents for political socialization "The school apparently plays the largest part in teaching attitudes, conceptions, and beliefs about the operation of the political system (p. 217)."

Massialas (1970) cited research that proved that the fears of Quillen (1948) were more than justified. Formal programs of citizenship education in the public schools have not been found in the available research to contribute significantly to the development of good citizenship. Massialas also cited steps that the school should take if it wanted to encourage the political socialization of students:

- (1) Introduce new programs in civics which would present a realistic picture of the political system and instruct youth how to participate effectively in the political process. ...
- (2) Build into the entire curriculum a social issues component. ...
- (3) The spirit and the process of inquiry should prevail in all classrooms. ...
- (4) The school should provide a laboratory for decision making for both students and teachers. The traditional student councils and faculty meetings do not provide for participatory behavior.... The concept of participatory democracy needs to be introduced and actively applied (pp. 31-35).

Politics has to be a concern then of the educational process within the schools, and it has to be a concern of the institution as a participant in the local political arena. A school system, in order to survive, must be prepared to do battle in that arena. The leaders of the school system will have to know what they are doing to insure fair treatment of the school system. It has been noted:

Without a politics of education that is intelligently led and altruistically based there can be little hope for gaining quality education with a democracy. Since a democracy is dependent upon politics and education it must have a good politics of education to survive. Someone has said that a democracy that scorns education is actually an hypocrisy. One could say also with much truth that an educational system in a democracy that scorns politics is an hypocrisy. The public school system of a government in which the supreme power is vested in the people has to go to the people through its governing agencies to gain support, and its very reason for existence is the welfare of the people (Battle, 1969).

Someone once said that "the art of politics is the allocation of finite resources to meet infinite demands." If a school system did not have leadership that has mastered that art, the schools might suffer in the annual allocation of tax dollars. Moreover, school leadership must instill public confidence in the programs of the school system to make its political approach effective.

The Mershon Center of the Ohio State University (Columbus), in concert with the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University, has provided the impetus for a growing interest in political education in the public schools. The Mershon Center has concentrated on the development of programs at the elementary school level while the Social Studies Development Center has promoted the use of secondary schools as political laboratories for civics and government instruction (Gillespie, 1972).

Gillespie (1972) has indicated why she believed that political participation should be stressed in the public secondary school:

The school, then, provides a direct mechanism for guiding and rewarding participation activity. It also facilitates the observation and reinforcement of change in behavior itself. Teachers can observe directly whether students can utilize political knowledge in directing their behavior. Students,

on the other hand, can establish habits of participation in ongoing school political life that are not normally included in classroom routines. For perhaps the first time in many schools, students will use political knowledge on an everyday basis in the school political community and be able to directly determine effective and ineffective consequences of political behavior (p. 8).

Gillespie has outlined an approach that calls for laboratory experiences in political education either through a variety of subactivities within the school operation or in the activity of the school taken as a whole. A shared governance concept that involved the total operation of the school would be an example of the latter; projects dealing with political activities in a government class in a high school would be examples of the former. Together these examples covered the range of potential laboratory experiences in political education envisioned by Gillespie.

Zatz (1971) has implemented and described a unique system of participatory democracy at the elementary level that exemplifies the laboratory approach to political education. He created a comprehensive system of student government in all grades (1-6) of his elementary school. There were two levels to this structure. There were a school-wide Student Council and several "little legislatures," which acted in coordination with the Student Council. Zatz had divided the school into four "little schools" which provided the constituencies of the "little legislatures." Representatives from each "little school" served on the school-wide Student Council. Although the range of decision-making was limited in this approach, Zatz nevertheless believed that "It is possible to teach

the concept of rights and responsibilities only through a democratic school program (p. 32)." His approach represented a firm commitment to that statement.

Summary

An attempt has been offered to survey a wide range of the literature potentially related to the concepts of shared governance and shared power in the public schools. Antecedents and precedents for these concepts were discovered in the writings from business and industrial management and the social sciences. Educational administration has lagged far behind the practitioners of administration in other institutions.

The most progress in humanizing and democratizing the educational institution has taken place at the junior college, college, and university levels. Here again business, industry, and social sciences have forged far ahead of education. Educational administration has a great deal to learn from business and industrial management in the utilization of the findings in human relations.

Suitable models for possible replication were discovered of shared governance at all levels of education. These models can be observed in operation, or they can be read about in the literature. Writers in education have not yet begun to check and cross reference in their bibliographies the available literature in business and industrial management relevant to common problems and potential solutions in their respective fields.

A basis for establishing a theoretical and an operational model of shared governance for the Staples Governing Board at Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut, has been discovered.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS: MODEL CONSIDERATIONS

Values Clarification

In considering the theoretical foundations for possible models, it seemed reasonable to assume that ethical pluralism characterized the modern cultural world and each segment of it. The diversity of value systems posed practical limitations for the development of a simplified model of value systems even in so small a segment as one high school in a public school system in the United States. Traditionally values have been determined in the public schools on a preemptive basis. Those who came before possessed the authority and power of value designation. Values designated in this a priori fashion have rarely been questioned, if ever, in the development of public education. However, in recent years, especially during the past twenty years, these values have come under close scrutiny, legal challenge, and major revision. The "hardening of the attitudes" that has characterized the value system of the American public secondary school has been challenged and at least slightly modified during that period of time. The greatest impetus for change has come in the past several years.

The rigidity of the value system in the past has been reinforced by the bureaucratic structure of the American public school system.

As Henry (1972) pointed out, bureaucracies are dedicated to three main functions. There was the obvious function of assigned task, the purpose for which the bureaucracy was established. This was closely followed by the preservation of the organizational structure. However, an equally significant function of the bureaucracy was self-perpetuation. This function has been called "boundary maintenance." If the bureaucratically organized public school system was devoting a large share of time to resisting change with respect to purpose, self-preservation, and structure and roles of participants, it would be very difficult for new value systems to be introduced if they were considered at all.

To escape from value judgments constituted an impossible task. Since the creation of a theoretical model for shared governance in the public secondary school represented a systematizing of values and value judgments, no attempt was made to escape from them or to minimize their effects in the modeling process. Rather, the primary premise that the modeling process was an exercise in value clarification was accepted and established. The result inevitably had to be a gestalt-like configuration consisting of a wide range and number of contributing value systems which added to more than their sum.

The inescapable and fundamental issue in a public school system was that of control. The question was always one of superordinates versus subordinates in an adversary relationship. A random sampling and analysis of student handbooks and teacher handbooks would have underscored this contention. These handbooks were most typically

collections of opinions, assertions, and assumptions about values. They attempted to delineate role relationships in terms of power, authority, and control. In so doing they outlined the roles of what Freire (1972) has called the "oppressed" and the "oppressors" in another context. The oppressors (teachers and administrators) ostensibly had both power and authority, which gave them control because of the low level of consciousness relative to their own self-image held by the oppressed (students).

The force that held this inhumane relationship together was the feeling of vulnerability in the public schools described by Henry (1972). The relationship fostered a dependency based upon the fear of failure, the loss of success, and the diminution of reputation. It thrived on an insidious manipulation of individual self-concepts. It was no accident that Glasser (1969) sought to eliminate the fear of failure from the public schools.

The mechanism within which the force of vulnerability operated was the structure of the public school system. This hierarchical ordering of the lives of people had changed very little since its inception. It was still based essentially on the traditional/classical model of Weberian bureaucracy. The power pyramid of control clearly established the role relationships between those who had the authority to direct and manipulate and those who had little or no authority. Inherent in the operation of such hierarchical structures were definite values and attitudes related to people.

These presumptive values related to people appeared to have been based upon the characteristics of human nature as outlined in Theory X by McGregor (1960). People under Theory X were assumed to dislike work and to avoid it if possible. They were also assumed to need to be forced to do things under the threat of punishment. Finally, under Theory X people were assumed to prefer direction and security because they had very little ambition.

It was not surprising that a system of bureaucratic control evolved in the public school system in the light of these considerations. It was also not surprising to find that the public school system operated under a carefully outlined system or hierarchy which placed the maximum power and authority at the top of the organization. In such a system there have to be people at the bottom of the structure. Equally not surprising, the people at the bottom were the students.

Recognizing that the position taken thus far and about to be explored represents a value judgment, the point has to be reiterated that it was not only impossible to escape from value judgments but also unnecessary and undesirable. What will be pursued vigorously here represented the notion that it was possible within a bureaucratic enterprise, the public school system, to reduce what Henry (1972) identified as the vulnerability of man and to capitalize on man's freedom as an individual. Society in general and the public school system in particular rendered man vulnerable "through placing reputation--the social person--in the center of consideration and making reputation destiny; by degrading the inner self to second, third, or

merely adventitious place, and making the social facade supreme, so that at every step the self will be sacrificed to the facade (p. 10)." Henry went on to assert that "An important function of the feeling of vulnerability is to make us dependent (p. 11)." Central to a value system which will eliminate vulnerability was the position that the youngster in the public school must be kept as free and as independent as possible since vulnerability contradicts the spirit of inquiry and risk-taking essential to learning. Only then will it be possible for the individual to learn as an individual. Only then would it be possible for the individual to be free, especially to be free to choose his own system of values and destiny.

In order for young people in the public schools to be free to choose their own system of values and thereby influence their own destinies, it was essential for those who held the power to be willing to share that power. Those who held the power, the board of education and the administrators in particular, had to be willing to share their power with those who held relatively little power, the teachers and especially the students. The functions of the public schools had to be recognized for what they were--what Blau and Scott (1962) identified as the "is" in opposition to the "ought" of public education. Those who held power and literally controlled the public school system had to at least consider, if not accept, the contention of Freire (1972) that "Education as the exercise of domination stimulates the credulity of students, with the ideological intent (often not perceived by educators) of indoctrinating them to adapt to the world of

oppression (p. 65)." Thus a remarkable sense of leadership was called for. Holders of power, who historically have not relinquished power willingly, would be asked to do so.

To stimulate the consideration of models that would facilitate the sharing of power in the public schools, the following list of values and value-related areas have been offered:

- elimination of trappings of failure
- elimination of punishment
- elimination of vulnerability of students, staff, administration
- emphasis on cooperation
- emphasis on desirability of risk-taking
- emphasis on freedom and dignity, individuality
- emphasis on creativity and uniqueness of individuals
- emphasis on protection and preservation of mental and physical health
- emphasis on taking responsibility for self and for others
- emphasis on becoming a better human being through the selection of what is suitable for the individual from among various alternative value systems
- participation in decision-making by students, faculty, administration, and parents in the following areas: school governance, curriculum, scheduling, activities, budget, and other school functions
- establishing a foundation of mutual trust and confidence
- establishing an operational definition of "love," caring, concern for others as a basic motivational device
- establishing a vehicle for shared governance and collaborative learning
- establishing an organizational structure that will delineate priorities which will encourage the humanization of individuals rather than their dehumanization
- establishing value and attitudinal systems as the primary point of effecting change in the organization and in individuals (first priority)
- establishing an open organizational structure rather than a closed one
- establishing leadership training as the sine qua non for effecting change (effecting change in education must derive from and begin with the values and attitudes of administrators)
- establishing a means for alternative learning programs to co-exist
- establishing a completely democratized response system for the general behavior of individuals

- establishing a means for effecting change within a bureaucratic institution
- establishing a reliance on consensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise, to manage conflict
- establishing an atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression as well as task-oriented acts

These were suggestive and not delimiting. Rather they were intended to open up the limitless potential of individual freedom--freedom that Fromm (1964) characterized as:

the freedom to create and to construct, to wonder and to venture. Such freedom requires that the individual be active and responsible, not a slave or a well-fed cog in the machine It is not enough that men are not slaves; if social conditions further the existence of automatons, the result will not be love of life, but love of death (pp. 52-53).

Values which encourage the attainment of freedom were sought. Education was a process of values clarification that could lead to real freedom. According to Freire (1972) again: "Education as the practice of freedom--as opposed to education as the practice of domination--denies that man is abstract, isolated, independent, and unattached to the world; it also denies that the world exists as a reality apart from men (p. 69)."

What had to be changed in the management of education to bring these values and others to the forefront of the objectives of the public school system? In particular, what new model considerations for vehicles that would encourage change were there available? There were several worth reviewing, including an implied model of "problem-posing education" offered by Freire (1972). This was a model of inquiry--one which he said must be directed towards humanization--man's historical vocation (p. 73)." The models have been listed in the order in which they were reviewed.

Historical Models

Throughout this exercise it must be remembered that the target of thought was to view schools and curricula in terms of organization of the institution. It was assumed that effecting change, that is meaningful change, in a public senior high school could best be accomplished by concentrating on the organizational and leadership levels of the institution. In effect, this is an attempt to reorder the structure of the institution to accelerate and facilitate internal change to meet the demands of a rapidly accelerating external change in our culture and society. It was assumed that a separation of curriculum change and development from the organization and administration of the educational enterprise represented a false and misleading dichotomy in thought and practice. The models reviewed here were assessed on the basis of these premises.

The traditional bureaucratic model assumed that the nature of events was uniform and predictable. Social skills were minimal in the management scheme. Extensive impersonal relations were established and encouraged among the workers in the hierarchical structure. Extensive use of a method based on merit was a basic management approach in appointments of personnel. Job specifications were clearly and extensively specified and delineated in an a priori fashion. These formed the basis for identifying authority in the hierarchical structure. There was extensive use of process and procedure based upon a doctrine of separation of policy and administrative decisions. Policy involved fundamental assumptions of the

structure; administrative decisions were based on operational rules and regulations. Assignments and functions were extensively specialized. Expertise and knowledge were confined to a relatively narrow band of activity. Finally, the traditional bureaucratic model depended heavily on, and made extensive use of, general rules and regulations as an operational methodology. The organization was "run by the book."¹

It would have been easy to give short shrift to the Weberian model of bureaucracy because it seemed to contradict and thwart many, if not most, of the values considered essential to foster the growth and expression of individual freedom. There were and there still are elements of the classical model of bureaucracy that can be utilized in any modern organizational structure committed to the development of individual freedom. A bureaucratic model per se was not bad. It probably was essential that such a model be invented if for no other reason than to expedite an orderly handling of huge numbers of people. A bureaucratic structure or procedure was not necessarily incompatible with individual freedom. By providing a system of predictability and objectivity in the treatment of individuals in a society, the bureaucratic structure might well serve as a protector of freedom.

In the final analysis, however, this idealistic model of Weberian bureaucracy was rejected as a prototype for a new approach to

¹ Based on lecture notes from classes taught by Dr. William Noland at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, North Carolina, 1972-73.

humanizing and democratizing the organizational structure in the public secondary school because it presented and was based on a confining and limiting concept of the nature of man. As noted elsewhere in this dissertation, the model assumed characteristics that emphasized the negative and unpredictable elements of man in keeping with the Theory X of McGregor (1960). From a pragmatic standpoint it had been the model for what has existed in the public school systems anyway. There was no evidence to support any trend in the direction of humanizing and democratizing the public schools under the influence of this model. The bureaucratic model in use has consistently separated individuals on the basis of those who have power and those who do not. A better model was still to be found.

From the writing and study of a group which came to be known as "human relationists" there evolved what was logically designated a human relations model. The bureaucratic structure viewed man and the characteristics of the organization from a different perspective. The nature of events was viewed as non-uniform and largely unpredictable. This model required that its management personnel have good social skills and make extensive use of them in carrying out their responsibilities. Naturally, under these conditions impersonal relations or formal relations were minimized. The selection and assignment of personnel were based extensively on merit as they were in the traditional model. There was a much greater flexibility in determining specifications of job authority. A priori specifications were minimal. The hierarchical impact of the structure was de-emphasized, and hierarchial authority was minimally reorganized.

There was a minimal emphasis on the separation of policy and administrative decisions and a minimal emphasis on the use of general rules as well. Finally, the human relations model required minimal specialization within the hierarchical structure.²

The human relations model was rejected because it really represented an attempt to humanize the existing structure and system more than a venture into a completely new approach. Nevertheless, this approach was to influence greatly the ultimate selection and development of the models of this study.

Another model which can best be described as a compromise between the traditional and human relations model was identified. The compromise model was really a model based on the eclectic incorporation of elements from each of the other two models. This eclectic model rejected the other two in total but selected out the desired elements from each. This model has also been called a professional model. By any of its three designations--eclectic, compromise, and professional--it was identifiable through its unusual selectivity in utilizing the elements of the other two models--the traditional and the human relations. However, with respect to the characteristics relative to the nature of events, extent of the use of social skills, impersonal relations, merit appointment, a priori specifications of job authority, hierarchical authority, separation of policy and administrative decisions, specialization, and general rules, the eclectic model utilized elements which represented compromises or

² Idem.

attempts to get the best from both positions. This model provided the structure for modern management practices in business and industry.³

This model, too, fell short of becoming the basis for the theoretical and operational models of this study. Again it was not so much that it could not be useful, but that it was not a completely new creation that challenged the imagination and stimulated the intellect. It was a half-breed creation of two models that had been judged wanting. Like the others, it did not provide legitimate and functional concepts of democratization or humanization, nor did it provide for the process to realize the concepts.

Post-Secondary Education Models

Deegan et al. (1970) identified three general models that represented the way in which governance was viewed philosophically and implemented operationally. The models described by these writers were categories of the major approaches to governance on college campuses. The models thus identified and described were the traditional model, the separate jurisdictions models, and the participatory models (Deegan et al., pp. 16-19).

The traditional model reflected the in loco parentis philosophy that has dominated the schools of the United States since colonial days, and only since the U.S. Supreme Court's 1969 decision in Tinker v. Des Moines Independent School District has this seriously

³ Idem.

been modified in the schools at any level-elementary through college. The net effect of the philosophy of in loco parentis on school government was to limit it to an advisory capacity at best in anything significant to the real power of the organization. As Deegan (1970) noted: "The general structure for this kind of model is usually one where there are separate faculty and student organizations with ever-changing duties and functions.... The end product of the traditional model is a system of hierarchical authority running from the students at the bottom through faculty in the middle to the administration at the top (pp. 16-17)."

This model was rejected because it was a carry over from the traditional management model from industry and management. A model that operated on the basis of separation of constituencies into adversary roles could not provide the force or the structure for a shared model of governance.

The separate jurisdictions model fragmented the basic constituencies to such an extent that it was not possible to use it either. Separate jurisdictions were created in two main ways: first, some students and faculty attempted to create their own autonomous colleges or departments apart from the mother institution; second, jurisdiction for selected interest groups was established on campus. In both situations fragmentation of the main academic body served to weaken all positions. Obviously, the antagonism and adversary relationships among staff, administration, and students were bound to increase. These approaches subsumed under the separate jurisdictions

model as constituted and operated offered no promising leads for a shared concept of governance.

Participatory models identified by Deegan et al. (1970) offered the greatest promise for developing a theoretical model and an operational model of shared governance for replication in the public secondary school. The model proposed by Shoben (1968) created a bicameral governing body. The legislative body was established to represent the school community. It was described as follows:

The Faculty Senate may be conceived in at least its general outline along the usual lines, although there may be advantages in thinking of institutions beyond some critical size, more of a representative body than after the fashion of the town meeting, of the full professorial staff. The Student Assembly would define a lower house in the legislature, relatively large in size and perhaps enjoying certain special powers--for instance, the initiation of all bills pertaining to the regulation of student conduct. The two houses would be connected by the familiar machinery of conference committees, joint commissions and task forces, formalized relationships between the President of the Faculty Senate and the Speaker of the Student Assembly, etc. The enactment of bills into college "laws" would require the customary agreement between the two houses, thus assuring, among other things, the potency and meaningfulness of the Student Assembly and the involvement of the Faculty Senate in the full range of concerns animating the community (p. 19).

The authors noted with a great deal of chagrin that there were not many examples of these models in operation. Notable exceptions reported by McGrath (1970) were Antioch's "community government," and the governances of Roosevelt University, Bennington College, Sarah Lawrence, Marlboro, and Goddard Colleges all of which include students in policy making. It was noteworthy, however, in every instance the professional staff outnumbered the students who could vote.

Richardson (1969) offered a variation of the participatory model about which he wrote:

It has been pointed out that the zone of acceptance for policies which result in effective action broadens as those who are affected participate in their determination. We know, too, that authority in an organization is dependent upon the assent of those governed. From these two statements we may conclude that if we are to achieve acceptance by students of organizational policies, we will need to involve them in the development of such policies or run the risk of arriving at conclusions that are unacceptable to those whom they are designed to serve (pp. 34-44).

Essentially Richardson created a tripartite participatory model which was very similar to the modified variation described by McGrath (1970). The essential characteristic of both models was the separation of the constituencies of the school community into the three traditional groups--administration, faculty, and students. Each would have its own governmental body, and only members of the respective constituencies would serve on each government. Admittedly, carefully delineated liaison procedures were worked out through elaborate committee structures, but the adversary and hierarchical relationships were maintained. These models were finally rejected because of this functional dilemma.

One model of the participatory category did offer possibilities for replication. It was similar to the Antioch model in that an "all-college senate" was created that was comprised of faculty and students together--to vote together on issues. Faculty and student members of the "all-college senate" were elected according to a formula of representation. Administrators served through the presentation of ideas and proposals and by executing the voted policies

of the "all-college senate." Again, however, there is no instance where the number of students equals or exceeds the number of faculty in the legislative body. At least this model brought teachers and students together. This aspect of the model was worth replicating in the theoretical and operational models of this study.

Secondary Education Models

Generally speaking, the models of governance at the secondary education levels were similar to those at the junior college and college levels. They suffered from the same constraints to student participation and with few exceptions they offered little hope for replication.

Schmerler (1972) has done an excellent job of reviewing, categorizing, and analyzing the typical models of governance in the public schools. He based his categories on the relationship between student participants and the established decision-making process.

He identified five basic approaches:

- (1) collaborative, in which students join with faculty and/or administrators and (occasionally) parents to consider jointly the various academic and administrative issues which confront, to a greater or lesser extent, all the groups;
- (2) parallel, in which students in their own independent groups deal with much the same agenda items as adult decision-makers and transmit their recommendations;
- (3) adversary, in which students promote their own interests through tactics of organized pressure and negotiation;
- (4) independent, in which students are given primary decision-making responsibility for specified programs and operating procedures;
- (5) individual choice, in which the somewhat different focus is on providing the individual student the leeway to design his own program and regulate much of his own academic activity.

The inclusion of individual choice as a "governance" activity is justified on the grounds that none of the other plans for participation in institutional decision-making involves the majority of students in making important decisions (Abstract).

The collaborative model suggested the direction for the theoretical and operational models of this study, but Schmerler did not uncover, describe, or provide a process of replication for a model that was exactly what was needed for this study. That task remained.

A Selected Theoretical Model

Murphy (1972), Jacoby (1972), and Brooks (1972) collectively and separately provided a wide-ranging portrayal of what has come to appear more and more as a unique example of participatory governance at any level. These writers have described the Staples Governing Board of Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut. Dr. Marie Fielder, Chairman of the ASCD's Commission on Shared Power and Responsibility, wrote in a letter to the principal of Staples High School on June 1, 1972, the following statement:

Our team found your school--faculty and students and your community--in the vanguard of places considering shared responsibility. Our survey was national in scope, and your school moves out front and should make a contribution to other school systems which have problems of governance but are unaware of such an alternative as you are pioneering in Westport.

It was time to look into this model and determine what made it unique. By selecting out the basic elements that were part of this model and combining them with elements worthy of replication that had been uncovered in the literature, it was possible to construct a stronger and more useful theoretical model.

The Staples Governing Board (SGB) offered the best available operational model from which to work out the elements of a theoretical model of shared governance in a public secondary school. It provided for equal representation among its respective constituencies. There was an equal number of students and adults (professional educators) on the SGB. It had a constitution that had been ratified by its constituencies, and the constitution had been made policy by the board of education. The SGB had authority over all school functions except those specifically restricted by state law, local town law, or the policies of the board of education. The principal of the school constituted the executive branch. He had two veto powers--a suspensive veto which can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the SGB and an absolute veto which can be appealed to the superintendent and the board of education. The SGB could not overturn the principal's absolute veto. The SGB offered an honest attempt to provide sharing of real power with students and faculty.

The parts of the theoretical model based on the elements taken from the SGB were reconstructed by going back to the beginning of the SGB from a germ of an idea and tracing its evolution through stages to the present level of its development. The stages used have been borrowed from Freire (1972). These stages were selected because they happened to parallel very closely what actually happened in the development of the SGB as an operational model.

The theoretical model would provide for the following developmental stages based on the suggestion of Freire for raising the level of consciousness of the oppressed:⁴

(1) Thematic Stage. The officially designated leadership establishes new priorities among its values and attitudes through introspection, critical self-analysis, and self-assessment. This may require a reassessment and reordering of beliefs as well as values and attitudes. It is imperative and crucial to the success of this stage that the leaders reexamine first their own attitudes and values.

This step must then be followed by a similar process for the values, attitudes, and beliefs that have been established by the leadership for those whom they lead or control. Short of violence and threat, the only way for this stage to take place effectively is for the leaders to conduct honestly, sincerely, and willingly this exercise. Priorities of broadly based attitudes and values are identified as themes. (See p. 108 above for a list of suggested values.) The themes become the guidelines for the evolution of the rest of the stages.

This initial stage is depicted in Figure 3. The nucleus of this "fusion model" consists of the values, attitudes, and beliefs that will provide the themes for action among the members of the theoretical model. The immediate developers of and reactors to

⁴ Based on lecture notes from classes taught by Dr. James B. Macdonald at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, North Carolina, 1972-73.

Stage 1

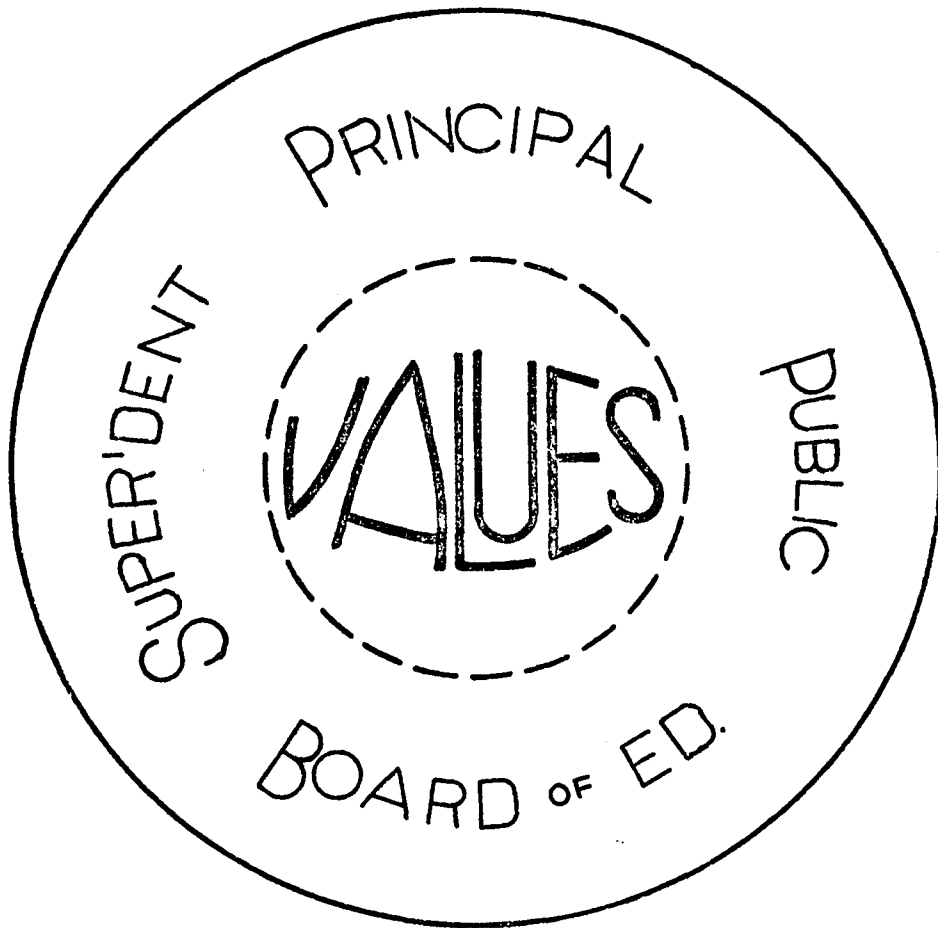


Fig. 3. Thematic stage.

these themes are the public and the main leaders of the school system--the board of education, the superintendent, the principal. They are presented in the area immediately adjacent to the nucleus of values. The values represent the nuclear power of this "fusion model" and the leaders listed hold the authority for administering that power. Unless it is properly released, directed, and controlled, this power can become destructive enough to threaten the future of individual freedom. The challenge of the construction of the rest of the model will be to direct positively that power of freedom.

(2) Humanization Stage. The leadership must verbalize the values, attitudes, and beliefs that have evolved as themes. At the high school level, the principal must demonstrate through his words and actions the truth, honesty, and reality of the themes. For example, the principal can demonstrate faith, trust, and confidence in students and faculty by minimizing the rules and regulations of the school and by establishing a variety of dialogic opportunities for faculty, students, administrators, and interested parents.

Five areas of priority are identified in Figure 4 to provide direction to the democratic fusion sought. These priority groups are: (a) the preservation of mental and physical health, (b) individual freedom, (c) collaborative learning, (d) values clarification and selection, and (e) assuming responsibility for self and others. These seem to have a basis in logical necessity if democracy and individual freedom are going to work. They are shown in Figure 4 as the concentric circle adjacent to the area

Stage 2

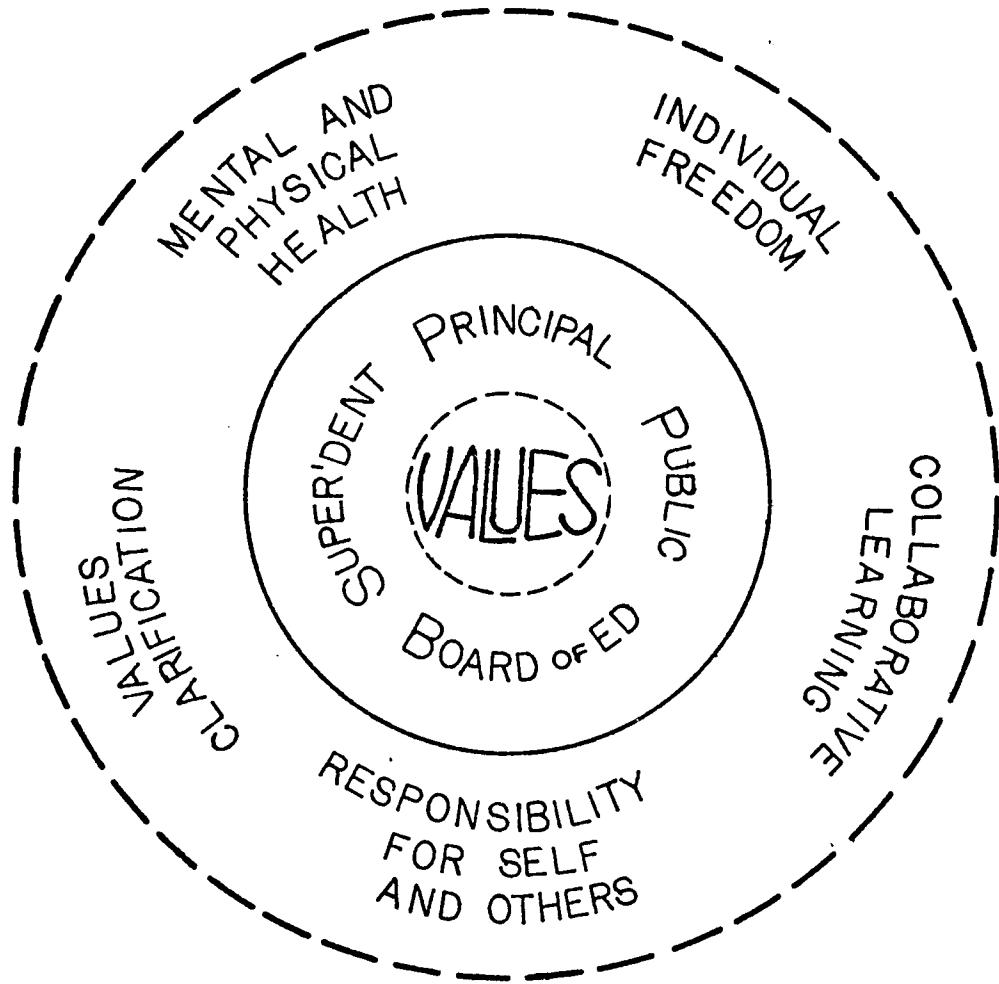


Fig. 4. Humanization stage.

containing the principal, superintendent, board of education, and the public. The priorities are listed outward from the center in order of arbitrarily assigned significance.

It seems too obvious to say, but the preservation of the physical and mental health of individuals is listed as the number one thematic priority. The individual must be alive to participate. Individual freedom means the freedom or lack of restraint to achieve what Argyris (1961) calls self-actualization. It is the highest level of need identified by Dr. Abraham Maslow in his needs hierarchy. Collaborative learning is assumed to be the combination of learning and teaching into one never-ending process. It is assumed further that it is a shared experience with the participants mutually dependent and rewarded. Values clarification and selection refers to the identification, analyzing, sorting, and adopting of a set of values or themes to be guided by in school and to live by in the world. If the fusion process is successful, these themes for in school and out of school should be the same. Finally, assuming responsibility for self and others is a natural outgrowth of the other priorities if the goals of democracy and individual freedom are to be reached.

(3) Preliminary Modification Stage. This may also be termed the emerging conflict thematic stage. As a result of dialogue among the participants, new priorities of values and attitudes (themes) are reestablished. These result from a consideration of the priorities assigned by the leadership during Stage 2. At this point the

Stage 3

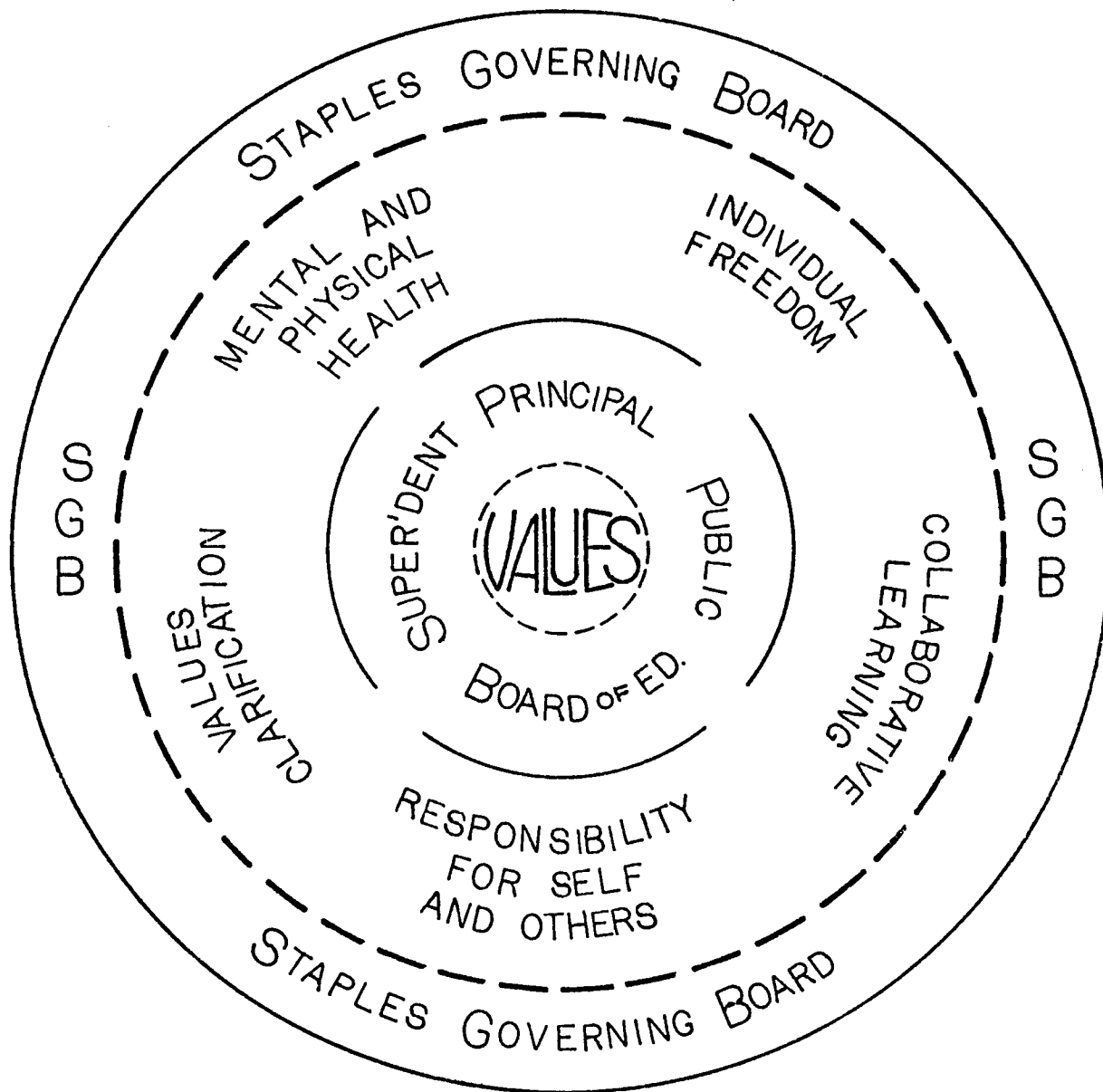


Fig. 5. Preliminary modification stage.

need for developing a practical vehicle or organizational structure for effecting change is anticipated. This need should naturally follow the growing awareness on the part of the participants that a new vehicle is essential if power is to be shared in a meaningful and fair way. This stage is characterized by a considerable number of conflicting themes due to the incompatibility of many inherent individual attitudes, values, and beliefs. This stage is also characterized by a heavy emphasis on reporting and sharing among leaders and all participants. It is the beginning of the motivational stage, the opening of consciousness to new levels of awareness.

The change in the model as the result of this stage is shown in Figure 5. The power and authority of the central leadership immediately surrounding the nucleus begin to open up to allow for the emergence of the concept of the Staples Governing Board (SGB) which is pictured in the area surrounding the main area of priority through which any actions of this model are filtered and modified.

(4) Modification Stage. This is the compromise and resolution-of-conflict stage. As a result of continuing dialogue, a vehicle for effecting change is introduced which will provide for the modification of the existing bureaucratic structure on a continuing basis. The bureaucratic process is utilized to make this vehicle a legal part of the public school system. The process is completed at the highest level necessary to make it legally acceptable, workable, and visible within the school system and in the community.

Stage 4

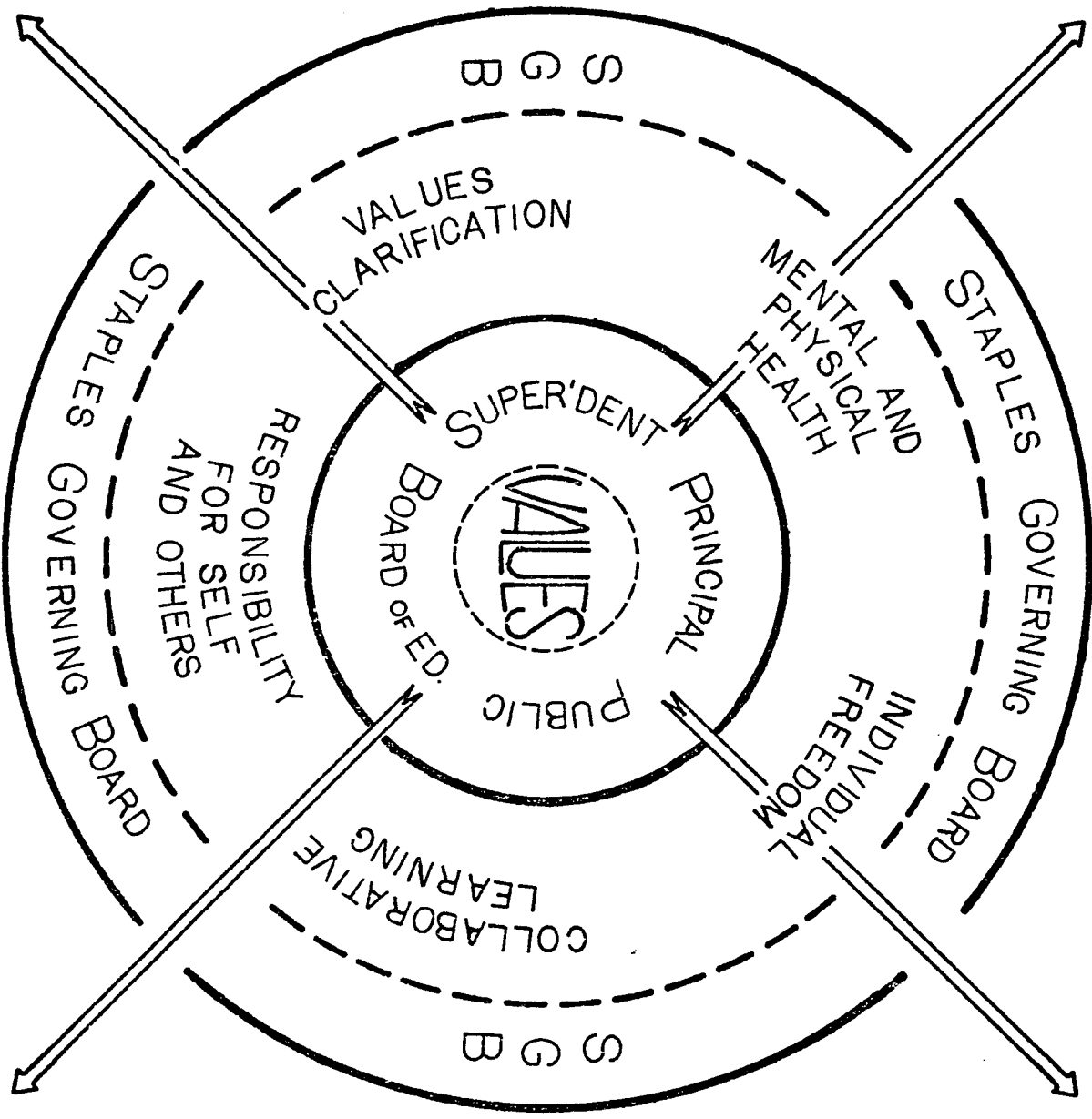


Fig. 6. Modification stage.

The SGB has now been politically identified. There are four political districts or units from which the representatives to the SGB will be elected. The SGB has organized itself into standing committees, and it is beginning to function in its modificational role of shared governance. Legislation is passed, and the interaction between the SGB and its constituencies has begun. The principal continues his leadership role of monitoring the operation of the SGB.

The modification stage has been shown in Figure 6 by closing the central leadership area again. The principal, superintendent, board of education, and the public have been closed in to indicate that they have delegated power to the SGB, which now can function on its own. It has been authorized and empowered by the Board of Education through policy action and change. The arrows indicate the direction of expanding activity as freedom for the individual expands. The arrows have their roots in the core (nucleus) values, and they go out through the area priorities which provide direction for the actions by the SGB. The boundary of the SGB is left broken hereafter because it has become the vehicle for change in the secondary school. The SGB is establishing a balance between the socialization process of the institution, i.e. the public education system, and the self-actualization of the individual. Put another way, it is beginning to resolve the inevitable conflict between the self-actualization of the institution and its organization on the one hand and the self-actualization of the individual on the other.

(5) Mediational Stage. This is a monitoring stage where leadership plays a monitoring role with respect to the operation of the new vehicle (SGB) for effecting change. Leadership responsibility assumes a compromise function between the traditional bureaucratic administrative role and a democratic administrative role. Leadership must work through the SGB to reestablish stages one through four as required and as feasible to protect the freedom and individuality of the participants. This new role is a mediational one, mediation between the on-going demands of self-actualization for the individual and the continuing demands of self-actualization for the organization.

In Figure 7 the mediational stage is depicted by showing four indications of collaborative learning experiences that have their origin at the nucleus of values. They then pass through the priority areas and receive the approval of the SGB before they are fully implemented through the curriculum or learning experiences. Hopefully these experiences will lead to knowledge, skills, goals, and satisfactions. These are only suggestive of the practically unlimited range of potential experiences possible with this model. The collaborative learning experiences are shown by the four lines with arrowheads pointing outward.

Leadership is still exercised by the central leadership group, but now it shares its power with the Staples Governing Board. The main priorities have not changed, and they directly affect everything that happens to the SGB and central leadership action. The priorities

Stage 5

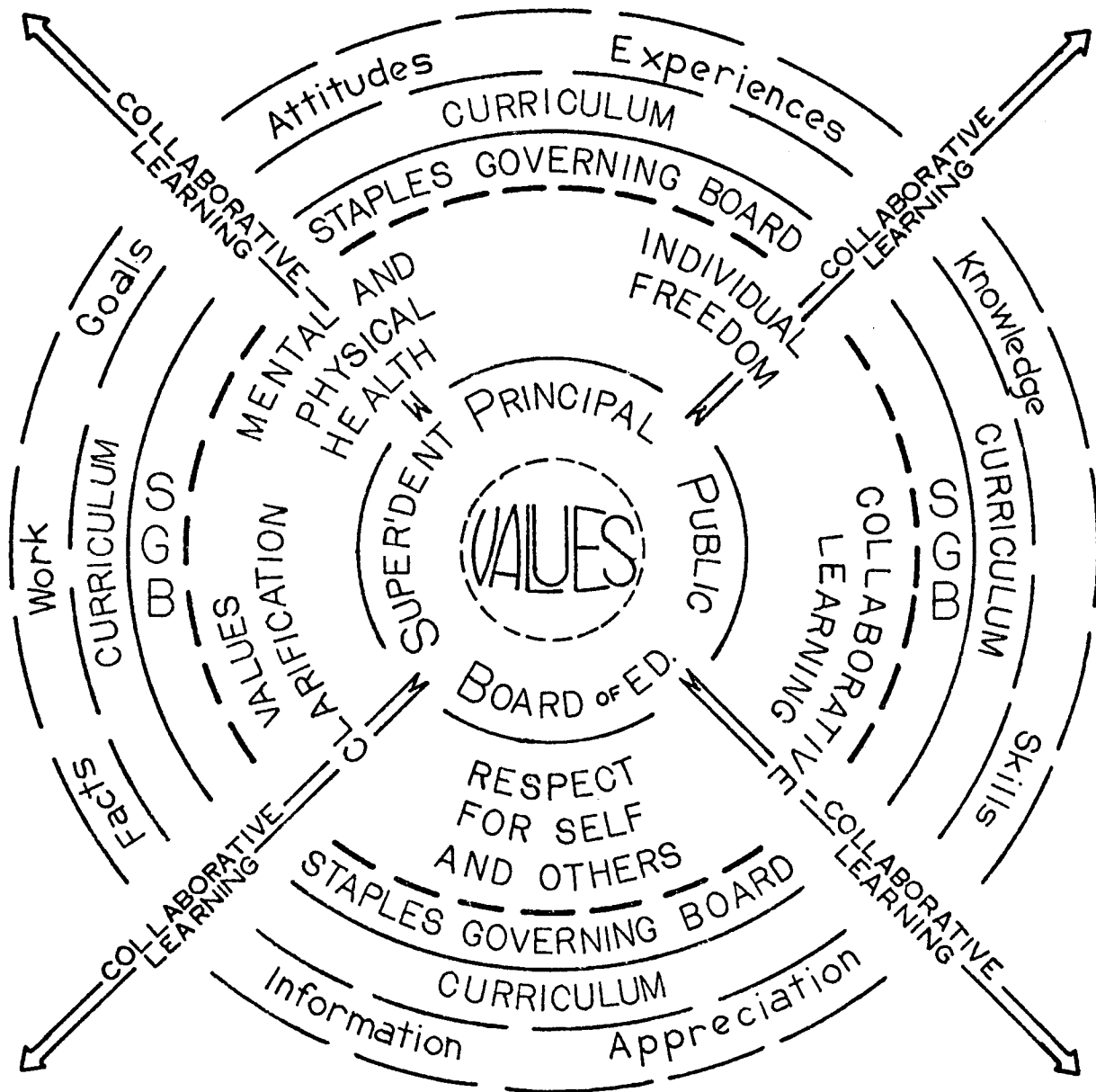


Fig. 7. Mediation stage.

provide a buffer between them. They also provide a humanizing influence on everything that is done. The experiences of the model for individuals, alone and in groups, are designed to be collaborative.

The model is now set for the fusion, expanding, or renewal stage.

(6) Fusion Stage. This is similar to a chain reaction or fission in its potential for creating force and energy. It is anticipated that a series of evolutionary sequences patterned after the stages outlined above will occur. Growth or change within the institution will be of this fusion type. The provision of a model that will not only permit but also encourage learning interaction between experiences within the institution and in society should encourage commensurate growth and change to occur.

For example, in Figure 8, with some of the elements of the model deleted for clarity, four sets of collaborative learning experiences are pictured. The shared governance experience provided by the SGB has led to the development and consideration of new values. In returning to the values nucleus, these new values have become a concept of a potential socio-political model. The arrows going out from the nucleus represent the modification of existing values or the substitution of new values for the existing ones in the four examples shown.

The new values thus formed can provide the basis for changing the system all over again. When the model system is in balance,

Stage 6

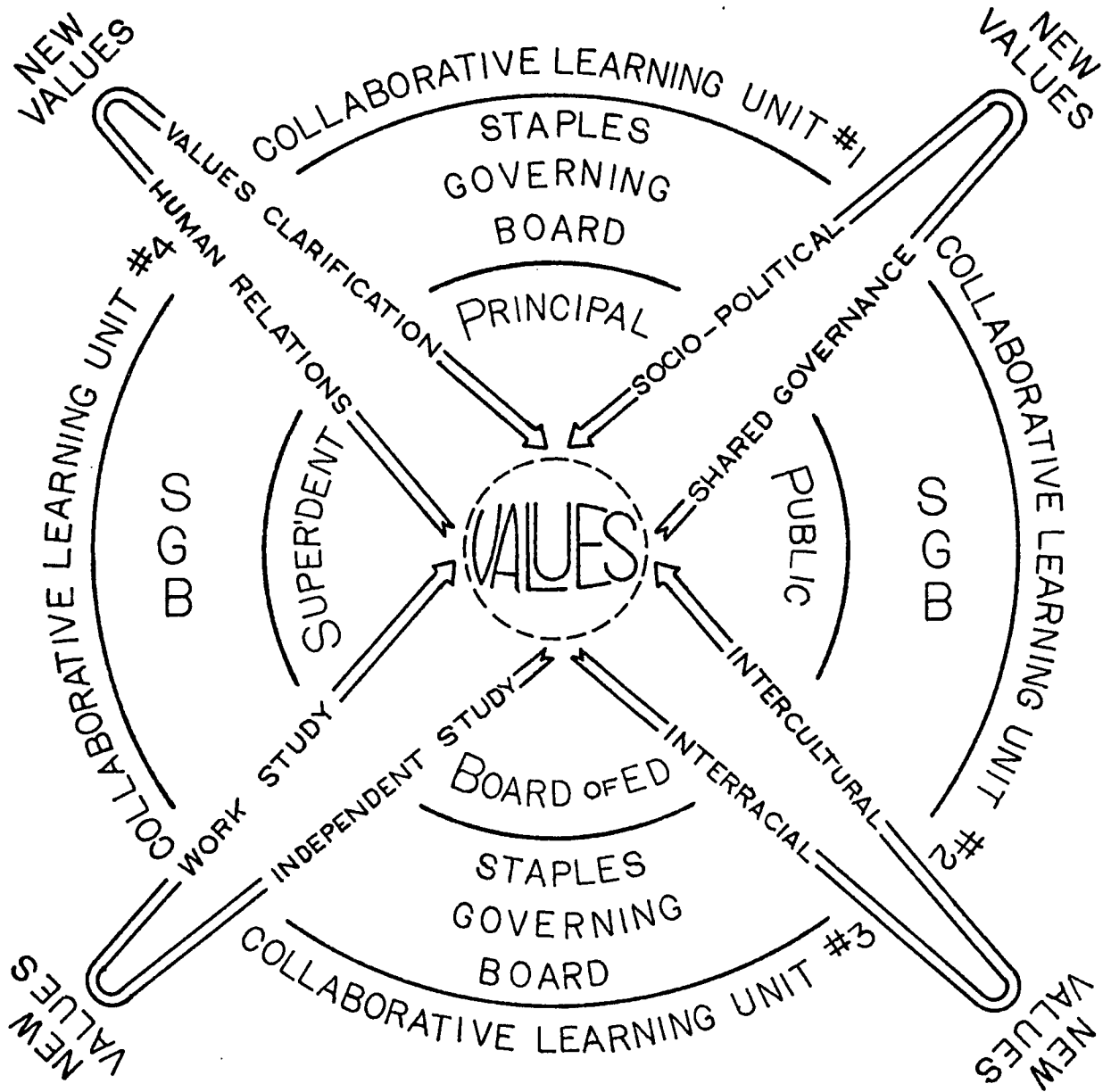


Fig. 8. Fusion stage.

that is when the further development or modification of existing values provides fusion between the goals of the individual and the goals of the organization, fusion is said to be taking place. Complementarity between the needs of the individual and the needs of the organization has been achieved. The model has achieved its goal when these conditions exist. It will be a dynamic and ever changing device. It will be the model of an effective vehicle for change. Growth and change in the individual and the organization will be optimum.

Implications for an Operational Model

The development of the operational model upon which this study was based did not follow the usual evolutionary pattern for social models. In this instance the operational model preceded the theoretical model; the usual procedure for developing an operational model has been reversed. Put still another way it may be inferred that a kind of operational research resulted in the development of a theoretical model to suggest why the operational model was working.

The theoretical model attempted to depict a dynamic construct in operation. Rapidly accelerating change in the culture and society was assumed to be a primary variable. The existence of the static quality of the current public school systems was recognized. The opportunity for the evolution of curriculum, learning experiences, and organizational structure was provided. Underlying all of the elements and their rationale in the model were recognizable and useful values, attitudes, and beliefs.

This model recognized the right of the local board of education to continue to hold the legal responsibility for decisions affecting Staples High School. Operationally, the SGB would have to function in parallel with the principal. The sphere of influence and the level of power and authority had to achieve complementarity with the similar areas held by the principal. The Staples Governing Board, nevertheless, was recognized as the primary influence in effecting change in the school.

Any organizational structure will be dysfunctional at one time or another. The SGB would have to discover its dysfunctions or functional dilemmas as quickly as possible. Functional dilemmas have traditionally and historically been viewed more tolerantly in long-standing organizational structures while innovative changes in the same organizations were judged more quickly and harshly. The SGB had to tool up for efficient operation quickly. Lead time was short, and great expectations were anticipated.

The great expectations placed a burden upon the SGB that called for statesmanlike behavior on the part of all its members. Learning to cope with an initial wave of constituent support and enthusiasm followed by increasing apathy and indifference increased this burden. The problems to be faced, the demands placed upon the SGB, and the work required of its members could have been balanced only by the tremendous challenge that the operation of the SGB represented.

CHAPTER IV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SELECTED MODEL:

ESTABLISHING A PRAXIS

Description of the Community

An old vaudeville routine ended with the punch line, "Everyone has to be some place." The "some place" for the development of a selected model of shared governance in a public secondary school was the town of Westport, Connecticut. Westport has always been a distinctive community. It possesses a variety of characteristics that greatly influenced the development of the selected model, the Staples Governing Board, at Staples High School. The praxis for this development was greatly influenced by the community both directly and indirectly. The relationship between the development of the selected model was crucial to effecting the changes necessary to initiate, to develop, and to implement the Staples Governing Board. The place for all this to happen was of primary significance.

The town of Westport is located in Fairfield County in southeastern Connecticut. Westport was incorporated as a town on May 28, 1835. It was created by taking portions of the contiguous towns of Fairfield, Norwalk, and Weston. These towns are all in Fairfield County. The geographical boundaries of Westport comprise an area of exactly 22.4 square miles. It is a relatively small town located on Long Island Sound between the waterfront towns of Fairfield and Norwalk.

The population of Westport has leveled off to approximately 28,000 people. The town has been carefully zoned with heavy restrictions protecting the homes of the citizens. For all practical purposes, there is little or no room left for any major growth in the population of the town unless the zoning laws were relaxed to permit the erection of apartment dwellings. Multiple dwelling units are forbidden in Westport. The town is basically a suburban community catering to those people who wish to be able to work in major cities relatively close by and to have at the same time the advantages of living in a country-like environment. Because of the beaches and marinas in the town and adjacent areas, Westport provides its citizens the advantages of a resort as well.

The form of government in Westport indicates a close link with colonial New England. It is a selectmen and representative town meeting form of local governance. The representative town meeting (RTM) is only one step, the representatives, removed from the colonial town meeting days of the infant democracy of this country. The representatives serve small neighborhood districts. There are 39 of these representatives in the town. There are three selectmen, a first selectman and two other selectmen designated as second and third on the basis of votes received who have the leadership role in the local government. However, it is significant to note that the town charter clearly provides for the RTM to hold and control the power in the community. For example, the first selectman proposes the town budget annually to the Board of Finance, which can only

accept it or reduce it. The RTM, however, can restore reductions up to the original amount requested if it so chooses. The RTM elects its own moderator from within its ranks. The power of governance has not moved very far from the control of the individual citizens in Westport.

Westport is a town that sociologists would describe as upper middle class in terms of its socio-economic base. It has been a community in which there has been a great deal of mobility of the population. This is not surprising in the light of the occupational status of many of the people. There are many upper management and executive types who work for major companies which have subsidiaries throughout the country and international locations. Rotation of these people among different locations within companies and frequent shifts between companies to enhance positions and status are accepted as natural and often desirable courses of action. The mobility of the population provides Westport with constantly changing points of view, new insights, new questions, and new ideas.

The public school system enjoys an excellent reputation throughout the state and nation. It unquestionably contributes to the attraction of the community and provides a strong reason for many of the newcomers to move to Westport. In Westport there are about 7,000 children in the public schools. Although many of the parents of these children can afford to send their children to private schools, only a small number choose to do so. In many ways it might be argued that the nature of the community affords a private-school-like existence for the children in public schools.

The school system consists of a kindergarten through grade twelve structure. There are two kindergarten complexes separated physically from the elementary schools. There are seven neighborhood elementary schools, each made up of grades one through six. Each school serves a neighborhood district. This districting is a zealously guarded right by the parents who live in each district. There are three junior high schools consisting of grades seven through nine. There is one senior high school, Staples High School, comprising grades ten through twelve. Its student population, after reaching a high of about 2,100 students a few years ago, has now leveled off at approximately 1,900 students, where it is projected to stay for the next five years.

For the 1973-1974 school year there were 532 professionals in the school system. There were 137 professionals at the high school of which 114 were regular classroom teachers, 12 were guidance counselors, 6 were special teachers, and 5 were administrators. The total budget for the school system amounted to \$11,642,926. The average expenditure for each student in the school system was approximately \$1,600; the average expenditure for each student at the senior high school was approximately \$1,450. Westport has always been among the top ten of the 169 towns of Connecticut in per pupil expenditures for public education. While there is no guarantee that quality of education results from quantity of funding, it is obvious that definite advantages accrue from these expenditures.

Westport is able to supply excellent materials, equipment, and supplies for its teachers and school children. The school system is in a favorable competitive position to attract the best possible candidates for new positions through above-average salary and related benefits. The town's historical willingness to support education enhances the reputation of the school system and the town itself. This characteristic of the town has done as much as anything else to lure annually a segment of mobile America to Westport.

There are three groups of people who live in Westport. The groups may with considerable accuracy be described as the "locals," the "cosmopolitans," and the "professionals." As used here, these definitions are modified from the usage of Corwin (1965).

The "locals" are the townspeople whose direction consistently is that of the future of the town because that is where they have lived all or most of their lives. They plan to stay there. They frequently are people who inherited or bought property in Westport before the cost of land and property reached the current expensive levels. For most of these people it would be impossible to purchase a place to live in Westport today. They move infrequently; also, they are the people who work in local service areas--policemen, firemen, refuse collectors, bus drivers, cafeteria workers, small shop owners, town public works employees, and workers at similar levels of employment.

Children of these people are less likely to go to college, even though the high school sends between 80 to 90 per cent of its

graduates on to further training (See Appendix A for a summary sheet on a typical graduating class from Staples High School.) The "locals" are generally resentful of the emphasis on college preparation. They also resent the people who continue to move in and out to make use of the reputation of the school for education and record of placement of students in college. The "locals" believe firmly that the constantly rising costs of education are largely due to the demands of these "newcomers," and they blame them accordingly. In a sense the "locals" in Westport represent the "have nots." At least they feel that way, and they play that role politically in the town.

The "cosmopolitans" are the "newcomers" in Westport, but for the most part, as used here, they are people who have moved to Westport, and they plan to stay there as long as possible. They do not intend to leave unless forced to do so. Admittedly, the realities of corporate life being what they are, in all probability they will eventually be required to move. However, many of these people find some way to stay in Westport if they possibly can. Sometimes they will shift positions to area companies, and less often because of the financial restrictions they will form businesses of their own.

Because of their background of moving from place to place in search of upward mobility socially and economically, the "cosmopolitans" of Westport do not readily identify with local traditions. Because they are more likely to have received college degrees, they are naturally more interested in a college preparatory program for their children in the public school. If it is possible to have an

excellent college preparatory public high school, the cost can be shared by many more people.

The "cosmopolitans" are more likely to be culturally oriented beyond the means of the small town to provide suitable cultural outlets. However, Westport has developed unusual artistic, dramatic, and musical programs in the community at large and in the public schools. The high school has an unusually large student enrollment in music, art, and drama. With an expected expansion and modernization of the high school facility, current limitations on enrollment in these areas should be ended, and enrollments are anticipated to increase in music, art, and drama. A typical musical production at Staples High School may involve 500 students. More than half of the total student body is enrolled in some music course. This amounts to more than 1,000 students in any year. Art, while not involving as many students because of severe space limitations, still is taken by an unusually large number of students. It is interesting to note that there is a traveling art collection in the Westport public schools. Famous artists have contributed their works to this collection, which is rotated annually among the public schools for display to provide a wide exposure to art for the students.

The proximity to New York and area universities provides many excellent cultural resources for the "cosmopolitans" and their children. Many of these people are either professional artists, musicians, actors, and actresses, or they have a strong interest in these areas. Many "cosmopolitans" in Westport also work in fields allied to or dependent upon the arts broadly defined.

Generally speaking, the "cosmopolitans" of Westport tend to be more liberal than the "locals" in viewing what goes on or may take place in the public schools. The "cosmopolitans" support the search for new teachers across the country, while the "locals" prefer regional or "home grown" teachers. The "cosmopolitans" tend to favor innovations and experimentation with promising practices in education. They are more aware of these developments elsewhere and generally more desirous of trying them in the schools than the "locals." The "cosmopolitans" tend to take a more active interest in participating directly and indirectly in school affairs. While the "cosmopolitans" are more likely than the "locals" to question what the schools are doing, they are also more likely to support them. If a school system expects to change, the town must have a strong power base in the "cosmopolitans." Put another way, the orientation of the political power structure of the town must be controlled by the "cosmopolitans."

The "professionals" as used here are simply a special subgrouping of the "cosmopolitans." In a sense they represent what the "locals" resent the most in the people who move in and out of the town. The "professionals" have for their primary objective and orientation to get ahead and achieve preeminence in their professions. They rarely expect to stay long in Westport. They are completely oriented to their professional world, and they simply use Westport for what it offers them conveniently as long as they need it. Westport is a way station on the road to professional success.

These people never get involved in local politics. They make little or no contributions locally. Examples of this type are some of the famous theatre and movie people who use Westport as an address more than a home. They always join forces with the rest of the "cosmopolitans" in voting for better schools and a better community, but they don't provide their support because this action will affect them or their children that directly. Practically, that support improves their real estate investments in Westport, but in fairness it must be admitted that they do so because they probably think this responsibility is best for the town. Of all the "cosmopolitans," they are least likely to understand the orientation of the "locals."

It would be possible to subdivide the people of Westport into smaller subgroupings, but these will suffice to point out that the town has been largely directed by the wishes of the "cosmopolitans." This was the case when changes were contemplated at Staples High School. This background is significant to understanding the development of a selected model and establishing a course of action for that development. Just as the people have to be some place, the events must occur some place. Change involves people, events, and environment.

Conditions Favorable to Promoting Change

The preceding section should provide a useful perspective for viewing change in Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut. In a one high school community which has both a high degree of interest

and a strong influence in what happens in the high school, any changes in that school will have a serious and pronounced effect in the community almost immediately. In order to effect and affect change in the high school, it was necessary to search out and make strategic use of conditions favorable to change if they existed in Westport at all.

Hearn (1972) has provided the most relevant outline of conditions favorable to change for use here. He noted with considerable insight that most people like to change others, but they are less willing to change themselves. People tend to resist change, although it is frequently recognized as good for society. Somehow, though, it is always better for the other person. Machiavelli wrote at one point, "Initiating a new order of things is difficult, doubtful, and dangerous." According to Hearn, inventing and innovating are not synonymous either as terms or practices. An innovation must be perceived in the community as something new and fundamentally different from what has existed before. Innovation thus perceived represented a specific and identifiable change.

Hearn (1972) went on to identify conditions favorable to innovation on the basis of where, when, and how. The place where it would be most favorable to innovate or implement change would have the following characteristics:

- (1) Liberal Community. If it can be ascertained that the community or school is of a politico-social persuasion that favors governmental intervention for social progress, it is more likely that attempts to try new ideas will be supported by the parents and citizens living there. The liberal community is generally more tolerant of change. The community relations problem will be much simpler.

(2) Income and Education. Most studies support the view that innovations are more likely to flower in communities where the income and educational levels of the parents are high. Middle-income communities are less pliable, and lower-income constituents tend to resist change. They aspire to master the educational basics that have long been enjoyed by their more affluent neighbors.

(3) Homogeneity. Educators know better than most that where all children bring to the classroom the same value system and associated habits, it is easier to teach and thus to administer the school. The same seems to be true of entire communities that are ethnically, religiously, and economically homogeneous. They are easier to deal with because the power structure is less complex and is freer of internal rivalries that tend to complicate the politics of introducing new ideas. Therefore fewer or simpler strategies are needed.

(4) Cosmopolitanism. Travel tends to broaden one's tolerance of new ideas. Therefore the ideal staff for innovation is one that has had considerable travel experience, has attended many professional meetings outside the state, and has had teaching experience in other systems. The same principles apply to administrators.

(5) Age. Youthful staffs, especially administrative staffs, are usually associated with adoption of innovations. However, my study of ESEA Title III adoptions suggests that often older administrators are also risk takers. The older administrators, those who have "arrived" and are personally secure, or who are near retirement and have little to lose, also bring with them the maturity and the necessary skills to innovate (pp. 358-359).

Closely allied to where to innovate is the concomitant consideration of when to innovate or make changes. Seeking the right time to do something requires more than serendipitous behavior on the part of the innovator. If the innovator has an unusual ability to play hunches based on an excellent understanding of his community, he may well take advantage of these opportunities:

(1) Fiscal Adjustments. A period of rapid growth affords an excellent opportunity to innovate, especially if added costs can be offset by special grants of money from state or

federal legislation. Closely related is the circumstance when the implementation of the innovation will reduce costs of current operations without reduction in quality.

(2) Personnel Changes. Administrative changes or changes at the board of education level provide an opportunity for newcomers to bring in new ideas and make changes during a period when the new personnel are more or less expected to change things.

(3) Media Crusades. During the period when public attention is directed at the schools is often the best time to seek change. Even if there is strong criticism, it is usually possible with creative planning to use the publicity to effect constructive and needed change.

(4) Crises. There are critical times during any crisis which, taken advantage of, may encourage change. As crises continue, there is a mounting tension for which a creative change may prove to be the release, if not the solution. At this point the change may be used for another but valid purpose (Hearn, 1972, p. 359).

Having considered the where and when to change, it is now necessary to review the how to making change. How does an innovator innovate? Innovation is essentially an idiosyncratic art that is dependent upon the kind of "critter" the innovator is. He must be bright, have ideas, and possess a great deal of courage. It would help if he were independently wealthy because he is most likely to be fired. This is especially true if he has miscalculated the conditions for change in his community.

Hearn (1972) gave some observations that might prove helpful to the innovator. He suggested that the harshest critics can often be won over by trying to understand their concerns. Being quiet will not help matters. The innovator must of necessity stir things up if only to enliven interest. Quiet or silence in a community usually denotes apathy. Apathy is the enemy of change. The innovator must

not be too quick to commit himself to one innovation, and he must always bear in mind that a favorable resolution is most often hiding behind the toughest phase of the process of effecting change.

Also, Hearn (1972) has identified six stages that characterize the change process as follows:

- (1) Developing a viable relationship with the client system; establishing yourself in a helping role.
- (2) Diagnosing the clients' real needs; helping them articulate those needs.
- (3) Retrieving relevant information and resources toward a solution to the problem.
- (4) Generating a range of alternatives and choosing a potential solution.
- (5) Gaining acceptance of the innovation.
- (6) Stabilizing the innovation and terminating the helping relationship--the self-renewal capacity (p. 360).

These stages are not always clearly visible. The delineations among them are more often hazy than clearly defined. Nevertheless, they have been helpful in ascertaining the levels of progress in the development of the SGB.

Finally, Hearn (1972) reviewed a variety of strategies that might be used by the innovator at any of the stages cited above. These strategies would have to be employed as the innovator sees fit; in this respect managing change is an art. Possible strategies identified included the following:

- (1) Action Research. A "temporary system approach" which can be easily withdrawn and labeled a test or trial if it doesn't make it.
- (2) Demonstration. Provides involvement without commitment either in or out of the school system. May cause frustration among participants if generated interest is not fulfilled.
- (3) Confrontations. A highly publicized challenge to the leadership in the system (i.e., a threat to resign, strike, or slow down; public TV and newspaper advertisements; a

board or staff meeting walkout; harassment in the corridors; marches). Last-resort strategies which raise strong moral questions about the end justifying the means. High risk strategies at best.

(4) Consultations. Importing an expert. Need the right kind of expert for the right audience and situation.

(5) The Fait Accompli. Accomplishing this depends on personal leadership status, timing and, more importantly, upon the kind of innovation it is.

(6) Mass Media Distribution. Effective for reaching opinion leaders who are media-oriented, for creating awareness of new ideas, for conveying simple ideas, and for disseminating information in crisis situations. Most effective when combined with other approaches.

(7) Opinion Leadership. Presupposes a fairly sophisticated procedure for identifying opinion leaders who will sanction the innovation and disseminate information about it to their adherents and reference groups.

(8) Planning and Evaluation Unit. Establishing a unit such as Management by Objectives (MBO) which has the responsibility for planning, evaluating, and disseminating the results of promising research and practice.

(9) Group Interactions. Techniques for working with groups, usually small groups, to change concepts or perceptions, such as force-field analysis for tension reduction, group observation and process analysis, role-playing, and overlapping groups where members serve on several committees to facilitate communications (pp. 360-361).

While other strategies may be identified and employed, Hearn's listing includes the best known and most often used devices to effect and affect change. An innovator ought to have these skills as a basic repertoire for managing change.

Looking back at the conditions that were identified as favorable to change and comparing those conditions to the situation that existed in Westport at the time of the inception of the SGB as an idea reveals that in general the overall conditions favored the success of the innovation. Many of the favorable conditions existed in the community, and the timing was fortuitous and fortunate. Through

the use of the right strategies it was possible to establish developmental stages for the implementation of the model.

Westport was more of a liberal community than a conservative one at the time of the inception of the innovation. Its residents were well-educated and enjoyed fairly high incomes. The average income per family was in the \$20,000 to \$30,000 range. More than half of the parents were college graduates, and many of them possessed advanced degrees. With the exception of the "locals," the families of the town were relatively homogeneous ethnically, religiously, and economically. Because of the high rate of mobility, the people moving in and out of the community tended toward cosmopolitanism. A similar condition had existed for some time with the teaching staff since jobs were plentiful and Westport was able to hire very talented people who after their employment were able to obtain advancements elsewhere faster than they could in Westport and to receive scholarships and fellowships for advanced study. The staff members as a group were quite youthful, but the key to personnel support of innovation stemmed from three sources and not just their youth.

Sources that contributed to staff support of innovation were the collective social conscience and professionalism of staff who basically agreed with the premise of the SGB as an idea whose time had come, some older staff members who had been waiting for the chance to do something different in education for many years, and a leader who was secure and willing to take the ultimate risk--loss

of job--to implement change. These conditions combined with optimum timing to foster the innovation of the SGB shared governance at Staples High School.

Where to innovate centered in that one public senior high school in that one town at a time when many other events were just right for it to happen. There had been a period of rapid fiscal as well as population growth. Budgets for education in Westport were passed with little or no difficulty. A tax cut by the board of finance was unheard of at the time. There had been two rapid changes in the principalship at the high school. A principal from within the system was appointed temporarily to run the school until a new permanent appointment could be made. The temporary principal was so successful with students and faculty that he was asked to stay on permanently. He agreed with the proviso that he be allowed to change the school with the cooperation of the superintendent of schools. A great deal of favorable publicity was capitalized upon in consolidating each change however small. Finally, the school rushed headlong into the student activism of the 1960's. The crisis that followed provided an excellent opportunity to innovate a significant change. It was during the confluence of these temporal streams of events that the SGB was born.

In order to assimilate properly the effects of all the various forces, events, and people involved, it is necessary to understand the administrative structure of the school system as it existed prior to the introduction of the innovation. Only by establishing this understanding can the SGB be clearly understood and appreciated.

The Administrative Structure Prior to the SGB

The Westport public school system prior to the introduction of the SGB was basically the traditional, classical design. It was essentially a line and staff hierarchical structure. Figure 9 illustrates a bureaucratic organization which established a vertical and straight line of authority and power starting at the top with the board of education and ending up at the bottom with the students.

Although the superintendent made use of an administrative council which consisted of all principals, directors, and the assistants of the superintendent, it had no power or authority. It did review potential administrative actions that the superintendent saw fit to put before it. Votes were of a consensus kind, and the superintendent always made final decisions. Because it had no power, authority, or responsibility, the administrative council of the superintendent is enclosed in dotted lines.

The lines of authority, power, and responsibility went through the agent of the board of education, the superintendent, to his assistant and through him to the principal of each school. Only the principal of the high school is shown in Figure 9 because this school is the locus of concern. The principal holds the reins of power in the high school. As has been the case in most traditionally organized high schools, the principal was the highest authority and held the ultimate responsibility for his school--not unlike the command responsibility in the military establishment.

Administrative Structure Prior to the SGB

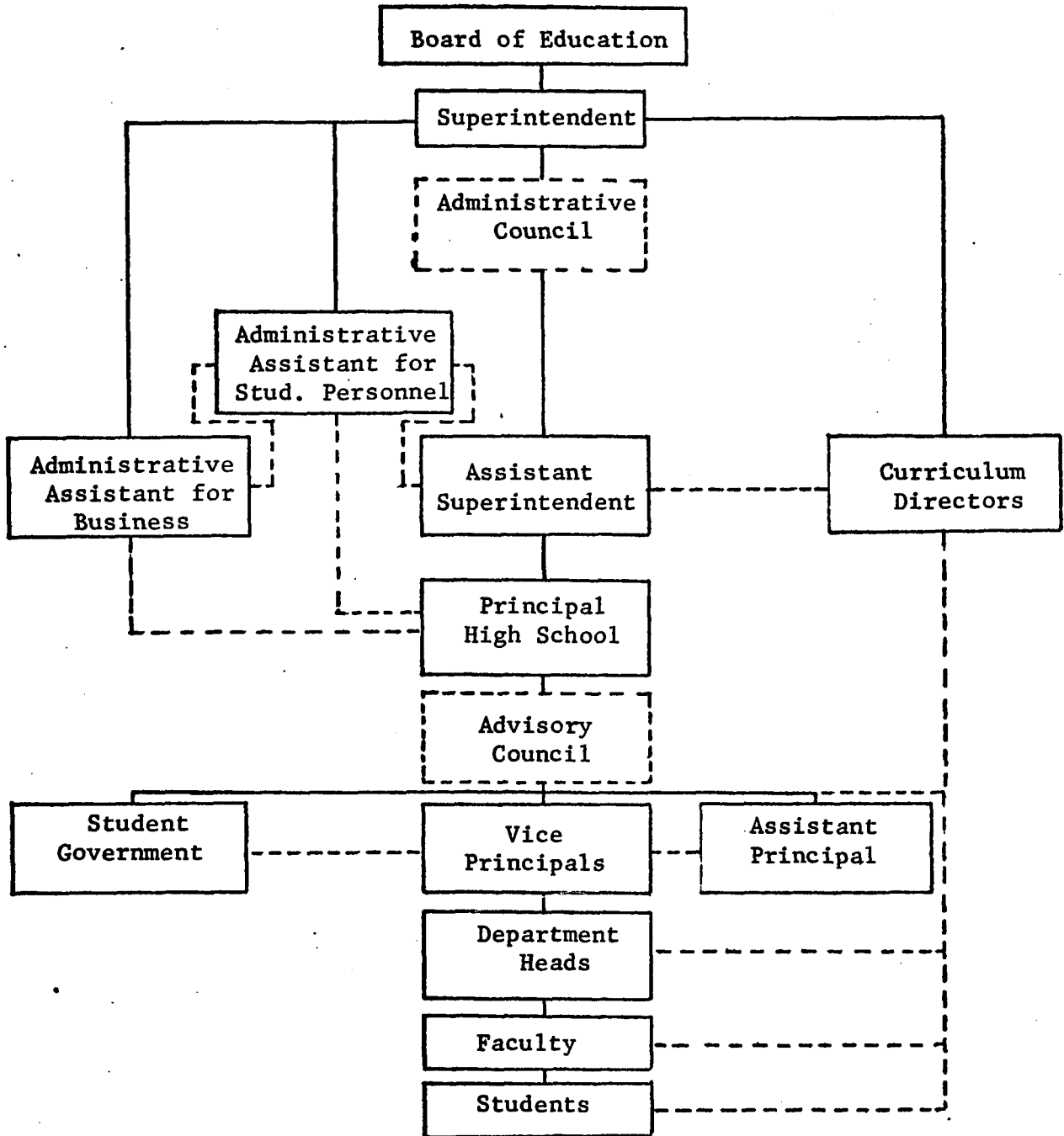


Fig. 9 Line and staff administrative structure depicting placement of Staples High School.

The principal exercised his responsibilities through three vice principals, who had the administration of the school divided among them. Each vice principal assumed responsibility for certain subject areas through appointed department heads. These department heads taught classes, but they had released time to care for administrative and supervisory duties. The primary contact with faculty was the department head. Of course, the students were the direct responsibility of the teachers.

The principal also directed the assistant principal to carry out administrative duties. However, the assistant principal had staff relationships only with department heads, faculty, and students. He served facilitating and advisory functions only. For example, he supervised the administration of the College Entrance and Advanced Placement Examinations at the high school. He also worked directly with the vice principals to assist them in carrying out their responsibilities.

The existing and rapidly dying student government reported directly to the principal. It had no power, practically no authority, and only limited responsibility in certain matters of student activities and student behavior. The Staples Student Organization (SSO) did include a senate and a system of student courts with justices. Students who were appointed proctors could "arrest" other students who violated the student code of behavior. They could have a jury trial with "lawyers" to represent them and a judge to hear the case. The principal represented the last court of appeal for students who

were convicted. Unless the principal or his designee carried out and enforced the sentence, nothing usually happened to the convicted student. The system was falling apart simply because the laws as written were unenforceable. There was neither student support nor effective administrative support for the system. Its demise was inevitable.

At the junior high schools there were student councils which were cast in the image of the senior high school. They had no power and less authority and responsibility than the student organization at the high school. Their sphere of influence was restricted to student activities exclusively. Only the students in the elementary schools were completely disenfranchised. Occasionally informal structuring allowed them to play with some limited governance such as a make believe presidential election when it was happening in the country. These student governments were of the "sand box" or "Kleenex" varieties. They were without real meaning or involvement.

Faculty committees were often used by the principal to provide recommendations in certain areas of administration. For example, a faculty committee might have been asked to make recommendations for modifying the daily schedule for the next school year. Also, faculty committees within departments were often used to develop curriculum recommendations. Directors of curriculum would assist in the curriculum development. In the final analysis, the decisions and the recommendations would all come from the principal of the school.

The principal of the high school also used the device of a council, but it too lacked any real effective power. It had no

authority and was delegated no responsibility. It consisted of the administrators in the high school and included the department heads. Teachers were invited to attend. They could participate but not vote. Voting was meaningless anyway. It only provided the principal with a consensus which he could use or ignore as he saw fit. The lack of power of the principal's advisory council led to its depiction within dotted lines in Figure 9.

The line of power, authority, and responsibility basic to and for the traditional structure went directly downward through the line administrators. In the Westport school system below the superintendent only the assistant superintendent had any real power in the central office administrative staff. The curriculum directors and the administrative assistants for business and pupil personnel services had staff authority and responsibility in designated and restricted areas only. The structure was relatively inflexible and monolithic.

Historical Evolution of Student Government
at Staples High School⁵

Prior to 1946 there had been no definite student government. A plan was implemented that year in which a group of students, elected from homerooms, served as a communications link between their homerooms and the principal. The group met only at the request of the principal, and they had no legislative or judiciary power within the school.

⁵ Report presented to the Westport Board of Education by the SGB in June, 1970.

In 1950, under the guidance of the Social Studies Department head, a constitutional student government was created. The new government was headed by a student-elected president who presided over a Senate consisting of a senator elected from each homeroom. In addition, a general assembly of all students was held on a regular basis, and a court system was adopted. The whole organization was approved by the faculty, the principal, and the board of education. The new student government, called the Staples Student Association, was the first student organization at Staples to wield any power over students. Through the years the SSA fluctuated between strength and weakness, and good administrations and poor administrations, as does any government.

The SSA eventually evolved into the Staples Student Organization (SSO), which existed until June, 1969. The SSO operated under a highly developed constitution which vested its power in a Student Senate, an Executive Committee, a Proctor System, and a Student Court. The Senate met bi-weekly. Seven permanent committees were established in the following areas: Judicial Committee, Social Committee, Publicity and Public Relations Committee, Curriculum Committee, Political Activities Committee, Sounding Committee and Finance Committee. Bills introduced to the Senate were usually referred to committee prior to their presentation to the Senate body.

The Senate legislated regulations on the following: corridor traffic, student social events, school elections, parking regulations, lavatories, budget planning and expenditures of the SSO, student

smoking on school grounds, and student conduct. The SSO also regulated and presided over class elections at Staples High School and provided for representation of all classes on the Executive Committee and in the Judiciary. The enforcement of Senate Laws rested in the Proctor System. Student proctors were appointed, and students who committed SSO offenses were tried by the Student Court. The proctor system was never successful for many reasons, and students and faculty were often confused in regard to the differences between SSO offenses and school offenses. Many teachers felt it was an imposition to appear in court because they apprehended a student for violation of an SSO rule. They preferred to deal with the student through the school administration. The SSO and the administration attempted to handle all violations of the SSO code through the Student Court, and this procedure just did not work. It was not possible to establish a mutual commitment to the SSO that effectively brought administration, staff, and students together.

The SSO attempted to support itself and its activities financially through various means. Dances and concerts were sponsored. An SSO card (Student Activities Card) was sold, and a system of taxation on student activities was implemented. There was considerable controversy within the school about the SSO financial structure, especially in the area of subsidies to certain student activities and taxation of others. However, this controversy was only symptomatic of a general malaise that resulted from the tremendous increase in the numbers of students at Staples, traumatic changes in society

at large, and a growing awareness by students, faculty, and administration of the need to share a commitment to education.

It should not be assumed that the SSO was a do-nothing organization. Many things were accomplished by the SSO, and it served a useful purpose for a time. However, because of its very nature, separated from the mainstream of education and restricted in its sphere of influence, it could not provide the opportunities for students, staff and administration to become cooperatively involved in a real and meaningful commitment to the management of education.

In the fall of 1969 the principal created a Student-Teacher Advisory Board (STAB) to promote inquiry in areas of concern at Staples identified by the group and to stimulate reaction and action among students and teachers. An area of immediate concern that immediately captured the interest and energy of this group was the status of the SSO.

Perhaps the greatest single reason for the eventual failure of the SSO was student apathy toward it. Partially due to its own bureaucratic structure, and also due to its not addressing itself to the problems of the school which were current and relevant to students and teachers, some students with the support of faculty members began to seek change at Staples. Some of the questions asked of people at Staples in February, 1969, were:

1. Is the proctor system the answer to discipline at Staples High School?
2. Is the present SSO Offense Code and Constitution relevant to the needs of students at Staples?
3. Can the SSO Press and Lounge be put to more efficient use?
4. Can the X Period be made more worthwhile?

5. Are there changes you would like to see made in the curriculum at Staples?
6. Should there be more activities comparable to the Vietnam Forum and Black Culture Week?
7. Can students at Staples become more involved in community projects?
8. What do you think should be the relationship of the SSO to: the faculty? to the administration? to STAB?

Students and faculty felt the solutions to these problems and answers to the above questions were urgently needed.

Under the direction of the principal in April of 1969, an Ad Hoc Committee of students, teachers, and administrators met in the student lounge to consider the problems at Staples High School and the future of the SSO. There was general agreement not only that the SSO was ineffectual, but that perhaps "it was dead." From this meeting the idea of a "Future Directions Committee" came into being. It became the charge of the committee to develop a plan for a governmental structure to replace the SSO and meet the needs of the Staples Community. The Future Directions Committee met at least once each week for the remainder of the spring and then weekly throughout the summer of 1969.

After many hours of discussion and compromise, a draft of a Constitution for the Staples Governing Board was completed. The new governing board would be composed of an equal number of students and adults. The adults would come from the faculty and administration. The principal could not be one of the administrators elected to the SGB. Specifically, ten students (three sophomores, three juniors, and four seniors) would have to be elected by the students. Seven

faculty members would have to be elected by the faculty, and three of the administrators would have to be elected by the administration to the SGB. The new governing board would possess all powers that were not legally those solely vested in the office of principal.

The superintendent of schools took exception to the SGB operating under a constitution. He felt that it would be more in keeping with the way schools were run for the SGB to operate under a set of policies similar to those adopted by the local board of education. These policies, to be operable, had to be compatible with Connecticut statutes, Westport Town ordinances, Board of Education policy, and the negotiated contract between the Westport Board of Education and the Westport Education Association. The word "constitution" was changed to "bylaws" or "policies" in description and usage. The superintendent, who had helped immeasurably in the formulation of the bylaws, was satisfied and so was the principal.

Each constituency of the SGB--students, faculty, and administration--had to ratify the proposed document before it could be sent to the superintendent's Administrative Council, which would make suggestions and recommendations to the superintendent. Each constituency voted in favor of the new governing board. The faculty and administration were unanimous in supporting it. The students supported it by more than 85%. Ratification at the high school level was finalized on October 22, 1969.

The Administrative Council of the Superintendent reviewed the policies governing the Staples Governing Board on November 6, 1969.

At that time some minor concerns were expressed, but agreement was reached by the Administrative Council that the formation of the new governing board was a step in the right direction. The Administrative Council unanimously recommended to the superintendent that the new policies be forwarded to the Board of Education for approval.

An administrative recommendation was presented by the Superintendent to the Westport Board of Education on December 1, 1969. There was such a huge turnout of students, faculty, administrators, parents, and townspeople that two nights of hearings were necessary for everyone who wished to speak to be heard. These were unquestionably two of the best lessons in participatory democracy the students had ever had. Every student who wanted to speak was allowed to have his say. This opportunity was available for everyone so inclined. The proposal to accept the document "Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board" in principle was unanimously approved by the Board of Education. It was understood that the SGB would be reviewed by the Board of Education the next year. It was subsequently reviewed at two sessions of the Board of Education, and in 1971 the SGB became officially part of the operational structure of the Westport Public School System.

Humanizing Staples High School

When the appointment of the incumbent principal of Staples High School was changed by the Board of Education from a temporary to a permanent status during the school year of 1965-1966, he set about

to humanize the learning environment of the school. He believed that this was a necessary prerequisite before any attempt could be made to democratize the school--either its operation or its management.

In making this assessment of the situation, the principal had already begun to review and take stock of the how, when, and where of change described by Hearn (1972) and reviewed earlier in this dissertation. He had determined that events, conditions, and circumstances seemed to provide the right time for change to be implemented. In particular, student activism created a force that actually frightened many parents and educators to the point where they were ready for any solution to the problem. Local communities strove to keep the lid on. Most of the attempts to keep things under control treated symptoms and did not get at basic problems.

Upon determining that it was feasible to attempt to bring about significant change at Staples High School, the principal went to work to determine how to overcome the predictable resistance to change that he knew would surface among the faculty and the students. He decided to demonstrate at every opportunity a consistent set of essential characteristics to encourage trust and confidence in his leadership.

From the very beginning the principal made it very clear that he was willing to take significant and prudent risks. He was willing to be fired, and he had to demonstrate this ultimate risk. He had to convince the faculty that he would assume the final and complete responsibility for the policy, rules, and regulations at Staples High School.

When the principal demonstrated his belief in the changes being made at Staples High School by taking on the criticism of the public and accepting full responsibility for everything publicly, the students and the faculty began to accept the conviction of the principal as real.

The leadership of the principal required the ability to act decisively and quickly while maintaining faith with students and faculty. This objective was not easy to attain when students wanted to leave school en masse to conduct a peace march, for example. However, the trick was to remember that these students were highly motivated. What a wonderful opportunity that provided for a collaborative learning experience! Accordingly, the peace march was directed as an experience in exercising constitutional rights of freedom of speech and to protest injustice. The march and the protest were directed against all wars--not just the Vietnam War, which triggered the protest--as means of solving problems. The concept of the march was sanctioned by the Board of Education. The march grew until every school in the system participated. The students marched to the center of town, where appropriate remarks were made by anyone who wanted to say what was in his heart and mind. Members of various religious faiths spoke against war and people killing each other. Even Senator Scott from Pennsylvania came and addressed the protestors. As much as anything else, the action of the principal in this one situation paved the way for the success of his leadership in following through on subsequent change.

Unless the principal, who is the key to effecting change at the high school, is willing to demonstrate the right to lead, he can never be an effective leader. This right to lead must be earned in the day-to-day experiences of the school. It can never be granted by a board of education or any legal authority. It was most clearly understood by the principal of Staples High School when a young lady asked him point blank at an early committee meeting discussing the concept of the SGB, "Do you really mean what you have said about sharing power, or is it the same old crap that students always get from principals?" She went on to ask, "Will you 'cop out' the first time that some parent or board of education member criticizes you or puts pressure on you?" The girl knew what the usual course of action would be in the situations she cited. She wanted proof--real and obvious proof--that the principal would be a leader in whom she could have faith, trust, and confidence.

The principal had first to prove to students and faculty alike that he meant what he said about providing a more humane school based on faith, trust, and confidence in young people before he could get them to even consider the realities of shared governance where the principal would actually share his authority with students and faculty. Parents were not involved at this point simply because the principal had his hands full coping with the rapidly accelerating pace of student activism. In fact, the parents stayed out of what was happening because they were fearful of the worst happening--violence and destruction of property.

In the early days of his principalship the principal assembled the entire school community and spelled out in clear and sincere terms his beliefs about the school and the people there. He told them that he loved them all very much--a message that has been reiterated every year since--and he would do everything in his power to protect, first, their mental and physical health; second, their individual freedom; and third, their right to accept responsibility for themselves and one another. He explained further that he would run the school for the majority of the students who most of the time would do what was reasonable and proper, and he would not run the school to contain the minority, especially at the expense of most students who were responsible. The premise upon which these ideas were based stemmed from the principal's firm and deep conviction that a school can be run with faith, trust, and confidence rather than fear as the primary motivational force. That communication was the beginning of a continuous attempt to maintain the relationship of faculty, students, and administrators simply believing in one another.

In the course of that first talk and subsequent ones with students, the principal promised to demonstrate his conviction of trust, faith, and confidence by ending much of the inhumane treatment of students at once and all of it as soon as possible. As early as nine years ago at Staples High School the following actions were taken to demonstrate the principal's convictions about young people:

- (1) initiated elimination of "tracking" in all subjects,
- (2) eliminated all bells,
- (3) eliminated homerooms and systematic taking of attendance on a daily basis,
- (4) provided a system of shared responsibility between the home and school for attendance and progress,
- (5) eliminated mandatory study halls,
- (6) created option areas for serious and quiet study, talk-study, tutorials, smoking, and "blowing off steam",
- (7) opened up the cafeteria as a coffee and doughnut shop for breakfast and provided pretzel stands, soda machines, and snack machines,
- (8) eliminated detentions and detention halls,
- (9) provided for due process for suspension of students through a suspension review board of students and faculty as an initial step in eliminating suspension,
- (10) provided complete freedom of campus and buildings as long as classes and rights of others were not interfered with,
- (11) initiated an open-ended schedule for all students that permitted them to come when their first class began and leave when the last class was over,
- (12) permitted students to evaluate courses, faculty, and administration twice a year,
- (13) allowed students through an "arena scheduling program" to select courses by teacher and time,
- (14) provided for faculty professional self-evaluation through a program of Professional Development and Appraisal based on a management by objectives concept,
- (15) eliminated dress codes for students, faculty, and administration,
- (16) eliminated prerequisites for participation in extra-curricular activities or athletics,
- (17) eliminated the National Honor Society,
- (18) eliminated the traditional class governments and the student government,
- (19) modified ranking of students to deciles as a step toward the eventual elimination of class rankings,
- (20) provided "pass-no record" options in at least one course per year,
- (21) provided for the development of new courses and programs as a cooperative venture by students, faculty, and administration,
- (22) began the practice of subdividing courses into a variety of elective units which students could select to build a year's work,
- (23) expanded opportunities in individualized programs which included self-evaluation for students who have completed all requirements for graduation ahead of time, independent study, independent work projects, and cooperative programs with colleges in the area,

- (24) provided for an uncensored school newspaper,
- (25) provided access to their own records by students.

These actions were not always well received among the faculty or within the community. However, two very obvious conditions were developing that kept the criticism and pressure in check. In the first place, Staples High School was flourishing under the aegis of this new leadership and the atmosphere of mutual faith, trust, and confidence. It also involved love and genuine concern that was quite unique for a public high school; at least this uniqueness was true for that school. Students were happy. Their activism was channeled into constructive activities because the administration was trusted to help them to do anything within reason that was educationally defensible. In this connection a visitor at one time remarked to the principal, "This is the only school I've heard of where the kids will come and ask the principal for permission to riot." There never was a riot, but all the collaboratively planned activities kept students headed in a positive and constructive direction.

The second condition that kept parent and faculty criticism in check was that teachers really did not want to change what was happening to them. The principal hit upon a very understandable human equation in dealing with his staff. Teachers will not complain or criticize too loudly as long as they are receiving concomitant benefits from the actions taken with students, even if they are fearful of those actions or do not believe in them. As the restrictions were lifted from students, the teachers were relieved from imposing those restrictions. If students did not have to go to study hall, teachers

would not have to supervise them. If students were allowed the freedom of the halls and access to the lavatories without passes, the teachers would not have to be there or check passes. As the lot of teachers improved and they became increasingly aware that they were being permitted to be more professional because they were being treated that way, criticism abated, and the teachers sought ways to make the new approach work.

On one occasion the social studies teachers constructed a quick seminar over one weekend to provide leadership at a proposed student sit-in on the following Monday. It was an astonishing success with students in groups all over the grass areas of the Staples High School campus. The seminars dealt with all sides of the Vietnam War, including the events leading up to it, the involvement of the United States and other countries, leading figures, a synopsis of the history of Vietnam, views of both sides. The seminars were characterized by prolonged and thoughtful discussions. The staff moved into the process of taking advantage of motivation and directing it into a positive and constructive course of action. In so doing, they allied themselves with the leadership of the principal based upon faith, trust, and confidence. Leadership by example was working to effect the change that was sought.

The principal also identified the informal leaders in his school, and he took his message and his plan directly to them. In the process of seeking their help he was able to secure the active support of most of them and the tacit support of the rest. Whenever the occasion

arose, the principal let one of these informal leaders take a leadership role that would support change. On one occasion the strongest of the informal leaders, one who had been the severest critic of the administration in previous years, was appointed in an acting capacity for one year as the replacement of a vice principal of the high school. He became one of the most powerful and influential advocates for the changing of the school.

Over a period of approximately three years the learning environment of the school was radically changed. The school had been transformed from a rigidly administered and formally structured school where fear was a primary motivational tool to an informal, friendly, and warm place where people at least on the surface appeared to be motivated by a sense of responsibility. There was an atmosphere of trust, faith, and confidence among students, parents, and teachers. The school was ready for the next significant step of democratizing the management and organization of the school.

Democratizing Staples High School

Every attempt was made throughout the period of humanizing Staples to be completely honest and open with parents and the public about what was taking place at the school. Within the school system, the principal kept the superintendent informed at all times by advising him beforehand of what was being contemplated and then checking with him after the actions had been completed. The superintendent kept the board of education informed. The principal met with them

from time to time to discuss informally with them questions and concerns that they might have about the school. Both the principal and the superintendent met with parents and citizens to explain what was going on at the school.

The principal through the PTA at the high school arranged for a series of question and answer sessions to respond to and interact with concerned and interested parents. Groups of parents were and still are invited to visit the school and spend a day going to class. Also an organization of students called SEARCH (Staples Enlightenment and Resident Communication Happening) actively sought out parents and citizens and personally invited them to visit the school. This activity continues today.

The school newspapers and the local papers were used whenever possible to explain what was happening at Staples High School. Change was offered as the means of continuing the excellence of the school and of offering the challenge of responsibility. It was planned change that would result in a better school that was a happier place to learn. Interestingly, the editors of the Saturday Review introduced Staples High School in the section on education as "a happy high school in Westport" (Jacoby, 1971, p. 31).

In creating the humane atmosphere essential to the attempt at democratizing the school the principal unwittingly went through the stages of consciousness raising described by Freire (1972) and used extensively in Chapter VI of this dissertation as the basis for developing a blueprint for implementing a model of shared governance in

a public secondary school. There were other actions that suggest both a strategy and actions worth considering in other schools.

Trust and confidence in students were demonstrated in a variety of ways, but essentially the key was the attitudinal relationship between the administration and the students. The attitude of the administration toward students had to be perceived by students as non-threatening and non-punitive. This attitude of administration had to come across as consistently genuine. It was necessary to overcome years of conditioning students to believe otherwise.

An example of how this strategy was handled in matters of discipline will help to explain the strategy (see Appendix A). It began with respect for the individual. The strategy assumed that all students were innocent regardless of the charges and who made them. Detentions were eliminated, and gradually the use of suspension was eliminated as well. Discipline situations were viewed as learning opportunities where a student or students had made errors just as if they had made errors in a math class. The relationships between the classroom for a subject and the school plant and campus as a larger classroom for learning responsibility were assumed analogous. If a youngster came to the administration as the result of a disciplinary referral, the first question to him from the administrator was, "What can I do to help you?" Corrective action was then worked out on a cooperative basis if at all possible. As this approach and respect for the individual permeated the atmosphere of the school, it was rare that anyone had to be sent home or his parents consulted.

The students of Staples High School began to believe in the leadership of the school, and they became more aware of themselves not only as people having rights but also assuming responsibilities. Far from perfect the strategy was nevertheless effective in humanizing the school.

To complement what was done to humanize the school it was essential that other structures potentially conflicting with the SGB be eliminated. Faculty meetings were rarely called except to provide for administrative duties and quick communication. The Staples Student Organization was disbanded formally and finally. The SGB began to control the fortunes of the student activities through the control of their charters and their budgets. The Advisory Council was disbanded, and all the functions normally assigned to that group were assumed by the SGB. The elected chairman of the SGB and one other SGB member were invited to sit with the principal and his administrative team on a weekly basis to discuss the administrative functions of the school. This move was designed to provide better communication between the SGB and the administration of the school. These were some of the actions taken to improve conditions conducive to the democratization process.

These actions were taken to enhance the process of democratization. They helped to provide a more favorable setting for the SGB to function. By eliminating all traces of the old structures of governance emphasis was placed on the primacy of the SGB as the organization of governance for the school. In order to reinforce these

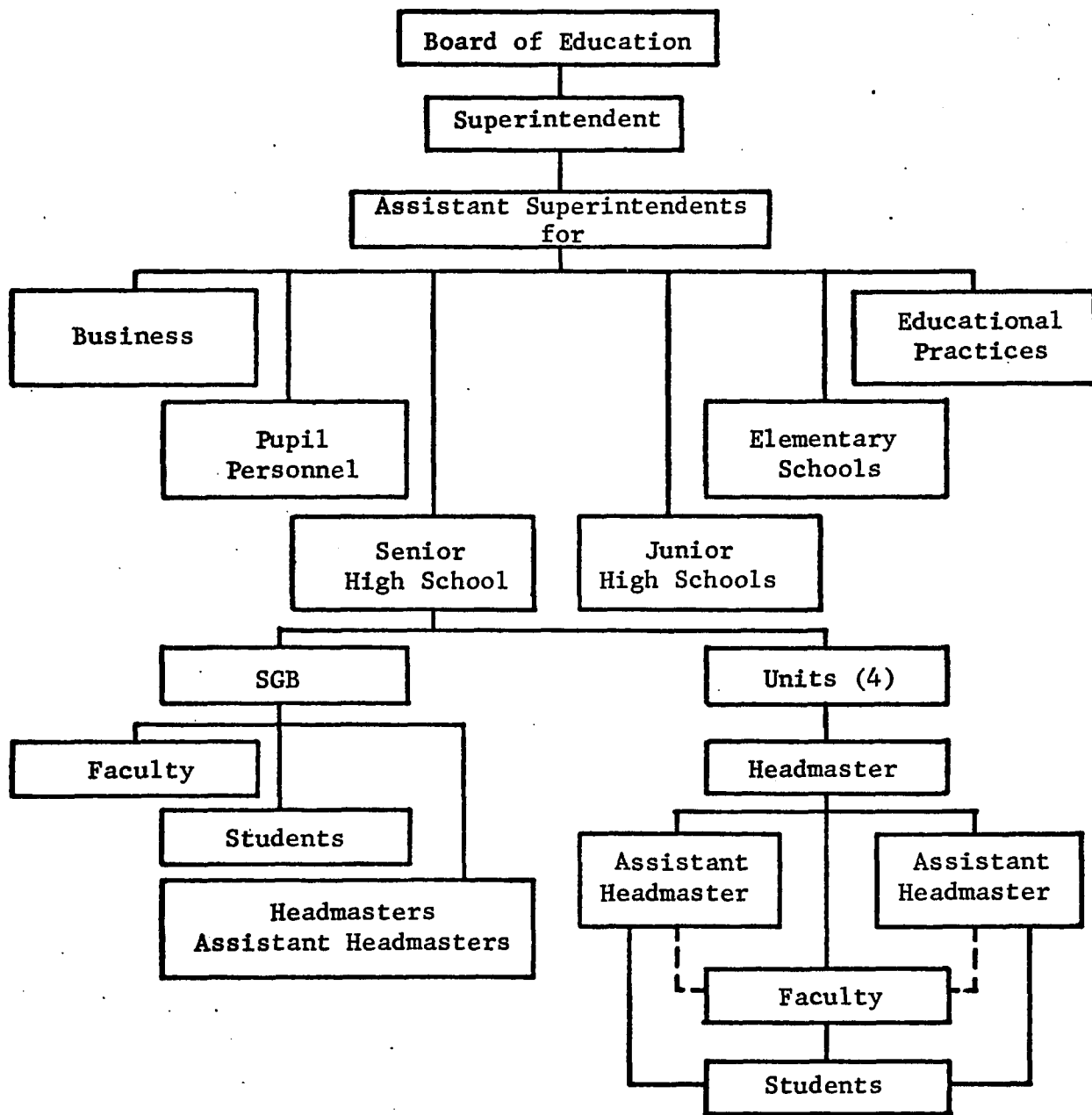
actions and underscore both the importance of the SGB and the dependency of the school on the SGB, the principal has deliberately stayed away from the day-to-day functioning of the SGB. Through these strategies the nurturing of the infant SGB was accomplished.

The Current Administrative Structure

The current administrative structure at Staples High School has been significantly affected by recent changes in the administrative organization of the total school system. These changes have occurred since the implementation of the SGB. As the result of a sweeping reorganization, the superintendent has created a new hierarchical structure that has effectively reduced his span of control and compressed the administrative distance between him and the students in the school system. An apparent reduction of distance between the superintendent and students was accomplished by eliminating department heads in the schools, system-wide curriculum directors, and the single assistant superintendent. As pictured in Figure 10, the new administrative structure suggests the possibility of better direction and communication from the top to the bottom of the organization.

The hierarchical structure of the Westport administrative organization has taken on a new look. In Figure 10 there are two salient characteristics that stand out in comparison with the elements of Figure 9. First, the principalship of the high school has been incorporated into an assistant superintendency which in effect represents a dual role for the incumbent. Without discussing the

Administrative Structure with SGB



Note.- Each of the four units at Staples High School is staffed and organized as depicted.

Fig. 10. Placement of SGB in administrative structure at Staples High School.

merits or defects of such an arrangement it becomes clear that the SGB has moved up a notch in the power structure of the school system simply on the basis of its relationship to the principal-function of the assistant superintendent for high school education. It might be argued legitimately that the SGB now holds a new and more significant position within the total administrative structure of the school system because of its role relationship with the assistant superintendent for high school education. In any event the current situation suggests possible conflict and increasing functional dilemma as the SGB attempts to work with what may well become a schizophrenic administrative role--the dual function of principal and assistant superintendent. The SGB may have difficulty ascertaining with which function they are dealing--that of the principal or that of the assistant superintendent. It will take time and experience before an adequate assessment of this development can be made.

The second characteristic of the administrative structure as outlined in Figure 10 that stands out is the way in which the administration of the high school has been organized. The school has been subdivided into four large units for administrative and organizational purposes. An attempt has been made to reduce the size of a large high school in order to mitigate the effect that bigness has on students and to establish the basis for interdisciplinary education by teachers. The four units have been designed to create a smaller school atmosphere and administrability for everyone concerned--students, faculty, administration and parents.

The SGB and the four unit organizations are depicted as parallel groups both under the direction, supervision, and responsibility of the assistant superintendent for the senior high school. The SGB is comprised of faculty, students, and headmasters and/or assistant headmasters. It should be noted that the assistant headmasters serve a staff function in relation to faculty. Faculty members are not supervised by the assistant headmasters. The students are directly answerable to assistant headmasters for discipline and attendance. The SGB serves the whole school community. Each of the four units consists of a headmaster, two assistant headmasters, selected faculty members, and selected students. The SGB is supposed to exercise the policy-making function of the school; the unit structure is supposed to carry out the operational functions of the school through the interpretation of the policies determined by the SGB.

This administrative structure has not worked out as planned. The SGB is still in transition and battling to overcome the functional dilemmas that it faces. New structures reflecting a bolder and clearer placement of the SGB in the hierarchical structure are being considered. A more detailed indication of the potential of these structures has been delineated in Chapter VI. The need to cope with such a dynamic organization as the SGB constantly challenges the imagination and tests the energy level of everyone involved. As long as the process of seeking effective change is sustained by mutual faith, trust, and confidence, the promise of the SGB remains.

CHAPTER V

AN OPERATIONAL DESCRIPTION OF THE STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

The Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board: Overview

To reach an understanding of any form of governance, the wise reviewer begins with the document that gives it life and force. The Staples Governing Board (SGB) has a set of policies or bylaws called Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board. (Refer to Appendix B.) It does not have a constitution for the simple reason that it is part of the administrative structure of the Westport Public School System. This administrative organizational structure is subject to the policies of the Westport Board of Education. The policies of the SGB, in a similar manner to those policies of the central administrative organization supervised by the Superintendent of Schools, must be compatible with the policies of the Westport Board of Education. The word policies suggests compatibility and a dependent relationship that did exist; the word constitution suggests singularity and independence within the administrative structure that did not and could not exist under the law.

There are two significant points to be made about the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board. First, by action of the Board of Education in public session these SGB policies became an integral part of the legal policies of the Westport Board of Education.

There took place a significant shift in the operational and management structure of the high school. The second noteworthy aspect is the fact that the policies of the SGB evolved in a very democratic way. After the development of these policies, they were presented for public discussion and modification. Thereafter they were presented to each of the constituencies--students, faculty, and administration--for ratification. Parents and the citizenry were able to suggest changes throughout the process; they had a part in the ratification through the Board of Education. When the proposed policies for the SGB were presented to the Board of Education, there was ample opportunity for the public to participate and influence the final decision of that board. The basis for the authority and power of the SGB stems from the free will of the governed and the policy of the Westport Board of Education.

Up to this point in time, the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board (hereafter referred to as the SGB Policies) had not been modified very significantly. Although the amendment section of the SGB Policies provides for a relatively simple procedure, it has not been used extensively, attesting to the care with which the basic document was constructed.

Exposition of the SGB Policies

The SGB Policies are outlined in this section exactly as they stood in force at the time of this study. They include all the amendments that have been enacted by the SGB and approved by the

principal to date. Exposition for the main parts of the SGB Policies has been interspersed throughout the complete listing of the SGB Policies below.

It is significant to note again that the document which provides the authority for the SGB is called the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board. The word "Policies" rather than "constitution" was recommended by the Superintendent of Schools at the time to make the document compatible with the Board of Education Policies for the Westport Public School System.

The Preamble of the SGB Policies identifies the community of Staples High School as the group of people to be governed by the document:

Preamble

We the people of Staples High School, in order to create significant educational unity, to work constructively for the improvement of the educational process, and otherwise to encourage the intellectual and personal development of members of the Staples Community, do establish these policies governing Staples High School.

Article I consists of two sections that deal with the powers of the SGB and the relations of the SGB to the administration of Staples High School. It is important to note that these policies are subsumed under the policies of the Board of Education, and they must conform to state and local laws. They must also be compatible with the administrative policies (rules and regulations) set forth by the Superintendent of Schools. The administrative council no longer exists. It was formerly the council of all administrators in the school system

which met regularly with the superintendent. The SGB Policies need to be amended to eliminate references to the administrative council.

Article I spells out the areas of power and the restrictions attached to those areas for the SGB. The principal is required to implement the legal actions of the SGB unless he vetoes these actions. Article I also provides for the SGB's participating in the selection of administrative and supervisory personnel of Staples High School. Another significant feature of this article is that it stipulates that the principal must deliver a state of the school address by November 1st of the school year. Subsection 5 of Section II has been amended. It formerly required the principal to give the state of the school address on the first school day of the second full week of school. Article I reads as follows:

Article I - Role of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Powers of the Staples Governing Board:

1. The Staples Governing Board functions under the policies of the administrative council, Board of Education, and state and federal laws. Policies throughout this document are defined as guides to discretionary action; they should be as broad as possible but as specific as necessary to insure fulfillment of their intent.
2. All powers regarding Staples High School not assumed by the above groups shall be vested in the Staples Governing Board, as well as such powers as may properly be delegated to it. These powers fall under the headings of finance, facilities, staff personnel, community relations, administration, student affairs, special services, and instruction and curriculum.
3. It may offer recommendations in any area to the administrative council, Board of Education or any other organization, agency or governmental body it deems fit.

Section II - Relations between the Staples Governing Board and Staples High School Administration:

1. The Principal shall be bound by and is responsible for the implementation of the policies of the Staples Governing Board as long as they are consistent with the Board of Education and administrative policies of the school system.
2. The Principal shall have power to veto policy proposals of the Staples Governing Board pursuant to the terms of Article III, Section II, Subsection 2.
3. The Principal shall appoint with the advice and consent of the Staples Governing Board, such executives, except those which are subject to the review of the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools, as he deems necessary for enforcement of rules, enforcement of policy, effective communication, and effective operation of programs and activities of Staples High School.
4. The Staples Governing Board, whenever possible, shall be consulted on the appointments of administrative and supervisory personnel of Staples High School.
5. The Principal shall, by November 1 of each year, give to the school community information on the state of the school and recommend such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient.
6. The Principal may convene the Staples Governing Board on extraordinary occasions.

Article II is the longest in the SGB Policies. It consists of six sections that spell out who and how many can be elected to the SGB from each constituency. This article provides for open meetings of the SGB except for executive sessions. The membership for each constituency is defined and with it the general guidelines for conducting elections. One section of this article provides for recalls and defining and filling vacancies on the SGB. There are no alternates permitted. Finally, this article provides for the creation of standing and ad hoc committees.

Subsection 1 of Section I has been amended. It formerly provided that representatives to the SGB be elected on the first school day of the third full school week. This amendment provided some continuity

from one school year to the next, and it eliminated the legislative lag under the old provision. An additional amendment substantially modified Section VI. Subsections 3 and 7 were eliminated. These dealt with opening committee membership to anyone in the Staples community and required committee meetings to be open to the public. The SGB has legislated procedure in these cases. Subsection 3 eliminated the requirement of consulting with the principal to make committee appointments and the requirement for one SGB member to be on every committee. The latter presented a hardship on SGB members-- in fact, a physical impossibility. Subsection 4 was reworded to eliminate redundancies.

There is need for another amendment to this article because it refers to vice principals, the assistant principal, and department heads. These positions no longer exist at Staples High School. There is an Assistant Superintendent for High School Education, four unit Headmasters, and eight Assistant Headmasters (two for each unit). See Figure 10 for a schematic of the current organizational structure of Staples High School. Article II is detailed below:

Article II - Organization of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Staples Governing Board:

1. Student representatives to the Staples Governing Board shall be elected during the third school week beginning in May, to take office on the first day of July. Administrative and faculty representatives to the Staples Governing Board shall be elected during the third school week beginning in November, to take office on the first day in January.
2. Representation to the Staples Governing Board shall be from the three major bodies of Staples High School in the following numbers: 3 administrators, 7 faculty members, 10 students.

3. All meetings of the Staples Governing Board, with the exception of Executive sessions, shall be open to the public.

Section II - Definition of, and Election Procedures, for Administrators:

1. Administrators shall consist of the Vice Principals, the Assistant Principal(s), and the designated Department Heads at Staples High School.
2. This group shall elect three of its members to represent the administrators on the Staples Governing Board.
3. The Administrators shall determine the qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. The Administrators shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section III - Definition of, and Election Procedures, for Faculty:

1. All non-administrative certified personnel that spend two or more class periods per day at Staples High School shall be considered members of the faculty.
2. This group shall elect seven of its members to represent the faculty of Staples High School.
3. The Faculty shall determine the qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. The Faculty shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section IV - Definition of, and Election Procedures, for Students:

1. The student body shall consist of all students officially enrolled at Staples High School.
2. Those students officially enrolled as 9th grade students in each junior high school shall elect one of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board for the next year; those students officially enrolled as 10th grade students shall elect three of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board the next year; those students officially enrolled as 11th grade students shall elect four of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board the next year.
3. Each voting group shall determine the qualifications for its representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. Each voting group shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section V - Alternates; Recalls and Vacancies:

1. There shall be no alternates.
2. A petition stating the reason(s) for recall signed by 30% of the constituency which elected that representative shall be sufficient to force a recall election of the named representative(s) to the Staples Governing Board.
3. Once a member has been subjected to a recall vote and the member has been sustained, no new recall petition for that member shall be valid, unless there has been a substantial change in the reason(s) for his recall, within 30 calendar days.
4. A vacancy for the post shall exist in event of a majority vote for recall.
5. In case of vacancy for any reason, an election to fill that vacancy shall be held within 10 school days.

Section VI - Committees:

1. The Staples Governing Board shall create standing committees and ad hoc committees as it deems fit.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall appoint members of committees according to definite procedures to be established by the Staples Governing Board.
3. Meeting shall be announced and agendas posted 2 school days in advance.
4. A record of each meeting shall be published within five school days thereafter.
5. All recommendations of committees shall appear on the earliest possible agenda of the Staples Governing Board for consideration and appropriate action.

Article III is an extremely significant part of this document.

This article provides for the interaction between the principal and the SGB on legislative matters. It is a crucial and pivotal article. The beginning of the article details the vote necessary to enact SGB legislation. Then the action to be taken by the principal is outlined. The article provides him with two kinds of veto power and requires that he take action within ten days or the bill in question will become law. Section I of Article III deals with the conduct of special and regular meetings of the SGB. This section covers

the requirement of at least two meetings per month. It provides for SGB action calling for the suspension of SGB members under certain conditions. The ground rules for meetings of the SGB are defined.

The article also spells out the recourse the SGB has to the suspensive and absolute vetoes of the principal. The SGB may vote to override or appeal to higher authority. Article III permits anyone with an SGB member's sponsorship to submit a proposal for legislation, and it spells out the conditions under which a referendum may be held. Subsections 3 and 4 of Section I have been amended to eliminate the condition "except in emergency cases."

An amendment is needed to eliminate the reference in Subsection 2 of Section II to the administrative council, which no longer exists.

Article III of the SGB Policies is listed below:

Article III - Operation of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Conduct of Meetings:

1. A majority of the Total Board, (50% and one person) shall constitute a quorum to do business.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall keep and publish a record of its meetings. A record of the official proceedings of each meeting shall be published within five school days of that meeting. The voting record of each of the members of the Staples Governing Board on any issue shall be entered.
3. The Staples Governing Board shall announce all public meetings two days in advance.
4. The Staples Governing Board shall make public an agenda for each meeting two school days in advance.
5. The Staples Governing Board shall hold at least two meetings per month.
6. The Staples Governing Board shall determine its own rules of procedure and, with the concurrence of 70% of the total membership, may suspend a member, thus creating a vacancy. If the suspended member is re-elected by his constituency, the Staples Governing Board shall seat the member without prejudice.
7. In a non-executive session of the Staples Governing Board, discussion among Staples Governing Board members shall take

precedence over general discussion.

8. The Staples Governing Board shall set aside one meeting per month, announced five school days in advance, where the hearing of any member of the Staples community shall be the first order of business. A reasonable amount of time shall be allotted to each speaker. Additional time may be granted to a speaker by a majority of the Staples Governing Board.

9. Members of the Staples Governing Board shall be available every two weeks at a prescribed, constant time during school hours where they will discuss the Board's actions past and future with the members of the Staples Community.

Section II - Method of Adopting Policies and Resolutions:

1. A favorable vote of 60% of the members present shall be required to adopt any policy motion or resolution.

2. Every policy which has been adopted by the Staples Governing Board, shall, before it becomes effective, be presented in writing to the Principal of Staples High School or his publically designated representative; if he disapproves, he may issue a suspensive veto which may be overridden by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board, in which case it shall become effective; or he may issue an absolute veto which cannot be overruled, but may be appealed by the Staples Governing Board to the administrative council, the Board of Education, and any other legally concerned bodies. Any veto issued, suspensive or absolute, must be accompanied by an explanatory letter. If any policy shall not be returned by the Principal, or in his absence his publically designated representative, within 10 school days after it shall have been presented to him in writing, the policy shall be effective in the same manner as if he had signed it.

3. Policies or resolutions may be presented by any interested person provided that the proposal has the sponsorship of one or more members of the Staples Governing Board.

4. The Staples Governing Board shall wait five school days before its policies go into effect. During this time 25% of one of the 3 major bodies may petition for referendum. A law referred to referendum shall be considered defeated only when 3/4 of those voting in each of the 3 major bodies vote against it by secret ballot.

Article IV details the amending process. The amending process tends to be slow. Deliberate action in amending the basic document of any form of governance is not bad. However, at times obvious modifications are needed in the document to keep up with changes,

such as in the administrative structure of the school system.

Article IV is listed in its entirety below:

Article IV - Amending Process

Section I

The Staples Governing Board, whenever 60% of its members deem necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or upon the application of 60% of the voters of any one of the 3 major bodies shall receive proposed amendments to this Constitution.

Section II

Amendments shall be valid to all intents and purposes when ratified by a majority of voters in any 2 of the 3 major bodies; passed by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board, and approved by the administrative council.

Section III

Any proposed amendment must be ratified by June 1 of the school year in which it was proposed or the amendment is considered defeated.

Article V defines the conditions for attaining ratification.

Section II of this article was changed to a separate article (VI) by an amendment. This change was quickly accomplished in the fall of 1969. Article V is listed below:

Article V - Ratification Process

Section I

This Staples Constitution shall be ratified when a majority of those voting in each of the 3 major bodies approve said Constitution by secret ballot.

Article VI requires the Staples Governing Board to establish a judicial system. Article VI was re-designated as a separate article by an amendment. The Judicial Board of Review has been created by

the SGB, and its functions currently. However, this is by no means a judicial system. The SGB has passed special legislation which describes the duties and functions of the Judicial Board of Review and its members (see Appendix D). Although the SGB Policies do not spell out what they mean by a judicial system, they obviously intended more than a Judiciary Board of Review. The SGB has a great deal to accomplish if it expects to meet the mandate of Article VI. Article VI is listed as amended in all its simplicity below:

Article VI - Judicial System

Section I

The Staples Governing Board will establish a judicial system.

The original Article VI was amended to become designated as Article VII. This amendment was necessary to make room for the newly created Article VI. Article VII makes very clear the binding authority invested in the SGB Policies. Article VII reads as follows:

Article VII - Upon ratification the Staples Community shall be bound by the policies established by the "Policies Governing the Governing Board."

The SGB Policies have been described in their entirety. As noted in the explication, there are minor areas of the policies that need to be amended to update and make current the document. Since the SGB has not yet taken action on developing a judicial system, that ought to be a first order of business. The process could be started by expanding Article VI of the SGB Policies to describe or at least to suggest a procedure for establishing a judicial system.

The careful reader will have noticed that the SGB still reflects some ambivalence internally about whether or not it has a constitution or a set of policies. At several places within the document the word "constitution" has been used where the word "policies" would have been more appropriate. The document is a set of policies. There had been considerable discussion about the nature of the document from a philosophical and legal point of view early in its consideration and construction. At that time upon the advice of the superintendent of schools the document was identified and entitled The Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board. The Westport Board of Education has approved the document as a set of policies which have been incorporated into the operating policies of that body. Under the law in Connecticut local school boards act as agents of the state. Therefore the SGB policies share a considerable amount of power in the school system.

In one other respect the SGB has continued to muddy the water about the nature of the SGB and what it should be called. The SGB has created a committee called the Constitutional Revision Committee. More accurately it should have been entitled the Policies Revision Committee or named in such a way that the policies would have been emphasized. In any event the SGB is authorized to be directly involved in establishing policy at Staples High School. Through the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board the SGB has the authority to become meaningfully involved in setting the direction for the school.

A "bill of rights" has been proposed for the SGB Policies.

Although they can not become the first ten amendments, they could enhance the status and scope of the SGB Policies and the SGB itself. Staples High School needs a statement of rights and responsibilities for all the members of the community. The proposed statement reads as follows:

Members of the Staples Community are members of both the academic community and the world community. As citizens, members of the Staples community enjoy the same freedoms of press, speech, religion, expression, peaceful assembly, and petition that other citizens enjoy as guaranteed by the United States Constitution, as long as the exercise of these rights does not infringe upon the rights of others.

At the time of this study, the SGB was seeking to provide a more detailed statement of the specific rights of its constituents. While a parallel statement of responsibilities for these same constituents has not been mentioned, the need for such a guideline is equally important.

The SGB Policies represent a dynamic and growing force in the lives of the people who live and work in the Staples High School community. They are accepted and respected, but much needs to be done to keep them viable and effective in governing the lives of the constituents of the SGB. Judicious amending needs to be completed not only to bring the SGB Policies up-to-date but also, and more importantly, to bring the authority and power of the elements of shared governance into balance whenever necessary. For this purpose there needed to be a Constitutional Revision Committee. The chairman of the SGB has created this committee to keep the SGB Policies current

and workable. The SGB can never be any more than the limits and restrictions placed upon it or any less than the challenge provided by the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board.

Amendments to the Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board

The amendments that have gone into effect for the SGB Policies include the following:

- (1) Article II, Section I was amended to include the statement: "The Staples Governing Board is a non-continuous body with sessions from July 1st to June 30th."
- (2) Article II, Section VI, Subsection 2 was amended to delete the principal's approval in appointing members to SGB committees and to delete the requirement that one SGB member had to be on each committee.
- (3) Article II, Section VI, Subsection 3 stating that the SGB could declare committee membership open to any member of the faculty, student body, and administration was deleted as unnecessary.
- (4) Article II, Section VI, Subsection 4 requiring the announcement of meetings and the posting of their agendas two school days in advance was amended by dropping the condition "except in emergency cases."
- (5) Article II, Section VI, Subsection 5 was amended to read: "A record of each meeting shall be published within five school days thereafter."
- (6) Article II, Section VI, Subsection 7 stating that all meetings of committees, excepting executive sessions, shall be open to the public was deleted.
- (7) Article III, Section I, Subsection 3 was amended by dropping the condition "except in emergency cases" from the requirement for the SGB to announce its public meetings two school days in advance.
- (8) Article III, Section I, Subsection 4 was amended to read: "The Staples Governing Board shall make public an agenda for each public meeting two schools days in advance."
- (9) Article III, Section II, Subsection 2 was amended to provide that an absolute veto by the principal can not be overruled, but it can be appealed to higher authority-- the superintendent or board of education. The amendment also required the principal to send an explanatory letter with his veto to the SGB.

(10) Article VI was renumbered to become Article VII. Article V, Section II was renumbered to become Article VI.

(11) Article I, Section II, Subsection 5 was amended to change the required timing of the principal's "State of the School Address" to be changed from the first school day of the second full school week in September to no later than November 1st.

(12) Article III, Section I, Subsection 9 was deleted. It had required that the members of the SGB meet with constituents twice monthly at a prescribed time and place.

These amendments have not significantly changed the basic policies of the SGB. They represented the "shaking down" process of a new system as much as anything. The basic document, revised to include the amendments listed, has been reproduced in its entirety in Appendix B.

It should also be noted that the group of students, faculty, and administrators who worked together to produce the SGB Policies considered a wide range of governance before they chose what has become the SGB concept of shared governance. It was reassuring to learn that the committee found the best model for shared governance in the Constitution of the United States. This discovery was especially reassuring because the members of that committee encompassed some of the most radical students and faculty in the school.

The SGB was given the authority to make decisions of policy in all areas of the school not specifically limited to the principal or the administration under the policies of the Westport Board of Education, local town ordinances, or state law. The SGB holds all power not solely invested in the principal or the administration by other authority. It was intended from the beginning that there

should be a balance of power between the SGB and the principal, whose office constituted the executive branch of this governance. The SGB could not do anything beyond the power of the principal.

For example, the SGB could legislate approval of a particular curriculum development. However, even with the approval of the principal this could not become the law for Staples High School if this new curriculum involved staffing and/or budgetary implications. In that event both the superintendent of schools and the Westport Board of Education would have to approve the SGB legislation. This situation, also presented a source of a functional dilemma, that is, how to decide what decisions could legitimately be made "in house" at Staples High School by the SGB and the principal.

Viewed in another way, the SGB under this arrangement could not do anything beyond the power and authority for action held by the principal. In the example cited above it was necessary for the principal to seek approval of all curriculum changes as described. He could take the SGB's legislation, approve it, and submit it to the board of education with his recommendation. In this instance both the SGB action and the action by the principal were collaborative and cooperative recommendations. The SGB action could have only the force of a recommendation, which was the same force of the principal's action. In the final analysis, the Westport Board of Education retained certain powers over curriculum as well as other powers which had not been delegated to any level below it. This

retention of powers has not always been clear in the policies of the Westport Board of Education. The resulting confusion led to dysfunctional interactions between the SGB and the principal on the one hand and the principal and the superintendent as an agent of the board of education on the other.

The SGB, however, holds a tremendous share of the power in the high school traditionally restricted in most public school systems. It may pass legislation in authorized areas such as the following:

- (1) Behavioral codes for students, faculty, and administration.
- (2) Use of school facilities during the school day.
- (3) Formation, supervision, administration, and financing of school activities.
- (4) School-community relations.
- (5) Curriculum.
- (6) Operational areas, such as scheduling for classes, daily time schedule, registration for classes, and assemblies.
- (7) Supervisory duties of staff not covered by negotiations, such as non-classroom assignments.
- (8) Special services, such as operation of soda machines and pretzel machine.

By way of contrast, the SGB holds no power over personal matters of students, teachers, or administrators. They cannot pass legislation in any areas covered by negotiations between the bargaining agents of the Westport Board of Education and the Westport Teachers' Association. However, they can make recommendations in any area they choose to do so.

Although the SGB cannot directly become involved in the final decisions about hiring personnel, they can participate in the screening of candidates at the discretion of the principal. For example, the SGB, whenever possible, shall be consulted on the appointments

of administrative and supervisory personnel at Staples High School. This practice actually preceded the SGB at Staples High School. The SGB can be similarly involved in other restricted areas at the discretion of the principal and/or the superintendent.

The SGB may engage in several activities other than legislative actions. As noted above, the SGB may submit recommendations on any topic to whomever it chooses. Recommendations have been regularly sent to the principal and less frequently to the superintendent and board of education. The SGB may regularly communicate with any agency it chooses. Most often the SGB through its chairman has communicated with the principal, superintendent, board of education, school and local newspapers, and other town agencies. It has occasionally sought information from legal groups and agencies of the Connecticut State Board of Education. The SGB may also establish a variety of devices to effect communications between its constituencies and itself. For example, special SGB bulletins may be issued; the regular school bulletin and public address system may be used; surveys, questionnaires, and referenda may also be used. The SGB may also seek and pay for special assistance from specialists. They may, for example, seek special legal help. Finally, the SGB may pass resolutions in support of or in opposition to whatever it chooses in any area. The SGB may engage in a wide range of activities and exert considerable influence not only in the Staples High School community but also in the community of Westport.

Structure of the Staples Governing Board

The SGB is made up of twenty members. There are ten students elected by their peers, seven teachers elected by the faculty, and three administrators elected by their fellow administrators. In reality the administrators actually try to rotate this responsibility because they are relatively few in numbers. The principal cannot be a member of the SGB. The students must be elected as follows: three sophomores, three juniors, and four seniors.

The intention of the drafters of the SGB Policies was to balance the legislative power between professionals (adults) and students. The members of the SGB have been elected annually, and the timing has created another functional dilemma in that there is considerable lag before the SGB can truly be said to be functioning properly each fall. The SGB membership presently allowed under the SGB Policies can not adequately cope with the tremendous range of tasks that faces it annually. The pressure of work has created still another functional dilemma with which to contend. However, as constituted there has been achieved a good balance of legislative power within the SGB.

Although there was considerable concern expressed initially about balancing power between the students and the professionals, there has never been a documented "block" vote where students voted against the adults. There have been situations where quite obviously students have joined with staff in voting against the administration.

The structure of the membership of the SGB indicates quite vividly that the administration had to possess and demonstrate a considerable amount of faith, trust, and confidence in the sense of responsibility of students and teachers.

The SGB has divided its twenty members into four standing committees of five members each. Committee membership is open to all members of the Staples High School community. All people who happen to attend a meeting are considered voting members for the purposes of that meeting. The four standing committees of the SGB are: the Academic Life Committee, the Campus Life Committee, the Operations Committee, and the Planning and Policy Committee. Figure 11 shows a simple outline of the organizational relationships within the SGB.

The Academic Life Committee has the primary responsibility for curriculum development. It concerns itself with what is taught, how it is taught, the grading system used, areas of study available, testing and examining (measurement and evaluation), and scheduling. It also is concerned with the evaluation of staff and program. It hears all proposals that fall into these areas.

The Campus Life Committee is primarily concerned with student activities. Its area of responsibility includes publications, athletics, clubs, and social activities. It deals with the non-classroom environment of Staples High School. It receives and passes judgment on the charters and budgets required by the SGB to authorize the operation of any activity on campus.

Basic Structure of the SGB

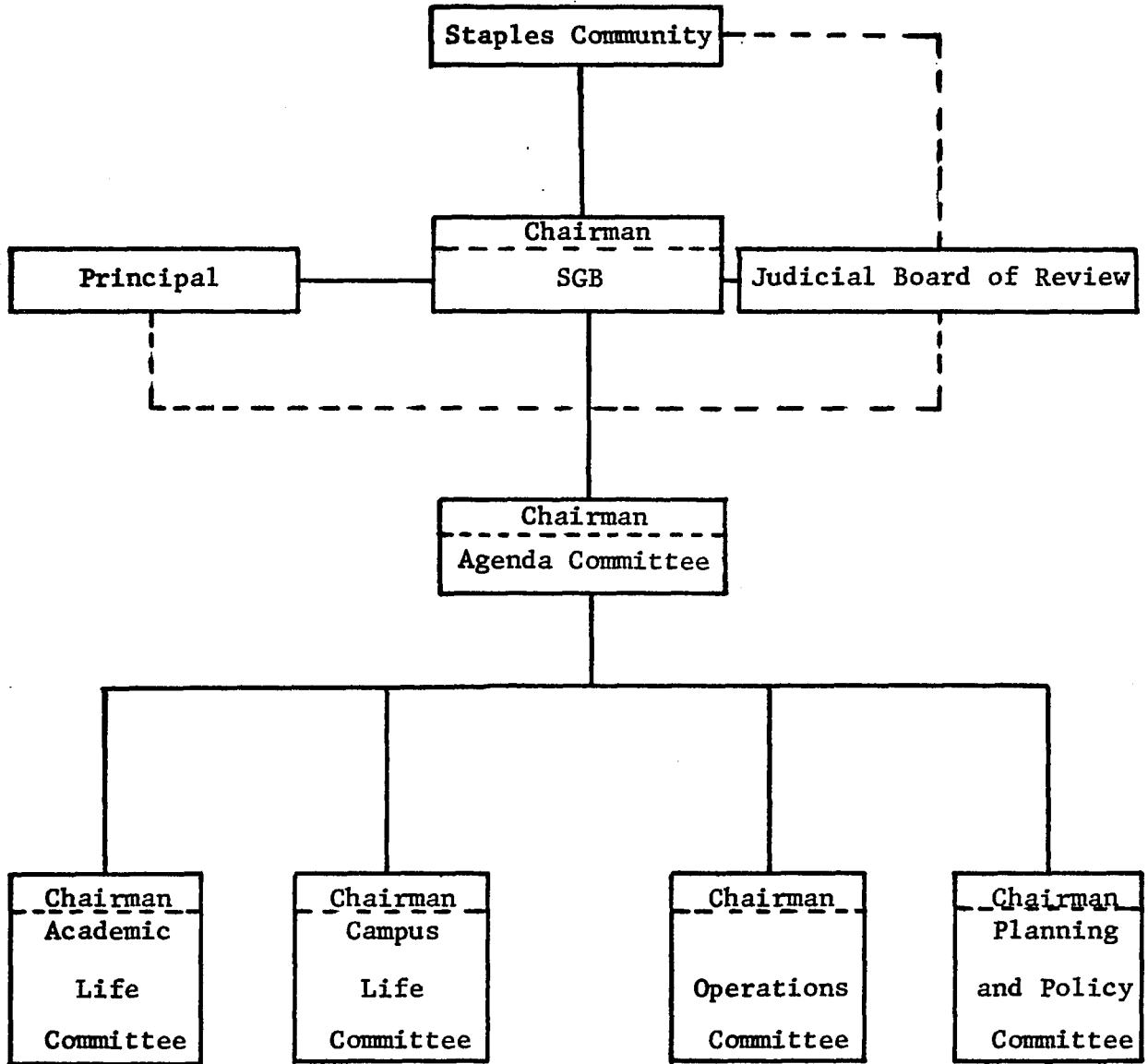


Fig. 11. The organizational components of the Staples Governing Board.

The Operations Committee has primary responsibility for financial operations of the SGB, the enforcement of existing policies, and overseeing SGB procedures. This committee has great responsibility, and it maintains a vigilant watch on the rules, structure and procedure of the SGB, and on the administration of the school in carrying out the policies of the SGB. It is responsible for maintaining communications with the constituencies, the administration, outside agencies, and the community at large. The Operations Committee also conducts all elections and referenda controlled by the SGB. It will conduct surveys and issue questionnaires as well. Finally, it oversees the committee operation of the SGB and the various subcommittees.

The Planning and Policy Committee is responsible for the judiciary and administrative rules and regulations. It will provide a grievance procedure and an ombudsman if necessary. It provides a "watchdog" function for the SGB and the whole school operation.

The jurisdictions of these committees are not intended to be fixed rigidly. If a preponderance of introduced bills happened to fall in the area of one committee, the Agenda Committee would adjust the jurisdiction of the other committees to provide a more equitable distribution of the work. The Agenda Committee is made up of the chairmen of the standing committees and the chairman of the SGB. The chairman of the SGB may chair one of the standing committees. However, he is required to chair the Agenda Committee.

The chairman of the SGB and each of the chairmen of the standing committees are elected from among the members of the SGB. The

chairman of the SGB is elected first, then the vice chairman, the publicity director, and the whip. After the chairman of the SGB is elected, he decides the order of the remaining elections.

The chairman of the SGB and the Agenda Committee meet and determine Staples Governing Board membership on the committees. The decision is final, but the individual interests of the SGB members are expected to be considered in the selections. There have to be at least one teacher and one student and not more than one administrator on each committee.

There are various secretarial roles to be filled. The SGB elects its own secretary. This is a tremendously demanding job that requires a great deal of energy, hard work, and persistence. The person selected must also be highly organized. The secretaries for each of the standing committees are chosen by the chairmen of the respective committees. If the selected secretary happens to be a member of the committee, the secretary has a vote. If the secretary is not a member of the committee, the secretary has no vote.

The chairmen of any of the four standing committees may form select or ad hoc committees to study specific bills or special aspects of bills. These committees are open to any member of the Staples High School community. Ad hoc or select committees report directly to their parent committee. There are no restrictions on the number of these committees or the number of members they have.

The SGB will normally meet two times each week. It meets in plenary session one afternoon each week immediately after school. It also meets one afternoon each week for committee meetings. In addition, the SGB has tried to provide one plenary session at least one evening a month to provide an opportunity for parents and other adults from the community to participate or observe.

Steps for a Bill to Become a Law

The SGB is constituted and operated to consider proposals that may become bills and eventually laws for governing Staples High School. Any member of the Staples High School community can submit a proposal for a bill--a parent, interested citizen, student, teacher, or administrator. The only requirement is that an SGB member must sponsor the proposal. Any resolution or recommended communication for the consideration of the SGB can be submitted this way. There are seven logical steps in the complete process that have been outlined below:

(1) Input step. In the beginning a bill submitted for consideration by the SGB will go to the Agenda Committee which reviews it for proper placement in the standing committees. It is referred to the appropriate standing committee. The chairman of the Agenda Committee has the responsibility for getting the bill to the chairman of the designated committee. This chairman then places that bill on the agenda of the committee for consideration. The Whip reports monthly in writing the committee assignments of all bills. A copy of these bills assigned to committee is distributed to each SGB member by the secretary of the SGB.

(2) Standing committee step. When a standing committee receives a bill for consideration, it may establish an ad hoc or select committee with a chairman appointed by

the standing committee. The ad hoc committee will be expected to study the bill, hold public hearings on the bill, and amend the bill as appropriate. When the ad hoc committee has finished its deliberations, it reports to its parent standing committee. The standing committee may then hold public hearings on the bill, amend the bill, table it, or approve it and transmit the bill to the Agenda Committee with the recommendation for consideration by the SGB. At the point that a decision has been reached by the standing committee, it must forward a report of the action taken to the Whip.

(3) Agenda Committee step. The Agenda Committee schedules bills on the SGB agenda in the order they are received from standing committees. This is the usual practice although the Agenda Committee has delegated to the chairman of the SGB the power to change the procedure at this point.

(4) SGB voting step. The SGB must wait at least four days after the bill has been presented in its final written form before voting on the measure. This delay can be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the SGB. The purpose of the delay is to allow time for the SGB members to consult with their constituencies. The SGB may defeat the bill or pass it. If sixty per cent of the SGB members present vote in favor of the bill, it has been passed by that body. It is possible before that action to refer the bill back to committee for more work or rewriting.

(5) Executive branch step. The principal has ten school days within which to take action. He may sign the bill, in which case it automatically becomes law. He may do nothing within ten school days, in which case it also becomes law. He may exercise an absolute veto and return the bill with an explanatory letter. The SGB may appeal this veto to the superintendent or the board of education. He may exercise a suspensive veto and return the bill, again with an explanatory letter to the SGB. The SGB may override the suspensive veto with a three-quarters vote of the whole SGB membership. No member can be absent for an override vote to happen.

In the event the bills or recommendations involve finances, curriculum, staffing, negotiations, or board of education policy, the principal forwards legislation or other communications to the superintendent for board of education approval if necessary. The superintendent and/or the board of education may approve what has been offered for their consideration. They may ask for revision, or they may reject what has been suggested.

(6) Referendum step. Five school days must pass before SGB legislation takes effect. During this time, a twenty-five per cent vote by one of the three major constituencies at Staples may call for a referendum on the legislation. A three-quarters vote of those voting in each of the constituencies is required to defeat the legislation.

(7) Judicial Board of Review step. The bill becomes a law, but it may be reviewed by the Judicial Board of Review. This judiciary must have a quorum of at least four judges to conduct its business. It shall hear any and all cases where a member of the Staples community questions the constitutionality of a law. Decisions require at least a sixty per cent concurrence by the judges. Reasons for decisions must be sent to the SGB and the principal. Dissenting members may submit minority opinions to the principal and SGB chairman. The SGB may override a Judicial Board of Review decision by a three-quarter vote of the full membership.

These steps outline accurately the process by which a proposal from a member of the Staples community can get to become a law. It has happened hundreds of times already under the SGB.

The Concept of Balance of Power

Even a cursory review of the SGB Policies will reveal that a serious attempt was made to separate the responsibilities and power of the SGB and the Executive Branch. The document recognizes that the principal still has the legal responsibility for the school and everyone in it. No matter how much sharing of power that he is willing to do, he must still be answerable under the law for what happens at that school. This accountability is true even though the policies of the board of education now quite clearly recognize the SGB as a functional and legal part of the administrative structure of the school system. After all is said and done, the principal is still accountable for the actions of the SGB.

The principal has to be willing to place himself in what is always potentially an intolerable position. He will be damned if he does not and damned if he does in many situations because he has willingly shared his power and retained all his responsibility and accountability, while the SGB is accountable only to its constituencies. The SGB assumes the posture of the legislative body, and rightfully so under the SGB Policies, while the principal takes on the task of implementing the bills passed by the SGB. Under the current structure of the Westport Public School System, the principal of the high school is also an assistant superintendent of schools. His accountability is direct and immediate to the superintendent, who may place demands upon him that render his position within the school even more intolerable. The principal is answerable in all directions; the SGB is really answerable in only one direction--to its constituencies.

There are two weights that help the principal keep the relationship between the SGB and the Executive Branch in balance. The first is the Judicial Board of Review, and the second is the veto power possessed by the principal.

The Judicial Board of Review was created by the SGB to provide a check on itself and at least in part respond to Article VI of the SGB Policies, which requires the SGB to establish a judicial system. The Judicial Board of Review does not constitute a judicial system of itself. However, it does provide for a necessary check on the legislative power of the SGB.

The principal appoints five members of the Judicial Board of Review from the Staples High School community. The principal can not appoint himself, nor can he appoint a current member of the SGB to the Judicial Board of Review. Membership may continue for as long as an appointee is a member of the Staples High School community. The SGB approves the principal's appointments by a two-thirds vote of the members present at the time of the vote. It takes a seventy per cent vote of the SGB to remove a member of the Judicial Board of Review. In the event of a vacancy on the Judicial Board of Review, the principal can recommend a replacement who must be approved by a two-thirds vote of the SGB.

The Judicial Board of Review is required, upon the written request of any constituent member of the Staples community, to rule on the constitutionality of any legislation enacted by the SGB, or on the constitutionality of any rulings made by the chairman of the SGB in relation to the interpretation of policy governing Staples High School and the SGB. The Judicial Board of Review is required to communicate all of its decisions in writing to the chairman of the SGB. Rulings by the Judicial Board of Review may be overruled by a three-quarters vote of the full SGB.

It is interesting to note that the bylaws established by the Judicial Board of Review had to be approved by the SGB prior to the commencement of its operations. The complete operational procedure of the Judicial Board of Review approved by the SGB has been listed in Appendix F. Because of its status being similar to an

ad hoc committee of the SGB, the real function of sharing power by the Judicial Board of Review is questionable. The principal does appoint the members of that judiciary. However, the SGB must approve these appointees, and the SGB is reluctant to give up any more of its power or lose it through a "packed" Judicial Board of Review. Nevertheless, the Judicial Board of Review helps to provide a balance of power between the Executive Branch and the SGB by keeping them both operating within the mandates of the SGB Policies.

The greatest weight belonging to the principal, and the one that will enable him to retain his sanity and leadership role, is that of the veto power. This is the compensation for only three administrators on the SGB. The principal has two veto powers--a suspensive veto and an absolute veto. They both are required to be carried out within ten school days after presentation to him in writing. If the principal does not sign or veto within that period, the bill automatically becomes the law (policy) for Staples High School. This has not yet happened.

The suspensive veto can be exercised by the principal for a variety of reasons. If a bill has some serious fault, although it is not contrary to the SGB Policies or against the law, it may receive a suspensive veto with an explanation that the principal feels confident that the SGB will sustain. It becomes simultaneously a teaching device and an expression of faith and trust in the fairness of the SGB. The SGB can override the suspensive veto in any case with a three-quarters vote against the veto. To date this action

has not befallen any of the relatively few suspensive vetoes exercised by the principal.

The absolute veto can be exercised by the principal for any valid reason. The basis for all absolute vetoes to this date has been on grounds that the bills were contrary to SGB Policies, the Policies of the Westport Board of Education, or local or state laws. The absolute veto may be appealed to higher authority by the SGB. The appeal can be placed before the superintendent or the board of education if the SGB chooses. No such appeal has been made to this date. However, the SGB has asked the Judicial Board of Review for a ruling on the rationale of a letter of explanation sent by the principal with one absolute veto. The Judicial Board of Review supported the principal's interpretation and position. There have been very few absolute vetoes to this time.

Both the principal and the SGB are still learning how to share governance and share power. A great deal of progress has been made, but the process can not suddenly outgrow the historical antecedents and precedents of adversary relationships. What makes it especially difficult is that each year one-third of the largest constituency leaves and one-third comes in brand new and almost completely ignorant of the SGB concept in most cases. At the same time that the Staples High School community loses its most responsible and experienced citizens, a large group of untrained and largely

unaware neophytes to responsibility have arrived. The task is never ending and exhausting, but it is also stimulating and rewarding. The gains are commensurate to the risks involved.

Early Growth and Development

The organizational growth and development of the SGB after its inception could be likened to the growth and development of a young person. The analogy between the early stages of growth of an individual and the stages of growth of the SGB is not unreasonable. Whatever the stages of growth and development of the SGB have encompassed, not even its most committed admirer would describe the SGB as having reached its maturity as either a working governance or political organization.

The conception of the SGB resulted from the questionable union of a variety of diverse and unlikely bedfellows. At the time the whole idea of people in power willing to share that power as well as authority in a public institution based on a bureaucratic, hierarchical structure was viewed by many educators at least as heresy if not abject stupidity. The conditions in existence at the time of the creation of the SGB, seemingly hostile on the surface, were probably as favorable as possible to permit that new "life" to endure. An idea after its creation, like a baby after its birth, needs constant nursing. Given that basic support and attention, both will be sustained and flourish.

Just as the birth of a baby is generally attended by a great deal of interest and concern from those close to the new life, so is the birth of a new concept or innovation accompanied by a great deal of interest and motivation. The initial interest and motivation accompanying the innovation and new concept require a great deal of sustenance. Unless the innovation receives almost constant attention, it will fail. The SGB required this amount of attention, and it received it constantly from within the school, from within the community, and throughout the country as the result of a great deal of publicity.

The infancy of the SGB really covered the space of about two years. It was characterized by a considerable amount of aimlessness and misdirection. This period of the development of the SGB was one of trial and error. It was a time of experimentation with the environment. The SGB was, in effect, using all its senses as it tried to adjust to a completely new world. It was the time of learning to crawl and learning to crawl with a purpose.

The SGB, at this point, could not be blamed for its often gross behaviors as it reacted to a bewildering array of stimuli without a clear-cut pattern of operation established. The SGB, in a very real sense, had not been adequately weaned before it was sent to kindergarten. There had been a total lack of preparation, training, and indoctrination for the new members of the SGB. In its infancy the SGB was completely on its own. There were no antecedents or precedents anywhere for the SGB to follow. It wanted desperately to

perform for all its "parents," but the best it could offer was a great deal of noise and very little direction. Fortunately, the SGB at this time was nurtured by a tremendous amount of love and concern by the very large majority of people in the Staples High School community.

It should be noted that by happenstance the "birth" of the SGB occurred midway through the 1969-1970 school year. Although great expectations were held by all for its development and action, the difficulty of attempting to accomplish very much in the middle of a school year was recognized by most people. The SGB was thus able to gain some time for on-the-job experience. It was during the latter part of that year and the beginning of the next year that the SGB grew enough to stand up and walk and begin to be seen and heard.

During its "infancy" the SGB was learning how to organize itself into a functioning unit. During this period it set up its basic organizational structure. The offices of the SGB were identified and people elected to fill the offices. However, it still had not been able to establish an organizational structure based on a committee format. The SGB attempted to function as a committee of the whole for too long during its initial phase of development. The first products of the new structure came forth, and they reflected the inexperience of everyone concerned. Not only were some of the early bills poorly written, but they often dealt with areas of the school that were not within the province of the SGB.

It was necessary to create a form for proposing bills in order to insure the uniformity of presentation. An example of the form devised can be found in Appendix E. At this point in its development, the SGB was having difficulty learning how to write or construct a bill properly as well as finding its rightful area of influence in the management of the school.

To illustrate the problem of providing a uniform format for a bill, an example of one of the hundreds of idiosyncratic styles for submitting bills is reproduced below:

To the Staples Governing Board:

A constant source of amazement for me during my years at Staples High School has been the grading system for physical education courses. I have heard of no criteria for evaluating a student's performance in physical education on an A to F scale. Furthermore, I can imagine no criteria for a just evaluation employing the grading system used in academic courses. As an example, why does the hard-working, yet decidedly-clumsy, boy who shows up for gym every day in regulation uniform get a B; while the star athlete who skips gym or loafs around in the locker room receives an A?

I would therefore like to propose that the S.G.B. pass a bill that physical education classes be graded on a pass-fail basis, separate from the pass-no record proposal now pending. I am sure all parties will greet this bill with open arms, for I believe the coaches are just as befuddled about grading students they scarcely know as the students are about how the coaches grade them. Also, I do not think many colleges are too interested in gym grades, so I don't anticipate any trouble in that area.

Ladies and gentlemen, you have been charged with a task. Before you begin work, I would like to stress that the important word in this proposal is "pass." I am not interested in establishing a new grading system for gym so much as substituting "pass" for the letters A, B, C, or D. The idea is simple, and I hope you keep it that way.

Yours truly,

Unfortunately the SGB attempted to act on all these bills just as they were received. The inevitable result was confusion and lack of productivity.

To show how the SGB learned its lesson, an example of a developed format used for submitting bills in a reasonably uniform fashion is listed below:

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD BILLS: A Form for Submitting
Legislation

Date January 19, 1970

Name of Submitter Laurie McCarthy

Name of Sponsor Fritz Luedke
(must have SGB sponsor)

Title of Proposed Bill Out of class without a pass

1. Please describe in some detail a) the reason why you think this proposal is needed b) what you expect such a law should accomplish and c) any information that members of the SGB would need to know in considering your proposal.

Ordinary classes meet only 4 times weekly. Some classes meet on a 5th on which the teacher usually lets students go out of class with a pass. However some teachers hold students for all or part of the period, thus often not allowing the students to have a lunch period. This bill would let the students have the extra period off E, F, and G periods. The extra to be determined by the teacher.

Please provide here the proposed bill. Make it brief and to the point. Be sure to include a) what is to be done b) how it is to be done c) where d) when and e) by whom.

It shall no longer be required that a student attend an extra (fifth class a week) class E, F, and G periods. The teacher shall determine this extra period and this extra period shall remain the same throughout the year.

DO NOT FILL IN ANY OF THE SPACES BELOW

Received by the SGB on _____
Assigned to the Ac Life Committee on Feb 18
Reported to the SGB on _____
The SGB, on _____, took the following action:

This format requires specific information necessary for cataloguing and identifying the bill. During its infancy the SGB frequently lost bills. The format also provides some direction for how to write the bill and why it is needed. Improvement in presenting bills was rapid after this format had been introduced.

Many of the early attempts at bills during this period were characterized by a self-defeating omnibus quality. Too much was included in the bill. It was completely impossible to administer, or it contained contradictory elements. Frequently such bills would contain a variety of elements that were fine, and one would be illegal, which contraverted the rest of the bill. More often than not, this type of bill never got out of committee simply because it was impossible to obtain member agreement on the wide and diverse range of elements in the bill.

Because the "omnibus bills" never got out of committee, they were discarded at the end of the current school year. Therefore, examples of this type of bill are no longer available. However, an example of a bill that was suspensively vetoed by the principal because of its vagueness and lack of specificity is listed below:

The S. G. B. passed Dress Code Policy and Implementation on October 14, 1971 by a vote of 14-3-0

Dress Code Policy and Implementation

1. The policy regulating student dress and grooming at Staples High School shall be the same for all classes, except those classes where demonstrable safety or health considerations or laws demand a deviation from the dress policy.
2. Teachers who believe they have safety or health considerations in any class must gain approval for all deviations from the school dress policy from their Department Chairman.
3. Where a teacher and student (s) are in conflict over appropriate dress in any class, it is the responsibility of the teacher to secure a ruling from the Department Chairman and the appropriate Vice Principal. A teacher may temporarily suspend a student without penalty from an activity pending a prompt ruling.

Principal's signature _____

Date _____

On October 22, 1971 I have exercised an Absolute Veto of the Dress Code Policy and Implementation Bill (71-19) for the following reasons:

1. The bill as written is too vague to permit implementation and enforcement. Especially vague is the portion of the bill that reads "...where demonstrable safety or health consideration ... demand a deviation from the policy" Demonstrable to whose satisfaction and measured against what criteria?
2. The bill does not cover other considerations such as damage to school property. For example, since this bill only speaks of exceptions for health and safety reasons, it would be possible for people to wear whatever footwear they wished on the gym floor. Nor does the bill allow for consideration of the requirement of aprons to protect clothing from soiling or damage apart from any health or safety factors.
3. Viewing all areas of curriculum at Staples High School, it appears to the principal that a great deal of flexibility in dress for classroom participation does already exist. For example, in the Physical Education classes a variety of dress is encouraged depending upon the activity.

Principal's Absolute Veto of the Dress Code Policy and
Implementation Bill (71-19)

4. It is logical and customary in the public schools for certain class activities to require certain modifications of dress. It may well be that in some areas, for example, physical education, more individualization in the selection of approved dress might be encouraged. It does not seem necessary for everyone to have the same color sneakers, socks, shorts, gym suits, etc. If a gym suit is deemed appropriate for a given activity by the professional staff, that should determine the need for the suit. Each individual, however, should be free to select the style and color.

Finally, I have exercised the Absolute Veto because I believe that the determination of proper attire in special class situations remains the prerogative of the Board of Education. This seems to be clearly the case where the wearing of some form of uniform has been the accepted practice for a very long period of time. A check with about six comparable high schools (West Hartford, Fairfield, Darien and Greenwich) reveals that this interpretation is consistent with their policy and practice.

Absolute Veto

/s/ J. E. Calkins
James E. Calkins, Principal

October 22, 1971

JEC:sd

The suspensive veto exercised by the principal was subsequently upheld by vote of the SGB. It should be noted, however, that a variation of this bill that permitted practically any student attire in physical education classes was passed and approved at a later date. After all the interest generated, students almost unanimously wore what had originally been considered appropriate gym attire beforehand. Actually it was the "uniform" that the students wanted changed. They wanted to be free to choose their own style of gym attire and not have to wear a prescribed type.

During its "preadolescent stage" the SGB was able to develop its committee structure to provide for an orderly flow of work and an equalization of the work load. Procedures for conducting the business of the SGB were developed and finalized. Essential amendments to the SGB Policies were effected, and more and more people were being involved in the functions of the SGB. The need for more people to assist the SGB members became obvious as the number of proposals increased for their study and deliberation. Table 1 indicates the number of several kinds of considerations that the SGB has had to cope with since its inception at the end of 1969.

As Table 1 clearly shows, the SGB has had a great deal of work to do right from the very beginning. Unfortunately, it has not been possible to tally accurately all the proposals presented to the SGB. The figures listed represent a count of what exists in the records. However, a good many proposals have been lost or discarded. This disappearance was especially true at the very beginning of the operation of the SGB when approved forms for submitting proposals were not available for general use. However, it is possible to draw some logical if not verifiable inferences from these crude data.

First, it must be understood that the year listed is a calendar year. The tallies were noted by calendar year because the SGB actually began to operate at the beginning of 1970. It was not until February of that year that the SGB was able to get organized and functioning as a legislative unit. As noted earlier the SGB

TABLE 1

Tallies of SGB Actions: 1970-1973

Actions	1970	1971	1972	1973
Proposals	52	45	51	65
Bills Approved by SGB	34	29	39	43
Bills Approved by Principal	29	25	37	39
Laws Established	29	25	37	39
Suspensive Vetoes	4	1	2	0
Absolute Vetoes	1	3	0	3
Resolutions	2	3	4	1
Recommendations	2	8	3	7
Laws Defunct	0	0	0	0

Note.- No actions by SGB on vetoes because all have been upheld or not appealed.

took an unusually long time to get moving because it attempted initially to operate as one large committee. The impracticality of that process forced the SGB into a committee procedure which is still in force.

Only broad generalizations may be made about the results listed in Table 1. Because of poor records in the first two years the accuracy of some of the tallies is questionable. This is especially true of the number of proposals each year. However, the results do show what is available and this indication of SGB activity is evidence that the SGB is active in a variety of ways.

In the period covered by Table 1 more than 200 proposals were considered by the SGB of which 145 were passed and submitted to the principal for his action. The principal signed into law 130 of the bills sent to him. The principal exercised a suspensive veto 7 times and an absolute veto 7 times. Since the SGB did not vote to override the suspensive vetoes, and since the absolute vetoes were not appealed to higher authority, 14 bills passed by the SGB did not make it into the policy for Staples High School. Finally, none of the bills approved by the principal had to face a referendum by the constituencies of the SGB, a process permitted under the SGB Policies. Therefore, the laws established for this period were the same as the bills approved by the principal.

During the period under review there were 10 resolutions promulgated by the SGB, and 20 recommendations were sent to the principal on various matters. The SGB used the resolution to communicate

a position on a matter for which they were not empowered to act. The recommendations were used generally to urge the principal to take specific actions again in areas that were outside the province of the SGB.

At this point it is not possible to infer any direction or pattern to the SGB legislative action. Obviously the SGB has been active. Its legislation has been very responsible if the low number of vetoes by the principal has any meaning in this regard. Since none of the vetoes have been overridden or appealed, it would appear that reasonably good communications have existed between the principal and the SGB during this period. The attempt by the principal to establish a base of mutual trust, faith, and confidence seems to be corroborated by these tallies.

A subjective analysis of the legislative actions of the SGB for the period of 1970-1973 has been categorized in Table 2. Eleven categories were identified on the basis of the main purpose of the bill. Where this was not delineated by the author or the sponsor of the bill, the purpose was inferred from the content of the bill. The bills fell quite naturally into the categories listed. Four people who were not educators, following the categories as listed and with no other explanation collectively, achieved a better than ninety-five per cent comparability for categorizing the legislative actions with the results obtained by the author. That is to say, the categorizations of the four non-professional educators agreed with those of the author ninety-five per cent of the time.

TABLE 2

Categorization of SGB Legislation by Subject

Categories	1970	1971	1972	1973
Curriculum	2	4	8	10
SGB Administration	5	5	4	5
School Administration	1	3	1	2
Amendments	2	2	4	2
School Environment	4	6	8	10
Student Activities	3	2	4	6
Student Behavior	1	0	0	2
Student Evaluation	0	1	3	1
Teacher Evaluation	0	0	1	0
Program Evaluation	3	0	1	0
Communications	8	2	3	1
Total Bills Passed	29	25	37	39

Note.- The total bills listed for each year equal the number of bills approved by the principal for the corresponding year in Table 1.

This information was obtained not as a statistical exercise or verification but to suggest at least that the categories seemed to make sense to five different people. The percentage of agreement achieved seems to support this contention.

The categories have the following assumed characteristics. Curriculum refers to any bills that deal with the improvement, modification, or implementation of program. SGB administration deals with the operation and structure of the SGB, for example, in committee designation or in handling bills. School administration refers to the operation and structure of the school, for example, in handling the daily class schedule or the registration of students. Amendments refers only to changing the basic document, "Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board." School environment concerns, for example, the general physical plant and grounds, the cafeteria and student lounge areas, smoking area, and canteen area. Student activities refers to all organized activities outside the regular classroom, for example, athletics, clubs, publications, and social activities. Student behavior includes discipline, general decorum, dress, responsibility, respect for individual rights, student rights, suspension, and expulsion. Student evaluation basically includes anything that indirectly or directly affects the testing, measuring, and evaluating of student work. Program evaluation refers to all actions directed at assessing on-going programs of any kind at the school. Communications refer to bills dealing directly with the process and problems of communication in all areas of the school

community. These categories provided for identification of all the bills available for consideration to the time of this study.

The years listed in Table 2 are calendar years and not school years similar to the listing in Table 1. Table 2 actually presents a crude analysis of the bills that became law or school policy during the period 1970-1973. The total bills passed for each year in Table 2 equal the number of bills approved by the principal for the corresponding year in Table 1. There is no logical way to infer anything of significance from the number of bills passed. However, this rather crude categorization does afford the opportunity to make some generalizations that may be of interest and a source for further study later on.

The SGB has spent relatively little of its time in the areas of student behavior, student evaluation, and teacher evaluation. In the light of the composition of the SGB membership this is not surprising. Under the best of circumstances to achieve even a consensus on evaluation among a group such as teachers meeting alone is very difficult. In a mixed group the task is tremendously difficult. The aura of good feeling that has existed may have prevented the introduction of bills in these areas. In fairness to the SGB members they may have been satisfied that the status quo was fine.

Concern with limitations in the physical plant and the resulting restrictions imposed on student plant is not reflected as much in the SGB passed legislation and subsequent laws as it has been

the topic of discussion in SGB meetings. At times the rhetoric even among legislative neophytes outdistances actions that produce results. In this respect they are not unlike legislators the world over.

The SGB has been concerned with the proper delineation of its role. It has attempted to clarify its role operationally through legislation that has spelled out administrative structure and procedure for itself. Amendments proposed by the SGB have also dealt with clarifying its philosophical status and basis for authority. The amending process and the legislative process have been used by the SGB to clarify its authority for actions and its procedure to carry out those actions.

It is fair to observe that the SGB has become involved in a panorama of activities that cover every facet of Staples High School. As it refines its procedures for performing its functions, there should be more direct and meaningful involvement in the crucial areas of the school. As the SGB matures along with developing procedural skills, the more difficult areas for the members of the SGB to deal with personally will be tackled--the areas of student behavior, teacher evaluation, student evaluation, and still not considered, the evaluation of administrators.

Because of the number of SGB actions it was not possible to list them all in this study. However, a number of selected actions by the SGB have been included for reference in Appendix D. The examples cited cover the full range of SGB activities and actions.

These examples should suggest the extent to which the SGB has become meaningfully involved in the direction of Staples High School.

The SGB has probably reached the "adolescent stage" in its life cycle. This period has been characterized by a developing ability and energy to concentrate on major issues for which broad policy statements and actions are necessary. The SGB members continue to increase their skills in writing legislation that is readily implemented and administrated. The SGB is slowly but surely catching up to the needed amendments to its policies. Considerable success has also been achieved by the SGB in involving more of their constituents in functions of the SGB. While improvement has been achieved in establishing better communications within the Staples High School community, this remains as one of the greatest challenges yet to be answered by the SGB.

The range and depth of perception and the care that go into the creation of proposals, their study, their discussion, and their approval represent the beginning of maturity for the SGB as a concept of shared governance. The legislation that the SGB passes currently is usually well-written, specific, clear, and necessary. There are purpose and careful thought behind the bills that go to the principal. The SGB operation has become efficient in attending to the mechanics of the legislative process.

An example of the growing maturity of the SGB may be found in the bill listed below:

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

#73-20

The Staples Governing Board, on March 14, 1974,
passed the following bill by a vote of 15-0-1.

Law #73-20, Registration, reads:

A system of hand scheduling will be used for all final registration purposes during the first two days of each school year. The student will be allowed to elect subject, teacher, period and level. The subject and level must be designated in the pre-registration period.

During this two day final registration, all Staples counselors will spend all their available time in assisting students going through the final registration process. In addition, all Junior High counselors shall be invited and encouraged to be at Staples aiding Sophomores in the final registration procedure.

While students with Learning Disabilities will have top priority in the final registration, the exact mechanics of registration are to be determined by the administration. If approved by the appropriate administrator and teacher, a course may attempt to apportion the numbers of Sophomores, Juniors and Seniors in that class.

Rationale:

As a result of fall rather than spring registration, fewer changes were noted in the master schedule, the number of fall schedule changes was smaller, the time schedule for registration was accurate. The problems of equity in student selection remains, but hand scheduling is more desirable than by computer.

It seemed pointless to list exact procedures, since some of the needs (i.e. I.D. cards) may well change from year to year. However, there is a need for more counseling help being made available to students, leading to the increase in counselors stated above. In addition to having more counselors, more teachers and upper classmen willing to assist others could help to lessen some of the anxiety during the proposed registration process.

This supersedes all past registration procedures.

/s/ J. E. Calkins
Principal's Signature

Approved

3/15/74
Date

This bill to facilitate the "arena" or hand scheduling procedure employed at Staples High School exemplifies what is good in legislation. The bill is clear, and it is needed. The principal approved it quickly, the day after receipt, because it improved an administrative operation.

As might be expected when a governing body has been "learning its trade" over a period of years and when that governing body has taken a large number of actions during that time, there has been a wide range in the quality of the results. Beginning with Appendix D and going through Appendix F, examples of the actions taken by the SGB in each year, 1970-1973, have been listed. Relatively few examples have been provided in the interest of space and economy, but those listed can be put into proper perspective by referring to Table 1 and Table 2.

It is important that the full range and depth of the SGB actions be understood. These are the actions of a shared governance providing direction for the school community that it serves. When a new course is recommended by the SGB and approved by the principal, it is sent on the way to the superintendent and the board of education for final approval and implementation. That is the only way a new course can be started at Staples High School. This procedure is required for all new programs. The SGB must also be involved in all the areas over which it has jurisdiction. This involvement has not been achieved without problems developing. There are dysfunctions and functional dilemmas that must be faced and solved.

Functional Dilemmas of the SGB

Every form of governance ever devised has had to face up to and solve emerging functional dilemmas. Rarely can these dilemmas or dysfunctions in operation be adequately anticipated and avoided. The SGB has been no different from other forms of governance in this respect. The SGB is after all a kind of bureaucratic structure itself--a small bureaucracy within a larger bureaucratic framework--albeit ostensibly a loose bureaucratic structure.

The first functional dilemma that the SGB had to face rested in its own self-image or self-concept as a democratic organization. This was the period described as its "infancy." The SGB believed that it could informally, collaboratively, and democratically, in one large group meeting in regular plenary sessions, meet all the obligations of the SGB Policies. This goal was not possible. The work load on the SGB collectively and the members individually reached such proportions that a committee structure had to be established and the SGB members had to get help. The help at the time of this study consisted of three appointed assistants for each SGB member and a large number of volunteers for committees.

A second functional dilemma that has persisted since the SGB began its operation involves the difficulty in targeting tasks that are worthy of the attention and energy of the SGB. The problem of finding significant areas for action by the SGB continues. The dilemma centers around the problem of delineating administrative

action from mere policy making because of a strong and natural desire to serve its constituents. The SGB is easily seduced into taking up considerations that are not worth the time and energy required. A perfect example of this situation may be seen in the so-called "name bill" described below exactly as it went to the principal:

SGB Passed the Name Bill by a vote of
11-2-2 on 4/6/72

NAME BILL

Any member of the Staples community may ask the other members of the community to address him (or her) in the manner he (or she) pleases.

Rationale:

This bill does not legislate what practice should exist--merely that it is the right of each individual to decide.

Approved

Principal's Signature

4/10/72

This bill illustrates the nonsense that any form of governance can experience. The United States Congress has been affected by this kind of legislative lunacy at times as well. The SGB is struggling with its role when this sort of action transpires. Fortunately, it is a dilemma that is not endemic to SGB members. As they gain in experience and the SGB structure matures, this dilemma becomes less and less serious. Nevertheless, the SGB and the principal must maintain vigilance against the possibility of the SGB's crossing over from policy-decision-making to administrative operation.

Closely related to the foregoing functional dilemma is that of identifying legitimate areas of decision-making and policy-creating for the SGB. The dilemma usually manifests itself in actions taken by the SGB which can not legitimately be decided "in house" at Staples High School. The decision is the prerogative of the superintendent or the board of education. For example, in the beginning the SGB attempted to legislate curriculum changes at Staples High School without considering any authority beyond the principal. Obviously, that situation was corrected, but the problem continues to nag the SGB in the selection of areas and levels of decision-making and policy-setting. Again experience and continuous consultation between the SGB and the principal can help alleviate if not eliminate the problem.

Creating additional bureaucratic structure within an already cumbersome, larger, and generally restrictive bureaucratic structure may prove to be a functional dilemma. If all the SGB had done was to create a kind of sub-bureaucracy, then the value of the organization would be questionable. This situation has not developed, and yet the legislative output of the SGB enhances the possibility of the development of an additional bureaucracy. It is essential that the constituencies do not view the SGB that way.

The constituencies must feel that they are equally and fairly represented or they will not make use of the SGB. In fact, they will turn away from the SGB and contribute to its demise through criticism and apathy. Criticism will not necessarily destroy a

concept of shared governance, but apathy will accomplish its destruction quicker than anything else. In most schools it is difficult to achieve adequate representation from among the various socio-economic groups that make up the student body. Staples High School was no exception. If a form of shared governance is supposed to represent all kinds of people in its constituencies, how is this possible when a diverse and wide range of groups exists? This is a continuing functional dilemma for all governments based on the concept of representative shared governance. The SGB plans to broaden its representational base and increase the number of SGB members. This action may help, but it will not eliminate this functional dilemma.

Every good innovation receives a great deal of support and interest during its inception and thereafter for varying amounts of time. Inevitably, though, a natural and typical pattern of waning interest will develop. The functional dilemma stems from the fact that this innovation needs a great deal of enthusiasm and concern from its supporters and adherents, and without this kind of backing and interest the innovation may die. The problem is to prevent the waning interest from becoming apathy, which is the natural enemy and destroyer of innovations--especially those innovations dependent upon collaboration of the people the innovation serves.

The easiest functional dilemmas to solve are those which are the result of simple operational mistakes or poor planning. For example, it soon became obvious once the SGB got going that the

gap in SGB operations which existed over the summer vacation would have to be closed. This action was complicated and made worse by the election of students to the SGB not taking place until a month of school had gone by. This problem was solved by an amendment to the SGB Policies that placed the student election in May for the coming school year. These kinds of functional dilemmas are generally easily solved, but they may keep developing as the SGB changes and the school operation changes along with it.

Dealing with potential or latent adversary relationships among the members of the SGB presents the possibility of a dangerous functional dilemma. However, it is worth noting that there has never been an instance of "block voting" by any group of SGB members. The student representatives do not vote as students, nor do the teachers and the administration vote as teachers or administrators, respectively. Examples of coalition voting have been noted. Perhaps not surprisingly, the teachers have joined with the students to vote against the administration. There is always the danger that students can be co-opted by either group of adults. When this situation occurs, the adversary relations may be revived and exacerbated to the detriment of the SGB and ultimately the Staples High School community.

Closely allied to this occurrence is the functional dilemma of the principal becoming the object of attack by a coalition of the teacher, student, and administrative representatives. This coalition may happen when the principal finds it necessary to veto some bills

that have strong emotional ties to one or more of the SGB constituencies. It will take all the skills that the principal can muster to counteract this kind of an attack. He must fight this action because it will destroy the SGB as quickly as apathy at the other extreme. The best way to handle this problem is to place the dilemma out in the open where the various constituencies can see everything that happens. Even a principal can become an underdog. People are generally fair, and publicity has a tendency to make everyone a bit more honest and objective.

A bothersome and continuing dilemma is the necessity for training a new and large section of the student constituency each year. Providing a quick transition and adjustment to an open, free, and informal school environment from relatively structured junior high school environments presents a persisting functional dilemma. The junior high schools have begun to allow some freedom for their students as the end of their ninth grade year draws close. This action should ease the transition to Staples High School somewhat. More time must be spent with incoming sophomores at the beginning of each year to help them develop an awareness of the responsibilities that go with the freedom they will have at Staples High School.

No list of functional dilemmas would be complete without the problem of communications. It has not been possible for the SGB to adequately communicate with its constituencies. An informed constituency is essential for representative government to work. All kinds of devices have been tried. A glance at Table 2 will indicate the

number of SGB legislative attempts that have been made to solve this problem. A new gambit may be to actually take two hours during the school day, close classes, and have the SGB meet in a public gathering place on campus and invite students, faculty, and administration to participate. This approach will be tried.

This listing of functional dilemmas is far from complete. Rather it is suggestive of the continuing range of problems that any concept of governance, but especially one of shared power and collaborative determination, must face. There is no functional dilemma that can't be solved. The only limitations people must face in attempting to resolve these dilemmas are those of energy and imagination. With the proper supply of these two ingredients any functional dilemma can be solved in a concept of shared governance.

Accomplishments and Recognition

Although there is variation in the assessment of the SGB by people within the community, those people who have come to witness the SGB in action have uniformly praised the governance. Not everyone understands what the SGB is all about or what it is attempting to do with the power that it has. A great deal of communication needs to be done each year.

Nevertheless, the SGB has prospered and developed under the direct leadership of its chairmen. In the four full years of its existence there have been three students and two teachers serve as

chairmen. One student chairman stepped down of his own volition. At least to this time in the development of the SGB there has been no lack of candidates for what admittedly is a difficult responsibility that entails a tremendous amount of time and energy. The SGB has had responsible people serve their constituencies.

The Westport Board of Education has provided an annual subsidy of \$1,000 to enable the SGB to operate needed administrative services. In addition, the SGB distributes the profits from soda machines among needy student activities. Perhaps, in the final analysis the real measure of the SGB's status will be indicated to the extent that it becomes involved in the finances of operating the school. It has only limited, and for the most part, indirect involvement to date.

Apparently a good many people outside the town of Westport think that there is something special about the SGB at Staples High School. Visitors continue to come and visit the school as a result of recognition in the literature by several writers. In the near future there will be more in the literature about the new SGB concept and the kind of school Staples High School is. Why do the writers write about the SGB and why do visitors come?

It may well be that Staples High School and the SGB represent a unique form of governance at the public secondary school level. According to a special commission on shared power of the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, the SGB is unique. However, the real reason is most likely a simple and obvious one. It could be as simple as many people liking to see something that is

honest and real--pretty nearly what it claims to be and no better and no worse. It is an imperfect attempt, as is our national government, at living and deciding together in a spirit of mutual faith, trust, and confidence. This attempt is based on the assumption that most of the people will do what is right and responsible most of the time. The SGB, like our national government, represents a promise, not a guarantee--a chance to learn through doing, not a certainty of direction that is dictated from on high.

The SGB has been featured on two occasions at national conventions of the ASCD. In Philadelphia three years ago the SGB actually conducted a meeting to demonstrate how it operated. However, the best evidence of its success is to be found in the legislation that the SGB has passed and the administration has implemented. The SGB has influenced every facet of student life, the curriculum, and the total administrative operation of Staples High School. The SGB has become the vehicle for change at Staples High School.

Assessment of the Present Status of the SGB

The SGB has had to submit from time to time various reports to the board of education through the superintendent of schools. Reports submitted within the first full year of its operation have been included in Appendix C. One of the reports was submitted by the principal. The administration of the high school and the SGB itself have felt that the SGB has made considerable progress in reaching the maturity of a shared governance concept.

The visiting team under the aegis of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges that last evaluated Staples High School noted the unique promise of the SGB. The visiting committee, however, offered only a subjective assessment by its members. The SGB will have partially matured when it devises and carries out a carefully planned and vigorously conducted evaluation of what it is doing and what effect the SGB is having on the Staples High School community. This assessment is well within the reach of the SGB. The principal will need to provide assistance and leadership in achieving that goal. Maturity of the SGB and the administration finally will have been reached when the SGB and the principal join in proposing, enacting, and implementing broad legislative programs that will help the school and individuals become self-actualized. A unique learning environment will have been achieved when these events take place.

As a result of the fusion stage depicted in Figure 8 the concept of shared governance (SGB) has undergone modification to the point where a new theme or value of socio-political education has emerged. This theme has already entered the thematic stage of the consciousness raising process. With careful leadership and guidance a praxis for initiating and implementing a plan of practical political education may be established (Gillespie, 1972). The plan will capitalize on the concept and model of shared governance to establish actual political bases for the representatives of the SGB among their respective constituencies.

Under this scheme the four units will be viewed as towns or wards, and the creation of political parties will be urged. This plan could be initiated through amendments to the SGB Policies, or the leaders of the units with the assistance of the assistant superintendent (principal) could begin to encourage their respective unit members to consider this action. The plan will probably be incorporated in a significant change in the SGB Policies which will provide for greater representation among the constituencies based primarily on the unit structure rather than on the groups of people as the government now stands. By initiating, effecting, and affecting greater change a correlated and desirable lesser change can be accomplished.

The proposed change suggests more clearly than any statistical study the current status and the potential of the SGB. When "Yogi" Berra hit a bad pitch for a homerun one spectacular day, he was soundly chastized by his manager, Casey Stengel, who spent five minutes telling "Yogi" what was wrong with the pitch and his swing. "Yogi" patiently endured the chastizement, and when his mentor had finished, quietly asked, "Casey, how was it for distance?" "For distance" the SGB may not be "hitting a homerun" but it is hitting many "singles." The socio-political direction that the SGB seems likely to head toward offers visible and logical evidence that the SGB is functioning well in serving its constituencies and the school.

Obviously there is need for a vigorous research program to assess in statistically verifiable terms what is felt, seen, and

logically perceived. If this study has provided a logical base for research inquiry, and if it should stimulate research for empirical data to provide needed answers to questions about the SGB, then the study will have been worthwhile

CHAPTER VI

SHARED GOVERNANCE: A BLUEPRINT FOR IMPLEMENTATION

Overview

This chapter will offer a possible and feasible praxis for implementing a suggested model of shared governance at the public secondary school level. An events calendar and a systematic flowchart will provide complementary and supplementary guidelines for a suggested course of action. Both the calendar of events and the systematic flowchart will follow the stages for raising the levels of consciousness of the oppressed suggested by Freire (1972). The processes of humanizing and democratizing the school will also be suggested and explained for inclusion in the praxis. The end result sought will be both a plan of action and an operational model for replication.

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Two initial considerations are in order. There must be a willingness on the part of the leadership of the public school system to seek change, and recognition must be given to factors that produce resistance to change. Only by recognizing why people seem to be naturally resistant to change will it be possible for the prospective innovator of change to truly seek change in himself and provide leadership to others. The key leadership role in this

preliminary phase of initiating change at the public secondary school level must be played by the principal of the school. He must willingly seek change in himself first. Consciousness raising must begin with the person who expects to provide leadership for change in others. Once this leader understands what he is willing to risk, then he can help others to understand what they are willing to risk to effect change in themselves and in some aspect of their environment.

Brubaker and Nelson (1972) have succinctly stated what is needed in the decision-maker as knowing himself, knowing his organization, and knowing how to change it. In ascertaining where the decision-maker stands in terms of the intensity of commitment to taking risks necessary to support a given decision, they offered a listing of six levels of commitment in descending order of intensity as follows:

- (1) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, I'll sacrifice my life and/or the lives of my family and/or those I dearly love.
- (2) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, I'll give up my respect of those whom I love and I'll forego my status and professional achievement.
- (3) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, I will forego economic security and my career.
- (4) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, I will have serious conflicts between what I think should be done and my reluctance to do it. I may have to alter my work style and give up those techniques which had previously been successful and beneficial and learn new ones.
- (5) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, I will have to alter some habits with which I'm quite comfortable thus making my job somewhat more difficult. I will feel uncomfortable from time to time as I'll do things that don't seem to be the best way to do them based on my past experience and present assumptions.

(6) If I cannot continue to do a certain thing or if I'm required to do a certain thing, it doesn't make any difference as past experience indicates. My choice, therefore, is between tweedle-dee and tweedle-dum (p. 75).

By examining his own beliefs in terms of this hierarchical listing of intensity of commitment, a potential decision-maker can ascertain about how much he is willing to risk to make decisions that effect and affect change. In the instance of effecting change to implement a concept and a model of shared governance in the public secondary school, the potential decision-maker can quickly determine what consequences he can tolerate in supporting his commitment to shared governance. As Brubaker and Nelson pointed out: "A basic assumption on which the value hierarchy is built is that values have little meaning unless related to consequences (p. 75)."

Whether the decision-maker introspectively determines what he will risk for what he has in mind to change or whether he involves himself with another individual or group to raise his own level of consciousness about himself is not the important element of the proposed sequence of events. What is significant is that the leader, the potential decision-maker, has a desire to understand himself in terms of his values and what consequences he is ready to accept in the pursuit of change. Without this primary commitment, the approach of this chapter is doomed to immediate failure. The leadership role of the potential decision-maker is key to the success of this blueprint for implementing shared governance in a public secondary school.

At each step in this procedure there are obviously other ways, other sources, and other authorities that suggest possible alternatives for reaching the goal of shared governance. However, the elements of the procedure outlined here are consistent philosophically and procedurally. Most importantly, they have been operationally successful in a public secondary school.

There are many sources for understanding resistance to change. Hearn (1972) has provided the most convenient and useful information and procedures to follow for the purposes of implementing this model. By combining the role outlined in Brubaker and Nelson (1972) for the decision-maker with Hearn's list of community characteristics favoring change, opportunities favoring change, and the possible strategies for change, the potential innovator can eclectically devise his own strategy for effecting and affecting change. In fact, it is imperative that the innovator establish his own style anyway. Being a change-agent is probably the role of leadership more than any other function that renders it an art. The writers who describe effecting and affecting change all agree upon the significance of the role of the leader as a decision-maker.

Having reviewed these and other sources of insight and ideas, the innovator must make a decision of what he wants to change, how he wants to make the change, when he believes the change should take place, whom he will involve in the change, and the most important decision of all--how much of a commitment should he make in pursuing the change?

The presentation to this point has provided some parameters within which the decision-maker can seek identification of his own risk-taking propensities and the likelihood for success in his community and school. If the school and community do not offer some hope of success in terms of the criteria suggested by Hearn (1972), the prospective innovator is urged not only to go slowly but to minimize the extent of his risk-taking. Risk-taking should occur at a prudent rather than a foolhardy level, whatever the circumstances. Willingness to risk a job does not require the deliberate arrangement of circumstances to make that risk a certainty. That people recognize that willingness is what counts. The influence of values and attitudes rests as much in their being recognized as their being exercised.

Can the innovator adventitiously make use of some upheaval, crisis, or major concern in the community? Is it possible to demonstrate a better learning environment for students with the proposed change? Could it possibly save money in a tightening economy? Is there a move to build a new physical plant for the school to which a new organizational structure could be tied? These questions represent the sources of strategies that an innovator makes good use of wherever and whenever possible. Concomitant change more often than not provides a means of effecting significant change in public education.

If a concept of shared governance in a public secondary school is to evolve where a monolithic bureaucratic structure has prevailed, the leader who assumes the decision-maker (change-agent) role must be willing to accept two key concepts or premises upon which this modeling approach has been built. First, the decision-maker must accept the premise that a period of humanizing the school must be established and implemented as a prerequisite for the second premise to come into force. The second premise is that a public secondary school must clearly establish a management and administration that are readily perceived as democratic operationally and philosophically. Students and staff alike must be aware of a set of values and attitudes that reflect a belief that democracy is not just something to be learned as a textbook exercise. Rather it is a way of life that is applicable and viable in the daily lives of students, teachers, and administrators in a public secondary school. Attitudes, values, and beliefs are the beginning and the end of the process.

Students who are summarily suspended from school and teachers and administrators who are constantly reminded of an impending vulnerability have little cause to appreciate the democracy that is supposed to guarantee them due process, individual freedom, and dignity as human beings. Until the "ought" of democracy becomes the "is" of the public secondary school environment it will be difficult for the concept of shared governance to surface as an idea, let alone an operational model.

In order to assist the prospective innovator with consciousness raising for himself and for others, he is strongly urged to check the many writers on effecting and affecting change that abound in the literature. Among others cited in the review of the literature for this study was Bennis, Benne, and Chin (1961), who provided an excellent reference, along with Hearn (1972), for understanding the process of change. A prospective innovator would be wise also to review the sources in the literature that deal with humanizing and democratizing the public schools. Freire (1972), Trump (1972), Scobey and Graham (1970), McGrath (1971), and Macdonald (1971) provided exceptionally fine sources for these topics. Not only should the prospective leader review these sources, but also the people who are to assist in affecting and effecting the change should be encouraged to read them as well. They make excellent bases for beginning discussion in the thematic stage of consciousness raising.

Trump (1972) has contributed an excellent beginning set of criteria for establishing a humane school. He has identified the following characteristics of a humane school which:

1. Focuses on options rather than on uniformity in developing and administering policies and practices. In other words, it does not subject every individual to group standards even though it informs him about model behaviors and procedures.
2. Devises a program for each pupil in which he can move forward with success in terms of his own talents and interests no matter how diverse they may be.
3. Makes sure that every pupil is known as a total human being--educationally by a teacher-adviser who helps him personally to diagnose his needs, plan his program, make and change his schedule, evaluate his results and plan

accordingly for the future. (This procedure goes far beyond the typical homeroom or the programming by school counselors or assistant principals.)

4. Creates an environment in which each teacher may make maximum utilization of his professional talents and interests, one that recognizes individual differences among teachers and provides differentiated staffing to identify better the role of the professional teacher.
5. Separates curriculum content so that each learner knows what is essential for everyone as distinct from the cognitive, skill, and affective behaviors that are important for those learners with special goals in the areas of hobbies and careers. The goal here is to reduce greatly the required learnings so that each pupil at all ages has more time to develop and follow his special interests.
6. Systematically tries to interest each pupil and teacher to learn more than he thinks he wants to learn. The technique is through motivational presentations and discussions.
7. Practices accountability for pupils and teachers, realizing that such procedures show that the school cares as opposed to permissiveness or vagueness that indicates that it does not worry about what happens to individuals.
8. Provides a variety of places in the school and in the community where pupils may study and work with supervision so that each pupil may find learning strategies that suit him best instead of being required to learn in one classroom from one teacher.
9. Has continuous progress arrangements so that each pupil may proceed at his own pace under competent supervision with a variety of self-directing, self-motivating, and self-evaluating materials and locations.
10. Evaluates pupil progress and teacher performance on the basis of the individual's own past record rather than on a comparison with others in the same group, while at the same time provides data that will help each person know what others are accomplishing.
11. Substitutes constructive reports of achievements for the threat of failure as the prime motivational device of the school. The school records the special projects that each pupil completes, no matter how small, that go beyond what the school requires of everyone.
12. Recognizes that the principal more than any one other person creates a humane environment in the school; and, therefore, frees him from routine managerial tasks to permit him to get out of the office to work with pupils and teachers to develop more humane programs and procedures for everyone (pp. 9-11).

Macdonald (1970) suggested a broader scale for establishing a more humane public school when, in commenting on a description of life's moods by William James as either being strenuous or easygoing, he wrote:

Thus, the strenuous mood is a mood of freedom and involvement. In school settings the strenuous mood means taking things seriously, making free choices, and assuming the responsibility for these choices. It means trying to find the greatest meaning out of our living in schools, to be a vital and energetic person in our activity (p. 13).

Whatever sources the prospective innovator uses, there must result a dedication and commitment to humanizing the public schools. Macdonald and Trump are good places to start.

The prospective innovator should also review McGrath (1970) in particular, among many others, for an excellent treatise on the question "Should students share the power?" He summarized his case succinctly as follows:

This presentation advances the case for student participation on the basic principle that undergirds any free social order; that citizens generally ought to have a vote in, and are capable of, determining the character of the social institutions which in turn determine the character and quality of their own lives. A large percentage of students today believe that they do not have such a voice. At the same time they consider theoretically invalid and pragmatically unsound some of the prevailing academic policies and practices. Thoughtful observers of the present breakdown in the traditional conditions in academic life differ in their ideas concerning what reforms are needed and how they are to be accomplished. But they exhibit a considerable consensus that students must play an influential role in the revisions of these policies and practices. Hence the circumstances of life in institutions of higher education reveal that the issue whether students should be involved in governance is now academic. The question is not whether students should participate, but how, to what extent, and through what innovations in organization and procedure this involvement can be most expeditiously and effectively achieved (p. 71).

However arrived at, the two basic premises for the prospective innovator to have firmly implanted in his mind are the humanization and democratization of the public secondary school where the change will occur. These have been arrived at by the innovator more or less independently to this point. Although others may have been directly or indirectly involved, the innovator's convictions about humanizing and democratizing the school must be uniquely his own. They must be as natural to him as any of the basic beliefs that govern his behavior generally, or the leadership that he must provide can not retain the necessary spontaneity and honesty to transmit his convictions to others. For change will result only when convictions are mutually shared. When this point has been reached, the innovator can embark upon the fulfillment of his convictions at least having achieved insight into two of the three dimensions of decision-making (risk-taking)--knowing oneself and knowing the organization--as described by Brubaker and Nelson (1972, p. 74). The third dimension of knowing how to bring about change is forthcoming in the events schedule and systematic flowchart of establishing a model of shared governance in the public secondary school.

Both the events schedule (calendar of events) and the systematic flowchart have been established according to the six stages of consciousness raising adopted from Freire (1972). The two constructs have thus been devised as parallel outlines. Each is complementary and supplementary to the other. They should make clearer what only one can show. Both are suggestive and not limiting. The presentation

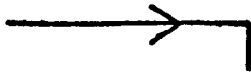
will offer the calendar of events one stage at a time. Each stage will be followed immediately by its corresponding stage as depicted in the schematic flowchart. Appropriate exposition will be provided as necessary and helpful to a clearer understanding of the procedure. It should also be noted that both the calendar of events and the flowchart have been presented in separated segments only for the purpose of this presentation. Normally they would continue without interruption.

Before presenting these two parallel systems, it will be helpful to have a clear understanding of the symbols and the rationale used in constructing the flowchart. The symbols and rationale have been based on an article by Yee, Shores, and Skuldt (1970) in which they described the systems approach applied to education. Their methodology included an appropriate taxonomy for dividing and subdividing the system into sets which has not been employed here. However, flowchart symbols and their use have provided for the components of the presentation below. Figure 12 is a reproduction of the explanation of the flowchart symbols and their use taken from Yee, Shores, and Skuldt (1970, p. 76).

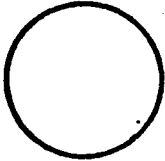
These symbols have been used throughout the flowchart presentation of this chapter. There has been no attempt to subdivide the system into sets. However, the symbols and the system used should complement and supplement the calendar of events.

The total system covered by the flowchart and the calendar of events is that comprised of the six stages of consciousness raising

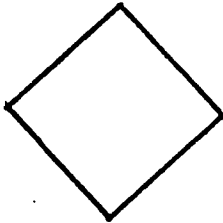
FLOWCHART SYMBOLS AND THEIR USES



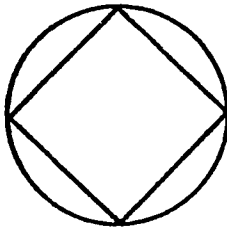
Channel A path indicated by a flowline arrow through which communication flows within the system is a channel.



Entry and Exit Points Entry and exit points are points at which individuals may enter or leave components, elements, modules, etc.



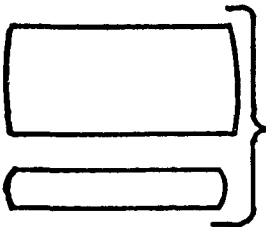
Forced Decision Point A point where the individual is forced by the system to enter one of several alternative channels is a forced decision point.



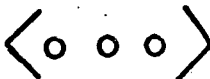
Free Decision Point A point allowing the individual to make his own choice of which channel he will enter is known as a free decision point.



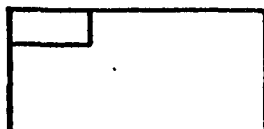
Simple Procedure The simple procedure symbol indicates a set of objectives-operations containing no decision nor entry and exit points.



Complex Procedure The complex procedure symbols indicate sets of objectives-operations which could be expanded into another detailed flowchart involving entry and exit points, decision points, and simple and complex procedures.



Replication This symbol shows replication of identical structures.



Annotation This symbol is used for the addition of descriptive comments or explanatory notes.

Fig. 12. Symbols used in flowchart constructing a model of shared governance.

as applied to the implementation of a model of shared governance in a public secondary school. The period of time for both the systematic flowchart and the calendar of events is a two-year period beginning in July of one year and ending at the end of June two years thereafter. This period represents the optional time span based on the experience of Staples High School. Anything less than two years forces the development at an unnatural rate and may cause the system to abort. Anything longer than that will cause the system to stretch out too long, and the enthusiasm and interest of the supporters may wane and the system atrophy and disappear. What has been presented in the calendar of events and the systematic flowchart below represents the best estimate of successful implementation the experience at Staples High School can offer.

Calendar of Events: Thematic Stage

The thematic stage, as used in the implementation of this model, refers to the beginning period during which the the leader (prospective innovator or change-agent) clarifies his own values with respect to the concept of shared governance in a public secondary school. In each segment of the flowchart there will be three headings. Under event each element, step, or activity will be briefly noted. Under responsibility is listed the person who has the primary responsibility for seeing that the activity is completed. The target date indicates the absolute deadline for completion of the event.

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
1. Identify goal of shared governance.	Principal	June 30
2. Seek concurrence of superintendent of schools.	Principal	June 30
3. Seek concurrence of board of education.	Superintendent	June 30
4. Innovator seeks value clarification for himself.	Principal	August 31
a. Self-analysis and self-assessment of attitudes, beliefs, and values are carried out by innovator.		
b. Consults sources in the literature. Participates in encounter groups, group dynamics, sensitivity training; attends professional conferences; takes courses, and visits experimental programs.		
5. Innovator introduces goal of shared governance to high school administrators.	Principal/ Superintendent	November 30
a. Leadership training; workshops and seminars are conducted by the principal; special training is offered by consultants.		
b. Administrators are directed to sources in literature, participation in encounter groups, group dynamics, sensitivity training, professional conferences and courses, and experimental programs.		
6. Identification of themes.	Principal	January 25
a. Administrators meet to review progress and plan future course of action--consciousness raising.		
b. Principal leads selection of themes.		
c. Themes identified are		
(1) humanization of environment of high school		
(2) democratization of administration of high school.		
d. Principal informs the superintendent.		
e. Superintendent informs the board of education.		

Stage I has been outlined briefly in the first segment of the events schedule above. A great deal of effort and hard work is implied in this first step. It represents the most crucial phase in the complete project. If the leadership is not clearly committed to the goal of shared governance, there is no hope for the project beyond this stage. As he will be throughout the project, the principal is the key person in the process. While he must constantly keep the superintendent informed, he must carry out the leadership roles delineated to involve his team of administrators at the high school. His effort, energy, hard work, enthusiasm, and example will do more to further the project than anything else that is planned.

The superintendent of schools during the thematic stage must assume responsibility for communicating to the board of education what is happening and what is planned. If a higher authority must be notified (e.g. state department of education), the superintendent must act as the agent of the local board of education. Neither the calendar of events for the thematic stage nor the flowchart of this stage depicted in Figure 13 has shown any involvement with students or the public to this point. The board of education might well choose to make the goal public at this point. It would be unfortunate to do so until the process has been completely planned and is well on its way to completion. During the thematic stage the principal and the superintendent must really prepare for a careful assessment of the board of education, the community, the staff, and the students. They must gauge as accurately as humanly possible the conditions

STAGE I: FIRST YEAR

GOALS

IMPLEMENT A MODEL OF SHARED GOVERNANCE AT THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL IN TOWN, STATE

SEEK CONCURRENCE OF SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS WHO INFORMS BOARD OF ED. NOTE: THIS PROGRAM COVERS 2 YEARS FROM JULY 1ST OF THE FIRST YEAR TO JUNE 30TH OF THE SECOND YEAR.

events 1,2,3

JULY 1 - AUGUST 31

SEPTEMBER 1 - NOVEMBER 30

DECEMBER 31 - JANUARY 31

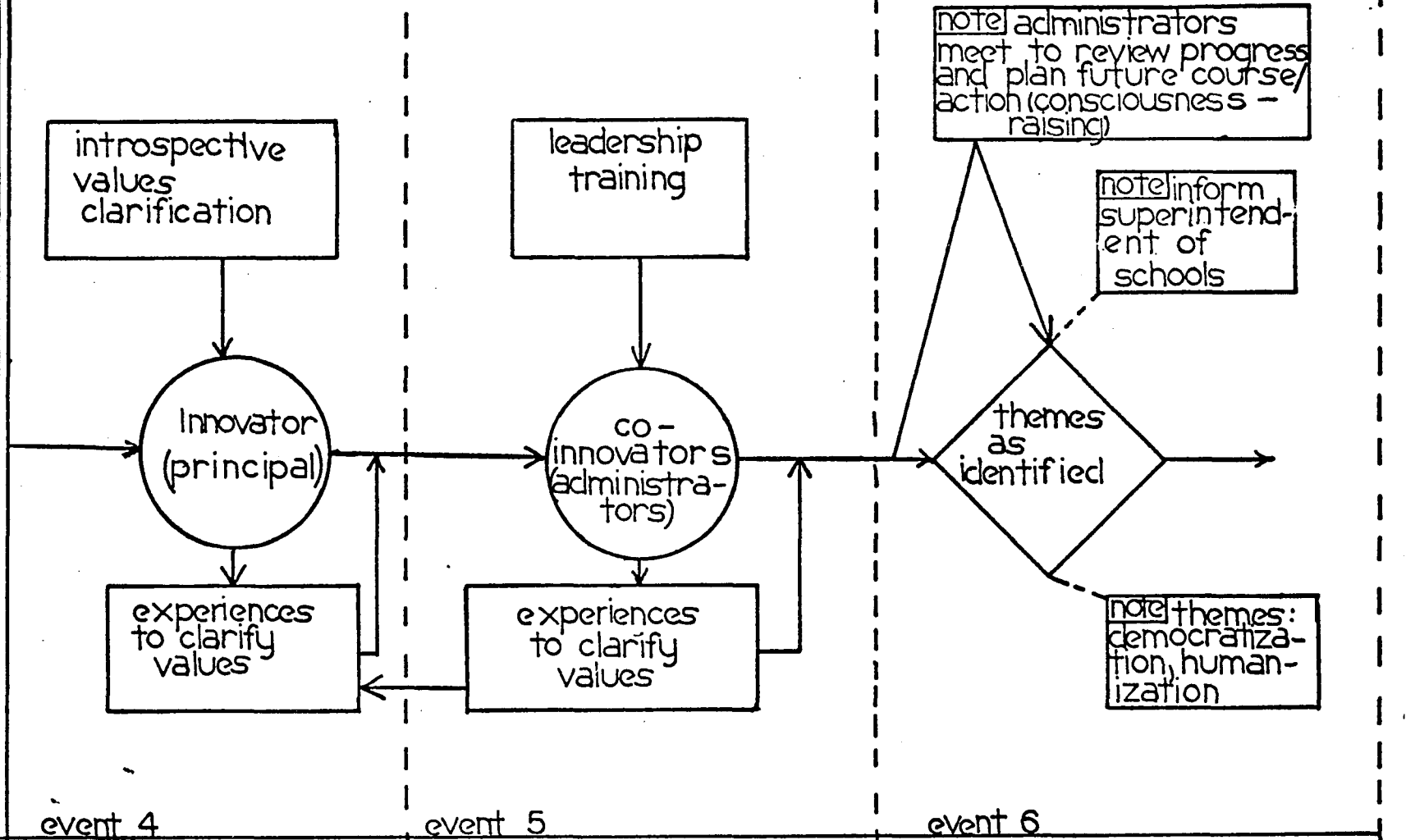


Fig.13. The thematic stage in developing shared governance (see figure 12, p251, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

favorable to change that can be capitalized on. They must make accurate guesses about the best possible strategy to use in involving staff, students, parents, and the public. Actually the board of education is the responsibility of the superintendent. He will have to make judgments about communicating with and involving them. These decisions by the principal and the superintendent are crucial at this stage.

It might be wise even at this early date to have identified and involved some of the key informal leaders in the school system to sound them out for advice about how to proceed with process and with people. If this is carefully done, these people can not only help clear the way at this early and critical stage, but they may prove invaluable in sustaining the project at friction points later.

These added suggestions are offered to help account for variations in local communities. Since every school district will be different, it is the central process or procedure that is essential. However, one bit of advice will be helpful, regardless of the local conditions. The principal should keep an accurate log of everything that transpires. The log should always be related to the flowchart and calendar of events that had been planned. In addition, copies of every scrap of information should be filed. This information may prove invaluable at a later date. An added word of caution concerns the difficulty in keeping track of events and materials when a new process is initiated. It is amazing how difficult it is to do routine record keeping when time is rapidly going by.

Experimentation or doing something new, especially if it is exciting, seemingly accelerates time to the point where routine operations, such as filing materials and noting events, get sidetracked.

Figure 13 provides a flowchart of the significant events outlined in the calendar of events through the completion of the thematic stage. The flowchart could contain a great deal more information in each time block delineated by the vertical dotted lines. However, the intention is to provide a visual guide that complements and supplements the calendar of events. This manner of visual presentation provides a ready reference for checking progress and placing all the elements in perspective with respect to time and the responsibility for the decision-making process. The key decision-making points are readily apparent in such a design, and corrective action can be quickly anticipated and planned as necessary.

On the flowchart of Figure 13 the events (1, 2, 3) are preliminary to entry into the system. The event (4) and the event (5) represent the entry into the system by the principal and his administrative team, respectively. The event (6) represents a forced choice situation. The identification of themes may not meet with the agreement of all administrators. Since these themes involve values, beliefs, and attitudes, administrators who can't subscribe to them may opt out. The process becomes clearer in the next stage.

With the completion of the thematic stage, the leadership for innovating and decision-making has reached the point of involving the total school community. At this juncture the decision must be

made whether or not to involve parents and the general public. If the decision is to involve them, then an element should be included in every stage for them in both the flowchart and the calendar of events. The parents and general public are not listed here because they were not involved in the process of establishing the SGB model at Staples High School. At the time the parents and general public did not wish to become directly involved. They believed that they had a fair share in the governance of the public schools at the level of the board of education, and it was not necessary for them to be involved at the high school level. In subsequent years when the parents and the general public were offered the opportunity again to become involved, they still refused. Obviously, the local innovator will have to make his own decision for his community. It would be relatively easy to insert the appropriate elements for the parents and general public in both the flowchart and the calendar of events.

Calendar of Events: Humanization Stage

The humanization stage represents the point at which the principal and the administrators who have not opted out of the program must begin to verbalize the agreed upon themes to the school community. This is not a very complicated stage, but it does involve careful strategy since this represents the beginning of involvement in the process of change for the students and faculty. This is the stage that must begin to prepare the way for the democratization of the

school. At Staples High School it would not have been possible to effect the change to shared governance without this preparation or transitional stage. (The events below and thereafter are numbered consecutively from the first event in the first stage.)

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
7. Demonstration of themes	Principal	February 28
a. The principal effects environmental and procedural changes in the school, such as eliminating bells, minimizing rules and regulations, and eliminating detention as punishment.		
b. Some administration opt out of the program.		
8. Priorities established for direction of themes.	Principal/ Administration	March 31
a. Principal suggests priorities that include the preservation of the mental and physical health of students, individual freedom, collaborative learning, values clarification and selection, and assuming responsibility for self and others.		
b. It is necessary to make these priorities the filtering process through which all decisions must pass.		
c. Principal provides humanizing experiences for both faculty and students.		
9. Verbalization of themes to the school community.		
a. There is a continuous reiteration of themes and priorities to students and staff by the principal.		
b. Also, there is a continuous reiteration of themes and priorities to students and staff by the administrators.		

Stage II has been outlined in the calendar of events to represent a period of time during which the principal and other administrators have decided what should be communicated to the school community. It covers a relatively long period of time, but based on the experience at Staples High School again, this time is essential because the process in this stage will find disagreement among the administrators. They will see their authority threatened by the concept of shared governance. They will be vaguely aware that their powers may be under a cloud, and they may begin to suspect a completely new administrative structure that will present them with a whole new administrative role to adapt to. Of course, their fears are well founded. They will be unsettled. This period is a time when the principal must exercise all his skills of persuasion to convince the administrators that the proposed goal of shared governance is a unique opportunity to provide outstanding leadership in public education.

It may be possible to appeal to pride. Sometimes it helps to point out to them that what has been proposed is the challenge of a new learning experience. As teachers they are not reluctant to ask students to take the risk of learning something new every single day. Why should they not be willing to take similar risks? Now is the time to put to good use the informal leaders of the school. If they will surface as leaders, encourage and help them to do so. They can carry the battle for the innovator in tight spots.

One of the most significant aspects of this segment of the flow-chart is the notation that humanizing experiences are provided for

both faculty and students. It is a fact of strategy based on the experience at Staples High School that faculty can be placed in a position where they will accept significant changes in their role relationships with students who are gaining much more freedom if at the same time the teachers are given more freedom to act as professionals. If it is possible to relieve teachers of onerous responsibilities by reducing the restrictions on students, the teachers may have misgivings, but they will accept that arrangement because the changes benefit them directly as well.

Figure 14 continues the flowchart through the next three events outlined and described briefly in the calendar of events. This part of the flowchart makes very clear the difficulties that may be experienced among the administrative leadership. The event (7) and the event (9) represent free decision points which can be troublesome. As this system approaches democratization, there will be practically all free decision points.

At the point of the event (7), which is a free decision point, administrators may opt out of the program. Also, at the event (8) administrators may again opt out, but this choice is not likely having survived the decision-making step of establishing priorities for the direction of the themes. As commitments based on shared decision-making grow, it becomes less easy to opt out of the program.

Unfortunately, it has not been possible to visually depict the interactions among the administrators or the actions taken to demonstrate the humanization of the school operation and environment. These are two key elements in furthering the progress of this system.

STAGE 2: FIRST YEAR

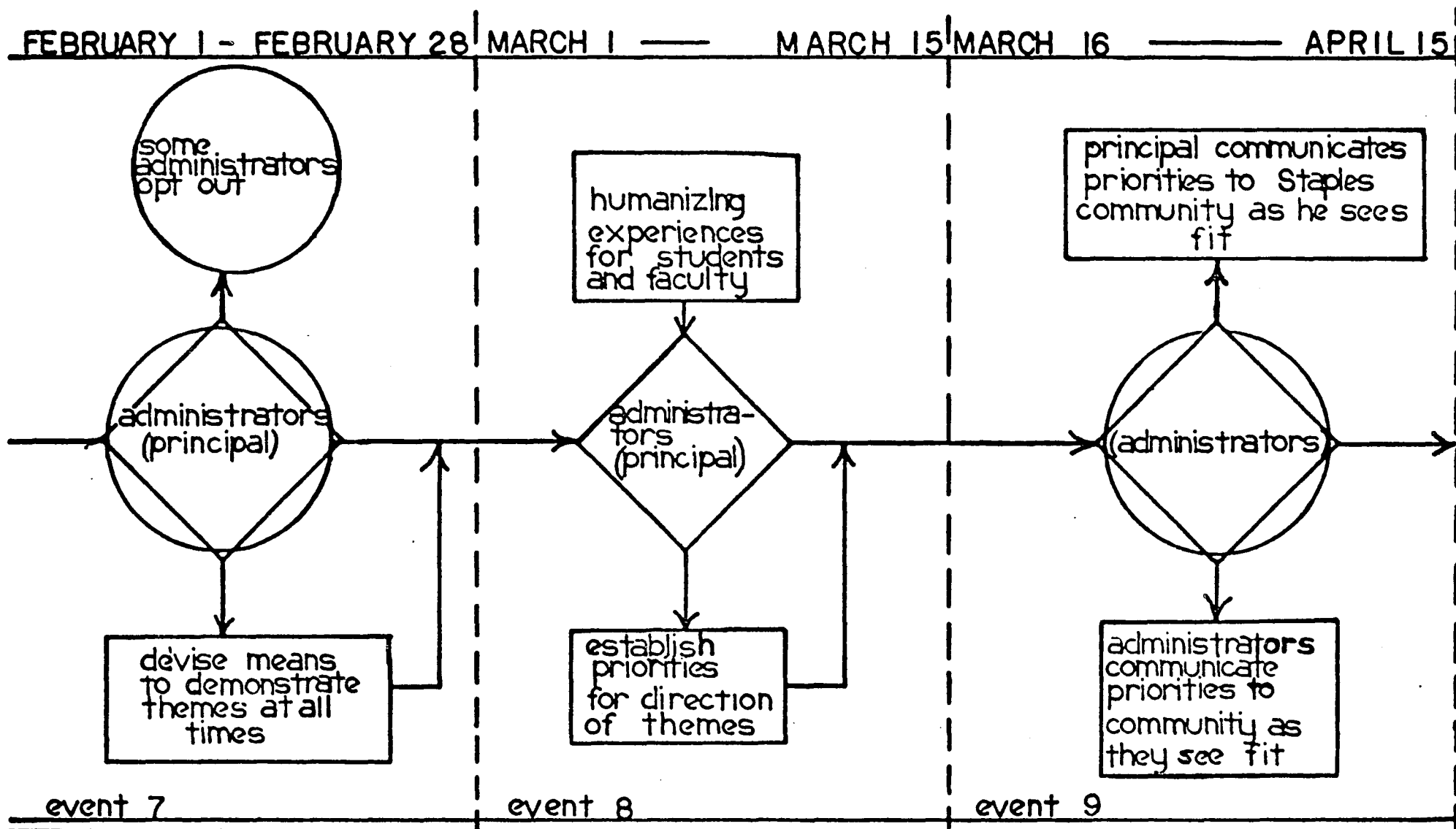


Fig.14. The humanization stage in developing shared governance (See figure 12, p.251, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

Calendar of Events: Preliminary Modification Stage

The preliminary modification stage is the setting for the most significant happening since the conception of the idea for seeking shared governance in the public secondary school that set this process in motion. The students and faculty have been provided an entry point at the event (10) in Figure 15.

Here is another extremely strategic place in the whole sequence of events. At Staples High School the principal did not elect to go directly to the faculty at large or to the whole student body because of the extremely fluid and volatile circumstances that existed at the time (the late 1960's). Instead the principal identified a specially selected group of students and faculty to become involved directly in the conflict resolution part of this stage. The students and faculty selected represented a wide range of social, economic, and political orientation in both groups. They presented a tremendous challenge for effecting change, but this approach worked at the time.

The problems of such an approach underscore the necessity for the principal to be thoroughly informed about all the aspects of effecting and affecting change. He must have information readily available, and he must be able to make decisions rapidly and decisively. It is during this stage that the skillful principal will be able to encourage the evolution of the concept of shared governance. With skill and luck shared governance should evolve among the emerging concepts that follow the resolution of conflict stage.

Key to the achievement of success in this stage is the dialogic opportunities that are provided for faculty, students, and administrators. Whether a selective approach, small group approach, large group approach, or total school community approach is used alone or in various combinations, the opportunities for dialogue must be provided.

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
10. Entry of students and faculty. a. Students enter from the general student population and from the existing student government. b. Faculty enter from the general faculty population and from the faculty organizations.	Principal	April 30
11. Conflict and interaction. a. Principal must make use of carefully planned strategies to see this through; dialogue must be maintained at all costs. b. Student conflicts resolved. c. Administrative conflicts resolved.	Principal	May 30
12. Emerging concepts. a. Principal must make effective use of strategies for effecting change. b. Shared governance concept should be selected out and nurtured.	Principal	June 20 (End of first year)

The preliminary modification stage should give birth to the concept of shared governance as a naturally emerging concept from the

conflict resolutions involving students and faculty. This is the way that it happened at Staples High School, except that a relatively small group of 50 people were involved.

Figure 15 illustrates the events of the preliminary modification stage very effectively. After the unrestricted entry of students and faculty into the system in the event (10), administrators, faculty, and students collide in an interaction and conflict situation that clearly demonstrates their historically adversary relationships. If the time in which conflict occurs also happens to be an emotional and volatile period, a potentially dangerous situation may arise. Here again the principal must be the judge and decide what should be done and how it should be done.

The event (11) depicts a complex procedure. It is quite possible that new objectives might be established at this point and groups break off to seek alternative objectives. Such an occurrence took place during the height of student unrest a short time ago when students broke away from the parent university to form their own programs and their own schools. Similar developments took place in some public high schools.

From the resolution of student and administrative conflicts it is quite likely, based on the years of domination by faculty and administration, that the students will want to establish some form of shared governance. They will be joined by a minority of teachers. The principal will need to nourish this idea carefully because most administrators and faculty members will not want to relinquish their

STAGE 3: FIRST YEAR

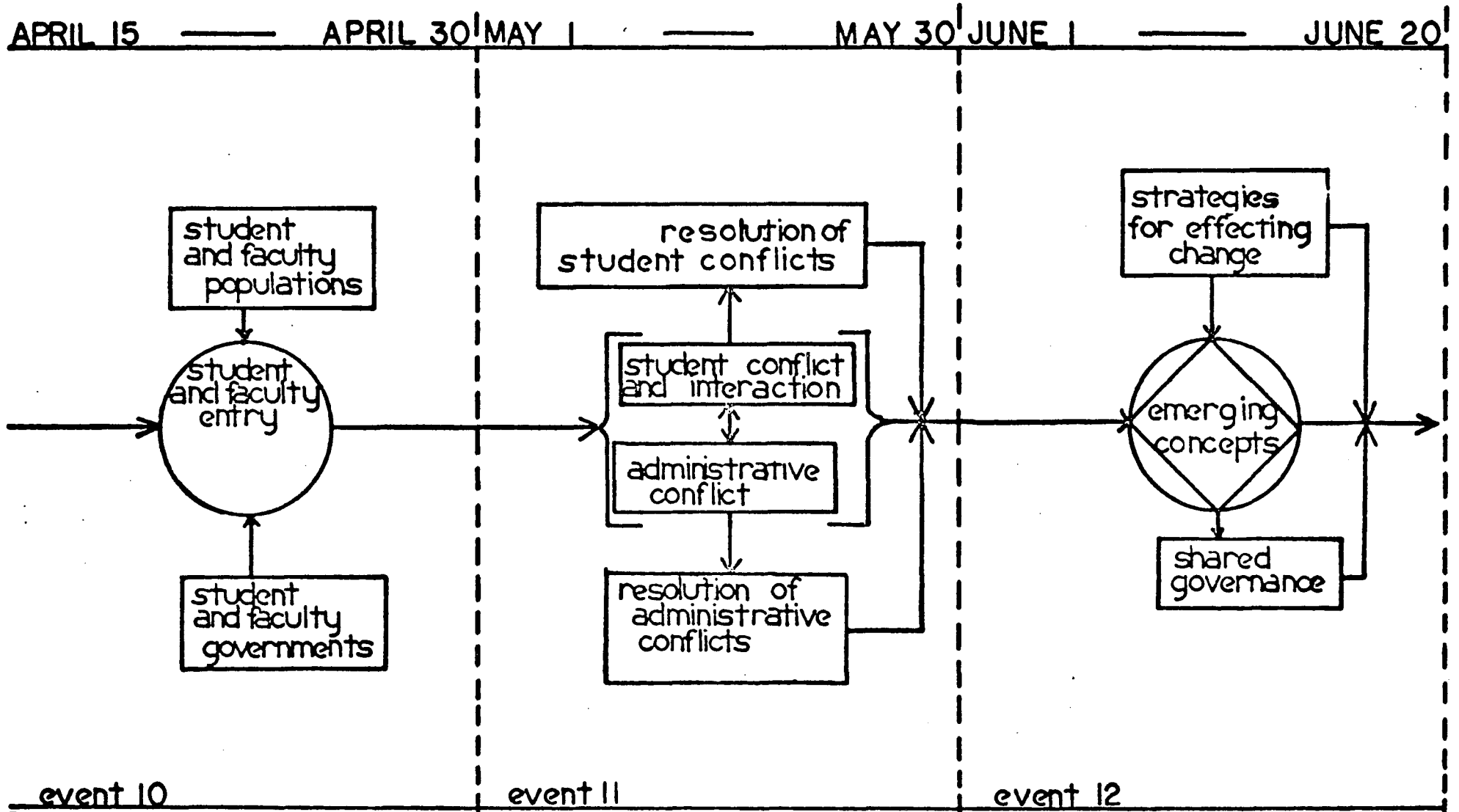


Fig.15. Preliminary modification stage in developing shared governance (see figure 12, p.251, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

power to any appreciable degree. With the emergence of shared governance, it is possible for the principal to put into high gear strategies for effecting change that he holds in reserve.

Calendar of Events: Modification Stage

The modification stage provides for the finalization and adoption of the model of shared governance. Some kind of "future directions committee" needs to be created to work out the details of a set of policies or bylaws for the model. This document will need to be ratified by the constituencies that it will serve. The principal should not be a member of that committee. This committee affords an excellent opportunity to demonstrate faith, trust, and confidence in the students and faculty of the school. The committee, whatever it is called, should be empowered to establish an election subcommittee to conduct the referenda for ratification at the high school level. The committee should also make the presentation to the board of education for its adoption.

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
13. Development of bylaws or policies for a model of shared governance.	Future Directions Committee	October 31 (Begin second year)
a. A "future directions committee" will develop a set of bylaws or policies for a model of shared governance.		
b. The principal and other administrators will serve a monitoring and facilitating role.		

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
c. The traditional adversary relations among students, faculty, and administration are faced and a resolution attempted.		
14. Ratification of the proposed document at the school level.	Future Directions Committee	November 15
a. A "future directions committee" will conduct the ratification process at the high school; a referendum committee will be established; constituencies will vote independently.		
b. The results will be forwarded to the principal, who will publish them and share this information with the superintendent and the general public.		
15. The Bylaws become part of the Policies of the school system.	Board of Education	December 15
a. The "future directions committee" presents the proposed bylaws to the Board of Education in public.		
b. The Board of Education holds public hearings on the proposal; it listens to special interest groups; it consults with legal authority and state department of education consultants and authorities as appropriate.		
c. The Board of Education votes on whether or not the proposed bylaws should be adopted as officially part of the Policies of the school system.		

Of utmost significance is the kind of action that the board of education takes during the modification stage. It is imperative to the future of the concept of shared governance and the model for implementing this concept that the board of education vote on adoption into school system policy. Unless the bylaws of the model of shared governance become part of the official policies of the school system, they will soon atrophy and die. The effect will be immediate. The first real test of the strength of the new model of shared governance will depend on the basis for its existence--its source of authority and power. Without the clear and recognized basis of the official policy of the school system the model of shared governance loses its raison d'etre.

In Figure 16 the significance of the board of education action has been clearly shown in the forced decision point of the flowchart at the event (15). The very existence of the new model of shared governance will depend upon this action. The action by the board of education must be clear and decisive. No compromises will do. The inclusion of the bylaws of the new model in the official policies that govern the school system is the sine qua non of the concept of shared governance in the public secondary school.

At event (13) the "future directions committee" develops the bylaws or policies for the proposed form of shared governance. These bylaws should be formalized into a written document that will become the object of referenda by the respective constituencies voting independently.

STAGE 4: SECOND YEAR

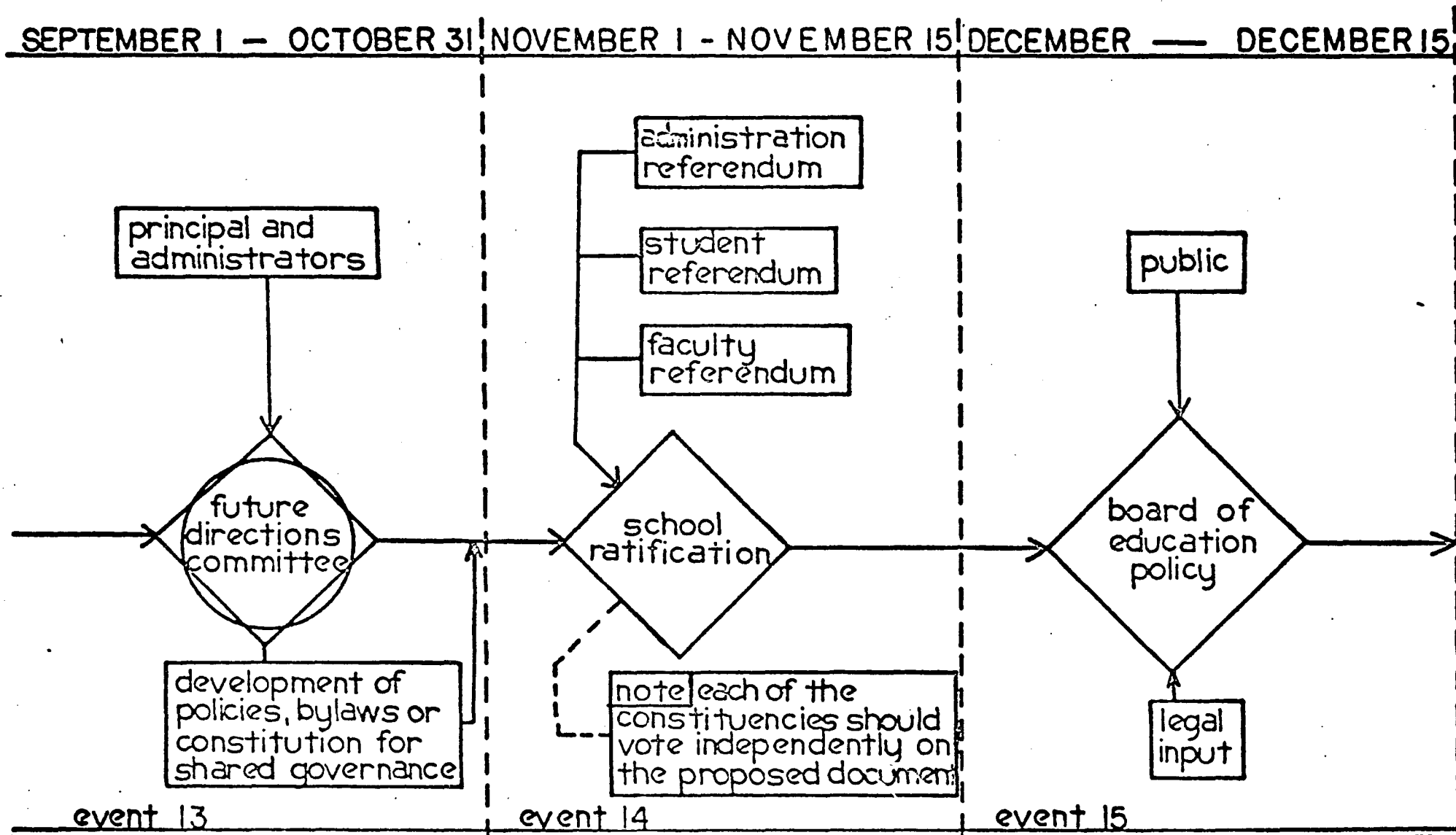


Fig.16. Modification stage in developing shared governance (see figure 12, p.251, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

Upon completion of ratification in the event (14), the "future directions committee" should present the document to the board of education for consideration and adoption. The board of education should be given all the materials related to the development of the document, including petitions and statements pro and con.

The administration should permit the "future directions committee" to provide the leadership before the board of education. It is crucial that the students and faculty witness the public display of administrative confidence, faith, and trust in the committee. Of equal importance is the necessity for the board of education and the public to witness the responsible behavior of students and faculty without administrative interference.

The principal should facilitate and monitor during this stage, but in either case his influence should be positive and designed to assist the committee achieve its goal. Logistic support, communications, and publicity can be more easily provided by the administration than the committee. These activities are of great importance at the time of the referenda and the public hearings before the board of education. Faculty and students should be exhorted to participate in what amounts to sharing in their self-determination.

When the Staples Governing Board was the subject of public hearings by the board of education, more than half the students and faculty came to the evening meetings and stayed to the small hours of the morning. It is possible to muster a tremendous amount of enthusiasm, interest, and support.

In each instance participation should be encouraged but not directed. The freedom to choose individually should be emphasized. The principal should work morning, noon, and night meeting with individuals and groups to take to them the message and the promise of shared governance. He must spend time being with students, and he must be readily accessible to them. At Staples High School the students can come into the principal's office anytime, regardless of who is there. He is always available to the students and receptive to their concerns and interests wherever and whenever possible. While this much accessibility may not seem desirable to some, it was part of the demonstrated faith, trust, confidence, and love for students that helped create a humane environment at that school. These activities represent the responsibility role of a principal who is committed to the concepts of humanization and shared governance. His perception of self must be the same as the perception of him held by the school community. The actions of the principal provide the foundation for mutual faith, trust, and confidence.

Calendar of Events: Mediatlional Stage

The mediational stage is the stage where the development of politically oriented constituencies is recommended. Politically oriented constituencies are presumed to be divided into political groups which have for their purpose to influence the governance of the school as well as to provide operational units under the government. The justification for involving young people, faculty, and

administration in politics is twofold: First, they are already involved, whether they like it or not; public education is a political entity and must compete with other political agencies for limited resources. Second, the government of this democracy is dependent upon a sound and honest system of political action. At no time in the history of this country has education been needed more than in this area of political action.

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
16. The shared governance model is completely operational. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Constituencies will elect their representatives, and the representatives will elect their officers. b. The model of shared governance will decide upon operational procedures. The committee method offers an excellent method to follow. c. The principal and other administrators will serve a monitoring function. d. The model for shared governance has become a vehicle for change in the school. 	Members of the shared governance model.	February 28
17. Initial conflict and interaction between the principal and the model of shared governance. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Functional dilemmas inevitably will arise as new role relations are developed and practiced. Early identification and conflict resolution inherent in these dilemmas need to be faced. 	Principal/ Chairman of the Model	April 30

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b. Collaborative learning experiences involving all the constituencies provide the best source for resolutions of conflicts and solutions to the functional dilemmas. c. Principal and chairman of the model of shared governance must work closely to provide for the necessary collaborative learning experiences. 		(Continuous)
18. Resolution of conflicts.	Principal/Chairman of the Model	May 15
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The principal and the chairman of the model of shared governance will need to provide leadership for the selection of specific collaborative learning experiences to provide direction for the new school governance. b. The model represented here offers the development of political units for determining the basis and procedure for electing candidates and influencing the school governance. 		

The mediational stage of Figure 17 clearly depicts the points of conflict resolutions and functional dilemmas. For all practical purposes, except where conflict and functional dilemmas may arise, all points in the flowchart from here on are free decision points. This characteristic must be true if the concept of shared governance is to have credence. The administration, again except in the conflict points, will remain apart from the daily operation of the new school

STAGE 5: SECOND YEAR

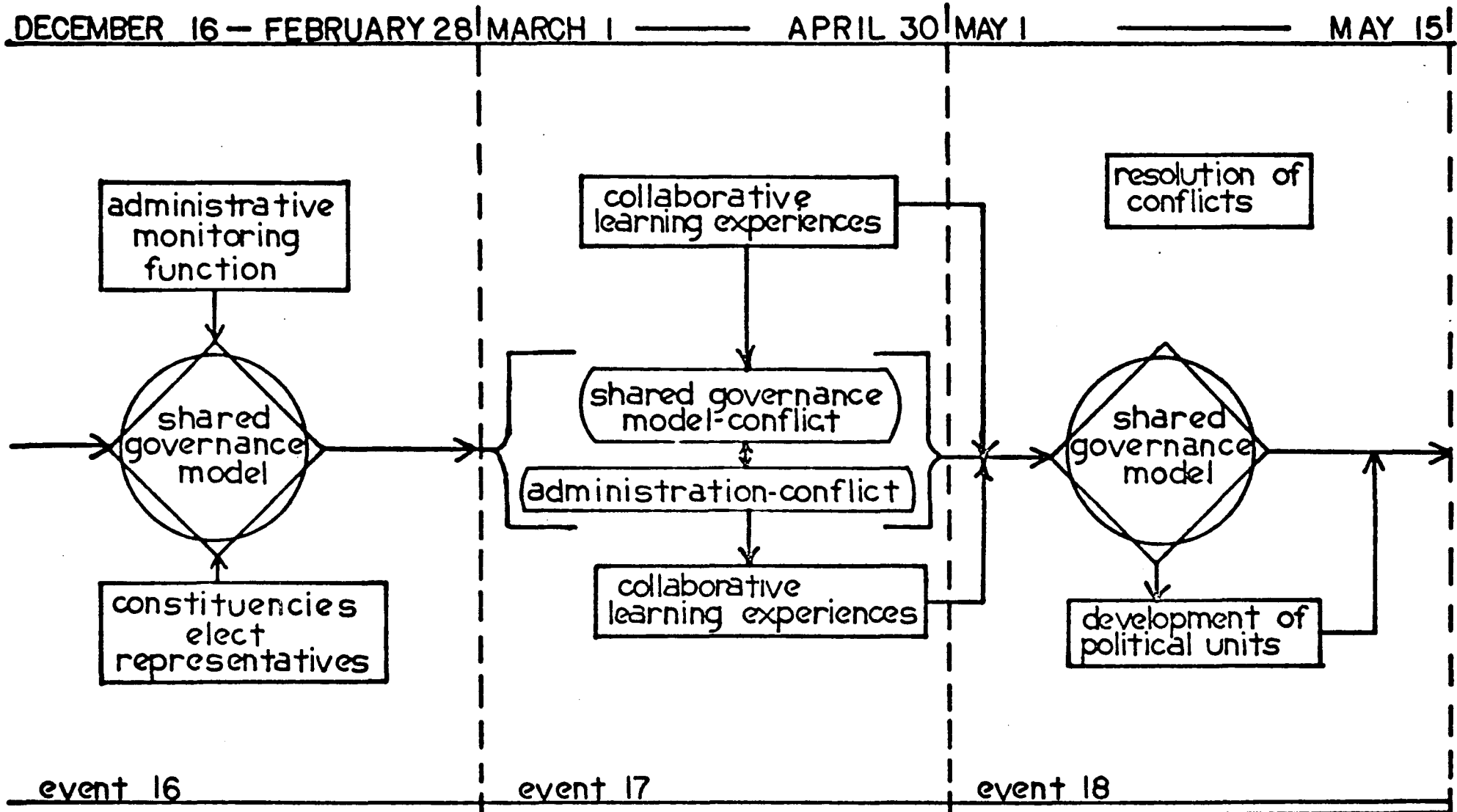


Fig.17. Mediatlional stage in developing shared governance (see figure 12,p.25, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

governance. (Any policies for a concept of shared governance in a public secondary school should keep the principal away from the daily operations of the government except as a separate executive branch.)

Of greatest significance in this segment of the development of the flowchart are the roles of the principal and the chairman of the school government in selecting and providing collaborative learning experiences for the administration and the new school government. Only by sharing the reasons behind the conflicts and the functional dilemmas can the administration and the representatives of the school government develop the awareness and understanding essential to the resolution of the conflicts and dilemmas. It may be necessary to live with certain functional dilemmas until new patterns of administration can be instituted or basic changes in the allocation of power and the designation of authority be made. For example, the principal can not share any more power than he has delegated to him by the board of education. Conflict between the principal and the school government may arise from the functional dilemma posed by the structure of the organization. This situation is not unusual when a subsystem of an existing and longstanding organization is modified. These sources of friction and conflict offer at once the greatest threat and the greatest challenge to the continuance of the new school government.

The events (16 and 17) indicate the points of conflict and resolution of conflict quite clearly. In the presentation of this segment of the flowchart, the development of political units as a

basis for providing representation to the school government has been offered as a possible resolution to the conflict. This outcome was to be the direction offered to the SGB at Staples High School as a conflict resolution in a similar situation.

These conflicts represent what Argyris (1957, 1961, 1960) described as the inevitable contradiction between the self-actualization of the organization and the self-actualization of the individual. The greatest challenge to any form of shared governance is the resolution of that basic conflict. If the shared governance initiated in the public school can make progress in that direction by remaining a vehicle for change accessible to all the constituencies, its life expectancy is unlimited.

Calendar of Events: Fusion Stage

The fusion stage approaches the confusion stage because all the dynamic forces of an evolving concept of shared governance are at work. It has been described earlier as similar to a chain reaction or fission in its potential for setting loose behavior force and energy. This forceful and energetic behavior, combined with the equally strong force of ideas, beliefs, values, and attitudes, suggests the real potential of shared governance. These forces are frightening, but they are reassuring. They demand constant and strong leadership. Never will the individual enjoy greater freedom to become self-actualized.

The system has reached its goal of replication. It has provided for the complete cycle of experience with values in a relatively free environment, and now the values can be retained, modified, or discarded. The system of governance will not only permit but also encourage assessment, renewal, retention, or elimination of values. The system itself may be changed under this process. The model system is said to be in balance. A kind of institutional homeostasis has been achieved. At this point the further development or modification of existing values affords a state of balance or fusion between the goals of the individual and the goals of the organization.

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
19. Conflict resolution to achieve acceptance of functional dilemmas.	Principal/Chairman of School Government	May 31
a. A series of conflict points must be anticipated between administration and the school government.		
b. Continued resolution must be sought through collaborative learning experiences directed by the principal and the chairman of the school government.		
c. A band of acceptable behavior will evolve within which roles will be played.		
d. Functional dilemmas will be resolved collaboratively, or they will be accepted as "givens" in the working relationship between the administration and the school government.		

<u>Event</u>	<u>Responsibility</u>	<u>Target Date</u>
20. The point of replication. a. At this point the system is in balance. The goals of the organization are compatible, or nearly so, with the goals of the individual. b. The system, in a sense, can replicate itself or be replicated by another system. c. Values have been renewed or reestablished at the nucleus of the whole system.	All the members of the school community.	June 30
21. Reentry point. a. The system is completely open, and it can be renewed indefinitely or it can be changed by initiating the process all over again. b. The reentry point may also be a new entry into a new system.	Anyone	Anytime

The fusion stage represents the goal of every institution. This stage represents the optimal conditions of growth and development for both the individual and the organization. In a very real sense, the test of the durability of any concept or model of governance rests in whether it can effectively and efficiently renew itself. The model described here at least offers that possibility.

Figure 18 brings the system to the point of replication. It does not show the actual number of possible conflict points that might develop in the growth of a new model of school government. However, it does show in the event (19) and the event (20) that there eventually

STAGE 6: SECOND YEAR

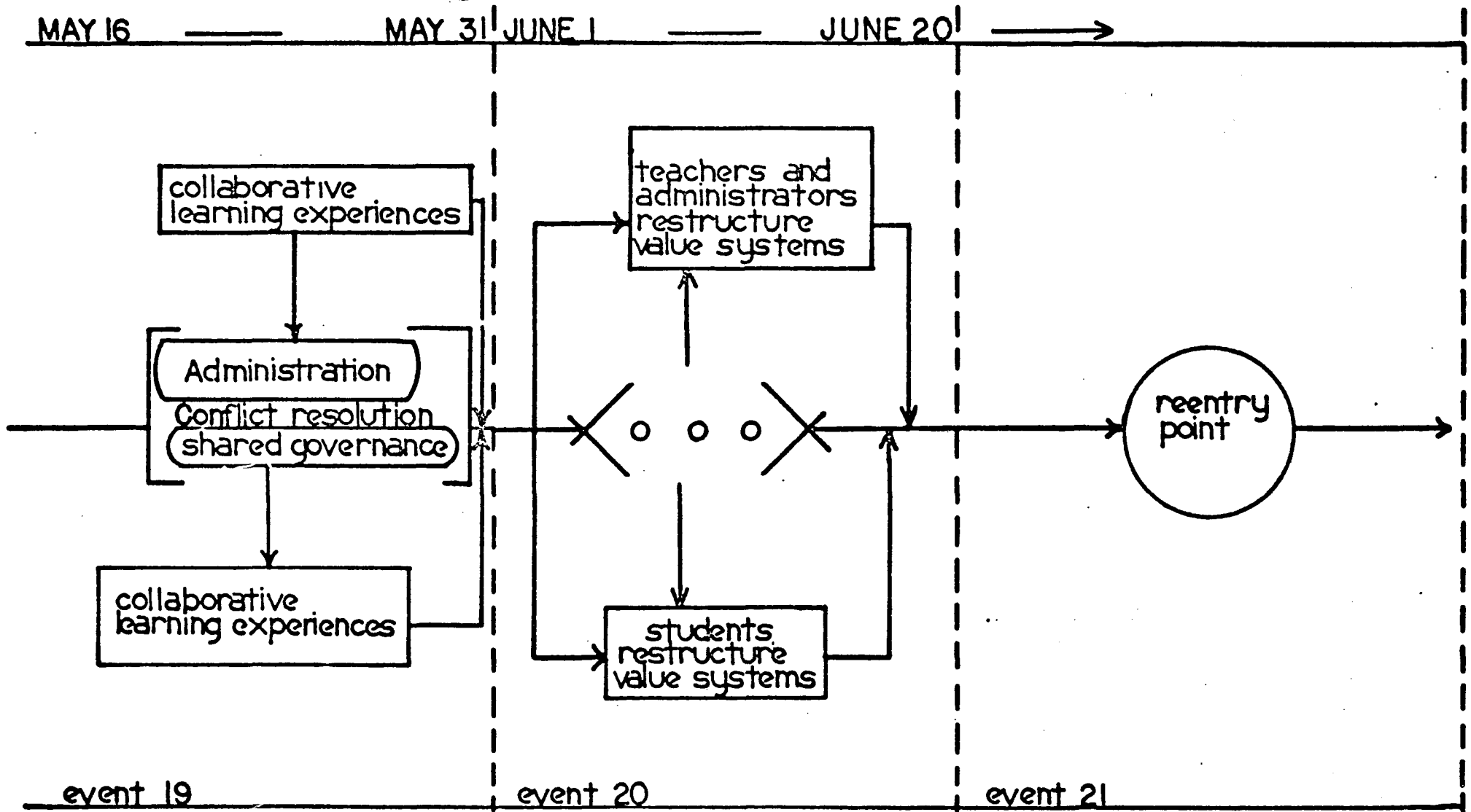


Fig 18. Fusion stage in developing shared governance (see figure 12, p.251, for explanation of flowchart symbols)

develops a kind of institutional homeostasis in which the various elements of that institution find an operational balance that permits the institution to function and survive. This homeostasis eventually happens in any institution that survives for any length of time. However, the model of shared governance fosters that operational balance.

The event (21) provides either the end or the renewal of this system for developing a model in a public secondary school. What has happened to the values of the people in the system will determine the course of action at this point. Values may have been reinforced and renewed. In that event the system is most likely to replicate itself and continue. Values may have been discarded, rejected, or modified to the extent that a new system may be initiated. Whatever the outcome, this system of shared governance comes closer than most to providing an effective vehicle for change within as humanized and democratized environment that probably can be tolerated in a public school setting.

Additional Suggestions for Implementing the Model

The main ingredient in the success of implementing a model of shared governance, particularly in a public school setting, is in establishing continuing dialogues among all the participants as often as possible. Discussion groups can involve interested faculty, students, and administrators initially. These groups should be initiated at the very beginning of the process by the principal and continued

regularly thereafter. To be successful, the groups have minimal requirements. Participants only need be genuinely interested in developing awareness of the concerns of others. Also, they must be willing to be completely honest during their participation in the discussion groups.

The discussions may cover a wide variety of topics, but they will be most productive when they include why change is needed, what conditions are conducive to change, why people are resistant to change, how to overcome resistance to change, and how to effect change. Coming to grips with the process of change and the implications of change is essential to the productivity of these discussions. Dialogue should also center around the concept of individual freedom as rights and responsibilities, the meaning of democracy and its relationship to the concepts of power and authority--particularly shared power and shared authority, the current status of the school, and the meaningful involvement of the participants in the direction of the school. Finally, the discussion group should be led to a dialogue about the governance of their present school as it affects students, faculty, and administration.

The discussion group or dialogic procedure provides a tremendous opportunity to form a coalition for initiating action affecting change. This can be the procedure employed to establish a "future directions committee" described in the calendar of events and the flowchart above. This committee can be an action-group-offshoot from the discussion groups to:

- (1) discuss and devise new organizations of governance for consideration by the total school community;
- (2) solicit support and popular endorsement for one concept of governance;
- (3) produce and publish a document describing and guaranteeing the new concept of governance;
- (4) provide committee involvement for students, faculty, and administrators;
- (5) establish continuous channels of communication through open meetings, publications (agendas, minutes, position papers), newspapers and radio coverage;
- (6) seek the cooperation of the administration in facilitating the efforts of the committee through released time, meeting space, and logistical support.

The "future directions committee" can be a powerful instrument in motivating students, faculty, and administrators alike.

In implementing a model of shared governance there should be as much official recognition as possible. The board of education can begin the process by issuing a formal policy change that spells out the authority and power of the new school government. This announcement should be in writing and include a description of the revised hierarchical structure of the school system that clearly places the new school government in its proper place. At the school level there should be a special all-school assembly with the public and town officials invited to attend. A special ceremony signifying the administrative change may be included as part of the assembly.

At the special all-school assembly, the organizational meeting of the new school government can be conducted. The principal could act as temporary chairman of the meeting until the officers of the new school government have been elected. Representatives of area media should also be invited to report and record the events of the

assembly, ceremony, and meeting. The objective should be to underscore the significance of what is taking place. It will also help to insure that the new school government gets off to a good start.

Up to this point, little mention of assessment procedures has been made. If somehow it is possible, any school system contemplating a change to some form of shared governance is urged to conduct as much pre-testing of the existing situation as possible before changes are even suggested. For example, attendance records, participation in school activities, number of disciplinary actions, reasons for leaving school, attitude toward school, opinion of school government, feelings and attitudes about rights and responsibilities, understandings of responsibilities of school citizenship, to name a few, could be checked before anything was done to make special efforts to humanize and democratize the school. These would provide base data for later comparisons. It might also be possible in a large school district to set up a control group in one high school and an experimental group in another high school.

At the very least, the new school government should annually assess itself and ask the constituencies to evaluate it as well. The regional accrediting association could be asked to include the school government in its regular evaluation. The state department of education could do the same as part of a regular accrediting procedure or upon special request. The state department of education generally has one or more consultants available for such duties.

Also, the new school government should provide regular progress reports to its constituencies, the board of education, and the public. Closely allied to these reports, there should be easy access for the constituencies to their representatives. Unless the representatives of the school government maintain a high level of visibility among their constituencies, the school government will suffer.

If the equipment can be made available, an excellent device for reporting on progress and developments is to use video tape and tape recordings of critical meetings and public sessions that occur in the replication process. These recordings can serve to inform people who may have missed the events, to publicize progress and developments, and to provide the basis for written reports. They are also valuable to the leadership for the replication process in assessing procedures and progress.

The leadership role for the principal through the complete process of establishing, implementing, and operating a model of shared governance is an especially demanding one. Just as there are very few precedents or antecedents for the new school government, there are probably fewer precedents or antecedents for the role of the principal. He needs to always be involved and yet not appear to be involved. He must point out and support the need to change. He must show how change can be effected, and he must consistently and constantly demonstrate his strong convictions in support of change. The principal must by his example challenge others to follow.

As a risk-taker the principal must accept full responsibility for everyone and everything that happens in his school. This responsibility will hold even after a concept of shared governance is implemented. The final responsibility must always rest with the principal. While taking this risk, the principal must establish the role of a collaborative learner. This function must facilitate the development, implementation, and operation of the new school government. At all times the principal must avoid even the appearance of dominating the process.

The principal must establish and maintain liaison with all interested and concerned groups. He acts as a spokesman for the school and the process through the maintenance and coordination of communication. Again, he must oversee the total process and use his administrative skills behind the scenes to make the process work. A useful device to assist in carrying out this function is to establish a feedback system based on contacts with strategically placed allies to maintain and redirect progress as necessary. The redirection provided is enabling and not inhibiting. More than any other way, through this redirective process, the principal will demonstrate anew his sense of personal values and his faith in the outcome of shared governance.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The concept of shared power in the schools is not a new problem. The roots of the problem are traceable back to medieval times and more recently to the development of the colleges and universities of the United States. The most recent confrontations about who should be running the schools have taken place at the height of the student activism of the late 1960's.

There has been throughout the historical development of colleges and universities a revolving cycle of battle for control among students, faculty, and laymen. The most recent confrontations on the campuses of the colleges, universities, and junior colleges are not new. What is new is the fact that the activism has reached the high school level in such force.

Students in the public secondary schools have had their first taste of activism. A review of the literature has revealed that this experience has had a profound effect upon them. This, coupled with their new legal status, suggests that students should be questioning their lack of involvement in the management of their education. For the present it seems safe to say that not very much will be done to change that status. The only possible hope for accelerating change

in that direction is through enlightened leadership. Unfortunately, the training of educational administrators does not as a rule include courses in how to humanize and democratize the public schools.

An extensive review of the literature revealed that there are many antecedents and precedents in business and industrial management for democratizing and humanizing organizational operations and environment. Unfortunately, the leadership in the business and industrial sectors of our society has not had any appreciable effect in this area on the leadership in public education.

The change process in the public schools was intensively reviewed to offer assistance in that aspect of introducing the concept of shared governance in the public school. The actual operating vehicle for change, the Staples Governing Board, was described in great detail. How it came about and how it operates were also described in great detail. An analysis of the complete policies that govern the SGB was also presented. Functional dilemmas inherent in the operation of the SGB were tallied for the years that the SGB has been in operation.

The theoretical and operational models offered as examples for replication were developed and explained in terms of six stages adapted from the consciousness raising approach of Freire (1972). The operational model was further developed in a calendar of events and a systematic flowchart adapted from a systems approach.

Perhaps, the most obvious and recurring problem that surfaced throughout the study was that of the basic conflict between

socialization and individualization. It was possible, however, to alleviate the conflict through democratizing and humanizing the public school.

While a variety of models of governance were reviewed, the Staples Governing Board still stands out as an excellent example of an honest and determined attempt to share power and share governance with the governed. The future of the Staples Governing Board is both a promise and a challenge not unlike the Constitution of the United States which governs the lives of its citizens everyday.

Conclusions

The most objective researcher can not help but be alarmed from an extensive review of the literature about the humanization and democratization of educational institutions at all levels because so much was written and so very little accomplished to involve students and faculty in greater self-determination in the schools. The saddest conclusion to be reached is that students and faculty have given up in the struggle for a share of their determination. In the interest of returning to normalcy on campus, the roles of the oppressed and the oppressors are restructured and resolidified. There is a growing apathy among young people that is particularly alarming at a time when activism is desperately needed.

Keeton (1971) underscored the problem when he wrote about three patterns of authority-sharing:

In the first, the gain of authority by one party meant a loss of influence for another. This was like ordinary pie-sharing: enlarging one man's slice reduced another's. In the second pattern, each party considered the interests of the other and conceded something in order to gain cooperation for his own interests. "A good reason for borrowing is a good reason for lending," says a TV commercial. The third pattern was one in which each party defined the concerns of the other as part of his own. This sharing was like friendship or solving problems in a common emergency. The interest of each party was transformed to incorporate the interests of the other into a common, more complex purpose (p. 2).

He noted that the first should be minimized and the second and third exploited. The activism of the late 1960's gave hope to those who believed in the sharing of authority and power, even in the public secondary school. The light of that activism has disappeared in the gloom of the pessimism and apathy that abound on the campuses today.

A second conclusion is that the leadership role of the principal is paramount in the successful initiation and implementation of any innovation in the public secondary school. He must be a darer, a dreamer, and a risk-taker, and he must be willing to risk a great deal up to and including his job. The ranks of administrators in the public schools at any level do not abound with leaders of that disposition if the number of attempts to democratize and humanize schools described in the literature offer any evidence.

A third conclusion is that the process by which an innovation is initiated and implemented is exceedingly difficult to describe. Effecting and affecting change often result from subtle influences not readily detected or describable. An innovation is a fragile

thing and needs tender loving care continuously. The innovation will not survive unless at least one person identifies with it and protects and guides it.

A fourth conclusion is that it is possible to motivate students and teachers through values, attitudes, beliefs, and love. If the Staples Governing Board demonstrates nothing else, it stands as a tribute to that conviction. Students will respond to genuine concern for them as human beings, and teachers will too. Rights and responsibilities can be learned through the pragmatic experience of student citizenship in a concept of participatory democracy.

A fifth conclusion concerns the need to reconcile the undemocratic practices and procedures of the public schools with their avowed democratic goals. The bureaucratic structure of the typical public school system is undemocratic, and it dehumanizes young people through a variety of strategies designed in the name of educating them.

A sixth conclusion is that vulnerability in education as described by Henry (1972) still exists. The fear induced by vulnerability paralyzes educators and students alike. This fear is the primary reason why more innovation isn't tried in the public schools. Unless the vulnerability in education is mitigated or eliminated altogether, there is very little likelihood of effecting meaningful change in the public schools.

A seventh conclusion concerns the behavior of people when they are put into positions of responsibility. Perhaps not surprisingly, students and faculty behave very responsibly when they are put into

positions of trust on a governing board. Also, the general school population tends to behave about as responsibly as they perceive the expectations of their responsibility held by the leadership of the school.

An eighth conclusion concerns the literature about the concepts of shared governance and shared power. A review of the literature reveals that many writers apparently are unaware of what others are writing about their subject.

A ninth conclusion about the review of the literature concerns the willingness of leadership in such diverse areas as business and industrial management on the one hand and the social sciences on the other hand to form a partnership to humanize and democratize business and industrial operations. This cooperation is a source of amazement and frustration when profit-makers are quicker to humanize and democratize than credit-makers (educators).

A tenth conclusion about the process of this study is that while the basic conflict between socialization and individualization remains in the public school system, it is possible to mitigate the effects of the conflict through the initiation and implementation of a model of shared governance. It is possible to achieve a balance between the self-actualization of the institution and the self-actualization of the individual.

An eleventh conclusion concerns the possibility of replication of the proposed model on a widespread basis in the public schools.

The prognosis for this happening is negative. The public schools will continue to resist change, and this resistance will be supported by the vulnerability of potential change agents.

A twelfth and final conclusion is that the concept of shared governance offers a viable organizational structure for the management of the public secondary school.

Recommendations

The recommendations have been listed in terms of suggested studies or research related to the concept of shared governance and shared power in the public schools. Any recommendations that result in research activity would be welcome since there has been little if any in this area. The following recommendations would produce useful information:

- (1) Establish an empirical study that would use a control high school of a traditional model in comparison with an experimental high school that would establish a model of shared governance following the method of this study. A carefully controlled study of this type would at least suggest objective conclusions for consideration.
- (2) Survey the state departments of education throughout the United States to determine: (a) the legal problems involved in providing students a share in governing their own school, (b) the attitude of the agency toward the concepts of shared governance and shared power in the public schools, (c) plans to encourage the development of these concepts and models in any of the schools of their state.
- (3) Devise a series of rating scales and surveys with which to compare the attitudes and opinions of students at Staples High School with those of students of other high schools with respect to their perception of personal freedom, rights, and responsibilities in their schools. Also, do the same thing to seek a basis for comparing attitudes and perceptions toward their school governments.

(4) Questions need to be researched that will verify or refute subjective conclusions about students living under a concept of shared governance:

- a. Do students perceive of their school environment as inhumane and undemocratic? If so, to what extent and in what ways do they perceive that environment? What effect, if any, does that have on their attitudes values, and beliefs relative to democracy?
- b. How do students perceive the administration of their school? How do students perceive their school government? Do they want to change their school government? What would they change?
- c. To what extent are students motivated by values such as faith, trust, confidence, and respect for individuality? Do they understand the meaning of rights and responsibilities in a pragmatic sense in their school?
- d. What do principals of public high schools think about initiating concepts of shared governance or shared power in their schools? Given a selection from a variety of exemplary models, which one would they opt for in their school? How would the principals of public high schools rate their schools on instruments indicating the extent of humanization and democratization in their schools in comparison with teachers, students, and the public?

(5) Survey boards of education to determine the extent of their receptivity to the concept of shared power or shared governance in their public schools. They could be asked to rank a described list of models according to their preference.

(6) To what extent is the difference between the undemocratic practices of the public school and its goal of education for democracy recognized by faculty, administrators, boards of education, the public?

(7) What are the educational gains or advantages that can be identified under a concept of shared governance as compared to other models of governance in the public schools?

(8) Having been presented with a description of the Staples Governing Board, how many high school principals, superintendents of school, and boards of education in Connecticut would be interested in replicating that model in their public secondary schools? What would their reasons be for trying it or rejecting it?

(9) How do the students at Staples High School perceive the Staples Governing Board over the three years that they attend Staples High School?

These represent only a few of a host of questions that need to be studied and answered if the concept of shared governance is to become established as an available and acceptable form of governance in the public secondary school.

APPENDICES

Note: These appendices contain materials that have been reproduced as they were originally written. Nothing has been changed with the exception of the omission of some signatures.

APPENDIX A

GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT STAPLES HIGH SCHOOL

EDUCATION FOR THE THIRD CENTURY

The Philosophy and Objectives of Staples High School

Within the next decade the United States will enter the third century of its national development. Because this society promises to be increasingly impersonal, dynamic and complex, education in the third century must help each individual to fully realize his own personal worth, to develop skills to cope with rapid change, and to live effectively within his environment.

While understanding that the public school system supports the democratic society as a whole, Staples High School, nevertheless, seeks first to fulfill the needs of each individual. By first helping each student in his personal search for identity and fulfillment, the school will facilitate his effective participation within the whole community.

Realizing that the individual can experience his full worth as a human being only as he interacts with others, the school should teach the skills essential to responsible participation in a complex society. By becoming aware of the value of each member of the community, the student can develop into a sensitive and responsible citizen. Understanding his country's historical evolution and the complex needs of its present and future, the student should leave the school aware of his place in and ready to accept an active role in the American process.

In order to meet the needs of every member of the Staples' community, the program must be academically and vocationally varied. On the basis of individual aptitude and aspiration, unique skill-knowledge needs for each individual should be determined. While students share some basic needs for skills and materials, the school must provide a flexible program that will allow each student to develop his own abilities and interests. Thus, every student would receive the individual attention he needs and deserves.

The search for effective ways to develop the individual should not be confined to formal methods. Informal activities should also provide challenging learning situations. Co- and extra-curricular activities offer wide opportunities for developing and applying skills, learning respect for and communication with others, and developing a mature sense of responsibility. Staples must ensure that these activities foster intellectual, practical and social skills in an atmosphere that promotes student, faculty and administrative respect and cooperation.

The student must become engaged in his own education clarifying his needs and working with others to see that they are realized. The

community itself will become increasingly important as he realizes that education is life, and not a preparation for it.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE INDIVIDUAL

1. To provide individual instruction, wherever possible, to enable the student to make the most constructive use of his particular interests and abilities.
2. To develop intellectual skills of critical thinking, analysis and evaluation.
3. To provide opportunities for developing the aesthetic, creative and artistic potential of the student.
4. To give student opportunities to develop physical fitness, skills in physical activities and an appreciation of lifetime sports.
5. To help the student develop essential skills in the academic and the practical arts.
6. To help the student increasingly to accept the responsibility for his own intellectual, emotional, social and moral development, and help prepare him to make necessary career decisions.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE INDIVIDUAL WITHIN THE COMMUNITY

1. To acquire the skills of analysis and judgment, and the competence essential to permit the individual to play his roles as a member of society.
2. To help students develop attitudes, such as understanding, cooperation and open-mindedness essential to the acceptance of individual differences in a diversified society.
3. To develop programs to give the student insight into ecological and urban problems and thereby equip him to take an active role in his community.
4. To provide the student with knowledge of basic democratic principles and enable him to apply these principals of citizenship to the American process.

5. To help students develop the perspectives, competencies and skills needed for living in a world of close, international inter-dependence.
6. To integrate the activities of the school into the life-experience of the student so that he will recognize the relevance of the learning experience.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE TOTAL SCHOOL COMMUNITY

1. To encourage multi-disciplinary approaches to learning.
2. To refine a decision-making structure that will involve all elements of the school community.
3. To modernize the physical plant to create a more personal and flexible environment in which learning can take place.
4. To adapt school facilities into year-round educational centers for the whole community.
5. To provide opportunity for innovation with evaluation that assesses equally the process and the product of education.
6. To widen existing channels of communication, and to open new ones with the total community.
7. To ensure the continuity of fiscal responsibility for the educational goals of the community.

s/d

Accepted by the Staples High School Faculty
March 15, 1971.

Some Thoughts on Discipline

Probably as much flak is generated in discussions about Staples High School over the subject of discipline as any other area of controversy. This reflects a national concern with the public schools. Contrary to what many people may think, there is a definite philosophy and operational plan relative to discipline both in fact and practice. All too often criticism is directed at Staples before facts are even solicited let alone considered. Before the facts of discipline as is at Staples are presented, it might be helpful to review some of the very real parameters of the problem that we must face every day.

The first real dimension (limitation if you will) of the problem concerns what we can do and can't do under the law. Looking at discipline from a myopic point of view as punishment, we are severely limited in what we can do, even if we wanted to do it. The administration (principal) may detain, e.g. keep after school, or suspend. The principal may not expel. Only the Board of Education may expel according to a set procedure. Of course, there are many subtle ways of making life uncomfortable for students if that route is chosen. It is also true that there are many subtle ways students can make life unpleasant for us as well. All of this presupposes a gigantic war of nerves between administration and students. Even a military officer wouldn't want to be caught in that predicament--outnumbered four hundred to one.

Looking at this aspect of the problem further, it should be noted that the practice of detention has been researched reasonably well and all studies support casting the practice aside if it is designed to correct behavior. If its purpose is to make people miserable and add to a hostile climate in the school, then by all means it should be continued. Also, it is a dandy way to alienate staff who get detention duty, and it is a great way to intensify friction between staff and students.

Furthermore the practice of suspension is subject to the same criticism if its purpose is to change behavior. For example, the absurdity of suspending a student who has been truant must be obvious. Suspension rewards the very behavior you are trying to change. Suspension creates multiple punishment for students who are suspended for other reasons because the effects will vary according to the courses and activities he takes. This person more often than not is a poor student to begin with. Of course, these can become devices to force kids out of school. Rarely do they effectively change behavior in a direction compatible with success in school.

Another dimension of the problem is that there is a substantial number of our students not living at home. They either board in with friends or live in their own apartments. Since their parents have no control over them, we find it difficult to establish the typical home-school relationships. We have no choice but to treat these young people as though they were responsible young adults. They are all sixteen years or older, and they are in many cases

completely on their own. Obviously, the usual kinds of so-called disciplinary behavior will not work for these young people.

In connection with the foregoing dimension of the problem, it would be worth every parent's time and effort to read carefully the state's mandatory attendance law. It requires public school attendance under normal circumstances for children up to the age of sixteen. The primary responsibility for attendance rests squarely with the parent. When young people leave home before the age of sixteen and move into other homes, the problem of control for the school is much more difficult.

Still another dimension to the problem is the range of parental opinion about what should be done and what should not be done relative to discipline. For every parent who cries out against permissiveness, there is one who feels that even our liberalized atmosphere is too restrictive. For every parent who harkens back to the halcyon days of the fundamental curricular discipline, there is a parent who believes that notion and what we are currently doing are practices of the Dark Ages. Pick a random sample of twenty-five Staples parents and try to get even a consensus of opinion about how young people (adolescents) should be handled. In the center of this stands the high school and some beleaguered professionals.

And there are many other complications not the least of which is the awareness of our young people of their constitutional rights fully supported by a Supreme Court ruling. They know their rights and well they should. In fact we should encourage them in their use

and understanding. There are many young people who feel that the school and its curricula should be liberalized further, and they are supported by their parents. They believe in alternative schools or in no formal school at all. They feel that what we have is too restrictive. The school facility limits what can be done and creates problems of control, if control is desired. And the listing of limitations could be expanded.

How does a school cope with the problem of discipline--of student control? The first thing that we had to do was to come to grips with the futility of trying to control students. When this school went over 2,000 students, it became obvious that any further attempts to regulate student behavior based on threats or reprisals for deviant behavior (whatever we called it) just would not work. We made some realistic decisions in the light of all the complications that we faced. First, we would begin by assuming that the large majority of our young people were basically good human beings. We would treat them that way. We would try to teach in every way possible that Staples was a place to be responsible for self and responsible for others. We would try to make this work because we believed that it is essential to the perpetuation of our democracy. We believe that this could be taught through experience, real experience with making decisions about utilizing non-class time on campus. In summary we decided to run and regulate the school for the majority of the young people who would do the right thing most of the time, rather than to run and regulate the school to restrict the minority

whose behavior probably would be deviant regardless of the kind of school we ran.

All students had to make decisions on a daily basis about how they would use their spare time, where they would go and with whom they would associate. Learning here is no different from that of the classroom. Mistakes were made, are made and will be made. That is the stuff of which learning is made. It is far better that students who expect to go to college learn the hard way now that failure to do assignments and to go to class results in failure. We can help them understand and get them back on their feet. If it happens in college (the national dropout rate in college is still above 50%), it can be a disaster with no hope of recovery.

Staples is geared to treating young people with respect under the law of this country. How can we expect them to respect the law and our rights under it if we do not show them the way? Too many so-called adult Americans haven't the vaguest idea of what responsibility for self and for others means. We need only to look to ourselves to verify the truth of this statement. We must do something. Blind obedience to inane rules and regulations will not work, nor should it in a democracy. Most high schools in the past seem to have been run based on the premise that young people were guilty and must prove their innocence. At Staples we are assuming the right of innocence until proven guilty. It is an attitude expressed in an infinite number of ways. Basically it comes down to respect and concern for the individual.

Are there no rules then? Of course there are rules, but we do not make a fetish of them, nor do we put students in stocks or pillories. Rule breakers are counseled about the effect their behavior is having on them, their classmates, the school and what we are trying to do. Parents are involved if available, and our approach is to effect positive changes in behavior. Guidance counselors and teachers join with the administration in team efforts with severe cases. The latter are mostly problems of attendance and generally hurt only the youngster involved in the school situation. Rarely are there discipline problems of class disruption, defiance, fighting, etc. This approach to discipline is time consuming and difficult. However, it is teaching of the most valuable kind. Under this approach the most severe punishment or disciplinary action is for the student to withdraw himself from school. However, we feel when that happens, we have failed.

I suppose that we are trying to make a real way of life, our democratic way of life. If we don't teach understanding for this way of life, what does the rest avail us? If we can't get young people (many of whom will be voters before leaving high school) to respect law and order, what hope is there for democracy? Just as it is true that law in our society exists only as long as the people support it, so it is true that law in the school as a microcosm of that society will only endure as long as the young people support it. To follow any other course is to teach something that is not democracy.

This is the most difficult path possible that we could follow at Staples. It is frustrating and it permits bruises when youngsters fall. However, it is tremendously rewarding when they learn from these mistakes and begin to gain the insights necessary to make them good citizens and good human beings. Adolescence is the true period of idealism in the ages of man. Hopefully, this approach will provide young people with the convictions that our way of life is good and worth preserving.

James E. Calkins, Principal
Staples High School

JEC:sd

STAPLES HIGH SCHOOL**SCHOOL:**

Enrollment: 1900

Average class size: 25

Faculty: 129 including 13 counselors

Accreditation: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

CURRICULUM: Comprehensive

Electives In:

1. College Preparatory
2. Business
3. Industrial Arts
4. Work Study

Required Courses: English, 3 — Soc. Studies, 2 — Physical Ed, 3

ABILITY GROUPING:

Three levels (high to low) A,B,C, plus Advanced Placement Program of C.E.E.B. in English, European History-American History, Math, Chemistry and Physics

CLASS RANK:

Two ranks are reported in quintile for all students based only on grades earned at Staples High School.

1. Complete Class Rank — Based on the average marks earned, weighted in proportion to the number of credits the subject earns and by instructional level as shown.
2. Academic Group Rank — Based on the average of grades received in English, Science, Social Studies, Mathematics, and Foreign languages weighted by instruction level as follows:

QUALITY POINTS PER CREDIT

Instr. Level	Grade			
	A	B	C	D
A.P.P.	23	20	17	14
a	20	17	14	11
b	17	14	11	8
c	14	11	8	5

APPENDIX B
EVOLUTION OF THE POLICIES GOVERNING
THE STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

THE AD HOC FUTURE DIRECTIONS COMMITTEE

May 1, 1969

About a month ago several students from the SSO, frustrated by their inability to bring about change, joined several other students to discuss student rules. On April 17, these students gathered with three administrators and five faculty members for the purpose of discussing rules and student behavior. This meeting was to serve as a "bull session" and a venting of frustration. During the six hour meeting, the discussion turned to the roots of the problems rather than to the surface problems themselves. Specifically discussed were: a lack of communication between students, faculty, and administration; a lack of procedure for the faculty and students to initiate change; the ineffectiveness of the student organization; and the indifference of students and teachers. As a result, this group formed a temporary committee composed, in part, of some of its own members and, in part, of other students, teachers, and administrators. An attempt was made to represent a sampling of the different viewpoints of the school community.

This purely temporary committee was charged to submit a written proposal to the student body, the faculty, and the administration for their approval. The committee, named the "Future Directions Committee," is currently attempting to formulate a vehicle by which all members of the school community will participate together, through meaningful representation, in the decision-making process. In effect, it is trying to give students and faculty a real voice in what is happening at Staples High School.

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The first committee meeting was held yesterday to set the ground-work for future meetings. These meetings have been scheduled for:

Friday May 2 at 2:15pm in room 908, and
Wednesday May 7 during X-period in room 908.

The meetings will be open to all, with time provided for discussion. Minutes of meetings will be posted on the SSO bulletin board and distributed to the homerooms. Any questions should be directed to members of the committee whose names appear in the minutes of the meetings.

It must be emphasized that this committee is temporary and has no real power except to make proposals. All its recommendations will be submitted to members of the school.

It is sincerely hoped that the work of this committee will provide an opportunity for those who are dissatisfied with the conditions at Staples to take action to better those conditions.

lfe

Please Bring to Fac. Meeting Today.

THE FUTURE DIRECTIONS COMMITTEE

The following is an outline of the Staples Governing Board--- a possible new legislative branch for Staples H.S. It is a very general description but will be further described at the meeting on Thursday, June 12.

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD:

Membership: 3 administrators (vice principals and/or dept. Heads)
7 faculty members
10 students (3 sophs, 3 jrs, 3 srs.)

The board members will be elected at-large by the end of Sept.

- (1) Powers of legislative Branch: It is not an advisory board--but rather, a governing board having all powers not possessed solely by the principal (subject to his veto).
- A. Has power to legislate on:
1. student
faculty behavioral codes
admin.
 2. use of school facilities
 3. supervision, administration, and financing of school activities
 4. school-community relations
- B. Has no power to legislate on, but has power to make resolutions relating to such areas as:
1. curriculum
 2. Board of Ed. Policies
 3. town laws
 4. state laws or federal laws
- C. Has no power in the areas of:
1. personal matters of students, teachers, or administrators
 2. hiring or firing of personnel

Principal's veto power:

- a. suspensive veto-can be overridden by a 3/4 vote of governing board
- b. absolute veto-cannot be overridden but must be accompanied with an explanatory letter

-veto must be in within two weeks

-There will be an appellate step beyond the absolute veto

Quorum: 50% + 1 person

STAPLES HIGH SCHOOL CONSTITUTION

(Working Draft)

Article I - Legislative Branch**Section I - Staples Governing Board:**

1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Staples Governing Board.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall consist of three administrators, seven faculty members, and ten students to be freely elected by the voting groups they represent on the third Monday in September each year. Special invited guests shall include the Superintendent of Schools or his representative, the President of the Westport Board of Education or his representative, the President of the Westport Parent-Teachers Association or her representative, and a representative of the non-professional staff of Staples High School. These guests shall have the same rights and privileges as members of the Staples Governing Board except the right to vote and the right to attend executive sessions.

Section II - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, Administrators:

1. Administrators shall be the Vice Principals, the Administrative Assistant(s), and the official Department Heads at Staples High School. This group shall elect three of its members to represent the Administrators on the Staples Governing Board.
2. The Administrators shall determine their own qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.

Section III - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, the Faculty:

1. All professional teaching members of Staples High School, (excluding Administrators) who spend two or more class periods in the classroom, teaching, shall be considered the Faculty of Staples High School. Full time Guidance Counselors shall be considered full and equal members of the Faculty of Staples

Staples High School Constitution

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High School. This group shall elect seven of its members to represent the Faculty of Staples High School.

2. The Faculty shall determine its own qualifications for its own representatives to the Staples Governing Board.

Section IV - Definition of, and Election procedures for students:

1. The student body shall consist of all students actively working towards a degree taking at least the minimum amount of credits required by the school. This group shall choose ten of its members to represent the Student Body. Representation shall be determined as follows: The sophomore class shall elect three of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board. The junior class shall elect three of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board. The senior class shall elect four of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board.
2. Each voting group shall determine its own qualifications for its representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
3. Each homeroom will elect one representative from that homeroom to a class council. Delegates to the Staples Governing Board shall also be full members of their classes' council. The class council shall discuss class business. Regular class visitors shall be treated as full members of the class council.
4. It shall be the responsibility of the homeroom representative and the homeroom teacher to relate class council business to the members of the homeroom and homeroom discussions and business relating to the class, to the class council.
5. Each class shall hold one scheduled class meeting per month. Agendas for such a meeting must be read and posted in each homeroom at least 48 hours before the class meeting except in emergency cases. The class meetings shall be conducted by the class representatives to the Staples Governing Board, aided and advised by the class advisors. Sufficient time must be given for individuals or homeroom

Staples High School Constitution

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representatives acting as spokesmen for individuals in their homeroom or as spokesmen for their entire homeroom, to speak on class or school-wide business.

6. The powers or decisions of the class councils shall be subordinate to the powers and decisions of the Staples Governing Board.

Section V - Alternates and Recalls:

1. All voting groups shall provide for alternates for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board and for new representatives in case of vacancies.
2. A petition signed by thirty per cent of the constituency shall be sufficient to force both a recall of the named representative to the Staples Governing Board and a new election for the post of representative to the Staples Governing Board from that constituency.

Section VI - Organization and Rules of the Staples Governing Board:

1. The Staples Governing Board shall be the Judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members and a majority of the Total board (50% + 1 person) shall constitute a quorum to do business; and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as the Staples Governing Board may provide.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall keep and publish a record of its meetings after each meeting. A full and complete record of meetings shall be published twice a month. The yeas and nays of the members of the Staples Governing Board on any issue must be entered.
3. The Staples Governing Board shall announce all meetings 48 hours in advance, except in emergency cases. The Staples Governing Board shall hold at least two meetings per month.
4. The Staples Governing Board shall determine its own rules of proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and with the concurrence of 80 per cent suspend a member until a new election is held. If the

Staples High School Constitution

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suspended member is re-elected by his constituency, the Staples Governing Board shall seat that member.

Section VII - Method of Making Laws:

1. A favorable vote of 60 per cent of the members present shall be required to pass any motion. If the 60 per cent shall be a fractional person, a fraction of .5 or above shall be considered to be the next highest whole number.
2. Every bill which has passed the Staples Governing Board shall, before it becomes a law, be presented in writing to the Principal of Staples High School; if he approves he shall sign it and it shall then be a law. If he disapproves he may issue a substantive veto which may be overridden by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board, in which case it shall become law; or he may issue an absolute veto which must be accompanied with an explanatory letter. This veto cannot be overruled, but may be appealed to the Superintendent of Schools, the Board of Education, and any other legally concerned bodies. If any bill shall not be returned by the Principal within ten school days after it shall have been presented to him in writing, the bill shall be law in the same manner as if he had signed it.
3. All measures requiring the agreement of the Staples Governing Board (with the exception of its own proceedings) shall be presented to the principal for his approval or disapproval.
4. Bills or resolutions may be presented by members of the Staples Governing Board or by members of the Staples community, or by any member of the Westport-Weston Community, with or without the sponsorship (agreement) of one or more members of the Staples Governing Board.

Section VIII - Powers Granted to the Staples Governing Board

The Staples Governing Board has certain enumerated powers:

Staples High School Constitution

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1. It may regulate student, faculty, and administration behavior through the passing of behavioral codes.
2. It shall be the sole regulator for the use of school facilities at all times during the school year, the entire year, for school and non-school groups.
3. It shall charter and regulate all school groups and activities and inter-school activities. It shall have power to administrate, collect, tax, lend, or give money to and from all school groups and activities.
4. It may determine, plan, supervise and regulate school-community functions.
5. It may maintain a system to enforce its rules and regulations.
6. It may offer resolutions on, but has no power to legislate on powers held solely by the Principal.
7. It may offer resolutions on, but has no power to legislate on curriculum changes.
8. It may offer resolutions on, but has no power to legislate on Board of Education policy/rules, town laws, state laws, and/or federal laws.
9. It may delegate its powers as it sees fit.
10. The Staples Governing Board shall have the power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested in the Staples Governing Board.

Section IX - Powers Denied to the Staples Governing Board:

1. The Staples Governing Board has no power in the hiring and firing of personnel.
2. The Staples Governing Board has no power in personal personnel matters concerning students, teachers, and administrators.

Section X - Standing Committees:

1. The Staples Governing Board shall create standing committees.
2. Each committee shall have as a member a minimum of one member of the Staples Governing Board.
3. Membership in each standing committee shall be

Staples High School Constitution

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- open to all members of the Staples Community.
4. Meetings must be announced, and agendas posted, 48 hours in advance except in emergency cases.
 5. All decisions and recommendations of the standing committees must be passed by the Staples Governing Board to become law.

Article II - The Executive Branch

Section I - The Principal and Vice Principals

1. All executive power shall be vested in a Principal and as he so publicly and specifically delegates in writing in the Vice Principals of Staples High School.

Section II - Powers of the Principal

1. The Principal shall have the power to veto bills and recommendations of the Staples Governing Board pursuant to the terms of Article I, Section VII.
2. The Principal may appoint such advisors and executives as he deems necessary for enforcement of rules, enforcement of policy, effective communication to the executive and effective operation of programs and activities.
3. The Principal shall be chief executive of such enforcement apparatus as exists by law.
4. The Principal shall have such powers as required by law and Board of Education policy.

Section III - Duties of the Principal:

1. The Principal shall on the 2nd Monday in September give to the School Community information on the State of the school and recommend such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed; and he may on extraordinary occasions convene the Staples Governing Board.

Article IV - The Amending Process.

1. The Staples Governing Board, whenever 60% of its members deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or on the application of 2/3 of the voters of any of the several voting constituencies shall receive proposed amendments to this constitution.

Staples High School Constitution

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Amendments shall be valid to all intents and purposes when ratified by 2 of the 3 voting constituencies and passed by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board.

2. Any proposed amendment must be ratified by June 1 of the school year in which it was proposed or the amendment is considered defeated for that year.

jfb
7/18/69

The Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board

Article I - Role of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Powers of the Staples Governing Board:

1. The Staples Governing Board functions under the policies of the administrative council, Board of Education, and state and federal laws. Policies throughout this document are defined as guides to discretionary action; they should be as broad as possible but as specific as necessary to insure fulfillment of their intent.
2. All powers regarding Staples High school not assumed by the above groups shall be vested in the Staples Governing Board, as well as such powers as may properly be delegated to it. These powers fall under the headings of finance, facilities, staff personnel, community relations, administration, student affairs, special services, and instruction and curriculum.
3. It may offer recommendations in any area to the administrative council, Board of Education or any other organization, agency or governmental body it deems fit.

Section II - Relations between the Staples Governing Board and Staples High School Administration:

1. The Principal shall be bound by and is responsible for the implementation of the policies of the Staples Governing Board as long as they are consistent with the Board of Education and administrative policies of the school system.
2. The Principal shall have power to veto policy proposals of the Staples Governing Board pursuant to the terms of Article III, Section II, Subsection 2.
3. The Principal shall appoint with the advice and consent of the Staples Governing Board, such executives, except those which are subject to the review of the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools, as he deems necessary for enforcement of rules, enforcement of policy, effective communication, and effective operation of programs and activities of Staples High School.
4. The Staples Governing Board, whenever possible, shall be consulted on the appointments of administrative and supervisory personnel of Staples High School.
5. The Principal shall, by November 1 of each year, give to the school community information on the state of the school and recommend such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient.
6. The Principal may convene the Staples Governing Board on extraordinary occasions.

Article II - Organization of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Staples Governing Board:

1. Student representatives to the Staples Governing Board shall be elected during the third school week beginning in May, to take office on the first day of July. Administrative and faculty representatives to the Staples Governing Board shall be elected during the third school week beginning in November, to take office on the first day of January.
2. Representation to the Staples Governing Board shall be from the three major bodies of Staples High School in the following numbers: 3 administrators, 7 faculty members, 10 students.
3. All meetings of the Staples Governing Board, with the exception of Executive sessions, shall be open to the public.

Section II - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, Administrators:

1. Administrators shall consist of the Vice Principals, the Assistant Principal(s), and the designated Department Heads at Staples High School.
2. This group shall elect three of its members to represent the administrators on the Staples Governing Board.
3. The Administrators shall determine the qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. The Administrators shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section III - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, Faculty:

1. All non-administrative certified personnel that spend two or more class periods per day at Staples High School shall be considered members of the faculty.
2. This group shall elect seven of its members to represent the faculty of Staples High School.
3. The Faculty shall determine the qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. The Faculty shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section IV - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, Students:

1. The student body shall consist of all students officially enrolled at Staples High School.
2. Those students officially enrolled as 9th grade students in each junior high school shall elect one of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board for the next year; those students officially enrolled as 10th grade students shall elect three of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board the next year; those students officially enrolled as 11th

grade students shall elect four of their members to represent them on the Staples Governing Board the next year.

3. Each voting group shall determine the qualifications for its representatives to the Staples Governing Board.
4. Each voting group shall determine election procedures for election of representatives.

Section V - Alternates; Recalls and vacancies:

1. There shall be no alternates.
2. A petition stating the reason(s) for recall signed by 30% of the constituency which elected that representative shall be sufficient to force a recall election of the named representative(s) to the Staples Governing Board.
3. Once a member has been subjected to a recall vote and the member has been sustained, no new recall petition for that member shall be valid, unless there has been a substantial change in the reason(s) for his recall, within 30 calendar days.
4. A vacancy for the post shall exist in the event of a majority vote for recall.
5. In case of vacancy for any reason, an election to fill that vacancy shall be held within 10 school days.

Section VI - Committees:

1. The Staples Governing Board shall create standing committees and ad hoc committees as it deems fit.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall appoint members of committees according to definite procedures to be established by the Staples Governing Board.
3. Meetings shall be announced and agendas posted 2 school days in advance.
4. A record of each meeting shall be published within five school days thereafter.
5. All recommendations of committees shall appear on the earliest possible agenda of the Staples Governing Board for consideration and appropriate action.

Article III - Operation of the Staples Governing Board

Section I - Conduct of Meetings:

1. A majority of the Total Board, (50% and one person) shall constitute a quorum to do business.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall keep and publish a record of its meetings. A record of the official proceedings of each meeting shall be published within five school days of that meeting. The voting record of each of the members of the Staples Governing Board on any issue shall be entered.
3. The Staples Governing Board shall announce all public meetings two days in advance.

4. The Staples Governing Board shall make public an agenda for each meeting two school days in advance.
5. The Staples Governing Board shall hold at least two meetings per month.
6. The Staples Governing Board shall determine its own rules of procedure and, with the concurrence of 70% of the total membership, may suspend a member, thus creating a vacancy. If the suspended member is re-elected by his constituency, the Staples Governing Board shall seat the member without prejudice.
7. In a non-executive session of the Staples Governing Board, discussion among Staples Governing Board members shall take precedence over general discussion.
8. The Staples Governing Board shall set aside one meeting per month, announced five school days in advance, where the hearing of any member of the Staples community shall be the first order of business. A reasonable amount of time shall be allotted to each speaker. Additional time may be granted to a speaker by a majority of the Staples Governing Board.
9. Members of the Staples Governing Board shall be available every two weeks at a prescribed, constant time during school hours where they will discuss the Board's actions past and future with the members of the Staples Community.

Section II - Method of Adopting Policies and Resolutions:

1. A favorable vote of 60% of the members present shall be required to adopt any policy motion or resolution.
2. Every policy which has been adopted by the Staples Governing Board, shall, before it becomes effective, be presented in writing to the Principal of Staples High School or his publically designated representative; if he disapproves, he may issue a suspensive veto which may be overridden by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board, in which case it shall become effective; or he may issue an absolute veto which cannot be overruled, but may be appealed by the Staples Governing Board to the administrative council, the Board of Education, and any other legally concerned bodies. Any veto issued, suspensive or absolute, must be accompanied by an explanatory letter. If any policy shall not be returned by the Principal, or in his absence his publically designated representative, within 10 school days after it shall have been presented to him in writing, the policy shall be effective in the same manner as if he had signed it.
3. Policies or resolutions may be presented by an interested person provided that the proposal has the sponsorship of one or more members of the Staples Governing Board.
4. The Staples Governing Board shall wait five school days before its policies go into effect. During this time 25% of one of the 3 major bodies may petition for referendum. A law referred to referendum shall be considered defeated only when 3/4 of those voting in each of the 3 major bodies vote against it by secret ballot.

Article IV - Amending Process

Section I - The Staples Governing Board whenever 60% of its members deem necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or upon the application of 60% of the voters of any one of the 3 major bodies shall receive proposed amendments to this Constitution.

Section II - Amendments shall be valid to all intents and purposes when ratified by a majority of voters in any 2 of the 3 major bodies; passed by a 3/4 vote of the Staples Governing Board, and approved by the administrative council.

Section III - Any proposed amendment must be ratified by June 1 of the school year in which it was proposed or the amendment is considered defeated.

Article V - Ratification Process

Section I - This Staples Constitution shall be ratified when a majority of those voting in each of the 3 major bodies approve said Constitution by secret ballot.

Article VI - Judicial System

Section I - The Staples Governing Board will establish a judicial system.

Article VII - Upon ratification the Staples Community shall be bound by the policies established by the "Policies Governing the Governing Board."

Future Directions Committee Meeting

Minutes, July 28, 1969.

Meeting was called to order at 7:40 PM by Paul O'Leary, Chairman. Nancy Saipe will be Assistant Secretary.

Decided that the committee make final decisions on the Constitution. The finalized constitution as of July 28, 1969:

Article I - Legislative Branch

Section I - Staples Governing Board:

1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in Staples Governing Board.
2. The Staples Governing Board shall consist of three administrators, seven faculty members, and ten students to be elected by the voting groups they represent on the third Monday in September of each year.
3. There shall be special invited guests and they shall include the Westport Superintendent of Schools or his representative, the President of the Westport Board of Education or his representative, the President of the Staples Parent-Teachers Association or his representative, and a representative of the non-certified staff of Staples High School.
4. All meetings of the Staples Governing Board, with the exception of Executive sessions, shall be open to the public.

Section II - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, Administrators:

1. Administrators shall consist of the Vice Principals, the Assistant Principal(s) and the designated Department Heads at Staples High School.
2. This group shall elect three of its members to represent the administrators on the Staples Governing Board.
3. Administrators shall determine the qualifications for their representatives to the Staples Governing Board.

Section III - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, the Faculty:

1. All non-administrative certified personnel that spend two or more class periods per day at Staples High School shall be considered members of the Faculty.

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Future Directions Committee Meeting

July 28, 1969

2. This group shall elect seven of its members to represent the Faculty of Staples High School.
3. The Faculty shall determine the qualifications for its representatives to the Staples Governing Board.

Section IV - Definition of, and Election Procedures for, the Students:

1. The Student body shall consist of all students officially enrolled at Staples High School.
2. This group shall elect ten of its members to represent the Student body. Representation shall be determined as follows:

The sophomore class shall elect three of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board. The junior class shall elect three of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board. The senior class shall elect four of its members to represent it on the Staples Governing Board.

3. Each voting group shall determine the qualifications for its representatives to the Staples Governing Board.

Decided that all members will arrive promptly and well prepared at 7:30 Thursday, July 31, 1969.

The meeting was adjourned at 9:25 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,

Maren Anderson, Recorder

sd/7/31/69

APPENDIX C

REPORTS FROM THE SGB TO THE WESTPORT BOARD OF EDUCATION

THE STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD: JANUARY - JUNE 1970

A Report From the SGB to the Westport Board of Education

- I. GOALS - The primary goal of the Staples Governing Board during the past academic year has been the creation of a truer sense of a Staples community where
- 1) all people would be humanely accepted and respected as individuals, each by the other; all people would look forward to their participation in the Staples community with a sense of interest and purpose; all people would feel a sense of responsibility for the growth and improvement of themselves and the Staples community; and
 - 2) students and teachers would explore how to learn in and cope with this rapidly changing world.
- II. SGB MEETINGS - During the first few months of its existence, the SGB met after school on a bi-weekly basis. Most of the meetings lasted at least 2½ to 3 hours and were conducted as a Committee of the Whole. In mid-March the SGB adopted a committee system (see Section III, Operational Procedures, below). This meant that the SGB members attended the separate committee meetings after school on Tuesdays and meetings of the Board after school on Thursdays.
- Recommendations:
- 1) There should be a period of at least four (4) days between discussion of and action on a matter by the Board.
 - 2) Agendas, reports and proposed legislation should be distributed well in advance of meetings.
- III. OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES - The final product of the SGB usually is a bill presented to the principal for his signature or veto.

Proposals for SGB bills may be made in writing by any member of the Staples Community to any member of the SGB. Only an SGB member, however, may formally present a bill to the Board itself. Once the bill is presented, it is assigned by the Agenda Committee to one of the four permanent committees for deliberation and initial action. (The four committees are Academic Life, Campus activities, Operations, and "Other.") Publicized open hearings must be held on each bill to hear the opinions of the Staples Community. Any member of the Staples Community may become a member of any committee at any time with all the rights of a SGB member. The committees must report the bill back to the SGB in original or amended form with a recommendation for the passage or the defeat of the bill.

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The SGB then dicusses the bill, may or may not amend it, and votes to pass or reject it. A favorable vote of 60% of the members present is needed to pass a bill.

Once a bill has been passed by the SGB it is sent to the principal for his signature. The principal then has three (3) options: 1) he may sign the bill into law; 2) he may issue a suspensive veto which may be overridden by a 3/4 vote of the SGB; or 3) he may issue an absolute veto which cannot be overridden. If the principal takes no action on a bill within 10 school days after he receives it, the bill shall be considered signed.

After a bill has been signed, there is a delay of five (5) school days until it goes into effect. During this time 25% of one of the three (3) constituencies (Students, Teachers, and Administrators) may petition for a referendum. A law referred to referendum shall be considered defeated when 3/4 of those voting in each of the three constituencies vote against the bill.

Once a bill has become law, it is implemented and enforced by the Staples administration.

IV. COMMUNICATIONS - Without question, the greatest weakness of the first Staples Governing Board was in the realm of communications. The Board's own newness, the pressures and complexities of its undertaking and the size and diversity of the Staples Community, itself, were the main contributing factors. The recommendations in this section constitute, therefore, the largest single portion of the report.

Recommendations:

A. SGB Communications to the School

- 1) The SGB should appoint an SGB member as a regular P.A. announcer and reporter.
- 2) The SGB should establish an SGB bulletin board in Building #8 for display of agendas, minutes of meetings and special announcements.
- 3) The printed daily announcement sheet should include key agenda items for upcoming SGB meetings and succinct summaries of past SGB meetings.
- 4) The SGB should appoint a student member of the Board to write a regular column for Inklings and to prepare regular releases on agendas and meetings for WSRB.
- 5) The SGB should hold periodic Board meetings in the auditorium during special periods.

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- 6) The SGB should continually utilize all school media to urge attendance at Board meetings and participation on SGB committees.
- 7) The SGB should charge its Secretary to send special notes to any and all individuals particularly affected by pending matters.
- 8) An up-to-date copy of the official SGB records should be kept on reserve in the Staples Library.
- 9) The SGB should devise specific machinery for forwarding bills, minutes and agendas to the principal and appoint an SGB member to make a weekly check on the status of such materials.
- 10) Wherever possible, the SGB should use the optional fifth class per week during the lunch periods (E, F, G) to meet with students and teachers to discuss SGB matters.
- 11) The SGB should publish a regular Newsletter for distribution to the Staples Community.
- 12) The SGB Policies should be included in the Compass.

B. SGB Communications to the Town

- 1) The SGB should send formal invitations to the Board of Education, the RTM Education Committee and the Staples PTA to attend Board and Committee meetings.
- 2) The SGB should place regular announcements in the PTA bulletin and the Westport News to encourage adult attendance to SGB meetings.
- 3) The SGB should request a regular "column" in the monthly PTA bulletin.
- 4) The SGB should request a regular column in the Westport News and releases on WMM (both written by an SGB member if possible).
- 5) The SGB should continually utilize all the above-mentioned media to encourage parental participation on SGB committees.
- 6) The SGB should be given time at the beginning of Back-to-School Nights for a Board member to introduce the concept and purpose of the SGB.
- 7) The SGB should attempt to hold several well-publicized Wednesday evening meetings each year.
- 8) A list of SGB members who are prepared to speak on various facets of the Board's activities should be sent to all local groups.
- 9) The SGB Newsletter should be distributed to all townspeople who request it.

C. Communications From Constituencies to the SGB

- 1) The SGB must publicize and hold the mandated monthly and semi-monthly meetings with its constituencies.

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- 2) Through publicity and personal contact the SGB should intensify efforts to expand the non-SGB memberships on all its committees.
- 3) The SGB should staff a desk in Building #8 during lunch periods to receive and answer questions.
- 4) The SGB should establish a suggestion box in Building #8.
- 5) Posters with pictures and names of all SGB members should be posted in all rooms and on all bulletin boards.
- 6) A brief portion of all faculty meetings, chaired by the SGB teacher representatives, should be devoted to SGB matters.
- 7) A brief portion of all class government meetings, chaired by the SGB student representatives of that class, should be devoted to SGB matters.
- 8) The SGB should further investigate the polling of the constituencies on key issues that come before the Board.

V. SUMMARY - It is most difficult to render a simple judgment on the success or failure of an idea, an institution as new, as innovative, as complex as the Staples Governing Board. And it would be a rare group of people who, having labored long and hard at some endeavor, would not consider that they had attained at least some degree of success. The SGB is no exception to this "rule" and believes that the following are some clear indicators of its importance and achievement.

- The SGB is the only place where the students, teachers and administrators of Staples High School can regularly meet with one another to make decisions about the school community.
- The SGB is the only place where members from all parts of Staples Community meet to consider the life and problems of the school as a whole.
- The SGB has and should continue to provide a formal and rational means for instituting change in Staples High School.
- The very existence of the SGB expresses a faith in the Staples Community by the Board of Education and the Town of Westport, a faith which seems to have been rewarded by the rational and democratic behavior of this community in times of stress.
- The continued existence and increasing efficiency of the SGB is a clear statement of the growing faith and trust of the representatives of the three constituencies in one another.

STAPLES HIGH SCHOOL
Westport, Connecticut

September 29, 1970

TO: Dr. Franklyn Graff

FROM: J. E. Calkins

SUBJECT: The Staples Governing Board: A Status Report

1. Overview: The Staples Governing Board was the outgrowth of a series of developments that originated many years ago in old Staples High School. This historical background is traced in APPENDIX A. At this point it should be made perfectly clear that the present Staples Governing Board provides a transition between what used to be student government with restricted involvement in the management and direction of the school to cooperative and meaningful involvement in what happens at Staples High School. It is not a student government; it is not a faculty government; it is not a government of the administration. Rather, it is a unique management technique that recognizes the necessity for responsible participation of students, faculty and administration in providing direction for the school. A brief, skeletal description of the Staples Governing Board is provided in APPENDIX B; action on bills is summarized in APPENDIX D.

If the belief that participation in the democratic process has merit, and if practical experience in assuming responsibility holds promise for future citizenship in a democracy, then the Staples Governing Board offers a means to learn about responsible citizenship in a meaningful way. It is an offer not a guarantee; just about what our country offers its adult citizens. In this offer lies the challenge and the fulfillment of the Staples Governing Board. At this point it is not possible to predict what will be the eventual outcome. Neither the challenge nor the fulfillment have been realized. The offer still exists, however.

It is important to note, also, that the establishment, implementation and operation of the Staples Governing Board for the relatively short period of approximately five school months has been a challenging learning experience. It has been a unique learning experience because there are no prototypes to follow and the only guidelines have been those created by the Staples Governing Board. There have been mistakes and there have been actions, perhaps, poorly conceived and implemented on occasion. However, there has been learning, and gradually a working relationship evolved that led to real achievement. APPENDIX C summarizes action on bills of the Staples Governing Board. There has been very real progress.

Finally, the fact that the principal must administer the school utilizing the direction of a governing board complicates and makes much

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more difficult the decision-making process. It is much easier to decide a priori and unilaterally that a given direction will be taken than to work through a diverse group of people. The promise of the procedure is well worth the effort.

2. Procedural Operations: Generally, the Staples Governing Board has conducted meetings open to the public. It is not the practice of the Board to conduct meetings in executive session. At least on one occasion the Governing Board conducted a public hearing in the evening for the benefit of interested students and parents. While attendance at these meetings has been encouraged, much more needs to be done to involve faculty, students and parents.

At an early stage in its development it became obvious that the Staples Governing Board would have to shift from an operation as a committee of the whole on all matters before it to a decision making group receiving information from operating committees. The work of the Staples Governing Board thus largely was delegated to committees. The writing and introduction of bills became the responsibility of these committees. The communication of these bills from the Staples Governing Board to the principal has presented some serious problems in the past. Perhaps, in expediting the mechanics of its operation lies the greatest weakness of the Staples Governing Board to date.

3. Areas of Concern: The following areas of concern are identified as calling for corrective action this year by the SGB. There is a need to provide -

- a.-more effective communication about the nature of the SGB, its procedures and its output to the total Staples community (Westport).
- b.-greater student, faculty and parent involvement in the SGB.
- c.-an on-going review of the policies governing the SGB.
- d.-greater emphasis on the importance of the SGB in the governance of the school.
- e.-a broader base for the representation on the Staples Governing Board.
- f.-each class government with its autonomy.
- g.-more direct involvement of the principal in the day-to-day functions of the SGB.
- h.-training for members in working on SGB business, e.g. writing bills.
- i.-orientation to the concept of the SGB in the junior high school.
- j.-the opportunity for the SGB to function the year round, including the summer months.

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- k.-bills that are single purpose - single action.
- l.-improvement in the record keeping of the SGB.

4. General Recommendations: The following recommendations will be made to the Staples Governing Board:
- a.-To improve communications, a regular bulletin should be made of the minutes of the SGB and distributed for the information of all students and faculty. Copies can be mailed to all parents with the SIR forms, provided for the PTA Bulletin, and the local paper. SGB members can provide information to civic organizations and other local groups. Special discussions can be held at Staples in special programs or regular classes to inform students and parents. Regular coverage of the SGB meetings can be given by Inklings and WSRB.
 - b.-To involve more staff, parents and students in the SGB, the first thing to do is to better inform them of what the SGB is doing as noted above. Provision for parent representation on the SGB should be considered. Special invitations to participate in the work of the various committees should be sent to as many students and faculty as possible. Create more student opportunities to participate by increasing the number of working committees.
 - c.-To establish a Policies Revision Committee to review annually in April the policies governing the Staples Governing Board and make recommendations to improve them. The recommendations contained herein might have come from such a committee.
 - d.-To achieve greater emphasis on the importance of the SGB in the regulations of the school by shifting the function of the present Advisory Council to the SGB and eliminate much of the duplication of effort that now exists.
 - e.-To secure a broader base for representation on the SGB by providing for membership of parents.
 - f.-To clearly establish the identity of each class government by making it possible for each class to decide exactly how it will be governed and handle its own affairs.
 - g.-To have the principal become more directly involved in the day-to-day operation of the SGB by being present at SGB meetings.
 - h.-To provide training for the elected members in the work of the SGB through workshops immediately after elections.

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- i.-To provide orientation of the junior high school students to the concept of the SGB through activities established with the permission of the principals of the junior highs.
- j.-To provide for the election of the incoming sophomore representatives of the SGB in their respective junior high schools prior to their arrival at Staples.
- k.-To permit a continuous operation annually and eliminate the summer operational gap that now exists by holding elections for members of the SGB in the late spring at Staples and in the junior highs.
- l.-To limit bills to a single purpose or single action by eliminating all omnibus bills that are frequently self-defeating at origin.
- m.-To improve the record keeping of the SGB by adopting a standardized approach that is followed vigorously, by adopting a standard system of numbering bills, by keeping an official record of SGB minutes, actions, correspondence and bills, by following a standard format in constructing bills, by publishing an agenda in advance of meetings and following this agenda at meetings, and by keeping an official voting record of all members on all bills.

5. Summary: The SGB is a fledgling organization at best, but it has made real progress. Much work lies ahead if it is to become the viable, representative, and cooperative form of governance that its policies promise. As a survey taken last spring quickly shows, there is a great deal of uncertainty and a great lack of knowledge about the Staples Governing Board among the students. Its functions must be clarified, and it must provide for greater involvement of its constituents. If the SGB cannot serve its constituents, then it will not survive. At this point in its development it is difficult to assess accurately the achievements of the SGB. It is important to note that it has made its presence known. It deserves to continue on a trial basis for at least one full year. That period of time will allow for a fairer assessment of its functions and pertinence to education at Staples High School. A report of the functions of the SGB will be presented to the Board of Education in May 1971 by administration, faculty and students.

THE STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

A Brief Review

School "government" in Staples High School has evolved from a Student Council (1946-50) to a Student Government (1950-1969) to a Staples Governing Board (1969-1971). During the long tenure of the SSO (Staples Student Organization), the student government operated under a rather broad budget of power which flowed in executive, legislative and judicial channels. Despite its considerable potential for student involvement and leverage, the SSO eventually staggered to a standstill. A great growth in the size of the school community and excessively heavy demands on the organization for fund-raising efforts were crucial factors in its demise.

Since mid-winter of the 1969-1970 school year, Staples has turned to a Governing Board as its principal means for encouraging community government and participation. This twenty-member Governing Board is composed of ten students - 4 seniors, 3 juniors, 3 sophomores; 7 teachers, and 3 administrators. It is, parenthetically, most interesting to note that policy decisions have almost never been voted by "party" lines in the Board meetings.

From its very inception, the SGB functioned with an increasingly strong conviction that it must strengthen and serve the sense of community in Staples High School. The majority of Board members seemed to see themselves more as representatives of the entire school community than of their particular constituencies. Despite the promise that such consensus held for positive thought and action, most of the remaining months of the school year were consumed in struggling to find out what such a Governing Board could and should do and how things might best be done.

At the close of the 1969-1970 school year, evaluative reports of various natures concerning the Staples Governing Board were submitted by the school administration, students, parents, and by the Board itself. All of those statements place consistent emphasis on the problems of communication. Most of the commentators indicated that virtually all elements of the school community felt quite ignorant as to what the Governing Board was doing. And disappointment was often voiced at the apparent lack of tangible results.

The Governing Board, itself, while equally critical of its communicative lapses, was less dissatisfied with its accomplishments. Most importantly it had survived: people had learned to listen to one another, to work together, and, eventually, an efficient committee system was developed. In terms of specific legislation, the most significant contribution was probably the Pass/No Record option that was finally accepted by the Board of Education in the fall of 1970.

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The 1970-71 SGB got off to almost as late a start as its predecessor. Not until October of 1970 was the Board of Education review completed and approval for continuation granted. Once under way, however, this second edition of the SGB moved quite quickly to an efficient level of operation. There were laudably few attempts to re-invent the wheel, possibly because the very first task the Board assigned itself was a study of the various critiques of and recommendations to the Board that were made the previous spring.

During the past year the SGB has processed a greatly increased volume of legislation. The following items on this page were prominent among the investigations, discussions and/or legislation:

- a procedure for evaluating curricular proposals
- mid-year course completion for seniors
- the chartering and funding of co-curricular activities
- physical education programming, scheduling and grading
- student scheduling of their own courses
- language laboratory scheduling and credit
- assigned study halls
- teacher-student advisor teams
- student lounge programs
- Winter Session proposals
- Senior Task Force proposals
- Internship Program
- student evaluation of courses and teachers
- Pass/No Record credit for Reading Laboratories

As last year, communication provided great frustration for this Staples Governing Board. Various media and methods were explored, but none produced particularly satisfying results. The spring SGB Conference on Shared Expectations and Responsibilities is a good example. The attendance from schools in other towns was gratifying; the dialogue was stimulating: but the Staples and Westport attendance was sadly

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deficient. Too few people had been made aware or made to care about what was at stake.

Again, however, the SGB can say that it survived ... and that it provided a unique and provocative forum for grappling with the concerns of the Staples Community. The lengthening list of legislative accomplishments notwithstanding, such survival and dialogue are perhaps the greatest contributions that the SGB could hope to make to the town of Westport. In a time of growing irrationality and antagonisms, it swims strongly against the tide.

THE STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

Action for Self-Improvement

The 1969-1970 school year was the Staples Governing Board's first year of operation. At the close of the year, numerous evaluative reports concerning the Governing Board were submitted to the Board of Education by the Staples Administration, students, parents, and by the Governing Board itself. An integral part of these evaluations were recommendations aimed at the improved operation of the Governing Board. The proposed changes covered a broad range of topics; from the conduct of elections to the mode of record keeping.

The 1970-1971 SGB chose, as its first task, to tackle this extensive list of recommendations. The list was broken down into three basic areas of concern; structure, procedure, and communications. Temporary subcommittees of the SGB were formed to handle each problem area. The committees sought to identify and define the problems within their respective areas, and then to propose specific legislation for their solution. The in-depth work of the committees produced a long list of legislation for self-improvement. The following items are prominent among the action initiated by the committees.

- the adoption of a permanent committee structure for handling bills.
- the appointment of a Publicity Director to carry out and coordinate the Governing Board's communications with the school and the community.
- the establishment of a procedure to deliver special notes of reminder and invitation to individuals and organizations particularly affected by matters before the Board.
- the establishment of a period of at least four days between initial discussion and action on a bill by the Board.
- the establishment of a standardized procedure for the submission of legislation.
- the appointment of an official Board parliamentarian.
- the establishment of an SGB Bulletin Board.
- the establishment of the SGB Office.
- the inclusion of committee reports in the permanent agenda of each meeting.
- the establishment of a Policies Revision Committee to continually review The Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board, and to propose amendments for its improvement.

Equally important in the Governing Board's efforts towards the improvement of its operation, was its increased effort to follow all of the regulations and provisions of The Policies Governing the Staples Governing Board. Prominent among these efforts were:

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- the holding of public hearings concerning all major legislation.
- the public announcement of SGB and committee agendas.
- the publication and posting of SGB minutes.

In summary, the 1970-1971 school year was marked by the Governing Board's efforts to improve its structure, procedure, and communications.

APPENDIX D
SGB ACTIONS 1970-73

RECOMMENDATION TO BOARD OF EDUCATION:

December 3, 1973

All administrators will teach at least one full credit class or one full year course. This program will be in effect for the 1974-75 school year.

Rationale:

The principal job of a headmaster is: "the development implementation, evaluation of learning experiences of the students..." An Administrator as a headmaster could come in contact better with the students, experience them and the curriculum more fully.

You really don't know the courses and students until you experience them. The administrators can't help and correct the curriculums and student demands unless he puts himself in their shoes.

Furthermore, many of the "good" teachers work their way to becoming administrators because of their capability. The students, therefore, miss the benefit of these experienced teachers. It is a shame to put all this talent to waste by putting them behind a desk in an office all day. The Administrator can leave this secluded area and once again experience the curriculum and come in closer contact with the students. The Administrator can, so to speak, "see and experience how the other half lives."

Finally it is common in the top and Ivy league Universities like Princeton, Brown, Yale, etc., to employ all administrators no matter how high their rank to teach at least one course. The reasons for this are as mentioned in the previous paragraphs.

* * * * *

November 1, 1973

Criteria for Courses (amending previous legislation) reads:

All new course proposals for Staples High School must conform to the criteria listed below. New courses are those subjects which are not presently offered in the Staples High School curriculum.

1. A proposal for a new course at Staples must be submitted to the SBG with the following criteria, if pertinent, and an accompanying explanation.
 - A. Rationale (description of the need for the course, petitions may be used to support case)

- B. Course format (e.g. seminar, teacher directed, content centered)
 - C. Objectives and expected outcomes (include performance objectives)
 - D. Brief topical outline of the content of the course or examples of topics that might be included.
 - E. Duration of course
 - F. Materials
 - 1. Location
 - 2. Teacher (necessary qualifications, if pertinent)
 - 3. Equipment -- indicate if reuseable
 - 4. Text (if any)
 - 5. Resource material
 - G. Budget -- short term and long range implications
 - H. Method of evaluation
 - 1. Course
 - 2. Student
 - I. Credit awarded
 - J. Suggested class size
 - K. Recommended prerequisites, if any
 - L. Impact on present course offerings
2. Before the proposal is submitted to the SGB, it shall have been submitted to the appropriate resource person.

Approved! 11/28/73

Extra Duty Recognition

November 8, 1973

Student SGB representatives shall receive school credit, as in the past.

Rationale:

In response to a request from Mr. Calkins, the committee considered various aspects of the question of compensation for SGB faculty, and concluded that the above proposal has the advantages of being equitable in terms of the recognition of the time, thought, effort and devotion of student representatives. Further, the committee deemed such recognition a form of validation of the SGB and its role as a Board-recognized element of the administrative branch at Staples.

Approved - 11/28/73

* * * * *

Staples Governing Board
October 19, 1973

Dear Mr. Calkins,

The Staples Governing Board voted yesterday to insist that the Teacher Non-Classroom Responsibility Bill be enforced as written. The Board expressed its deep concern that two major sections of the bill had been ignored in the implementation of the 1973-74 teams. First, not all staff below the rank of Headmaster have been assigned to teams. The bill specifies that only the teams themselves can excuse members from duty. Second, the bill calls for the exercise of choice in regards to the period team a teacher prefers. We are not aware that any preference was offered to the staff.

The Board, therefore, requests that the bill be implemented in full with all due haste. We welcome proposals for amendment or modification and will give them full consideration.

When the Secretary has prepared the resolution adopted yesterday, I shall forward a copy to you.

Respectfully yours,

/s/ David E. LaPonsee
David E. LaPonsee, Chairman

To: Chairman, SGB

January 16, 1973

There is a serious weakness in the SGB Constitution in relation to the Judicial Board of Review. The SGB passes a bill which becomes law upon the Principal's signature or without his signature under certain conditions. If any member of the Staples community challenges the constitutionality of the law, it is heard by the Court. If the Court upholds the law, no problem arises. But if it determines that the law is invalid because it violates the Constitution the SGB can override the Court by a 75% vote or fifteen out of 20 members. In effect, the SGB is the final judge of its own laws. This makes the Court nothing more than a debating society, with no real power. It destroys the concepts of separate but equal and checks and balances. No democracy or democratic government functions this way. It could not remain a democracy for long if it attempted to do so. Changing the percentage of the SGB to 100% or all 20 members to override would not alter the fundamental error here at all, because it would still allow the legislative branch to act in a judicial capacity whenever it desires. Some democracies, such as Canada and Great Britain combine, to an extent, the executive and legislative branches, but none does what Staples now lives under. A remedy would be to follow the pattern of the U.S. Constitution where only a new law or constitutional amendment could replace that which the Supreme Court finds unconstitutional. To do less is to perpetuate an undemocratic system in the name of democracy.

Lawrence Kaplan
Judicial Board of Review

* * * * *

December 21, 1971

SGB passed Evaluation Week on 12/21/71 by a vote of 16-4-0

Evaluation Week

- 1) There will be a "modularized" Evaluation Week that will provide every course with one two-hour class, and a maximum option time of 60 minutes.
- 2) Although all classes will meet during the Evaluation Week, the teacher will have the option to administer any combination of the following:
 - a) to administer a final semester or quarter exam
 - b) to conduct regular classes
 - c) to run special projects, hold conferences, take field trips or the like.

All of the above are, of course, subject to the regular forms of consultation between teachers and their Department Chairmen.

- 3) When giving a final, semester or quarter exam, the teacher shall exercise one or more of the following options.
 - a) To provide students with a copy of that exam at least one week prior to the Evaluation Week;
 - b) To provide students with a list of questions from which the exam will be drawn at least one week prior to the Evaluation Week;
 - c) To provide students with a selection of representative questions that will parallel the exam itself at least one week prior to the Evaluation Week;
 - d) To provide students with a set of guidelines as to the nature and extent of the exam at least one week prior to the Evaluation Week.
- 4) In a final, semester or quarter exam, students shall be allowed to bring and use all materials that the students and the teacher agree could be helpful in the exam. (This does not exclude the students' rights to bring their notes and texts.)
- 5) The student shall have the option of determining how much any final, semester, or quarter exam will affect his semester grade. He may choose to have the exam weighted as 0%, 10%, 20% and 30% of that grade. The student shall also have the right to propose alternative projects to a final exam; the teacher, however, may reject such proposals. Any such proposal is also open to the 0%, 10%, 20% or 30% weighting approach. The 0% option requires mutual consent of the teacher and student. With either exams or projects the teacher may propose a different percentage weight from that originally chosen by the student; the student, however, shall have the final choice in this matter. The student must complete the form indicating his percentage choice, a separate form for each exam, at least three (3) weeks prior to the Evaluation Week.
- 6) All students shall have the right to acquire and keep their corrected exam or project, except in the case of standardized exams.
- 7) During the Evaluation Week, all teachers must devote at least one class period to the administration of the formal teacher evaluation form for that class. The modularized schedule is so devised that this may always be done after a final exam is given.

Suspensive Veto* 1/10/72

*See attached explanation.

January 10, 1972

TO: Staples Governing Board

FROM: James E. Calkins, Principal

SUBJECT: Bill #71-28 - Evaluation Week

I have exercised a suspensive veto because the bill does not really come to grips with the fundamental issue of examinations and because it creates a confusing and discordant educational atmosphere when teaching and learning should be focused on the achievement of cooperative endeavor. While it is true that the bill does strike out in some bold new directions and I am particularly interested in the options or alternatives made available to students, the bill does not reach the central issue of giving examinations at all. At this time I favor the elimination of examination periods completely. The assertion that two hour exam practicing periods better prepares a student to take two hour exams later on is unadulterated bunk. There is no research of which I am aware that supports this. In fact, the kind of research done by CEEB supports my statement. I recognize that this bill represents a great deal of effort, and I regret having to exercise a suspensive veto. I urge the SGB to roll up its sleeves and go back after this issue.

* * * * *

January 12, 1972

Student Right to See Transcripts

All students may, at any time, request to see their college transcripts from their Guidance Counselor. The Counselor may withhold only those comments which in his/her professional judgment are deemed to be detrimental to the student's well being. The composite drawn up from the check lists on the front of junior evaluation forms will be shown to all students when requested.

The object of this bill is to expand the channel of communication between students and counselors where a student is assured of a chance to being able to assess his success at Staples.

Approved 1/17/72

* * * * *

May 10, 1972

Hand or Arena Scheduling

A system of hand scheduling will be used for all registration purposes; the student will be allowed to elect subject, teacher, period, and level. The subject and level must be designated in the pre-registration period.

RATIONALE

This will make hand scheduling binding if Mr. Calkins signs the passed bill - the original proposal was only a recommendation. Also a student may choose level-one more responsibility which we think the kids are ready for.

*Approved: 5/22/72

*It is understood that students will be allowed to elect subjects (subject to availability at the time of registration) through a hand scheduling procedure as long as it is feasible. However, if it should become necessary to consider a change to another system, an appropriate bill would be submitted to the SGB.

/s/ JEC

* * * * *

June 8, 1972

Modification of Class Rank

Proposed that the system of presenting class rank be modified from the present decile system to a quintile presentation. The actual system of calculation will remain the same.

RATIONALE: The present decile system allows for a break between the 6th and 5th deciles that encourages colleges to classify a student as top half or bottom half of the class. The distinction is given more importance than it deserves. By identifying a student's rank by quintile, the middle group of students could more realistically be judged as in fact being in the middle of their class.

(see next page)

10		
9	-----	5
8		
7	-----	4
6	-----	3
5	-----	
4		
3	-----	
2		
1		1

Approved: 6/19/72

* * * * *

June 14, 1972

Pass-Fail Grading for All P.E. Students

All students will be evaluated on a Pass-Fail basis in physical education classes. A mark of P (Pass) will not be calculated in class rank or honors, a mark of F (Fail) will be counted in both calculations. A modified card for reporting progress in Physical Education will be filled out for each student quarterly and sent home. This will be in effect for the year 1972-1973. The continuation of this program after '72-'73 is dependent upon the favorable evaluation by the SGB at the end of the first semester.

Rationale: By removing physical education classes from the traditional marking system, it is hoped that students, parents and teachers will begin to emphasize the more important aspects of the course such as skill development and physical fitness rather than a mark or grade. In addition, the modified card for reporting progress in physical education should provide student and parent with more specific information about strengths and weaknesses in various activities than the present A, B, C grading system conveys.

Approved: 6/26/72

June 22, 1972

Winter Session

The Winter Session Committee recommends that a three week session be implemented in January of 1974. To facilitate the program implementation, the following are suggested:

1. The principal should appoint a program co-ordinator no later than January of 1973 to plan and coordinate course offerings.
2. The coordinator, with a selected committee will be responsible to the principal for:
 - a. Courses
 - b. Schedules
 - c. Facilities
 - d. Evaluation
3. Winter Session will replace any proposed mid-term examination schedule.
4. Prior to the presentation of the Winter Session proposal to the Board of Education, a special evening session should be planned to acquaint the members of the Westport community with the proposal. This evening session should occur no later than October of 1972.

Approved: 8/8/72

* * * * *

June 10, 1971

Description Forms

Each Spring, the specific time to be determined by the school administration, teachers of sophomore and junior students shall fill out a "student description" form for each of their students. The teacher shall then:

- 1) Give blank description forms to those sophomore and junior students and ask them to make their own self-appraisals;
- 2) On completion of the student's form, the teacher shall give the form that the teacher previously completed* and ask the student to read and compare the two forms; the student should then write any observations he cares to make on the back of the form that he completed;

3) After reading the student's form and comments, if any, the teacher should then notify the student if the teacher then chooses to make additional comments;

4) Both forms would then be stapled together and turned in to the Guidance Department to be filed in the folders of the students.

*It is understood that in some cases, a teacher may feel that it is necessary to withhold some or all comments from a particular student. Such would be added to the student's guidance folder in a third, separate "description" form.

Approved: 6/10/71

* * * * *

June 18, 1971

Financial Support

For one year, the Staples Governing Board will partially subsidize those chartered school activities which apply and meet the following qualifications:

- 1) adherence to the budgeting legislation of May, 1971;
- 2) demonstration of willingness to raise a substantial percentage of their own funds ("willingness" and "substantial" to be defined in each case by the appropriate Vice Principal or Principal's designee, and the SGB Finance Committee; any impasse between the Vice Principal or the Principal's designee and the Committee or the appeal by the requesting activity is to be resolved by the SGB).

The monies to subsidize the co-curricular activities are to be raised as specified below and administered by the SGB Finance Committee in conjunction with the appropriate Vice Principal or Principal's designee:

- 1) the sale of a Staples Activity Card which would entitle any member of the Staples Community to reduction in price at all school sponsored co-curricular events;
- 2) the income from the SGB vending machines;
- 3) a 5% tax on the gross income* of any fund-raising activity of the chartered co-curricular school organizations. (*delete JEC)

- 4) Financial status of all chartered activities will be reviewed by June 1, 1972, to determine the wisdom of continuation, discontinuation or modification of this procedure.

*The income from this particular source would be used only when the first two sources prove inadequate. On the end-of-the-year audit, any surplus money remaining in this particular account would be returned on a proportional basis to the contributing activities.

Absolute Veto: 6/20/71

*If #3 above was deleted, I would be able to approve. Please see remarks on attached sheet - JEC.

* * * * *

June 20, 1971

TO: SGB

FROM: J. E. Calkins

SUBJECT: Comments on my absolute veto of Financial Support Bill

Because I am forced to make a decision at this point, and since I am unsure of the legal status of this bill, especially as it relates to Board of Education policy, I am exercising an absolute veto. There are other concerns which I shall briefly list here:

- 1) In spite of the SGB's desire to become involved in the budgeting and financing of activities, I am more convinced than ever that this would be a serious mistake.
- 2) What this bill proposes leads us further into the trap of financing what the Board of Education should be doing. It would be much better to do everything that we possibly can with the sale of activity cards and the soda machines (assuming that we can keep the latter). Then we should make a case to the Board of Education for what is needed beyond that.
- 3) I do not believe that a 5% imposed ex post facto is proper or fair. For example, Mr. Dornfeld has already predicated budget requests based on anticipated income from interscholastic events. His budget, like all school budgets, has taken a very serious cut. Now to tell him that he must count on 5% less is grossly unjust.
- 4) A further problem rests in the fact that all of the activity accounts are lumped in with many other items by the auditors. Just

as the business manager has discretionary powers to make transfers at the end of the year, the principal must be able to do this as well. If this can't be done, many students and teachers would be hurt unnecessarily.

These are only some of the concerns that I have. I regret very much having to take this action because I want the SGB to do what it believes it must do to improve the school. It is my considered judgment that we are not empowered to make this move as outlined just yet. I believe that if it is carefully rewritten, it would satisfy policy and the needs of the executive branch.

* * * * *

December 8, 1971

Mandatory Assemblies

1. All assemblies will be optional unless the principal or his designee comes to the Policies and Planning Committee to request a mandatory assembly. In case of an impasse the principal or his designee may appeal the committee's decision to the entire SGB where a 3/4 vote of those present is needed for approval.
2. All mandatory assemblies will take place during specifically scheduled X periods.
3. Except when impossible, optional assemblies will be scheduled E, F, or G period.
4. So that teachers may plan for changes in their option periods, all optional assemblies will be announced 5 school days preceding the assembly.
5. Anyone in the Staples Community, other than the principal, who desires to hold an assembly, shall submit that request to the Policies and Planning Committee. The Policies and Planning Committee shall recommend to the Principal whether that assembly should be held.

Approved:* 12/17/71

*I hope that the SGB understands that in an unusual and emergent situation that I must exercise my responsibilities for the health and safety of all the people on this campus according to my best judgment. As I have signed my approval to this bill in trust and confidence in the SGB, I assume that this will be reciprocated as to its intent and possible implication. /s/ J. E. Calkins

Judicial Board of Review

December 16, 1971

1. The Principal of Staples High School shall appoint five members to a Judicial Board of Review.
2. Membership on the Board shall be open to any constituent member of the Staples Community, excepting the Principal and the members of the Staples Governing Board.
3. Members appointed shall serve at will, for as long as they remain constituent members of the Staples Community.
4. A 2/3 vote of those present on the SGB shall be required to approve each of the Principal's appointments. A 70% vote of the full SGB shall be required to remove any member.
5. In the event of a vacancy on the Board, the Principal shall fill the vacancy with the 2/3 vote of approval by the members present on the SGB.
6. The Judicial Board of Review shall, upon the written request of any constituent member of the Staples Community, rule on the constitutionality of any legislation enacted by the Staples Governing Board, or on the constitutionality of any rulings made by the Chairman of the SGB relating to the interpretation of policy governing Staples High School and SGB bylaws.
7. A 3/4 vote of the full SGB shall overrule the decision of the Judicial Board of Review.
8. The Judicial Board of Review shall communicate all of its decisions in writing to the Chairman of the Staples Governing Board.
9. The bylaws of the Judicial Board of Review, established by that Board, shall be approved by the SGB prior to the commencement of the Board's activities.

Approved* - 12/17/71

* I have approved this bill, but I have questions about it.

1. When will the JBOR be required to act? How long may it take?
2. What happens to legislation or rulings pending the duration of appeals?
3. Is the principal excluded from or included in the intent of #6 above?

JEC

Staples Governing Board

December 18, 1970

Weight Given to Mid-Year and Final Evaluation

The weight given to the Mid-Year and Final Evaluations in determining the semester grade shall be left to the teacher's discretion. No grade shall be officially reported for the Evaluation. Should the semester grade be different from the average of the two preceding quarters, the student must be notified by the teacher on the appropriate form by the time given by the administration for submission of grades.

A student, having been notified of such a change, may then appeal the decision to the teacher involved, who will have to state his reasons for the grade given. Should further appeal be deemed necessary by either party, the present administrative chain of command shall be followed.

Suspensive Veto 12/18/70

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Suspensive Veto of SGB Bill on Weight Given to the Mid-Year and Final Evaluations

1. First, I wish to call attention to the fact that the SGB Bill dealing with mid-year and final evaluations (examinations) is approved. The study that this bill recommends is needed. The recommendation of maintaining the present policies establishing mid-year and final examination (evaluation) periods is noted. Recent practice during these periods has permitted a variety of evaluative procedures including but not limited to the traditional examination.
2. I have exercised a suspensive veto for the bill on weight to be given to the mid-year and final evaluations because I do not believe this bill as written helps the situation. It would make more sense to me to continue the present examination schedule pending an evaluative report by the Academic Life Committee on present evaluative procedures used at Staples High School. I do agree with the intent of the bill to establish better communication between student and teacher in evaluation (examination) matters. However, the bill as written at this time would only serve to cloud an already unclear issue. I believe further that it could alienate staff unnecessarily when what we really need is more information based on careful study of existing practices.

3. Unless notified to the contrary I shall direct that the present examination schedule be continued based on the SGB recommendation of expanding the evaluation concept pending the evaluative study report to be done by the Academic Life Committee.

J. E. Calkins 12/18/70
Principal

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SGB Communications 5

November 5, 1970

The SGB shall direct to the Principal and advisor of the Compass that the SGB Policies be included in the magazine.

Approved - 11/13/70

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October 5, 1971

TO: Staples Governing Board

FROM: J. E. Calkins

SUBJECT: Recommendation re Board of Education Candidates

1. Mr. Matheson will contact the League of Women Voters to solicit their assistance in arranging for the Board of Education candidates to speak at Staples.
2. The meeting will be co-sponsored by Inklings and the SGB. Inklings staff will work with Mr. Matheson.

JEC:sd

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SGB Communications 3

November 5, 1970

The SGB shall send formal standing invitations in the fall for attending its Board and Committee meetings to the Superintendent's office, the Board of Education, the RTM Education Committee and the Staples PTA Board. These invitations shall be written by the Publicity Director and prepared and sent by the Secretary. The invitations shall be repeated in January and again in April.

Approved - 11/10/70

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SGB Structure and Procedure

October 27, 1970

I. Structure of the Staples Governing Board

- A. The Staples Governing Board shall divide its twenty members into four Board Committees of five. Committee membership will also be open to all members of the Staples Community. The Committees will have jurisdiction as follows:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>I. ACADEMIC LIFE
 What is taught
 How it is taught
 Grades
 Study Halls
 Exams
 Scheduling</p> | <p>II. STUDENT ACTIVITIES
 Campus life
 Publications
 Athletics
 Clubs
 Social Activities
 Fund Raising</p> |
| <p>III. OPERATIONS
 Rules
 Finance
 Structure
 Procedure
 Communication
 Committees
 Elections</p> | <p>IV. OTHER
 Grievances
 Ombudsman
 Judiciary</p> |

The jurisdiction of these Committees need not be static. If a preponderance of bills introduced seems to fall in the area of one or two Committees and becomes a burden to those Committees the load will be distributed more equitably.

- B. The Chairman of the above mentioned Board Committees plus the Chairman of the SGB will constitute an Agenda Committee.

- C. The Chairman of the SGB may not chair one of the Board Committees mentioned above. He will chair the Agenda Committee.
- D. The Chairman of the Board and each of the Chairmen of the Board Committees will be elected by the SGB. The Chairman of the SGB will be elected first, and he will decide the order of the remaining elections.
- E. Once the chairmen have been elected, the Agenda Committee will meet and determine Staples Governing Board membership on the Committees. The decision will be final, but they will be expected to take into account in assigning members to Board Committees the individual interests of the members. There will be at least one teacher and one student and not more than one administrator on each committee.
- F. The Board will elect its secretary. The secretaries for each of the Board Committees and of the Agenda Committee will each be chosen by the chairman for his particular committee. If the secretary is a member of the committee, the secretary will be a regular voting member. If the secretary is not a member of the committee, the secretary will have no vote.
- G. The chairman of any of the four Board Committees may form Select Committees to study specific bills. These committees may be open to any member of the Staples Community.

II. Procedure for the Staples Governing Board

- A. The Staples Governing Board will normally meet once every two weeks.
- B. A bill submitted for consideration by the Staples Governing Board will go first to the Agenda Committee. The Agenda Committee will then refer it to a Board Committee. The Chairman of the Agenda Committee will be responsible for getting the bill to the Chairman of the Board Committee, that is to handle the bill, who will then place consideration of that bill on his Committee's Agenda. At the next Staples Governing Board meeting the Chairman of the Agenda Committee will report bills introduced and to which Board Committee each was assigned.
- C. When a Board Committee receives a bill for consideration, it may hold public hearings on the bill, establish a Select Committee to examine the bill and/or amend the bill. After consideration, the Board Committee shall forward it to the Agenda Committee to be placed on the Staples Governing Board Agenda in order to report the findings of the Committee.

- D. The Agenda Committee shall place bills on the Agenda normally in the order received. Rules of debate will be in accord with Robert's Rules of Order.
- E. The Staples Governing Board may either pass the bill, defeat it, or send it back to Committee.
- F. The chairmen of the Staples Governing Board, all the Board Committees, and the Agenda Committee will designate someone to preside at the meetings in their absence. This substitute chairman must be a member of the committee that he will serve in this capacity.
- G. Board and Agenda Committee meetings will be set by the chairman of those committees. They will also decide on their respective agendas. Meeting times for the Board will normally be decided upon by the Agenda Committee. Special meetings may be called by the Staples Governing Board at any meeting.

Approved - 11/10/70

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SGB Procedures 1

November 5, 1970

There should be a period of at least four (4) days between initial discussion and action on a bill by the Board.

Approved - 11/10/70

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SGB Minutes 5/10/72

Corrections: Work session tentative plan voted on 13-0-3
Bill #1063 was discussed

Academic Life: Individual Programs came out of committee re-written, and teacher evaluation forms were revised. Religious discussion was broadened.

Planning & Policy: Two bills came out of committee - meeting with constituents and morning announcements. A bill reinstating bells was withdrawn.

Campus Life: Elliot Kraut's smoking proposal ordered to the floor.
Dropped attendance bill.

Operations: Mr. LaCava's money request was requested.

ACTION:

Constitutional amendments #1063 was passed 16-0-0

Bill Murphy moved that the SGB sponsor a voter registration day at Staples before the end of this school year. There were no objections and so it passed.

Budget was postponed.

Cafeteria report was placed second on the discussion agenda.

Discussed bills:

1. # X1056 bill - changed to table
2. # X1046
3. Honors - #1061, #1061A
4. Cafeteria recommendation was discussed until Paul Hoffman requested it be tabled until the Chair wishes to bring it back. Seconded. 15-1-1 - passed.
5. Communication with Board of Education was discussed with this amendment: "The Board of Education members be invited by the secretary of the SGB to hold their meeting once every two months with a space early on the agenda for questions, answers and comments by the Staples community."
6. Amendment to the Evaluation Form withdrawn.

Meeting adjourned.

Respectfully submitted,

D-J Prowell

DJP/CDW

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD
October 18, 1972
Wednesday Night Meeting, 7:45

(Please come early, so that the meeting can start as close to 7:45 as possible.)

1. Minutes, Announcements, Reports
2. Action Items:
 - a) SGB Advisory Bulletin
 - b) Special Committee to Evaluate the Unit Structure
3. Discussion--Awards Assembly

(Regardless of whether we finish the previous agenda items, the presentation of Winter Session will start by 9:30.)

4. Presentation to the Community:
 - a) WINTER SESSION
 - b) Credit for Non-Classroom Activities
 - c) Inner City Program

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SGB Minutes 10-26-72

Meeting opened at 2:45 P.M.

Members absent: Dion, Wall. Corrections and additions to minutes of 10-18-72; Change "Cowdent" to "Cowden".

Announcements should read "There will be a gradual phasing out of daily announcements."

Announcements:

Planning and Policy----Discussed procedure for giving awards.
 #2007 In process of discussing committee to write Bill of Rights.

Campus Life-----Reworked Powderpuff recommendation #2015
 Discussed bill to abolish soda and apple machines #1017

Operations -----Announced next meeting to interview
 Judicial Board of Review candidates.

Academic Life-----Didn't meet.

Board of Education meeting changed from Nov. 6 to Nov. 20.

The SGB has been asked to propose nominees for the Superintendents Committee to Evaluate Administrative Restructuring. D. J. Prowell moved that the SGB submit names for the committee to Mr. Genualdi. She further recommended that the SGB send a letter to Mr. Brummel explaining that the names are not those of people representing the SGB. Steve Komarow seconded the motion. Mr. Jolley called the question. Bob Lacy seconded. Vote on calling the question 7-10-0, defeated. Bill Murphy moved to table; Frank Wiener seconded. Motion tabled 11-6-1.

Action

\$1500 request from Mr. Genualdi for grill-Steve Komarow moved to table request until Mr. Genualdi can attend the meeting. Bob Lacy seconded, and the recommendation was tabled. 14-3-0.

Powderpuff Football (2016)-Reward to read, "The SGB recommends to the Principal...." Add words, "of the Campus Life Committee" after "Ad Hoc." Bill passed 15-2-0.

There was then discussion on the Bill for New Awards Assembly Procedure (2007).

Meeting adjourned at 4:30 P.M.

Respectfully submitted,

Beth Schine, Secretary

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Oct. 30, 1972

WHIP REPORT

SGB Legislation Passed

I 72-1 SGB Advisory Bulletin

I 72-2 SGB Evaluation of Staples Restructuring (#2005A)

Legislation Passed Awaiting Principal's Action

72-3 Powder Puff Recommendation (#2015)

Legislation in Committee

Planning and Policy

- 1) Role in calling mandatory assemblies.
- 2) Developing teacher and student Bill of Rights.
- 3) SGB nominations on Superintendent's Committee to determine restructuring evaluation procedure.
- 4) Credit in P. E. for Interscholastic Sports (#2006).
- 5) SGB Sponsorship of SEARCH (#2009) - tabled.
- 6) Repeal of 71-10 (#2013).

Campus Life

- 1) SHIP
- 2) Cafeteria Advisory Board
- 3) Advisory Bulletins on Staples Modernization
- 4) I.D. cards
- 5) Student Lounge
- 6) SGB Legislative Tag Board (#2003)
- 7) Role of Human Relations Leaders in Non Classroom Supervision Duties (#2011) - tabled
- 8) Soda and Apple Machine Litter (#2017)

Academic Life

- 1) Evaluation on Current P. E. grading system
- 2) Alternative to Senior Evaluation (#2001)
- 3) Faculty Access to Personal File (#2002) - tabled
- 4) Committee for Individual Programs (#2010) - in sub committee
- 5) Making Orchestra, Band and Choir A Level (#2014) - tabled
- 6) Physical Education as an Elective (#2016)

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June, 1972

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD BULLETIN

In response to the cry for better communications, the SGB will be distributing a weekly bulletin, of which this is the first. Although this will let you know what the SGB has been doing, it will in no way convey your feelings to the SGB. Therefore we urge you to talk with your representatives and come to our meetings.

UNKNOWN BILLS

The SGB has been hard at work this year passing a great number of bills. Many of them may affect you, but it is unlikely that you ever knew they existed.

For example, a bill exists which allows students to see transcripts that guidance counselors send to colleges. The only time a counselor may withhold this information is when he or she feels that showing it to the student may be detrimental.

The SGB also passed a bill, to be implemented next year, that opens the school library on Sunday afternoons. The SGB is also considering starting a photography course at Staples. If the Board of Education approves a previously passed bill, students will be able to get credit for non-classroom activities such as sports, clubs and players.

SCHEDULE CHANGE

As everyone knows, the SGB recently passed a bill to change the schedule. A great outcry on the part of the students arose in opposition to this bill. A referendum was held and, with the teachers and administrators in favor of the change, the bill remained.

Why change the daily schedule? Some of the problems that have arisen as a result of the present schedule are:

1. First period classes are consistently behind others because of tardiness, a high rate of absence, and generally drowsy participation.
2. Student schedules are arranged with more emphasis placed on the time of the meeting than on the course content or the teacher.
3. Some student schedules are reduced to the minimum requirement in order to arrange abbreviated days.
4. There is little flexibility of rooms in the middle of the day due to an extremely high rate of utilization.
5. A small percentage of students are able to benefit from the open end advantages.

In order to try to alleviate these problems, the schedule was changed. Before the modified schedule was proposed, the department chairmen and the work-study counselors were consulted. The department chairmen saw no problems relating to scheduling. To the contrary, there was a general belief that the new schedule would diminish some of the existing problems.

The work-study counselors felt that retaining the H period would protect the people in that program. It was the observation of these counselors that very few student jobs started before 1:00 or 1:30. In those instances, where an earlier start was necessary, they felt that some arrangements could be made either on the job or at school.

The writer of the bill, Mr. Murphy, hopes that the new schedule will encourage a higher degree of participation in a wider range of subjects. If this happens students will leave Staples with a wider range of skills and knowledge, and the staff and facilities of the school will be more efficiently used.

WINTER SESSION

On March 22, 1972, the SGB, in an executive session, heard a presentation of the Winter Session proposal. Basically, the proposal provides for a period of three weeks of intensive study in two areas of a student's interest. The philosophical basis for the proposal is the concept that concentrated study in areas of interest will increase a student's motivation and present a continuity to learning that is sometimes lacking in the regular school curriculum. In accordance with the philosophy of education of Staples High School, the Winter Session emphasizes greater individualism.

The Winter Session courses may range from intensive academic seminars, to courses in the practical or creative arts, to courses emphasizing the development of mechanical skills. Courses will be developed by faculty members after extensive student input, and the expectation is that both students and teachers will be able to work in areas of their own personal interest.

To accommodate the variety of courses, the daily schedule for the Winter Session term will be a modified one, providing longer class periods for different types of learning experiences. Courses may meet for one or two hours per day, four days a week, or for four hours on two days of the week. Other variations are possible so that maximum may be attained for each course. In addition, it is hoped that numerous field trips will be planned during the term to extend the learning experience to areas outside the school.

Since this Winter Session proposal will have tremendous impact on the Staples community if it is approved by the SGB, numerous information sessions are being planned. Hopefully Winter Session will go into effect in the '73-74 school year.

COMMUNICATIONS--WE'RE ALL FAILING TO DO OUR JOB

One of the biggest problems the SGB has had this year is communications. It seems as if no one but the SGB members themselves know what the SGB is doing. Students didn't find out about the schedule change until after it was passed. Many other bills have been passed and students still don't know about them. You can place the blame for the lack of communications on anyone, but the fact remains that we all must do our part if anything is to be done about it.

In trying to remedy the situation the SGB has done several things. The bulletin which you are now reading is one. Also the SGB has been holding one evening meeting a month in the hope that more students, parents, and teachers may attend the meetings. Also, the SGB members have and will continue to visit classes to talk with students. The board has also decided that anyone should be allowed to speak and vote at committee meetings. Many more ideas are still in the planning stage. While these things may help, much more must be done. If you have any suggestions for what the SGB can do in order to reach you more effectively, please talk to any SGB member.

While it is obvious that the SGB must do more to publicize its actions and respond to the concerns of the Staples Community, communications must be a two-way street. The SGB alone cannot achieve the goal of effective communications. The students and faculty must be willing to put something into the SGB if they expect to get anything out of it.

So far this year non-member participation in the SGB has been almost non-existent. Non-member attendance rarely exceeds 5 people! Attendance at committee meetings is even worse than that! Most students aren't even willing to take time to stop their representatives in the hall and talk with them. We really want to hear from you. We can't afford not to!

Do students have any interest in the SGB? Is the SGB another decaying SSO? People question whether parents have enough interest in Staples to deserve a seat on the SGB, but it seems as if parents are at least as interested in what's going on at Staples as the students. Perhaps the students don't deserve a seat on the SGB!

The SGB can be an effective vehicle for change only if you let us know what you want changed. It's hard to believe that everyone thinks Staples is perfect as it is. Mrs. Lewis certainly doesn't think so! Next time you don't like the way something is at Staples, don't just swear under your breath. Get a legislation form from a SGB member and submit a bill.

Even if you don't want to change anything, come to a meeting now and then. Otherwise we might change something that you want kept as it is. Any person who comes to a SGB meeting is free to express his or her opinion on any item we're discussing. In spite of what you may believe, the SGB is not an exclusive club of 20 elite members, and we don't intend to become one.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

EVERY TUESDAY - 2:30 Committee meetings in the 9 building.

EVERY THURSDAY - 2:30 Full SGB meeting in 963.

WEDNESDAY MAY 31st- 8:00 P.M. Winter Session Meeting

WEDNESDAY JUNE 14 - 8:15 Night meeting, last meeting of the year 963.

APPENDIX E
SGB INITIATED FORMS

TEACHER-COURSE EVALUATION FORM

PART I: The back of this page may be used if additional questions are asked.

1. If possible, suggest ways in which you feel this course (as distinct from instruction) could make a more meaningful contribution to your educational development.
2. Do you feel that the assigned work in the course was a useful part of the learning process for you? How could it be made more useful?
3. In what ways do you feel the instruction was responsive to your needs in the learning process, and in what ways could it have been more responsive (e.g. did you feel lines of communication were open, that help was available if you needed it, etc.)?
4. What were the strengths of the instruction?
5. What were the weaknesses of the instruction, and in what specific ways could these be corrected?
6. Was the teacher responsive to you as a student, as an individual, etc.? What were the strengths and weaknesses of his approach to deal with you as a human being?

PART II: Please reflect thoughtfully on Part I and the responses you gave to this course. Now rate the course in terms of its contribution to your educational development. Use the rating scale below.

	Outstanding.....A
	Good.....B
Course _____	Adequate.....C
	Minimal.....D
	Prefer not to rate..X

Please give an overall evaluation of instruction in this course, keeping in mind the responses you have made in Part I. Use the rating scale below.

	Outstanding.....A
	Good.....B
Instruction _____	Adequate.....C
	Minimal.....D
	Prefer not to rate..X

Rate yourself on the basis of your effort and motivation in this course.

Better than average _____ Average _____ Below average _____

Instructor: _____ Course Title: _____ Required _____
Elective _____

A. Listed below are some dimensions of teaching felt to be important. Using the scale provided, please rate your instructor on each item by writing the appropriate numbers in the boxes. Any comments you would care to make should be written in the spaces headed COMMENTS. WRITE ONLY THE NUMBER which corresponds to the rating you wish to use for each item. The number key is found below.

1-Excellent 2-Good 3-Satisfactory 4-Less than satisfactory
5-Poor

- | | <u>Comments</u> |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. ability to present material clearly | _____ |
| 2. encouragement of student participation and questions | _____ |
| 3. concern for and interest in students | _____ |
| 4. enthusiasm for subject matter | _____ |
| 5. willingness to provide extra help | _____ |
| 6. ability to clarify and to answer student questions | _____ |
| 7. knowledge of subject matter | _____ |
| 8. ability to present material in an interesting way | _____ |
| 9. reasonableness of work demands on students | _____ |
| 10. overall rating of this instructor's performance | _____ |
| B. Please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate letter. | |
| 11. How much information, i.e., tests, projects, etc., was gathered by your instructor on which to base a grade? | _____ |
| | _____ |
| A. too much B. just right C. too little | _____ |

12. How well did the tests, term papers, projects, etc. measure your knowledge of the subject?

- A. Very well B. Well C. Not very well
D. Not well at all

13. How understandable was the text?

- A. Understandable B. Somewhat understandable
C. Not understandable

14. To what extent was this course a worthwhile learning experience?

- A. Worthwhile B. Somewhat worthwhile
C. Not worthwhile

15. Are there matters that you would like to comment on but which do not appear on the form? (Please use the space to the right for comments.)

* * * * *

Dear Student:

The Staples Governing Board desperately needs interested students to work on its various committees and sub-committees. Since these committees are the sounding boards for future SGB legislation, they play an important part in formulating the laws and policies here at Staples. If you're interested in helping shape the future of our school, joining one of these committees seems the logical way to make your opinion known.

ACADEMIC LIFE -- (Chairman William Murphy) deals with what is taught, how it is taught, grades, study halls, exams and scheduling.

CAMPUS LIFE -- (Chairman Talmage Boston) deals with publications, athletics, clubs, social activities, fund raising, and attendance as a factor in grading.

POLICY AND PLANNING -- (Chairman Stanley Rhodes) deals with grievances, ombudsman, judiciary and non-curricular credit.

OPERATIONS -- (Chairwoman Kitty Crosby) deals with finances, rules, structure, communications, committees and elections.

AD HOC FOREIGN LANGUAGE--(Acting Chairwoman Cathy Grayson) deals with the vital question, "Should there be language labs," and the general course.

AD HOC PUPIL EVALUATION -- (Acting Chairman Mike Martin) deals with midterms, finals, leveling, honors, class rank and the general grading system.

AD HOC LIBRARY -- (Chairwoman Beth Schine) deals with the book loss problem and what the library should be as opposed to what it is doing.

To join any committee fill out the following form:

YOUR NAME _____ COMMITTEE: _____

ENGLISH TEACHER: _____ FREE DAYS AFTER SCHOOL _____

FREE PERIODS: _____ OPTION PERIODS: _____

REMEMBER! THE LAST MEETING OF EVERY MONTH IS SET ASIDE FOR MEMBERS OF THE STAPLES COMMUNITY TO TALK TO THE SGB ABOUT ANYTHING. ALSO, ANYONE CAN TALK ABOUT THE ITEMS BEING DISCUSSED AT ANY SGB MEETING. SGB MEETINGS ARE HELD THURSDAYS AT 2:30 IN ROOM 963.

* * * * *

X _____

Date _____

STAPLES GOVERNING BOARD

Form for Submitting Legislation

(Please complete and give to SGB Chairman who will forward it to the SGB Secretary.)

Title of Proposed Bill _____

Name of Submitter _____

Name of Sponsor (must have SGB sponsor) _____

Please provide here the proposed bill. Make it brief and to the point. Be sure to include (a) what is to be done, (b) how it is to be done, (c) where, (d) when, and (e) by whom.

Please describe in some detail (a) the reason why you think this proposal is needed, (b) what you expect such a law should accomplish and (c) any information that members of the SGB would need to know in considering proposal.

DO NOT FILL IN ANY OF THE SPACES BELOW

Received by the SGB on _____
Assigned to the _____ Committee on _____
Reported to the SGB on _____

The SGB, on _____, took the following action: _____

APPENDIX F
JUDICIAL BOARD OF REVIEW

SGB passed Bill No. 7157 on 6-1-72 by a vote of 13-0-0.

Judicial Board of Review--Plan of Operation

1. There shall be a chairman chosen from among and by the members of the Judicial Board of Review. The chairman shall retain this position until his resignation or until 60% of the Judicial Board of Review deems his services no longer satisfactory. Then a new chairman shall be chosen within one week. If a student is chosen, his term shall end upon graduation from Staples High School, or on any other date the SGB may set, the date not to shorten the term of any present member.
2. a. A secretary shall be chosen in like manner to the Chairman and whose term shall be similar to that of the chairman in relation to resignation or quality of service.
b. The secretary shall keep records of the meetings, votes, decisions, etc. and transmit these to the Principal and to the SGB.
3. a. In the process of judicial review, decisions shall require a 60% vote of the Board. Reasons for decisions shall be sent to the Principal and SGB chairman. Dissenting members may write separate opinions, if they wish, and present them to the Principal and SGB.
b. A quorum of 4 judges shall be necessary to conduct Board of Review business.
4. If a member or members of the Board are absent from Staples High School for a prolonged period (2 months or more) for any reason, the chairman shall request the Principal to appoint and the operations committee of the SGB to approve the member or members temporarily, or permanently in the case of death or resignation of a member.
5. The Board of Review shall hear any and all cases where a member of the Staples community questions the constitutionality of a law.
6. a. All Board of Review members shall retain full rights and privileges of members of the Staples High School community. However, they shall absent themselves from sitting on cases where they introduced the bill or in any way took a previous role in it.
b. Judges shall enjoy judicial immunity and not be questioned concerning their decisions, except as the SGB may ascertain by law.

Acting Principal's Signature

/s/ Robert S. Genualdi

Date 6/26/72

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