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The Lead Teacher model: A case study

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The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1991

THE LEAD TEACHER MODEL:

A CASE STUDY

by

Celia B. Hunter Dickerson

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The purpose of this research was to describe, via case study method, the Lead Teacher model in place in a North Carolina high school, know as Alpha County High School (ACHS). Given special legislative authority, ACHS developed the model from a description in the Carnegie report, A Nation Prepared. The ACHS model has the two goals 1) professionalizing the work environment and 2) improving student opportunities and outcomes.

The researcher observed on the ACHS campus for 32 days over a six-month period, collecting data in the form of observation, interviews, and archival measures. From the data collected, the researcher delineated five central issues that have characterized the ACHS Lead Teacher model. They are: "culture" of the school, change, leadership, professionalizing the environment, and increasing student opportunities and outcomes.

The ACHS model features a committee of elected teachers and the principal meeting weekly to decide on matters of budget, curriculum, and less often, personnel. Information flows from teacher to the Lead Teachers to the principal and back again. The most profound change the Lead Teachers have made is an alternate-day schedule for curriculum. Students take more courses and must earn more credits for graduation. ACHS staff have, through the Lead Teachers, increased responsibilities and opportunities for students. By all measures in the ACHS accountability model, student performance (outcomes) is improved since 1987, the beginning year of the Lead Teacher model. Most participants in the study credit the increased student performance to increased teacher autonomy in decision-making via the Lead Teacher model.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the

Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation
Advisor _____

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Date of Acceptance by Committee

_____
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

This study describes, via case study method, the Lead Teacher model as implemented

by a North Carolina (N.C.) school known here as Alpha County High School (ACHS). The

researcher has detailed the history of the model in the context of educational reform of the

1980s. In addition, she has described and analyzed the structure of the model, the various roles

and role interpretations by persons involved, and the outcomes as perceived by the

participants. The goals of the ACHS model are: 1) professionalizing the school environment

for teachers, and 2) improving the learning environment for students. Implementation of the

strategies to achieve these goals and participants' perceptions of outcomes are analyzed in the

context of:

-school having a "culture,"

-change,

-leadership in the school culture.

Overview of Educational Reform

The history of American education is the history of recurring reform (Elmore and

McLaughlin, 1988). As the United States grew, its citizens enlarged their sense of identity from

that of a member of a community, to one of a region, and to one of a nation. Control of schooling

moved, over three centuries, from the schoolhouse to the Congress (Lortie, 1975), from the hands

of educators to politicians (David, 1989).

This chapter outlines the following:

1) educational reform in the United States, especially from 1970 to 1990,

2) selected reform efforts in a particular state, North Carolina,

3) how the state of North Carolina has designed an opportunity for decision-making at the school level,

4) the Lead Teacher model, a mechanism which allows decision-making at the school level while requiring accountability to state standards, as implemented at ACHS.

Reform in the United States

Prior to commission reports. From Dewey (1900) to Kearns (1988), advocates both inside and outside the profession of education have argued that if we change education we can meet social and economic needs. The need to have productive workers became the rallying cry as we moved from an agrarian economy to an industrial and now an economy of technology and information (Naisbitt, 1986).

Reformers during the 1960s used education to address both economic and moral issues. Until then, federal support of education had been minimal, at best. Science and desegregation ignited an unprecedented federal investment in public schools. In the 1970s, disaffection with schooling focused criticism on educators as well as on the institution of education. Reform recommendations were simplistic: hold teachers and students accountable to some proficiency standard. If educators returned to the "basics", politicians could ignore the societal changes that affected student performance (Goodlad, 1984). Counterbalanced with this revisionism, moralists centered on litigation for forcing equity in state financing of education (Guthrie, Garms, & Pierce, 1988).

Immediately after his election in 1980, President Reagan vigorously and successfully gutted federal involvement in education. State legislatures stepped readily into the void: decision-making moved from Congress to the state house. Money and regulations began to flow, not from Washington, but from state capitals (Guthrie et al., 1988).

The still-youthful Department of Education pared down to a consultative role. Nevertheless, the perception of education being a national agenda prevailed. A sense of

urgency in the reform efforts of the 1980s can be read in the myriad of commission and committee reports published in that decade. Both professional educators and concerned citizens viewed educational needs as nationalistic rather than regional.

A nation at risk, a nation prepared. By 1988, there existed over 165 reports on educational reform at the national, state, and regional levels (Stedman, 1988). They sounded the same business model ethic: our students were destined to be "unproductive" because of their education.

State legislative responses to the reports tended to be quantitative: increase teacher pay and graduation standards; increase the school day and year; test students regularly on a standardized test in almost every subject taught and publish the results (Odden, 1984). In effect, the politicians required more of what already wasn't working; but in exchange, many state governments made a concerted effort to increase education funding overall. Contemporaneously, legislatures proposed legislation to require uniform curriculum and uniform measurement of student ability regardless of perceived local needs and resources. Increased resources from the legislature increased demands for accountability and monumental red tape requirements for the local school. State standards for teachers and administrators were made more rigorous. Some states, Arkansas and Texas, required that teachers take a literacy test. States increased teacher pay and, chiefly southern states, e.g., Tennessee and North Carolina, devised competitive merit pay procedures (Odden, 1984). These were premised on a business model that has worked none too well, given the economic slide into recession that began in the late 1980's.

From the "blue ribbon" commissions came two compelling titles: A Nation at Risk (1983) and A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century (1986). The most consistently quoted document, A Nation Prepared, was the product of the Carnegie Forum on Education and Economic Policy.

Referred to as The Carnegie Report, this political document contained the familiar

refrain: lamentation over the lack of skills brought by students to the workplace. However,

the most durable recommendation made by the task force addressed reform as the need to

restructure. Emphasis was on restructuring the workplace of schools for the adults who worked

in them. Among the eight goals in "The Plan for Reform", two began with the verb restructure:

> Restructure schools to provide a professional environment for teachers, freeing them to
> decide how best to meet state and local goals for children while holding them
> accountable for student progress.
> Restructure the teaching force, and introduce a new category of Lead Teachers with the
> proven ability to provide active leadership in the redesign of schools and in helping
> their colleagues to uphold high standards of teaching and learning (p. 55).

The Carnegie (1986) restructuring recommendations stand in contrast to the relentless

push to standardize curriculum and personnel to political specifications. They focus on teachers

and the condition of teaching, suggesting that with the needed resources and a new autonomy,

restructured schools will "constantly strive to improve their performance" (p. 15) and

subsequently, student performance.

Reform in North Carolina

Recent background. The Lead Teacher concept for school decision-making was practiced

in North Carolina in fewer than five schools by 1990. Often regarded as a regional leader in

education, North Carolina's reform efforts were characterized by politicalization, caution and

attention to uniformity in the 1980s. The legislature refined old statutes; new ones were

patterned on efforts already tried elsewhere. Funds seldom met the need for implementation of

most of the measures.

A picture of reform legislation emerges from a perusal of each year's updated Public

School Laws of North Carolina. Much of the legislation was similar to that of other states.

The intent seemed to be to achieve uniformity and consistency of every conceivable aspect of

each North Carolina school. The effect was centralization of virtually all decision-making in

the State Department of Public Instruction (SDPI), an agency more effective in management than in leadership.

During the 1970s, the legislature expanded and refined school financing and accounting procedures. The local school unit's budget, by 1988, had nearly 80 line items. Money in one line item could rarely be transferred to another. Superintendents, often highly trained in management, had no flexibility in how they used the funds; thus principals and teachers had no discretion to use funds to do what they thought was needed. If the allocation were inadequate for the need and the Local Education Agency (LEA) could not afford to supplement, considerable monies reverted, unspent, to the state.

Curriculum for North Carolina's students was bound in a 12-volume Standard Course of Study (1988). A state committee selected textbooks; state dollars could be spent only on these books; not necessarily on those that school faculties believed were appropriate for their students.

Improving Teacher Performance

North Carolinians in the 1980s saw huge sums spent in certifying and evaluating teachers. In North Carolina, as elsewhere in the nation, teacher preparation and performance were blamed for national economic decline. The legislature enacted standards for all school professionals, but emphasized teacher performance.

North Carolina credentialing reform centered on three stages of personnel evaluation:

1) preparing teachers to enter the profession,

2) evaluating teacher classroom performance,

3) recruiting for the profession, beginning in high school.

Entering the Profession

The Quality Assurance Program, established in 1980, required local school units to observe a uniform credentialing and apprenticeship for beginning teachers. The process

foreshadowed the "collegiality" promoted in the Carnegie report. To facilitate initiation of beginning teachers into the profession, N. C. offered to pay LEAs to train veteran teachers to be mentors to novice teachers. Referred to as Initially Certified Personnel (ICP), beginning teachers must now meet certain criteria before their principals can recommend them for Career Status (tenure). The principal and mentor teacher share the supervision responsibilities for ICPs.

No longer is the novice teacher sentenced to learn on his/her own (Lortie, 1975; Darling-Hammond, 1987). The mentor/protegee relationship shares responsibility with a colleague, or teaching peer, for a two-year initiation into the profession.

Uniformity of Teacher Behavior

For tenured teachers, North Carolina required not a general information test, like Texas, but an annual evaluation. In 1982, the Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument (TPAI) became the official means of certifying veteran teachers as competent. The TPAI's list of competencies conveys to teachers that passing inspection is valued over the passion and creativity that characterize good teaching (Milner, 1991).

Using the TPAI to improve professional practice is nearly impossible; the observation, documentation, and conferences required by the TPAI demand a minimum of eight hours per teacher per year (T. J. Williams, personal communication, December 28, 1991). Instructional leadership becomes peripheral to documenting a rigid lesson plan.

SDPI, far removed from the classroom, followed the TPAI with a description of good teaching. The SDPI devised a package of lesson scripts and video tapes called the Effective Teacher Training. School units required their staffs to spend 30 hours viewing tapes of examples of good teachers and completing notebooks with multiple choice worksheets. This rote process establishes norms for teacher behavior in the classroom; uniformity is valued over

creativity. Such rote process influences instruction: passing the test is more important than mastering ideas.

Recruitment

Showing some awareness of a pending teacher shortage, the legislature created a teacher recruitment program in 1985. The Teaching Fellows Scholarships are awarded each year to high school seniors who will major in education. The recipients receive full tuition and a support network while in college. In return, they teach in the state a year for every year of scholarship support (Public School Laws, 1988).

Pay Incentive

Throughout the 1980s, the legislature tried hard to improve teacher pay. They also enacted a cash-incentive plan intended to improve teacher performance. In 1983, the Career Development Program, called Career Ladder, began in one school system, Charlotte-Mecklenburg, despite intense opposition by the state teachers' professional organization, North Carolina Association of Educators (NCAE). The following year, 1984, the legislature expanded the program, as a pilot, to 16 school systems.

The plan favored inspection over collegiality. Non-teaching professionals, called observers, left the classroom to work exclusively on evaluating teachers on standard criteria. The principal used the observer's recommendations to decide who got promoted up the ladder and received extra pay. The Career Development Program cost $104 million, $47 million in its final year, 1988-1989, alone (D. Holdzkom, personal communication, March 18, 1991). With that kind of price tag, statewide adoption was too costly for the legislature. Instead, it became an option for school units in its 1989 bill, the Accountability/ Flexibility Act. This act is discussed in detail later.

By 1989, North Carolina had invested millions in teacher preparation, monitoring teacher performance, and reeducating teachers in pedagogy. The Carnegie Report was right:

good education costs. It was going to cost a lot more. Advocates in North Carolina continued to push for increased funding overall as well as the Carnegie concept of restructuring schools and professionalizing teaching.

Increased Funding: The Basic Education Plan

In 1985, the N.C. Basic Education Plan (BEP), projecting a 34% increase in state funds for the LEAs to be phased in between 1987 and 1996, became law. The BEP originally promised an infusion of $800 million over an eight-year span. The money was to add teaching positions and support personnel to reduce class sizes and offer arts instruction, summer remediation classes, and vocational education (Invitation, 1989; Luebke, 1990).

However, pay-up time and a decline in the economy of the state occurred simultaneously. The 1989 and 1990 legislative sessions cut the promised BEP funding by at least half and extended the timeline for full implementation by two years (Basic Education, 1990). The 1991 legislation session funding of the BEP was so small that jobs added previously had to be cut (Simmons, 1991).

Limits to Centralized Decision-Making

By 1989 the legislature seemed to have tried every political option to improve education by centralizing decision-making, with the SDPI both dispensing and scrutinizing use of the monies. Funding was far more easily promised than delivered; nevertheless, standards of accountability accompanying the promise of funding remained. The BEP and Career Ladder Plan were too expensive to expand. Tax resources had reached a limit, as had squeezing teachers to fit a mold. With a predicted teacher shortage in the 1990s, the imposition of more rigorous standards for teacher performance runs the risk of diminishing an already shrinking pool of professionals.

Assuming that the limits of centralized decision-making would be reached, advocates of reform sought other options. By 1987, the timing was right to raise the question: Is there

merit to the idea of restructuring both the school environment and the condition of being an

educator? This was politically correct: if it worked, politicians could claim credit. If it failed,

they could blame the local educator. Politicians had a pleasant set of choices.

Lead Teacher Model in North Carolina

Background. The Carnegie recommendation for restructuring schools devoted several

pages to a description of the Lead Teacher category. The Lead Teacher model has a brief

history in North Carolina schools. A state commission, similar to the Carnegie task force,

published two documents that advocated the concept. The Public School Forum issued The

Condition of Being an Educator (1987) and Thinking for a Living: A Blueprint for Educational

Growth (1988).

Part of the research base for these publications was careful documentation of how

educators in North Carolina spent their workday. Interviews with school building

professionals led to this conclusion:

> An extensive bureaucracy has centralized decision-making with decisions being driven
> by methods and procedures. In addition to damaging fundamental relationships among
> individuals, centralization discourages and suppresses individual initiative and
> innovation, making teachers and principals implementers rather than initiators and
> managers (The Condition of Being an Educator, 1987, p. 34).

The Forum's subsequent document, Thinking for a Living, listed 75 committee members, a

careful mix of legislators, educators, and representatives of major corporations. This document

made predictable recommendations for funding, teacher accountability, and curriculum. While

Thinking made the decade's obligatory obeisance to the tie between economics and schooling, it

did give priority, however, to the theme of decentralization.

> Nothing less than a fundamental restructuring of schools will suffice.
> Accountability defined in terms of student success, combined with flexibility at
> the school and district are the critical elements of this restructuring.
> Teachers and principals - those on the "shop floor" - need to have a greater role
> in decision-making and to have "ownership" in the decisions that are made (p. 1).

(the) school building is the primary building block for excellence. (There is) a premium on educators at the building level working together, establishing student performance goals, and creating strategies and programs that will help students succeed (p. 5).

The state should expand opportunities for innovative ways of introducing participatory decision-making in schools across the state, such as the Lead Teacher Pilot Project currently underway in (three) counties. (Forum, 1988, p. 17)

Restructured Schools

The rush to change schools produced a variety of terms: school-based management, shared decision-making, teacher empowerment, and site-based decision-making. All are descriptors of restructured schools (Clune and White, 1988; David, 1989). The Lead Teacher model is one plan for restructuring for school improvement (Lindelow, 1989). Lead Teachers can serve in such roles as mentors, department, team, or grade-level chairpersons, or curriculum coordinators or designers. The role options are as varied as the needs of schools (NCAE Position Statement, 1987). Specific interpretations of the model were made in North Carolina's pilot program. This time the legislature acted to decentralize some decision-making.

Lead Teacher Pilot Program

In 1987, in large part due to lobbying of the Public School Forum, the legislature established a two-year Lead Teacher Pilot Program (Public School Laws, 1988. See Appendix 1). Special legislation waived certain personnel and accounting requirements for two elementary and two high schools, located across three school systems in North Carolina. The National Governors' Association endorsed the Lead Teacher Pilot Program.

In Alpha County, Alpha County High School and an elementary school began Project Design in the academic year 1987-1988. Each faculty spent a year establishing plans to achieve goals they chose from the Carnegie Report. They continue to be:

1) improve the work place for teachers, and

2) provide better learning opportunities for children.

In 1990-91, the fourth year of implementation, both faculties have established unique versions of the model. Other schools may have been attempting SBM, but Alpha County High School is unique in the state in that it is the only high school in the pilot program to have developed and maintained the Lead Teacher model.

Located in an essentially rural geographic area, the school and the school system, Alpha County Schools, have meager resources other than what is funded by the state. Yet, in 1989-1990, the ACHS students' standardized test scores were improved above previous years' scores. Administrators and faculty believe that the restructured school accounts, at least in part, for the students' improved performance.

Significance

In place since 1987, this Lead Teacher model is regarded as effective for improving student performance. Advocacy groups that lobbied for it and the ACHS faculty regard it as successful. How does the ACHS Lead Teacher model work? How has the staff adapted and interpreted the role options to meet the needs of the school? What do staff and the community at large perceive as results? What tangible and intangible resources have made it work? In this in-depth case study of how ACHS faculty and administration used the Lead Teacher concept to restructure their school, the researcher focused on how the staff used the Lead Teacher concept to plan and implement goals intended to improve school performance.

Research Design

The research design for this study employs the case study model. The researcher used the following procedure:

1) Initial contact, permission to conduct the study and agreed-upon procedure.

2) Collection of data by

    a) Observation of administrative, faculty, and student activities at ACHS.

    b) Interviews with selected administrators, faculty, support personnel, students, parents, and board members.

3) Analysis of data by

    a) identifying themes and consistencies.

    b) clarifying issues.

4) Interpretation of data.

5) Triangulation of researcher's interpretations.

6) Writing a case study.

Purpose

Employing case study methods, the researcher examined the implementation of the Lead Teacher model at Alpha County High School, one high school in North Carolina which had maintained the model since given legislative authority in 1987. The Lead Teacher model is one tool for restructuring schools. The researcher's case study includes observation and interpretation of the structure, roles, and perceptions of participants. A case study can inform the educational community, giving a "snapshot" of the process and the use of one tool for school reform.

The Problem

Interest in school reform has not abated since 1983. While state legislation had the intent that student performance be improved, little change has occurred. Increased centralization and funding have not done the job.

We need to find other solutions for improving education. The idea of empowering teachers through professionalization of the teaching environment suggests that the most effective reform agents are already in the schools. The Lead Teacher model has national support, has been used briefly in North Carolina, and needs to be examined systematically as a way for improving education.

Definitions

1) Accountability: documented demonstration by a school to the North Carolina State Board of Education (SBE) and SDPI of the degree to which that school has met goals established for improving student outcomes.

2) Case study: an organized description of specific events in a specific time from which the researcher draws conclusions and derives general principles.

3) Collegiality: the process of fellow professionals, teachers, governing themselves by sharing power and authority.

4) Empowerment: the act of giving legal authority to school staff to make decisions on funding, staffing, and curriculum.

5) Flexibility: legal authority for a North Carolina school to request permission from the SBE to use state-funded resources for needs determined by the school, rather than by the SDPI and the legislature.

6) Lead Teacher: an organizational model for schools whereby the school is given legal authority to redistribute the teaching responsibilities in order that elected representatives from the faculty teach parttime and perform such supervisory and supporting duties as determined by consensus of the school staff. They work longer hours and are compensated by pay above the appropriate teacher salary.

7) Learning Environment: the school and its planned activities for student acquisition of knowledge and skills.

8) Participatory decision-making: a mechanism whereby all members of a unit, such as a school, may discuss and vote on options for resolving governance issues in their unit.

9) Participant observer: a researcher who gathers data on-site, visible to the observees, and who is poised to interact to some degree with them, always maintaining a detachment that allows analysis of the situation.

10) Professionalism: a state of knowledge, skill, and authority, in which teachers make long-range decisions that they implement to improve student performance.

11) Restructure: the process of giving the staff of an individual school the authority to make decisions about the allocation of resources (money, positions, etc.) to improve student performance.

12) School-based management: the process of the school functioning as the primary unit of educational decision-making.

13) Student outcomes: observable, measured student behaviors, such as standardized test scores, average daily attendance, graduation rate.

14) Triangulation: the research method of seeking data from as many sources as possible which bear upon the events being analyzed as a means of checking or verifying the data.

Delimitations

The project is a case study of a single school, studied in-depth within a short period. The project reveals timely information about the faculty's interpretation of an organizational model and their perceptions of the processes of change, decision-making and outcomes.

Limitations

The project is confined to one site, characteristics of which may not be common to other sites. The perceptions of the Lead Teacher model by the staff of one school may not be those of another. Interpretation of the model may be shaped by the experiences and demographics of the specific school and may not be applicable to the experiences and demographics of a similar school or of other schools.

Researcher Bias

The case study method requires extensive data collection and review. The researcher's goal is to present a summary of data that generates understanding of a complex situation

(Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). In order to generate understanding, the researcher constantly seeks verification for her interpretation from those observed (participants) in the study. Finally, the researcher's interpretations must be supported by the data collected. The researcher is required to check for bias in a case study, but the overriding goal of holistic case presentation reduces the possibility of bias to a minimum.

The researcher provided selected ACHS personnel with draft copies of the case study and asked them to correct any errors of fact and/or interpretation. No persons suggested any substantive changes, implying that the persons essentially agreed with the researcher.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews research and literature on school-based management, teacher and principal norms and behaviors in the setting of the school, change and its effects, and accountability as understood by teachers and principals. Finally, a review of research and literature on examples of school-based management, specifically a lead teacher model, is included.

The chapter is sectioned into issues that structure the case study of the Lead Teacher model in Alpha County High School (ACHS). According to Stake, issues are major ideas about which people disagree (1987). Thus, to understand the case study thoroughly, the reader must recognize how this case is supported by the research and literature in relation to key issues that influence the case. The key issues are:

1) advocacy for decentralized, school-based management,

2) the condition of being a teacher,

3) the condition of being a principal,

4) the process of change and its effects,

5) the perceptions of accountability,

6) examples of attempts at school-based management, specifically, the Lead Teacher model.

First, however, the reader should know the important details of the site of this study. The case study was conducted at the 750-student Alpha County High School, located in Alpha County, North Carolina. The 29-year-old school is one of two high schools in the county. Located in the small town of Triton, population 1942, the school serves a largely rural area.

Alpha County has a population of 39,444 and a per capita personal income of $10,172 as compared to a state average of $12,423. (Kerr-Tar Regional Council of Governments, 1990). The county economy depends on a few industries and a government hospital and prison. By driving past mobile homes and brick bungalows set in woodland and meadow, one can leave the school and in only 20 minutes by interstate highway be in either of two urban, academic cities. Faculty drive to the school from the urban areas, while students drive down the interstate after school to work at fast-food restaurants and shopping centers.

Though Alpha County has fewer resources than the urban counties nearby, Alpha County High School has had a high graduation rate and high student performance on all state-mandated test measures since 1988. Since 1987, Alpha County High School has had special legislative permission to have a Lead Teacher model.

Advocacy for Decentralized, School-Based Management

Beginning with Dewey (1915), advocates of school reform recognized the potential of the school, rather than a state or district agency, functioning as the primary unit of educational decision-making. This phenomenon is variously called school-based management, site-based decision-making, teacher empowerment, decentralization, shared school governance, and participatory decision-making. While there are subtle differences among these terms (Murphy, 1985; David, 1989; Lindle, 1991), the single underlying concept for each is grounded in the belief that those closest to the student can make the best decisions for students. The term school-based management (SBM) is used for this paper. School-based management is defined as the process of the school level personnel functioning as the primary unit of decision-making about the youngsters in the school. A review of the literature on the concept follows.

In 1907, Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of Chicago schools, addressed the National Education Association (NEA): teachers will be stronger in their work (with) a voice in planning of the great issues committed to their hand (Crockenberg and Clark, 1979, p.115). In

1913, the American Federation of Teachers' (AFT) journal echoed Young's statement (Crockenberg and Clark, 1979).

Research in the behavioral sciences supports the concept of making decisions at the worksite. Since the 1950s, industrial models have deemphasized the traditional bureaucratic models of management. "Job enlargement and employee-centered (or democratic or participative) leadership can increase the behavior management desires, i.e., orientation toward the whole organization" (Argyris, 1957, p.23).

Getzels and Guba (1957) enlarged the human relations theories of Argyris (1957) and McGregor (1960): the work environment with attendant values and expectations is as important as the people within it. Peters and Waterman (1982) popularized the values championed by the human relationists and the social systems theorists: they stressed a flattened management that stayed "close to the customer" (p. 156), while modeling a "bias for action" (p. 119). All these theories broaden our understanding of the participants in the culture we call school, but they are not new to educators.

For almost 40 years, Goodlad has argued that principals and teachers should work as a unit at the school level (1955, 1979, 1984, 1990). They make the best decisions for teaching students. Top-down decrees are not as productive. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) evaluated for the RAND Corporation the rigidly centralized Great Society programs. They concluded that no matter how the federal authorities envisioned a program, reforms mandated through the use of formal authority were shaped by the participants (local agencies, such as schools) at the point of implementation. Success or failure of a program was not as relevant as was the power of the individual implementer (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978). State-mandated reforms are subject to the same phenomenon.

Chapter 1 of this paper included a description of educational reform intended by legislators to achieve uniformity and equality of services. Professionals and the public alike

are still dissatisfied with student performance. A better question than "How can we make

everyone behave the same?" is "How can we make our schools more effective in what they do?"

(Weick, 1982; Sizer, 1984; Darling-Hammond, 1985; Marburger, 1985). Student achievement in

North Carolina has not noticeably improved with decisions about education being made in the

legislature and State Department of Public Instruction (SDPI). Resources of money and personnel

are scarce; educators can expect no increase there. What will happen if those in the school,

those closest to the students have the authority and opportunity to decide who teaches what,

how and to whom? This researcher found few empirical studies of the implementation of the

concept of school-based management. Most of the literature consists of prescriptive, rather than

descriptive writing.

Standards for student achievement may, quite reasonably, be established by a central

governing body, such as a state department for public instruction. Few would argue that there

should be no standards for the students of North Carolina to achieve. Indeed, Timar and Kirp

(1989) in reviewing selected state reforms, argue for a balance between state accountability and

local autonomy. It is reasonable to expect a state's students to achieve common goals. The goals

can best be achieved if the staff at the individual school has the flexibility to decide how to

use the scarce resources available to motivate students toward the goal.

School-based management figured in the many commission reports of the 1980s, some

stressing it more than others. Words that recur frequently are teacher, leadership, and

restructure. The Holmes Group (1983) prized a collegiality for teachers that in turn impacted

on students:

> . . .make schools better places for teachers to work and to learn. This will require less
> bureaucracy, more professional autonomy, and more leadership for teachers. Schools
> where teachers will learn from each other, and from other professionals will be schools
> where good teachers will want to teach...and students will learn more. (p. 4).

Outside educational circles, Louis Harris, (1986), in his report The Public Speaks, concluded:

> . . .teachers should be involved in the process of deciding how and what subjects are to be taught. . .giving the best teachers leadership roles in the school to improve the entire school's performance. Have top teachers coordinate the work of other teachers, thus optimally utilize the school's resources.
>
> If teachers are held accountable for student progress. . .(they) should have a real say on what's taught, how materials are used, how the budget is spent. The concept of Lead Teacher. . .meets with wide approval. (1986, p. 104)

Ten years after Berman and McLaughlin's 1978 evaluation of the Great Society programs, another RAND publication, Steady Work, pulled no punches in analyzing the centralized reforms:

> Reform of the basic conditions of teaching and learning must originate in the practice of teaching rather than in the expert advice and external standards as have past reforms. . . Externalized controls have little significant effect on classroom performance of teachers and students; in fact, they restrict the professional judgement central to effective practice. (Elmore and McLaughlin, 1988, p. 52)

In 1987, the Public School Forum of North Carolina published the results of an exhaustive study of time management of North Carolina educators. Alpha County educators contributed part of the data. The report is the result of empirical research on what the adults, as well as the students, do while in school. The Forum's conclusions are specific.

1) There is an insufficient number of personnel at the school site to accomplish the supportive evaluation, training, and administrative overload.
2) Accountability goals are unclear.
3) Decision-making does not sufficiently involve teachers and other key staff.
4) School budget is not controlled by the site manager, limiting management flexibility, decisionmaking, and accountability.
5) Administrative span of control is too broad to provide adequate supportive supervision, practical training, and constructive, flexible, employee evaluations. (The Condition of Being an Educator, 1987)

Both literature and research support placing decision-making about schooling at the school. Should a top-down decision be made at the state legislature and the SDPI to "allow" schools to make decisions bottom-up? Simply moving decisions about management to a school does not mean that the faculty of that school can or will use the opportunity to reform their school. First, certain issues must be addressed about the culture of school, the process of change, leadership, and perceptions of accountability. These issues significantly impact on how individuals in the school shape and determine the outcomes of reform efforts.

The Condition of Being a Teacher

This section reviews the literature and research on teachers in the culture of school. Case study method is well represented in research on the condition of teaching. There is evidence that the culture of the school and socialization of teachers foster behavior patterns and expectations that inhibit change.

From the beginning of the century to the present, literature on the condition of teaching has stressed the unique relationship between teacher and student. Often speaking less about teachers and more about students, Dewey argued vigorously for shaping the school environment to reflect a difference in the school life: "a difference in motive, of spirit, and atmosphere" (1915, p.12).

A triangular alliance of teacher, student, and principal was the best measure of educational practice for Dewey:

> The vice of externally imposed ends has deep roots. Teachers receive them from superior authorities; these authorities accept them from what is current in the community. The teachers impose them on children. As a consequence, the intelligence of the teacher is not free; it is confined to receiving the aims laid down from above. (Dewey, 1916, 108-109)

Dewey emphasized that a model of centralization and hierarchy inhibited teacher interaction with the student and "render(ed) the work of both teacher and pupil mechanical and slavish" (1916, p. 108-109).

Three-quarters of a century later, the following statement appeared in Thinking for a Living: A Blueprint for Educational Growth (1988), a report by the North Carolina Public School Forum:

> Contributing to the success of all students should be the driving rationale for any educational policies or initiatives. Far more control and flexibility over education decisions and resources should be returned to the local level in exchange for demanding student standards.

The more things change, the more they stay the same. Both Dewey (1915, 1916) and the Forum reports (1987, 1988) stress the importance of making decisions close to the student, that is, in the school rather than in state capitals. Research on the condition of teaching emphasizes the critical need for teachers—those closest to the students—to make the important decisions about professional practice.

Lortie (1975) based his sociological treatise School Teacher, in part, on interviews with 94 teachers in five towns in Massachusetts. Fifteen years later, Johnson (1990) interviewed 115 teachers recommended as good by their principals. The two studies cite centuries' old dilemmas that continue to shortcircuit reform to make the school the site of management and decision-making.

1) From kindergartner to college student, prospective teachers do not witness collegiality and collaboration among teachers.

2) This apprenticeship-by-observation reinforces the continuity of teaching as an activity isolated from other adults.

3) Teachers accept help from administrators and supervisors, but they seek help from peers.

4) The result is that teachers develop and maintain an intuitive, independent approach to teaching; they do not acquire (because they are not modelled) new standards for their own behavior.

Johnson's teachers cared most about factors in the work place that inhibited or enabled them in the classroom. Socialized to work in isolation, they saw their roles in governance to be informal and dependent on the principal's style of management. They prized collegiality, but even when given the rare opportunity to engage in it, did not often do so (1990). A follow-up of Lortie's work (Kottcamp, Provenzo, & Cohn, 1986) revealed that almost 19% fewer teachers than in the earlier study saw supervisors and administrators as important sources of instructional help. Lortie's and Johnson's observations reveal a ingrained standard of behavior that is too complex to be reformed with incremental, simplistic formulas that characterize the legislated accountability measures.

Similar conclusions have been cited in research by Rosenholtz and Kyle (1984), Little and Bird (1985), and Lieberman, (1988). The eggcrate school isolates teachers from one another and from administration. Teacher isolation costs (Rosenholtz, 1985; Smith & Scott, 1990): the effect is that teachers distance themselves from involvement with students, controlling them as administrators in turn control teachers (McNeill, 1988). Collaboration among teachers and principals pays benefits in staff enthusiasm and student achievement (Rosenholtz & Kyle, 1984; Bacharach, Conley, & Shedd, 1989). How can we promote the teacher interaction and collegiality that enhance decision-making to improve educational practice?

Much of the literature on the topic of changing the teaching environment is prescriptive. Restructure, empower, decentralize and professionalize are frequently-used words. Rosenholtz (1984) and Darling-Hammond (1985) advocate that educators be allowed to add to or to restructure schools to promote professionalism. Collaboration is a component of effective schools (Miles, 1983) and of good schools (Goodlad, 1979; Snyder, Kreiger &

McCormick, 1983; Rosenholtz & Kyle, 1984; Rosenholtz, 1985; Howey, 1988). The absence of

collegiality is an impediment to substantial reform (Forum, 1987; Mertens & Yarger, 1988;

Rogus, 1988). The school culture is most responsive to student needs when decision-making is at

the school level (Bacharach, Conley, & Shedd, 1986; Elmore & McLaughlin, 1988; Maeroff,

1988) or, from business models, at the lowest level of an organization (Barnard, 1935; McGregor,

1960; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

School improvement can not occur without empowerment of teachers (Mertens & Yarger,

1988; Sickler, 1988). Standardized reforms have not made schools inviting and stimulating for

teachers or students (Sizer, 1984; Forum, 1987; McNeil, 1988).

In North Carolina, the Public School Forum (1987) investigated 1) time use in schools

and 2) school-site organizational structure. After a meticulous analysis of teacher and

principal logs for one month's time, the Forum researchers concluded that barriers to school

improvement were built into the structure of North Carolina schools. For example, the

organization of schools suffered from over-definition in some job areas and lack of definition in

others.

Job overlay and heavy work demands on teachers had secretaries functioning as finance

officers while "teachers are typing tests" (p. 36). Lack of technological and human resources

forced teachers to work an average of 49.7 hours and administrators 53 hours a week. Work was

characterized, not by meaningful long- and short-term planning for students; rather, adults'

time was consumed by overlapping tasks and functions and by reacting, without resilience, to

immediate demands from central office and students.

Research by case study and interview supports teachers' descriptions of the rewards of

teaching as intangible, rather than monetary (Sizer, 1984; McNeill, 1988; Johnson, 1990). When

the structure of the organization reinforces a priority of checklists and passing inspection,

teaching is devalued and teachers know this. Teachers perceive that the demands on their

time do not allow for valuing conferencing among peers to plan instruction. In addition, the time spent and the focus of the state-required formal evaluation, the Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument (TPAI), separate, rather than unite administrators and teachers. Evaluation is inspection for minimum standards rather than a process for fostering professional growth (Little & Bird, 1985; Forum, 1987; Gross & Furey, 1987).

Teachers are isolated from each other and from administrators. Removing the barriers between colleagues may make education better. One such strategy is the Lead Teacher model. Lortie's research (1975) foreshadowed issues for the Lead Teacher model. The model has:

1) the potential for collegiality,

2) teacher inhibitions for same,

3) the potential for modeling problem-solving behavior for students,

4) the potential effects of the existence of both a formal and an informal network of supervision within a school.

Proposals for SBM call for putting decision-making at the building:

> . . .where teachers teach, where costs and benefits of alternative choices can be calculated and practices fashioned to meet local needs. Where teachers share formal authority with administrators and exert decisions rather than merely advisory influence,. . . (it is) a more productive and efficient use of teachers' scarce time. (Johnson, 1990, p. 215)

However, Johnson warned that moving decision-making to the school site was only a beginning. Teachers must be helped to

1) venture beyond the classroom,

2) fashion new working relationships with peers,

3) participate in decision-making in the school

4) become accountable for teaching standards and professional performance

5) engage in peer evaluation.

They can not do this alone. The principal's role is crucial in setting norms for behavior in decision-making. Leadership from the principal is critical (David, 1989).

<div align="center">The Condition of Being a Principal</div>

This section reviews the research and literature on the principal's role in the culture of the school. Whatever the source--leadership studies, studies of effective principals, or studies of principals as change facilitators--education analysts conclude that the principal is the prime factor in the process of change and school improvement (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 50-51).

The role of the principal has been scrutinized via case study and survey. For a review of the research literature on what principals do, see Wolcott (1973), Manasse (1985), Hall & Hord, (1987); and Greenfield (1988).

Important research on principals has been done using case study method. Wolcott (1973) followed one principal for one year, writing an influential volume that analyzed the data for symbolic leadership and values espoused by Ed Bell, the "man in the principal's office". Morris, Crowson, Hurwitz, and Porter-Gehrie (1982) followed 24 principals for three years, looking for time management decisions and evidence of instructional leadership.

Gross and Furey (1987) shadowed 33 principals in a Maryland school district for two days each. Carlton (1990) analyzed data from 30 oral histories by retired principals. Blase used interviews and questionnaires to gather data on teachers' perceptions of school leadership (1987).

These and other researchers draw common conclusions about the condition of being a principal. Principals work in isolation from peers and from central office (Wolcott, 1973; Crowson & Porter-Gehrie, 1980; Duke & Stiggins, 1985; Time for Results, 1986). They are frustrated by role ambiguity (Wolcott, 1973; Forum, 1987; Harrison & Peterson, 1987; Johnson & Snyder, 1990) and overlapping functions (Forum, 1987; Gross & Furey, 1987).

Their work is characterized by variety, brevity, and fragmentation (Peterson, 1978). The demand on principals' time is staggering. Between routine duties and emergencies (Morris, et al., 1980; Barnett, 1987), the inclination to encourage change is devalued in an atmosphere where professionals perceive that the principal's job is to provide stability and continuity (Wolcott, 1973,; Morris, et al., 1982). Principals become agents of rhetoric of change, rather then agents of change itself (Wolcott, 1973, p.322).

The Public School Forum's time analysis (1987) found that North Carolina's principals worked an average of 53 hours a week, spending the majority of their time on ancillary administrative responsibilities (28.2%) and student support of monitoring, disciplining, and counseling students (25.8%). Only about one quarter of the school week was devoted to instructional management and planning (10.4%) and supervising staff (17.8%). (1986, p. 20)

Brookover & Lezotte (1979) and Edmonds (1979) conclude that strong leadership from the principal, especially instructional leadership, results in "effective" schools, often measured by higher than expected test scores. Morris, et al. (1980) specifically looked for, and did not find, principals functioning as instructional leaders. Nor did Gross and Furey (1987). Few of Johnson's (1990) teachers perceived their principals as instructional leaders. While the concept of principals functioning as instructional leaders is "intuitively comfortable", (Ginsberg, 1988, p. 276), if it means that the principal is actively involved in planning for classroom instruction, it is not being done nor is it easy to practice, given the demands on time.

Noting that good schools do exist, reviewers have theorized what personal and professional qualities make a good and effective school administrator despite the negative dimensions of the role. They know "what to do, how to do it, and why it is important to do" (Achilles, 1988, p. 41). They set norms (Achilles and Keedy, 1984; High and Achilles, 1986). They articulate a vision (Goodlad, 1979, 1984; Barnett, 1987; Achilles, 1988; Lyman, 1988;

Thomson, 1990). They are creative insubordinates (Manasse, 1985). They focus on students as the primary mission (Carlton, 1990).

Johnson (1990) declared that good principals made good teaching possible by minimizing bureaucratic demands, ensuring order among students, consulting staff about purchases and practices, respecting teachers' autonomy and rewarding good effort with a genuine "thank you" (p. 340).

If we view principals' work in a context of symbolism, they maintain linkages; they set norms for specific orientations for teachers in their buildings. The broad categories shown in the table below represent dimensions of principals' work. Table 1 is drawn from proposals by Blase (1987), Greenfield (1988), and Sashkin (1988).

Table 1.

Dimensions of Principals' Work.

Sashkin	Blase	Greenfield
bureaucratic linkages component	task-orientation factors	technical
cultural linkages component	consideration factors	moral

Comparison of the dual dimensions in Table 1 shows both a managerial component (what and how to do) juxtaposed with one of a messier, inspirational component (why to do it).

Within the dual--and often conflicting--dimensions of administrators' work, researchers have delineated more elaborate schema to list particular skills or behaviors exhibited by effective administrators. See Achilles and Keedy (1984) Manasse (1985), Valentine and Bowman, (1986), Blase, (1987), Greenfield (1988), Slater, (1988), Carlton, (1990) and Thomson (1990).

Time management research, such as that by the Public School Forum (1987), proposes that principals' attention to the managerial aspect, while neglecting the more amorphous inspirational component of school leadership, makes schools ineffective. The principals' job has come to be defined as one of enforcement of top-down policy making. The principal is charged with evaluating the how and what of teaching. The "best" how and what have been decided far from the classroom. The effect is that schools are factory models (Sizer, 1984; Forum, 1987; McNeil, 1988) where teachers and administrators are isolated from each other and both teachers and students are the objects of control and inspection. In the absence of an exciting learning environment, we have paid a price: talented teachers began teaching defensively instead of drawing on their rich experience and expertise (McNeill, 1988).

In the research on their role, principals consistently complained of role ambiguity (Wolcott, 1973; Forum, 1987; Harrison & Peterson, 1987) which is a symptom of the larger issue of legislators' devaluation of time. No money for clerical support and smaller classes has teachers typing, secretaries managing finances, and principals counseling students and finding textbooks (Forum, 1987). Teachers and principals alike are short-changed on the most precious commodity of all: time to do the job they were attracted to in the beginning.

Barth crystallizes the concept of leader of an effective school as the "head learner" (1988, p. 190). He angrily denounces principals as having stopped learning. They are inhibited by taboos against professional development, fearful of admitting vulnerability. The leader as learner is critical because of the link between collegiality and learning, says Barth (1986, p. 47). If everyone in the school is learning, a standard has been set for all three agents in our

linked triangle: students, teachers, and administrators. However, given the state's demands in North Carolina, a principal acting as Barth's "head learner" would have to engage in an act of creative insubordination on stolen time.

An example is the North Carolina state legislature's determination to evaluate all teachers on a list of discrete skills, the TPAI. Equal application demands a large proportion of administrators' time. The practice erects a barrier to principals' acting as instructional leaders. Teachers dread evaluations as something to be endured, not an opportunity for improvement. (Johnson, 1990). It is an instrument that creates divisiveness rather than collaboration (Little & Bird, 1985; Forum, 1987; Gross & Furey, 1987). Johnson's teachers perceived that evaluation practices were effective for dismissal, but not for improvement, with principals rarely able to offer constructive advice. Both parties emphasize procedure over content (1990).

The one constant in the literature on the principal's role is that change in the role is imperative. (Sizer, 1984; Forum, 1987, 1988; Thomson, 1990; Johnson & Snyder, 1989-90). Restructuring is not a fad, but is rooted in the shift of power sharing in business, science, and government (Reavis, 1991) as well as in the concept of professional practice (Darling-Hammond, 1988). Based on this premise, educational administration scholars have proposed models for training in this new age. Carefully arranged schemata for training potential principals exist (Blase, 1987; Hall & Hord, 1987; Thomson, 1990) along with passionate challenges like Greenfield's requirement of "moral imagination and interpersonal competence" (1989, p. 215) and Barth's head learner (1989). Whatever the dimensions of the new role for principals, change presents challenges and hazards.

In a new era, the role of the principal is a crucial one and the role must meet new demands (David, 1988). The principal is the most vulnerable party in the move to school-based management. Being an enforcer of central office policy may have been constricting, but it gave security and comfort in its known limitations. Those principals who have experienced some

form of school-based management have expressed discomfort (Bradley, 1990). There is

frustration at the slow process. Decision-making bound by the old rules went a lot faster.

Teachers are accustomed to advocating for their departments, without considering the school as

a whole. Principals are anxious at having to defend a democratically devised policy that they

may not have chosen unilaterally. Principals risk far more than teachers in sharing power

simply because the principal is the ultimate authority in a school (Lindelow, 1989). There is no

large pool of colleagues to support a principal in the building. There are new rules to be devised

and central office support is crucial to the principals as they embark on school-based

management. (Goodlad, 1979; Sirotnik & Clark, 1988; David, 1988, Murphy, 1989).

In conclusion, the current conditions of being an educator offer lessons for the future.

Dewey believed in experimentation, learning from failure and constant inquiry (Sarason, 1971).

Guthrie (1986) and others proposed SBM as an experiment, with risks involved. The literature

cited describes the school as an uninviting workplace where isolation and role ambiguity

discourage collegiality. When teachers and principals deliver the best education possible it is

in spite of, not because of the school structure.

School-based management entices professionals to move from a managed, confining

school culture to one of collaborative leadership. Principals are the "voice and vision" of the

culture that they share with teachers (Weick, 1982, p. 675). Teachers and principals working

together can set norms for vision sharing and cooperation in reaching for high standards in

education. This change can take place, but we need to learn the lessons from the change

literature.

Change and Education

A familiar voice admonishes us from a century ago: It is useless to bemoan the

departure of the good old days... It is radical conditions which have changed and only an

equally radical change in education suffices (Dewey, 1916, p. 9).

Change and education have telescoped into almost the same phenomenon in this century. From Dewey (1915) to Drucker (1989), the literature is replete with admonitions to change. This section examines particular change proposals and the nature of change itself.

Change Proposals

With "new realities" (Drucker, 1989) of society, the needs of schooling in the 1990s are different, must be different. What changes do we want and how can the change be accomplished?

Educational administration and Masters in Business Administration (MBA) preparatory programs have used as texts the popular works of "change" advocates Peters and Waterman (1982) and Naisbitt (1982). Imagine a school as the workplace these authors describe. Peters (1982) equates success and productivity with a workplace that fosters experimentation, intense and informal communication about problem-solving and autonomy for workers who solve problems.

Naisbitt (1982) predicted that society as a whole was changing on several levels: from a centralized, hierarchical, representative structure to a decentralized, networking, participatory one. If this happens for schools, what will the new worker be like? Drucker (1989) described the worker (read: educator) of the new order.

> Knowledge workers. . .resist the command-and-control model that business took from the military one hundred years ago. Given that today's teachers are knowledge workers trying to manage an information-based organization, they must change to meet the challenge of making decisions based on ever-increasing amounts of data. (p. 210)

The work itself will be done by task-focused teams, in a flatter bureaucratic structure, says Drucker. The information-based organization requires self-discipline and an emphasis on individual responsibility for relationships and for communications (p. 211).

Educators, arise! Those working in the schools are the knowledge workers, trained professionals, who have to make decisions collectively, collaboratively, using the data

available to them. There is no dearth of data—the SDPI requires that 30 tests be administered

annually for "accountability", which is discussed below.

How easily can teachers and principals change to become "new workers"? What is the

nature of change and the potential barriers and facilitators that pertain to changing the culture

of the school?

The Process and Effects of Change

Dewey cautioned: Whenever we have in mind the discussion of a new movement in

education, it is especially necessary to take the broader, or social view (Dewey, 1915, p. 4). To

take the broader view, we must expand our awareness of change, its characteristics, and effects.

Changed schools, specifically effective schools, which have been elementary schools,

attract attention (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1979). We want to know what made

them change. There are models for describing the incremental events of change (Hughes &

Achilles, 1971). Change is a process, occurring over time to transform people and situations

(Fullan, 1985; Rogus, 1988). Certain facilitators stimulate change and occasionally, the results

become institutionalized. Facilitators work when leaders orchestrate complex group dynamics

and interpersonal relationships (Sarason, 1971; Fullan, 1985). Table 2 shows Sarason's and

Fullan's facilitators. Each author values attention to the process of change itself and inclusion

of those affected.

Table 2.

Facilitators of Change

FULLAN'S FACILITATORS	SARASON'S FACILITATORS
-a feel for improvement process	-conceptualization of process
-a guiding value system	-involvement of all affected
-intense interaction	-appropriate constituencies
-collaboration	

Both models feature both intellectual and interpersonal components. To change schools leaders must model behaviors that incorporate both, realizing that facilitators operate in opposition to barriers.

Barriers to change are built into the culture of the school: teachers and principals are isolated from one another and intellectual behavior is confined to the classroom, where it may occur in spite of SDPI's Standard Course of Study. The possibility of job enlargement for teachers collides with both the egalitarian ethic of teaching and principals' burden of legal culpability (Lortie, 1975; Devaney, 1987). Other barriers described by Fullan include unsolvable problems, nature and narrowness of goals, demographics of students, abstraction, misunderstanding, and incompleteness (1985).

Farrar, Neufield, and Miles (1983), analyzing effective schools research, noted the following barriers to change in a secondary school:

1) the culture is such that teachers have few substantive needs for faculty collaboration; any contacts are informal and serendipitous,

2) teaching strategies are more traditional,

3) teachers oppose measuring students by testing,

4) there are potential effects on student attrition if standards are raised,

5) the student at the high school is seldom committed to learning,

6) there is the necessity of garnering parent and community support.

Sarason states that change founders on a disregard for: the nature of change, the nature of power relationships, the culture of the school, lack of clarity of goals and ways to achieve them (1971). An examination of Sarason's explanation of power impacts on the concept of school-based management.

He states: power evolves from self-interest; self-interest is not selfishness, but how one defines, locates and uses resources. The definition of resources must be enlarged to include

personnel and constituencies. The resources of time and money in schools are so limited that change cannot occur unless there is a redefinition. Constituencies include the students, parents, and community. Power, defined as self-interest, also belongs to students. An issue seldom discussed in SBM is empowerment of students. Successful schools depend on the triangular collaboration of principals, teachers and students (emphasis mine, Sarason, 1971).

Enlarging the power issue, Dunlap and Goldman (1991) state that to see power as a dichotomous issue between administrators and teachers is too narrowly focused. They propose a 90-degree shift, rethinking top-down and bottom-up directions of decision-making. Facilitative power balances the administrator's and the teacher's perception of professional responsibility. The administrator needs sufficient time and control of resources to manage effectively the decisions of others. Teachers need the opportunity to make the decisions about resources that will improve their individual and their collective performance (p. 13). The balance between administrator and teacher can be struck with facilitative power, a sharing of power, which discards old notions of domination. This type of power is actualized through others on a basis of trust and reciprocity (p. 22). It is more consistent with the reform emphases discussed in this paper and expands Sarason's theory of power relationships.

Two decades ago, Sarason (1971) cautioned:

1) The way in which the change process is conceptualized is far more fateful for the success or failure than the educational method or content one seeks to implement.
2) To the extent that the effort at change identifies and meaningfully involves all those directly or indirectly will be affected by the change, to that extent the effort stands a chance of being successful.
3) Without appropriate constituencies the change stands little or no chance to survive the competition for limited resources. (Sarason, 1971, p. 78)

Successful school changes depend on an affirmed common mission, a common group perception of goals and objectives, and well-orchestrated collective effort to achieve the goals and objectives (Sarason, 1971; Lortie, 1975; Fullan, 1985). To change schools, we must

acknowledge that the need for change is unavoidable; that schools are complex social

organizations in which change does not occur easily; that the function of schooling is to produce

outcomes in students; that teacher practice is directly related to student outcomes, and that a

desired change in student outcomes is facilitated by appropriate change in teacher practice

(Castle, 1984).

To transform teaching from the teacher's individual task to the collaborative effort of

the school culture is the task at hand (Devaney, 1987). Yet state legislators are reluctant to

give the opportunity for school-based management without holding school staffs accountable in

their use of state monies. Perceptions and elements of accountability are reviewed in the next

section.

Accountability

This section reviews some literature about accountability in public schools. When

legislators and reform advocates speak of decentralized decision-making, accountability is

often in the same sentence.

A cornerstone of bureaucracy, accountability may be defined as systematic efforts to

ensure individual and group productivity (Clark and Astuto, 1988, p. 115). As legislatures

increased funding for public schools, they also increased their demand for accountability. Since

the 1970's, when minimum competency tests for North Carolina's students were mandated

(Public School Laws, 1981; Forum, 1988), accountability has come to mean the degree to which

the public dollar investment has resulted in student achievement on standardized tests.

In the 1980s, policy makers demanded accountability in return for flexibility at the

school level. In 1987, 11 state legislatures identified accountability as a top priority; in 1988,

17 states listed it. (Weston and Walker, 1988). Accountability became tied to union

negotiations for increased teacher pay and school-based management in Rochester and Dade

County (Cistone, Fernandez, and Tornillo, 1989; Bradley, 1991).

Accountability, defined as scores on standardized tests, by itself is isolating, an ineffective means for school improvement. Rather, it should be regarded as a means to an end (Seeley, 1979). Focusing on accountability can inhibit efficacy (Clark and Astuto, 1988), emphasizing compliance rather than good practice (Darling-Hammond, 1988).

A redefinition of accountability is in order. Darling-Hammond (1988) argues for a professional accountability that assures and protects both the public and the educational practitioners. The assurance is that:

1) all individuals that practice are competent.
2) where knowledge about practice exists, it will be used.
3) where certainty about practice does not exist, practitioners will seek, individually and collaboratively, the most responsible practice for the situation.
4) practitioners will pledge their primary commitment to the student. (p. 13)

The Public School Forum's Thinking for a Living (1988) maintains that accountability is more complex than basic skills competency. Effectiveness is a better measure, with accountability defined as having both a school and a student dimension.

School-level accountability is an approach to school management in which principals and teachers closely monitor student performance and, working closely with parents, use that information to plan, modify, and strengthen the school program. Student-centered accountability. . .emphasizes student achievement and learning as key indicators of effectiveness. (p 16)

The practitioner whom the legislatures and the public have held most accountable has been the classroom teacher: what, how, and to whom is that teacher teaching? In North Carolina, not only is there a state definition for best practice, the Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument (TPAI); the SDPI has developed tests for every academic aspect of the curriculum. End of Course (EOC) tests for math, science, social studies, writing as well as basic skills competency and nationally normed achievement tests have shaped the curriculum in public schools in the state. In secondary schools, the EOC test replaces the teacher-made

examination. In the elementary schools, teachers routinely defer creative classroom activities

until "after the CAT test", given in March each year.

The dilemma for professionals is whether teachers should be held accountable for

appropriate practice or for standard procedure (Darling-Hammond, 1988). In 1989, the members

of the Task Force on Home Rule of the SDPI discussed a proposal for developing a model for

giving more flexibility along with increased demands for accountability to local schools. The

group decided that naming their model Accountability/Flexibility would emphasize their

priority. Their report to the state superintendent stated:

> In exchange for greater local decision-making authority, educators need to be
> accountable for student outcomes. Promoting positive student outcomes should be the
> driving force behind all education policies and programs. However, measures of student
> outcomes should not be confined to test scores, but should be expanded to include dropout
> rates, attendance rates and post-secondary success. When test scores are used, testing
> should reflect coverage and mastery of North Carolina Standard Course of Study and
> thus go beyond the use of standardized tests. (Restructuring Education in North
> Carolina, 1989)

The legislation that evolved from the Task Force's work was called The School

Improvement and Accountability Act of 1989. The act gave local school districts the

opportunity to ask the State Board of Education (SBE) for waivers from specific state

requirements (flexibility). The district would then be obligated to prove accountability in

student performance. The SBE interpreted the act's accountability to mean that local districts

must meet 30 performance standards, 25 of which are SDPI's mandated tests: EOC tests,

minimum competency, California Achievement Tests, etc. (Recommended Guidelines, 1989).

While the SBE guidelines allowed "any other" measures a local district wanted to use,

accountability in this context clearly means passing inspection rather than demonstrating

appropriate practice. "All richness, shortcomings, interpersonal relationships, successes and

failures are reduced to a few figures. . .(for) a ledger book" (Goodlad, 1979, p. 342). Cuban

cautions that when effectiveness is tied to test scores, the schools with high test scores escape the obligation to improve (1983).

The North Carolina legislature and the SDPI have defined accountability narrowly; schools are still not "improved" to everyone's satisfaction. An experiment allowing the players in our linked triangle to establish accountability measures in broader terms than the TPAI and EOC test scores was legislated in 1987, with the Lead Teacher Pilot Program. Chapter 4 of this research contains a case study of a high school in North Carolina that took advantage of legislation to establish and maintain the Lead Teacher model. This high school has legal authority to practice school-based management, its school board empowered to waive some state regulations.

Some attempts at transforming top-down, hierarchical decision-making to that of a decentralized, networking, participatory structure, i.e., school-based management, are reviewed in the next section.

Documented Accounts of School-Based Management

This section summarizes a search of the literature on the terms used to denote, however loosely, school-based management. An ERIC search, 1983-1990, was made of

-lead teacher,

-teacher and leadership,

-accountability and teachers,

-site-based management,

-participatory decisionmaking,

-school-based management.

Only 14 entries were found under lead teacher. Twenty-six were listed under teacher and leadership. The research entries generally described an appointed position in which a

teacher functioned as a participant and spokesperson in a particular school instructional program (Howard, 1987; Wasley, 1989).

The Carnegie report (1986) prescribed a Lead Teacher model that put decision-making, by teachers, at the school level. Dade County, Florida and Rochester, New York, are the sites most frequently featured in the press for their implementation of school-based management. Some of the schools in these two districts have implemented the Lead Teacher model (Olson, 1987; Hallinger, 1988; Cistone, Fernandez, & Tornillo, 1989; Bradley, 1991).

A search of literature reveals that local and district interpretation of the terms school-based management, site-based decision-making, and lead teacher models is as varied as the schools that implement them. Lindle (1991) cautions against these terms being used as rhetoric. Decentralization can be to a school; it isn't necessarily in a school (David, 1989). What exactly is meant by school-based management?

> The backbone of school-based management is delegation of authority from district to schools; without autonomy, shared decision making within the school has little meaning. (David, p. 46)

White, in a "snowball" process, found 100 school districts in 18 states that had a history of school-based management (SBM). One district, Chesterfield, Missouri has had SBM since 1956. Other districts have, since the 1970s, tried it, most often citing superintendent's lack of support and lack of funds as reasons for discontinuing it. The concept is currently being implemented chiefly in California, Minnesota, Florida, and New Jersey. The most cited district as a model for study is Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, which began a pilot program in 1976, and implemented it district-wide in 1979 (White, 1988). Australia has also used school-based management as a means of putting decision-making at the building level (Chapman, 1989).

Most school-based management projects consist of:

1) school teams of teachers, principal, sometimes parents and students.

2) authority given the school leaders which allows them decision-making in varying

    degrees and combinations on matters of a) curriculum, b) budgeting, and c) personnel.

One district allowed principals to decide how many staff to hire, but not whom to hire. In some

schools, the faculty representatives interviewed and made recommendations for hiring of

teachers and principal (White, 1988; David, 1989).

None of White's districts (which did not include Virginia) reported a specific Lead

Teacher model. A case study of six Virginia elementary schools that participated in a Virginia

Education Association pilot program revealed a variety of models, only one of which was a

Lead Teacher one (Participatory Decision-making, 1988).

Lindle (1989) criticizes the Carnegie description of the role of Lead Teacher as a

managerial one, uninviting to a teacher who wishes to work with students. She raises the

questions: Who are the leaders? What happens when teacher leadership is formalized?

What happens when a faculty focuses on leadership roles as opposed to the work of teaching?

(p. 20). The case study of this paper offers some answers.

Teacher leadership is not the same concept as Lead Teacher. Where job enlargement

has been interpreted as teacher leadership, invariably the teacher has been appointed, not

elected by peers. Those teachers who were appointed express resentment about role ambiguity,

insufficient time away from teaching duties, and the tension of working with colleagues

resentful of job differentiation (Devaney, 1987; Wasley, 1989). Such timid restructuring often

dooms a teacher leader project. Wasley admonishes that the creation, design, and

implementation is crucial to acceptance of the role of Lead Teacher and the subsequent effect on

the school culture (1989).

Devaney, (1987) wrote a detailed description of how to begin a Lead Teacher model:

> The first lead teacher jobs should be designed to improve all teachers' work. . . .
> Teachers can achieve a professional standard only within a school organization that
> fosters teachers' initiatives, collegiality, and continuous improvement. (p. 17)

Autonomy is the watchword. Without it, a bureaucratic model prevails.

Hallinger and Richardson (1988) describe four models of shared leadership, three of
which are a team approach. The teams' power over school decisions ranges from advisory
status to authoritative. Hallinger and Richardson declare the Lead Teacher model the most
radical: it is a contractual agreement between teacher and principal whereby teachers have
legal permission to make decisions. Teachers have more formal authority than has
traditionally been given to principals. The principal shares instructional and personnel
decisions with the Lead Teachers, retaining many management decisions for him/herself. The
focus of the Lead Teacher model is twofold: increasing student performance and making the
career of teaching more attractive.

The principal is pivotal in determining the range of authority and ultimate success of
the model. Success depends on the opportunity for teacher input, a focus on schoolwide goals,
and enhancement of collegiality (Hallinger & Richardson, 1988).

To promote site-based decision-making, the National Education Association (NEA) has
sponsored Team Approach to Better Schools (TABS) and Mastery in Learning Project (MILP)
schools since 1986. One such site was North Asheboro Middle School in North Carolina, which
formed a "team approach" for shared decisionmaking (It's a Hit, 1988). The project died with
a change in the principalship. Tuthill (1987) and Grant (1988), in evaluating MILP projects,
caution that implementing any form of school-based management:

1) is time-consuming,
2) requires communication,
3) requires training in conflict resolution, problem solving, consensus building, living
   with change,
4) requires autonomy and flexibility in deciding on goals for the school,
5) requires that evaluation and revision of the program be on-going. (Lindelow, 1989;
   Carr, 1988; Olson, 1987; Cistone et al., 1989)

School-based management as envisioned by its advocates has both potential and perils. Research on efforts across the nation verifies that when attempts have been tentative, without devolution of power to the school, such efforts have not become true SMB.

Conclusion

Teachers are socialized to act intuitively and independently to solve problems in their classrooms. Principals and teachers are isolated from one another in decision-making. Principals act as gatekeepers, trying to balance stability and continuity with demands for accountability and change. Principals establish the norms of behavior for best teaching practice and school governance. Change is a complex process; failure to note the components of change can derail any reform effort. Accountability standards have been narrowly defined in terms of test scores and attendance figures by the state, rather than by school faculties who deal with the complexities of students and learning. Students with faces have been left out of the equations for school improvement. Students, teachers and principals share a culture and a destiny. Reports by states and commissions find a culture where students are underachieving, teachers inhibited by the conditions of the workplace, and the principal's role in need of retooling.

First order changes (Cuban, 1988) are those of the engineer's quality control. State legislatures and departments of public instruction have produced many measures for quality control for public schools. Teacher recruitment, standards for performance, and mandating topics for curriculum are all attempts to correct deficiencies (David, 1989). However, the effect is merely straightening the house of tradition. Second order changes, according to Cuban, are more complex. To achieve second order change—significant and reverberating—requires a restructured school, with roles and relationships redefined. How one school, Alpha County High School used the opportunity to create a second order change is the object of this study. Using the metaphor of a house, the school still looks like a school. However, the inhabitants

have changed the interior, that is, the way leadership, policymaking, and accountability are practiced.

This concludes an examination of literature and research that support the concept of a Lead Teacher model for school governance. Chapter 4 is case study of the Lead Teacher model at Alpha High School. Chapter 5 contains conclusions and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The researcher conducted a case study of a school in rural North Carolina, known in this paper as Alpha County High School. Alpha County High School (ACHS) is unique in North Carolina in that it is the only high school with a history of using the Lead Teacher model of school-based decision-making. Implementation began in 1987.

The researcher requested permission from the ACHS building administrator to observe on-site for approximately 30 days and to interview students and teachers on the campus. In turn, the administrator presented the researcher's request to the school's Faculty Council which voted approval. Over a six month period, the researcher used case study methods to collect data.

Case Study

The case study research design is a qualitative one as distinguished from a quantitative one. The procedure is rooted in the theoretical assumptions and data collection described by, among others, Bogden and Biklen (1982), Stake (1985), Erickson (1986) and Patton (1987).

The case study methodology is based on the assumption that meaning and process are crucial in understanding human behavior. It is the study of a single case, not as a sample or for comparison with other studies. The researcher does not make hypotheses prior to the study, but looks to the data collected for issues and themes (Stake, 1985).

In case study methodology the researcher assumes that descriptive data are important to collect. Case study is a detailed examination of one setting; in this case, the setting is one high school. The general study design can be visualized as a funnel: the researcher observes across the range of the setting, collecting data, and interviewing informally. She reviews and explores data, and decides on particular themes and issues that become apparent. On the basis

of these themes, the researcher chooses how to distribute her time in further observation and exploration for data collection and makes decisions as to whom to interview in depth (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982).

Case study methodology is based on the assumption that analysis is best done inductively (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). The researcher draws conclusions and derives general principles from a specific situation,i.e., the processes and their meanings that occur in this high school in the time period of observation. Analysis in case study method is based on the assumption that the core issues of teacher and student effectiveness concern meaningfulness, rather than causation (Erickson, 1986). The methodology requires the researcher to maintain continuous attention and sensitivity to nuances of human behaviors: both to what is stated and what is practiced in decision-making and its implementation (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982).

Data Collection

The researcher gathered data as a participant observer. As such, the researcher worked within Patton's five dimensions of fieldwork variation. Within the role of evaluator-observer, the researcher acted within a range from partial observer to full participant observer. The researcher always portrayed herself in the role of overt observer; that is, the researcher told all participants that observations were being made and by whom. The researcher gave a full explanation of purpose to everyone. The duration of the evaluation observation was long-term, consisting of multiple observations over a period of time from August, 1990 through January, 1991. The focus of observations was holistic, a view of the entire program and all its elements (Patton, 1987).

The researcher was on-site, visible to the staff and interacting with them in order to obtain data. While data collected include a history of the setting, this high school, the major concern is with the contemporary scene: the faculty, administration, and students in the on-going process of planning, teaching, learning and evaluating within a marked time period

(Erickson, 1986). Archival measures, such as test scores and student attendance rates were obtained.

The researcher entered the setting looking for the kinds of environments established by teachers and administrators (Erickson, 1986). Simply examining the characteristics of individuals reveals little about decision-making and change (Sarason, 1982). The researcher assumes that the structure of the environment in which individuals act and interact reveals most about themes and issues (Sarason, 1982). The researcher observed formal settings, such as faculty, Lead Teacher (LT) and team (department) meetings, classes, and Open House for parents. In addition, the researcher observed more informal settings, such as lunchroom activities for students and teachers, student activities in the halls outside of class, the day-long activities in the Lead Teacher office and a 90-minute bus ride.

The researcher's observations constitute data for analysis and interpretation. Behaviors, body language, conversation and pace and intensity of dialogue and conversation were noted. Values espoused and values practiced were noted.

In the process of collecting data, the researcher engaged in progressive problem solving as she sampled, generated hypotheses and tested hypotheses. The researcher tried to honor the obligation to make the process as deliberate as possible by making purposeful, informed decisions about who, when, and where to engage in data gathering. At the same time, qualitative research standards demanded the researcher respect intuition as a guide to making strategic decisions (Erickson, 1982).

The researcher began by observing meetings of the entire faculty, the 10-member Faculty Council, and the nine-member Lead Teacher Council. The researcher attended 17 weekly Lead Teacher meetings from August to January. In all, the researcher spent 32 days on the campus, observing LTs throughout their workday, classes, and informal student activities. In collecting and analyzing data, the researcher noted the process of groups making decisions,

both formally and informally. While observing the groups, the researcher noted participants, the specific language used, tone of voice, degree and intensity of participation, the demeanor of participants, and interaction of individuals. All observational and interview data were collected in handwritten notes and audiotape recordings.

Interviews

The researcher chose to interview the principal, the previous principal (now superintendent), the 18 teachers who had been or presently serve as Lead Teachers, a guidance counselor, and four of the five secretaries in the school. From the principal, the researcher obtained names of six parents and a school board member to interview. The parents, except one, had had more than one child attend ACHS. The board member had been associated with the Lead Teacher model since its inception in 1987.

The interview questions (see Appendix 4) were standardized and open-ended. For each role, all interviewees were asked the same sequence of questions with essentially the same words (Patton, 1987).

Interviewees were promised anonymity. No one is identified by actual name in the case study nor is the place.

In selecting students to interview, the researcher relied, in part, on referrals from principal and teachers. The researcher asked for students who represented a broad spectrum of the student body. When one Lead Teacher saw the list of students recommended by the principal, she commented, "You've got all our stars. You need some average and below average kids." The researcher sought students in every department of the school: science, English, math, social studies, vocational (business occupations, industrial arts, health care), performing arts, and physical education. The researcher chose students from areas of the school considered to house students who were less than "stars". These included the majority of students in two Study Skills classes (regarded as a break from academic classes), the student smoking area, and

the entire class (eight members) of a remediation course for those who failed the state competency test. The researcher deliberately confined interview selection to roughly one half males and one half females and sought somewhat equal distribution across all four grade levels at ACHS.

For purposes of triangulation—verification of researcher's perceptions and conclusions—the researcher visited the school for two full days in May. The eight current Lead Teachers were given an draft of the case study to read and were interviewed as a group with the principal.

The researcher made corrections and submitted a lengthier draft of the case study to the principal and five key informants among the Lead Teachers for perusal and comment. Follow-up with the six informants was conducted by telephone. The researcher made corrections based on the feedback obtained from these parties. In addition, the data on the history of Project Design, found in Appendix 2, were also verified by the Alpha County director of Project Design.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Data the school staff had collected for the Accountability report made to the state contained most of the quantitative data: student attendance rates, discipline statistics for suspensions, numbers of dropouts, average student scores on standardized tests, attendance at post-secondary institutions, among others.

The researcher was interested in "then" and "now" comparisons, asking in interviews what a faculty member's impressions were of making decisions and implementing them prior to adoption of the Lead Teacher model. The Lead Teachers were asked their impressions of changes over the history of the model and their impressions of the process now. For the questions asked the Lead Teachers, see Appendix 4.

On-going analysis of all the data revealed patterns, trends and commonalities. Five issues, or categories, emerged from the data of anecdote, conversation, and description. The

researcher sorted the data into the five categories of: characteristics of the "culture" of the school, change, leadership, professionalization of the environment, and increasing student opportunities and outcomes. The researcher's interpretation of the data was crosschecked, or triangulated, by interviews with a range of informants, multiple observations over five months time, and explicit verification of facts by two follow-up visits and telephone interviews with key informants after they read each of two drafts of the case study.

In some instances, data seemed idiosyncratic or were not verified by triangulation. The researcher did not report these data as the best case for validity rests on common patterns found in the data.

Reliability, Validity, and Generalizability

Reliability, validity, and generalizability of case study research are determined differently from that of quantitative research. Reliability, or the extent to which the study can be replicated, is not an issue so much as are the dependability and consistency of the researcher's interpretation of the data (Guba and Lincoln, 1981). Reliability in this study is addressed by explanation of 1) multiple methods of data collection, 2) description of procedures and context of the study, and 3) the underlying assumptions and issues of the study.

The validity of case study depends on the researcher's selecting appropriate descriptors and writing valid interpretations. Internal validity is ensured by triangulation: long-term, on-site and repeated participant observation (Stake, 1985). Generalizability of the case study findings is dependent on the researcher's ability to provide elaborate enough information from which the reader can decide the extent to which the researcher's case is similar to theirs (Stake, 1985).

Data gathered in this case study were analyzed for comparison with the previous findings in the literature as described in Chapter 2. Three of the themes, or issues, examined were reviewed in Chapter 2: the condition of being a teacher and an administrator and the

process of change in the school setting. For analysis of the process of change in implementing

the Lead Teacher model, Sarason's (1982) model was used. The fourth and fifth issues,

professionalization of the environment and increased learning opportunities and outcomes for

students emerged from the context of the school, ACHS. Literature and research review in

Chapter 2 that relate to these two issues are found in the sections on accountability and

examples of attempts at school-based management.

The researcher intends to depict ACHS with absolute fairness and regard for its faculty

and students. The researcher believes that a case study of this school reveals issues and themes

that have the potential to inform and enlighten the educational community and those who

make educational decisions in our state.

Significance

If educators at individual schools are permitted by law to "use funding and personnel

resources in such a way to address the unique needs of their students" (Forum, 1988, p. 5), how

will they do it?

In 1987 the North Carolina legislature gave ACHS faculty the opportunity to establish

a plan to meet specific needs of their students and to create strategies and programs to ensure

student success. In 1989, Senate Bill 2/House Bill 1510, the Accountability and Flexibility Act

of 1989, offered to North Carolina school faculties and administrators the opportunity to make

decisions at the building level that can make the learning environment both more professional

and more relevant to the needs of students. To that end, each school staff has been given

flexibility in allocation of resources. At the same time, accountability is demanded by

requiring that these faculties meet certain state standards, measured as student outcomes on

such criteria as scores on tests and attendance. One tool for decision-making at the building

level is the model of Lead Teachers. Mentioned with increasing frequency in educational policy

statements, it has been in place in North Carolina at ACHS since 1987.

A case study of this faculty's Lead Teacher model can inform educators and the public at-large. The process of a faculty's choosing goals for student success and then "owning" the decisions enough to contribute their time and energy to seeing that the decisions are implemented is one not fully documented. Such a study can enrich our understanding of this tool for improving our schools.

CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDY

This chapter consists of the case study of Alpha County High School's Lead Teacher model. The study is presented through anecdote, conversation, and description that reflect five issues. These issues are:

1) the "culture" of a school,

2) the characteristics of change,

3) leadership,

4) professionalizing the teaching environment,

5) learning outcomes for students.

While the five issues are conceptually distinct, they are phenomenally interactive (Getzels and Guba, 1957). The order of examination is not arbitrary. The dimensions of each issue affect those succeeding it.

According to Stake (1987), issues are important, unsettled matters. Since it is often a highly contextual circumstance, people disagree about the issue. The issue refers to a condition causing certain consequences and the consequences are valued differently by different people.

The participants in the Lead Teacher model at Alpha County High School (ACHS) couch issues in the terms power, change, professionalization and accountability. These have been buzz words for reform discussion in the last decade, particularly in North Carolina. In the academic year 1990-1991, the Lead Teachers at ACHS discuss these issues constantly; they care deeply about them and their decision-making reflects their values relating to these issues.

This chapter provides evidence for and data about the five central issues, listed in the first paragraph, above. The examples reveal the complexity, nuances and vitality of the issues

within the context and culture of ACHS. Chapter 5 consists of conclusions, summary, and suggestions for further research.

The Context

The hilltop brick school and adjoining gymnasium shimmer in the sun. The only shade offered is from a line of 30-year old willow oaks that bisects the deep U-shape of the circle drive. While high school adolescents chatter in the cavernous lobby and drill outside for band and football, eight teachers and the principal talk animatedly in a tiny, windowless, cinderblock room across from the science department.

Two walls are bookcases, the shelves are streaks of purple, red, green, and brown, symptoms of surplus textbooks. A ceiling fan hovers over four teacher desks wedged together in the center of the room. The discussion is over the duties of two secretaries, Ellen and Yvonne.

Science teacher: Typing is a priority over copying. Teachers have less access to a typewriter. We can always get to a copier.

Agriculture teacher: The more Ellen is on the copier, the better for the machine.

Business teacher: Should Lead Teachers do the copying?

Agriculture teacher: Less copying will be done.

Principal: Yvonne sees her job as 50% computer work, 50% typing. Ellen does 80% copying and collating, 20% collecting fees and fines. If you're looking at strengths of people, Yvonne can probably process grades on the computer faster, Ellen can copy faster.

Remedial instruction teacher: Separate the work by teachers, not by task.

What are these teachers doing at 4:00 in the afternoon with such earnestness? Why are teachers discussing the duties of the secretaries? The pace of the discussion is rapid with everyone contributing; the comments are insightful.

This setting is typical of the school environment at Alpha County High School (ACHS). Straining to contain teaching supplies, the room was meant for storage, not meetings.

Boxes of manuals and paper are stacked in corners and on filing cabinets. A map showing the fire drill exits is posted on the bulletin board next to bright posters extolling composition skills. A phone, typewriter and large imposing-looking machine are perched on the desks. A computer is wedged next to one of the filing cabinets.

This hole-in-the-wall is the Lead Teacher office at ACHS. The teachers chose this over a more spacious place because they wanted the office to be accessible to every teacher. The eight teachers have been elected by their peers to represent the various departments in this high school. After a flurry of meetings the first two weeks of school, they have settled in to meeting weekly, from student dismissal time until the agenda is covered, usually by 5:15 p.m.

The principal is nearly always present, listening, intermittently guiding discussion by clarifying the issue being discussed. He may point out statistics, as in the percentage of time use for the secretaries. Often he includes in his statements "Here at Alpha High School. . . ." He frequently refers to teachers by name and focuses on student needs.

The setting is a public high school, in a not-particularly wealthy county. What is unique about this setting can be derived from comparison of ACHS to the characteristics of the culture of school.

"Culture" of the School

Sarason (1972, 1982, 1990) has written for two decades of schools having a unique "culture". "Culture" is used in this study as a metaphor for the social setting of schools where certain identifiable behaviors, norms and values exist. Within the school culture, there are obvious characteristics that have changed little over the decades. Legislative and administrative fiat invariably focus on these obvious characteristics when change is desired. (See Chapter 1). These familiar characteristics include management of the students and teachers, personnel policy and regulations, communication, instruction and curriculum, supplies and equipment for instruction, and student activities. The constituents of the school—parents,

boards, and community, as well as those who are in the school daily—expect adherence to the norms established by decades of acceptance of these characteristics. No one, not even students, questions the appropriateness of some kind of on-going monitoring of the evidence of these characteristics (Sizer, 1984; Sarason, 1989).

More subtle characteristics are the ingrained values and norms for behavior described by many commentators on education, such as Lortie, (1975); Sarason, (1982, 1990); Bird and Little, (1986); and Sizer, (1984). These values and behaviors act more as barriers than as facilitators to change. Teachers have been socialized to work in isolation and this inhibits collegiality and collaboration among the adults in the school (Lortie, 1975; Bird & Little, 1986). Teachers' fierce allegiance to equity in workload, salary, and decision-making authority discourages job differentiation (Sizer, 1984). Resources are scarce; power relationships revolve around the allocation of those resources: time, space, and money (Sarason, 1982, 1989). The absence of teacher participation in decision-making ensures that no one feels responsible and blame for failure to achieve change is always directed externally (Sarason, 1990).

The principal's work is also in isolation (Peterson, 1978; Greenfield, 1988). The principal sets norms for the staff in choosing values while making decisions to allocate resources. The principal establishes a standard for human relations and chooses how to use the authority of position (Achilles & Keedy, 1983). The principal must acknowledge that the "culture" of the school has constituencies inside and outside the building and that the boundaries are permeable. How astutely a principal distinguishes between means and ends, information and knowledge, and management and leadership influences whether constituencies support, ignore, or undermine the school's mission (Sarason, 1982, 1990).

With both teachers and principal isolated, the effect for students is also isolation. A priority in the school culture is independent work for the student. Cooperative and

collaborative learning and assessment are the rare exception. The opportunity for student

participation in decision-making about the obvious characteristics of the school, noted above,

is non-existent (Sarason, 1990).

The most profound characteristic of the culture of the school is that it does not support

intellectual inquiry on the part of anyone—student, teacher, or principal (Sizer, 1984). The

demands on teacher time are severe; there are so few personnel in a school to assure that

students are supervised at all times that the adults have virtually no time in the work day to

meet and to contemplate program or policy. Sarason asks for whom schools exist—teachers or

students? He concludes that productive learning for students can not occur in the absence of

opportunity for productive learning for teachers (1990, p. 145). The culture of the school

inhibits teacher learning.

This case study shows how ACHS's "culture" includes the characteristics, both obvious

and subtle, of a school in the academic year 1990-1991. The language of the legislation that

established the Lead Teacher model in 1987 reflects a culture that values management,

inspection, and control. (See Appendix 1). The issues within the context of ACHS reveal the

power of modelled values and norming behaviors to reshape the subtle characteristics of the

culture. Standards for collegiality and collaboration emerge. But first, how did the model

come to ACHS?

History of Project Design and the Lead Teacher Model

In 1986, the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy published A Nation

Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century. The Carnegie report strongly advocated a new role for

classroom teachers, called the Lead Teacher model. This role required job differentiation.

Teachers teach parttime and have responsibilities for other teachers in their building the

balance of the day. The Public School Forum, a public education advocacy and research

foundation for North Carolina schools, saw in the Lead Teacher concept a vehicle for reform.

The Forum's publications (1987, 1988) on the Lead Teacher model present the model as an appropriate addition to the reforms that had taken place in the state of North Carolina during the 1980s. The Forum proposed a "marriage" of the Lead Teacher model and the North Carolina Career Ladder plan in an effort to define a potential Level III role (Lead Teacher Pilot Program, 1987).

The faculty of an elementary school in a school district that was participating in the pilot Career Development Program, by an 80% vote of the faculty, elected to experiment with restructuring their school based on the model. The Forum literature states that after a meeting with the state superintendent of public instruction, a decision was made to include in the Lead Teacher model schools that were not participating in the Career Development Program (see Chapter 1). Since the Career Development Program was never implemented statewide, this was a particularly astute decision.

Two other school districts, one of which was Alpha County, were chosen, in part because of their participation in another legislative pilot program, the Outside Evaluator Program. This program was funded for only two years, 1987-1989. The Public School Forum invited superintendents and principals from the three counties to a workshop on the Lead Teacher model.

The superintendent of Alpha County Schools and the principal of ACHS returned to their district and presented the plan. Two schools in Alpha County, an elementary school and ACHS had faculties that voted with at least an 80% majority to participate.

The Public School Forum, influential with the state policy makers in the State Department of Public Instruction (SDPI), the North Carolina State Board of Education (SBE), and the state legislature coordinated the logistics to win legislative approval and funding for the project. The Forum also did the necessary persuasion of the significant professional

organizations: North Carolina Association of Educators (NCAE), the state's largest teacher organization, and the state's School Boards' Association.

The legislation, called the Lead Teacher Pilot Program, became law in the summer of 1987 (see Appendix 1). ACHS became one of two high schools in the state that was "allowed broad discretion to experiment with the instructional activities that appear to meet instructional needs in that particular [school's] setting" (Public School Laws, 1988). ACHS staff began an uncharted journey to create their perception of the model. In 1991, ACHS staff and the original advocates of the model regard this as a highly successful example.

The implementation of this model raises some issues for research. These will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Beginning. The experiment was called Project Design by the Public School Forum. ACHS staff refer to it as "the Carnegie project" and "Lead Teacher". In retrospect, all the teachers interviewed gave praise and acknowledgement to the administrators for the ultimate success of the project.

"We started from scratch. There was no manual," said one former Lead Teacher. Over the life of the project, faculty expanded from 52 to 56. Three secretaries were hired specifically to work for the teachers. The original principal was promoted to assistant superintendent and, two years later, to superintendent. There was faculty turnover and 20 new faculty members have been hired in the last three years. Three of the 18 Lead Teachers have left, one to become a principal, one to become a minister, and one to enter the family business.

Funding from the legislature shrank from a high of $135,000 for 1987-1989 to $4800 in 1990. Like many reforms emanating from the North Carolina state legislature, after initial high interest and funding, both attention and money dwindled to almost zero. The minimum needed to maintain the Lead Teacher model at ACHS has been absorbed by Alpha County, as will be noted below.

Planning. After voting in the fall of 1986, by an 81% majority, to attempt the model,

the faculty began a series of meetings. "It seemed as if we spent half our time in meetings!"

"We thought we would never get anywhere beyond meeting!" have been common comments. The

local school board allowed early dismissal of students one day (one of their broad discretions)

so the ACHS faculty could meet and set some goals for using this opportunity.

The legislature had authorized:

1) creation of one Lead Teacher position for every 12 teaching positions. At ACHS,

    this equated to four positions.

2) salary and fringe benefit differentials enabling ACHS to provide up to 15% of the

    salary of each Lead Teacher.

3) funding for two one half time positions to teach the classes the Lead Teachers

    would have ordinarily assumed.

4) $300 per teacher for additional training.

5) funding for planning and training for Alpha County's steering committee.

6) funding for two years for materials and supplies. (North Carolina's Lead

    Teacher/Restructured School Pilot Project, Spring, 1988.)

In the spring of 1987 a series of meetings was held among teacher representatives from

ACHS, the superintendent, and various consultants. Educational administration professors

from three of the state's universities were on campus to assist with planning and to begin an

evaluation process. For the first three years of the project, great care was taken to have written

documentation of the actual activities taking place. In addition, feedback from students,

teachers and parents was sought via annual surveys. This was in addition to student outcomes,

the traditional quantitative data expected each year by the SDPI. For a chart display of the

history of the project, see Appendix 2.

The first major decision made by the ACHS staff was to choose two goals for the school. The Lead Teacher model would be the tool for reaching the goals. Drawing from the Carnegie report (1986), the staff chose:

1) professionalizing the work place for all staff.

2) increasing student learning opportunities and outcomes.

The staff, which includes secretaries and janitors as well as professionals, never wavered from these goals in the five years of the project. These goals continue to define issues for the staff as they make decisions through the Lead Teachers.

In the fall of 1987, the first order of business was to develop a job description for the Lead Teacher. In August, the faculty of ACHS had its first faculty retreat--two days, overnight--at a rustic conference center within an hour of Alpha County. Board members also attended. The faculty came away with: a job description, a selection process and an application, eligibility standards for selection, composition of each of the four teams, and guidelines for salary supplements for LTs. The legislation stated specifically that the term of service would "be limited to a two-year time frame" (see Appendix 1).

The teams, for the first full year of the project, were:

1) Health/Physical Education/Driver's Education/Arts,

2) English/Foreign Language/Social Studies,

3) Math/Science,

4) Vocational/Business.

This was the only year there were four teams. Subsequently, the staff experimented with 10, so that each department was represented. That proved too unwieldy a number to come to consensus. For two years, the division has been into eight teams.

Five teachers applied for the four LT jobs, with selection being a consensus process. These four each represented one of the four teams and taught three out of six classes in the

school day. Their schedules were arranged so that they had a common hour within the school day to met with the principal to discuss and decide. Their absence from teaching duties required hiring parttime teachers to cover the classes the Lead Teachers would otherwise teach. The faculty expected that the LTs would consult with team members, passing information to and from administration, seeking input from team members that in turn would be part of advice and decision-making in the meetings with the principal. How the model works in 1990-1991, the fourth year of the model, is described below.

The Culture of Alpha County High School

The principal is 20 minutes late for our early morning August appointment. He rushes in, apologetic for staying so long in a discipline meeting. He is obviously pleased with his mornings' work. "I hated the old assertive discipline we had," he says. An energetic, gregarious man, he talks with fervor of the fall opening priorities: hiring new janitors, getting the terrazo floors stripped and polished, getting the discipline policy approved by the faculty, the need to be consistent and have more teacher involvement with discipline. "One teacher sent a student to the office 'because he made a face at me'", he says with exasperation. But discipline is not his first priority.

Mark Shaw is disturbed and anxious about telling his faculty that the state legislature did not approve any money to spend specifically on the Lead Teacher program at ACHS. He laid out the numbers:

	1989	1990
Lead Teacher stipend	$1,250	$600
materials	25,000	0
secretaries	3	2
staff development	1,500	0

The four and one half positions that were eventually funded in order to free the eight Lead Teachers to teach half time and be LTs half time will be assumed by Alpha County Schools since no more money will be provided by the legislature for the LT project. Though there is no more funding for Project Design, "the language for flexibility is still there," points out Shaw. The school staff still has the freedom to be innovative within the limits of its resources.

The "word" is out about the loss of funding, he allows, and he wishes he could have had a chance to tell the faculty all at once instead of having the news travel by grapevine. Though this news is disappointing, he is optimistic about the 1990-1991 academic year and the mission and goals of Alpha County High. This is his third year in Alpha County, having spent 10 years as a principal in a county south of Alpha County and a stint at the SDPI.

"The LTs chose the new principal, Mark Shaw," said Ev Lee, a former LT. "We recommended him to Norris (the superintendent) who made the final choice. Mark came in as an elected leader."

"I saw the new principal as dynamic", said Alice Rierson, also a former LT. "He said the reason that he applied for the job was that he wanted to be part of LT. That decided me."

Shaw replaced Ken Devereaux, who initiated the Lead Teacher project in 1986. Devereaux moved to the central office of Alpha County Schools as an assistant superintendent in 1988. Devereaux is now the superintendent, as Mitchell Norris accepted a job out-of-state in June, 1990.

The LTs, past and present, comment: "Ken was—is—so magnetic." "Ken talks people into things". "After Ken left, no clear leader emerged. There was tension". "Shaw was unsure; he might have been afraid that people would jump on him."

What makes it work? Vince Thompson, Lead Teacher for science:

Mark, Mark makes it work. Ken did before him. Teachers were ready for this. There were always some teachers who found a way to get the principal's ear, influence decisions. Now, influence is spread around. Mark sits down with us (Lead Teachers) every Tuesday. That's no small thing for him.

Alice Rierson: The faculty is more positive now. Five years ago, most of us would not have questioned an administrator's decision. We wouldn't offer an opinion unless asked. Now, the attitude is, "I want to put in my two cents worth: I know I can. I won't be derided for it.

For the first faculty meeting in August, both Shaw and Devereaux are present. Devereaux greets familiar faces with banter and affection. He greets the new faces with equal genuineness. Numbers dominate the agenda as both Devereaux and Shaw explain the ramifications of the funding from the legislature for the 1990-1991 school year.

Shaw talks about the loss of LT monies that have been such a generous resource since 1987. One of the three secretaries hired solely to work for the faculty left for another job and the funds for the position were frozen due to state-wide low tax revenues. Devereaux encourages support for the upcoming bond referendum for the county. Passage of the bond will give ACHS badly needed space. Teachers now rotate into one another's classrooms. As one has a planning period, that teacher leaves, usually to the Lead Teacher office, and another teacher uses the classroom for instruction. The newly selected full-time math teacher, Nancy Nickolson, HAS no classroom. She uses other classrooms all day long, ending the day in the business cooperative classroom since that teacher is out supervising students in the workforce.

Nickolson was parttime for two years, hired as the half-time replacement for one of the LT positions. This year with the enrollment in the math department up by 65 (a 36% increase), Nickolson has been hired full-time. Nickolson and her "team"—the six members of the math department—are delighted to have her as their LT. In 1990-1991, the math team, under her leadership, will devote a great effort to redesigning the structure and flow of student movement through the math curriculum.

Devereaux talks of goals for the school and the county system overall. Vision and accountability, School Improvement Plan, block grants, and staff development are familiar buzz words to this group. Each faculty member is able to earn from 1% to 6% of his/her salary with achievement of individual goals (called Critical Objectives) and school-wide goals. Devereaux informs the group that Alpha County High, like the other schools in the system, will receive a block grant to be spent on "...your priorities. Submit your requests by October 15. Decide as a staff what you want for staff development and submit the list to the county office. We will try to combine requests across the system."

The grainy image of the overhead projector displays more numbers: Achievement test scores for the third and eighth grades, Alpha County unemployment rates for youth (both vocational education graduates and others), drop-out totals for the past five years. "The scores are the best ever for Alpha County," says Devereaux. Buses, media, and discipline complete the morning's agenda.

Mark Shaw presents the discipline policy—a written statement, a list of offenses and the consequences, and a form for teacher referral. He frequently calls committee members by name, asking for their interpretation of certain points. "Fights are started elsewhere," he analyzes student behavior. "They bring them to school where they know we will take care of them." He fields questions from the group, using professional frequently.

"You undermine your own success if you refer a student to the office before you intervene."

"Use your professional judgement."

"You enhance yourself, become the hero."

"This will save you time if you make every professional effort."

The group of 56 faculty members adjourns for lunch. The LTs and Faculty Council are to convene later in the day.

In the joint meeting of the Faculty Council and the eight LTs, there are two items for discussion. The first is teacher assignments for checking in students who are late or returning from an absence. This must be done the first 30 minutes of each day. Also, who will do lunch supervision? The second topic: with the loss of one Lead Teacher secretary, what should be the job descriptions for the two remaining secretaries?

The Faculty Council has been an institution at ACHS since 1985, when Ken Devereaux became principal. Mark Shaw continued the practice. The Lead Teachers are elected by their departments, or teams. The Faculty Council consists of appointed and elected staff members. Appointed staff are the principal and the two assistant principals. The elected members are: a guidance counselor, two Lead teachers and two non-Lead Teachers elected at the first faculty meeting by the entire faculty. One secretary is chosen from among the five by consensus. The faculty representative to the Superintendent's Council, which meets monthly, is elected at the first faculty meeting and is also a member of the Faculty Council.

The group meets at 2:15. The temperature sizzles near 90 degrees outside. The only air-conditioned classrooms are in the newly added business wing. Mark greets the selected faculty members in the large business cooperative classroom.

Ned: We need two people a day for alternating days: a total of four to do attendance in the morning.

Someone: Does this equate with keeping the gate at ballgames?

Mark: Let's separate into two groups, with one problem for each. Does that sound OK? Tanya, (assistant principal) take one group; Terence, (other assistant assistant principal) take the other. Let's try to have decisions made by true consensus. If not, I'll weigh the advantages and disadvantages of your suggestions and decide. The best would be consensus. Looking at this group, I think we can do it.

Vickie: Let's do it!

The group on secretaries discusses typing, copying materials and entering grades on the computer for teachers as being the most important secretarial functions to the faculty. Mark

participates in this group until he has to leave, after asking that someone be responsible for reporting to the larger group.

> Teresa (an elected non-LT): What's reasonable? Two sets of grades at a time, nothing over 10 pages to copy per teacher?
>
> Terence: We should ask the secretaries what is reasonable.
>
> Teresa: No one knows better than they do.
>
> Nora (business LT): Yvonne and Ellen are asking for job descriptions. Should Mark meet with them separately or together?

Rather than deciding the duties for the Lead Teacher secretaries himself, Mark has given the responsibility to the staff. Teachers are deciding how to allocate resources. They are poised to offer advice to the principal as to how to approach these secretaries. They not only are concerned with the job description, but with the most diplomatic way to approach the secretaries. Their demeanor and tone of voice reflect a belief that the principal will act on their recommendations.

Five meetings are eventually devoted to discussion of the secretaries' duties. LTs and Faculty Council meet twice; the entire faculty meets to vote on the priority of the three tasks: computer, typing, and copying. The LTs will continue to discuss the secretaries throughout the semester. At one point, Mark remarks, "We've spent 16 hours trying to decide." The LTs appoint Gerald, from Physical Education and Driver's Education, to be the faculty liaison to the secretaries. His wit and penchant for articulating the essence of a dilemma smooth any tension that surfaces from the redistribution of the secretaries' duties and from the teachers' expectations.

The foregoing illustrates a school culture in which barriers between teacher/teacher and teacher/principal have been dissolved. The reader can imagine how the problems of assigning duties would have been solved in a traditional bureaucratic structure.

Some other characteristics of the school culture are illustrated below. The LTs, past

and present, comment on the characteristic of the school culture, teacher/principal isolation.

Here is on example:

> Before, there was no discussion in the departments. We were given instructions from administration. We never discussed textbooks or redevelopment of the curriculum. There was no discussion among two teachers who taught the same course in the same grade or who taught the course in the next grade level. Now there is more sharing between teachers. I was in two departments (math and English) and I never saw it. Now there is even cross-categorical discussion. For example, social studies and English would like to do the Paideia proposal. We've never gotten that off the ground. English and math talked about using word processors to write English term papers. We don't just speak English in English class.

Some LTs see a need to begin dialogue across departments—and not just academic

departments. Vocational teachers, too, talk about what can be accomplished for students with

more integration of the various subjects.

Teachers have had to change their focus from individual classroom and department to

the school as a whole. In relating the history of the project, "conflict management" is

frequently mentioned. One LT commented:

> It's hardest to have to make decisions. We talk about what we want to teach, but it's easier to complain. It's frustrating for teachers to decide what they want, like the new schedule.
>
> There are the time-consuming meetings. It's hard to adapt to changes that we don't always agree with. We're new at consensus. In the beginning, we had to have 75% approval to start the project. After we voted to make the change, there were so many opinions, we went to 51%, a majority. It's hard to adapt to change.

Nevertheless, one senses a unity of purpose at ACHS, one not evident before the project

began. Several LTs commented on a new sense of respect for teachers had for one another, an

appreciation of "someone's work outside your department."

> Before, no one talked about school. In a social situation, school was never mentioned. Now, I never go anywhere with faculty without people talking about school.

The administrators acknowledge the difficulty of transition:

Administrators get tough hides. They can make do and decide. Teachers are afraid of decision-making. It is difficult to deal with put-up or shut-up. They like everyone to be on board and they have difficulty moving on to consensus.

(However) we increased dialogue all around: between and among colleagues, departments, administrators.

Neither administrator expressed impatience at the conflict or time needed to reduce the barriers of isolation. They each believe that teachers are a resource for reform. Mark said:

There are people who really want to be just teachers. The whole bottom-up management idea makes sense. We can help teachers assume, legitimately, more power in school. We can draw on their expertise and experiment to design the changes needed.

The foregoing depict observable behaviors and stated values of teachers and administrators associated with the "culture" of ACHS. Specific characteristics of the culture of ACHS are explored below.

The Culture of the School has Scarce Resources

On August 29, after students have been in school for a week, the Communications (English, foreign languages, media) team meets at 1:20 p.m. The students have been dismissed at 1:00 due to temperatures in the 90s. Discussing getting enough textbooks and the secretaries' job assignments is evidence of the scarce resources in schools: too little time and not enough people to do the needed work.

Vickie: What do you want more than anything from the secretaries?

Laura: Type and let us copy!

Vickie: What about Integrade (computer program for recording student grades and generating report cards).

Karen and Joyce want Integrade.

Sara: We need the copying done right away, not in five or six days if the Lead Teacher has to do it.

Vickie: Perhaps teachers can collate and staple. You can get students to do those tasks.

Karen: I do that anyway.

Three teachers argue that since they do their own typing, they want copying and Integrade, a computer program for logging grades and generating mid-quarter progress reports and report cards.

The business/vocation team is also meeting. The members discuss large class sizes and Study Skills, a class designed to allow student studying at school and to allow for students being pulled out of a class for remediation and driver education.

"What's with the trailer?", queries Ned, on Faculty Council as the school's representative to the Superintendent's Council. "That's a perfect place for Study Skills. I think teachers would rather rotate out there—to one place—than into 10 different classrooms."

They are not happy with the Study Skills situation. Teachers who leave their regular classrooms for planning so a Study Skills class can come in complain about materials and equipment being disturbed by poorly-supervised students. Those who teach one of the sections, usually expecting the students to bring their own work to the class, are unhappy with the lack of self-discipline of the students. Nora, the Lead Teacher discusses textbook requests before closing. Teachers' sighs and faces register disgust and acceptance that textbooks, once again, are in too short a supply.

At 2:15, the LTs meet in Ned's air-conditioned room, which they use to escape the heat. The teachers discuss the secretaries' jobs and whether to keep the computer program, Integrade. Only one of the secretaries has experience with the Integrade program and there are doubts that the other secretary will have the time or the skills to do it. Someone computes the time each week it would take a Lead Teacher to log two grades per student per teacher in a team: 450 minutes.

After 10 minutes, Mark comes in.

Vince remarks that they are still focused on last year and intent that things be done the same way. "I had hoped for more consensus," he said.

After discussing the secretaries at some length, Mark says that he has data on how much copying was done by the secretaries for teachers. He reads from a report of the number of copies for each teacher the last month of the previous year.

"Gerald, 39." "He didn't teach!" someone jests.

"Barry, 4000." Everyone laughs. This teacher is known for doing things extravagantly. "I give summative (evaluation) review based on the number of copies," jokes Mark. "Two thousand copies-I give a 6 (superior)."

He goes to the podium at the head of the semi-circle of tables. Turning the LT's attention to budget items, he ticks off the amounts of money allotted for the year to athletics, to band, and for consumable supplies, like paper and magazines. Ken Devereaux has notified each principal of the total sum of that school's block grant and, in light of the state budget shortfall, is holding 30% in reserve. At this point, ACHS has approximately $18,000 to spend on teacher materials and supplies, $5,000 of which needs to go to the media center. They also have $3200 to spend on equipment.

He reminds the group of the list of priorities for purchase compiled at the end of last year. At 4:15, the receptionist calls on the intercom for Mark to come to a parent appointment. He tosses out a verbal list for the Lead Teachers to discuss in his absence: a staff retreat, funding teachers to attending conferences, equipment priorities, and print and nonprint materials for the media center. "Come back and look at last year's budget," he suggests. "We received the End of Course test results. What we purchase should reflect what we want to achieve in light of those test scores. In the next two weeks, decide. Spend it if we have needs."

Talley: I'm new; I have to talk to my team.

Mark: Tell your team, don't play games. If you need 15 soccer balls, don't order 20. The easiest way would be to divide $11,000 by 8. That would equal $1375 per team. That won't fly at Alpha County High School.

After Mark leaves, the group touches on several subjects. Vickie, in her second year as Lead Teacher from the Communications team, offers to make an agenda for each meeting: "That way we don't keep on and on. I will also type up a review of each meeting. My team wants to know what we did. The whole faculty wants to know."

Luke, first year Lead Teacher from the Agriculture team, accepts: "Good offer. I'll take it."

Talley, first-year Lead Teacher for the Support Services team: If we poll our team on an item, can we discuss it here?

Vickie: Yes! If it's a school decision, we bring it to Lead Teacher.

When Mark returns, at 4:45, they contemplate the idea of using the empty trailer for a classroom.

"I liked it until I thought it would have to come out of the $11,000 we have left for supplies," says Vince. "If we're honest, we can come up with furniture for the trailer and not take from the $11,000."

Mark: Give it to the floating teacher (Nancy, the Math Lead Teacher).

Vince: There's no chalkboard.

Mark: It would be good to make it Nancy's classroom. You can't get more than 25, 26 kids in there.

Nancy: I have 19 kids at the most. Study Skills has as much as 38. My classes won't grow.

(She teaches all the advanced math classes: calculus, trigonometry.) They adjourn until Tuesday, when there will have been two days of classes.

On September 4, the Lead Teachers and Mark Shaw convene at 4:10, almost an hour late because Mark has a parent conference. They start on the agenda immediately.

The equipment list from last year gets narrowed to $2700 for four overhead projectors, a VCR, and cart, a high speed printer, and a laminating machine and film.

Vickie: Are we ready for budget?

Vince: Most organized goes first!

Mark (writes the name of each team on the chalkboard): Give me a figure.

Judy, social studies: We each need newspapers every day.

Vince, science: I want students to read a newspaper every day, every week."

Mark: If what you request can be funded, let's not argue over it.

Vince: I can justify potassium chloride to you if I need to; I just need $600 for microscope maintenance. I have orders for $2500. We have needs for $8-9000."

The group discusses each department's needs.

Mark: We can't play games. I'm telling you up front what we have. I bet we have over $3000 in consumable supplies being wasted. It kills us.

Vickie, communications: I have needs of $4500.

Gerald: P.E. equipment, $500.

Nancy, math: My team wants to add an attachment for rolled acetate on the overhead.

Gerald: I have one I don't use.

Nancy: Great. Next, we want ten graphing calculators for pairs of students.

Judy: Why do you need those?

Nancy explains. Judy is satisfied.

Mark writes the totals on the board. The requests range from $500 for P.E. to $3000 for science and $4500 for Communications. The total is $14,600. They have only $11,000 to spend.

They discuss paying for the copying. They are particularly concerned about how to fund staff development and sending teachers to their discipline's state conference. Each has some knowledge of another pot of money: Chapter 1, special state money for science. Judy is adamant that teachers pay their own way to conferences. "Pay the sub, only. You're earning your pay while you're gone. You're growing professionally." Several agree.

Judy also believes that the Advanced Placement (AP) students should pay $12 each for a history workbook. "They're going to college. They should pay. There's no deprived kid in there."

> Mark: I hope there is.
>
> Judy: Take off the $12 for AP (Advanced Placement) books. But Mr. Shaw doesn't want to do that.
>
> Mark: It's not that I don't want to. (He steps back and looks down).
>
> Judy: English (communication) is way out of line.
>
> Mark: They are compared to what they got in the past. No one's out of line in regards to need. If you can figure $3600 worth of cuts, do it now.
>
> Vickie: I can take $2600 off right now.
>
> Vince: I can't be that flexible.

Mark agrees.

> Vince: I'll take $400 out, $500 without crying.
>
> Luke: You can cut agriculture by $500.

Judy and Mark discuss how to purchase the AP workbooks.

> Mark: We have $10,800. Can you live with that?
>
> Judy: Cool!

They discover they need to cut $2000 more in order to afford media needs. Vickie offers to cut

some more.

> Mark: That team (communication) has 9 teachers; every kid in the school is in that
> team. Their needs are critical.

Others offer to cut. "Nora, we've all cut!"

> Nora: Take $500.

> Mark: I need to justify your items to Norris as related to student achievement. Tell your
> teams what you have ordered. Write your purchase orders.

In this meeting, the team leaders "come to consensus," a phrase frequently heard at

ACHS. The scarce resources of space, money, and time are all deliberated. Views are

expressed, tolerated, supported or politely rejected. The principal and the LTs model norming

behaviors in the LT group and in the eight teams. The veteran LTs stick to business; Vickie

offers to make an agenda early on. Over time, the newcomers become more focussed on the

school's needs instead of department needs. Underlying the process is the quiet insistence of the

principal that these teachers will make the decisions. Mark guides group discussion with

occasional remarks that consistently focus on teacher needs for instruction. The group reaches

consensus on resource allocation by collaboration.

By October, wiring and furniture have been found so that Nancy can use the trailer for

her classroom. "My husband and I spent the weekend cleaning," she reports at the weekly Lead

Teacher meeting. "I plead for a desk." Scarce resources, again.

Time as a Resource

Teachers, in general, consistently lament the lack of time for preparation and

instruction (See Forum, 1987, p. 18). A fundamental basis for the Lead Teacher concept is the

assumption that the LT role can give precious time to the classroom teachers, freeing them from

searching for supplemental materials, data gathering, and record keeping. Yet even the half

day for LTs to perform their functions is too little time. The reference to time occurred

frequently in interviews. The dimensions of time as a scarce resource are revealed in the

comments from present and former Lead Teachers:

>Victor: We had too many visitors. I had to host them my LT/planning time. Most LTs
>neglect what they need to do for their own classes. It was the worst teaching year I
>ever had.
>
>Alice: I had only one planning period. No extra staff were hired to replace me, as
>happened for the classroom teachers. Often I couldn't leave the library because there
>were so many demands on my (teaching) job. There was not enough time for me to have
>personal contact with my team members because of that.
>
>Ev: The ultimate realization has been that the process required more effort and time.
>The most dedicated professionals in the country took on even more demands. They were
>stretched enough as it was.

Time to teach, to plan, to have meaningful discussion with colleagues, and to do

research is constrained by the limited number of adults in a school. Supervision of students is

the first function of teachers. There are so few of them, that the intellectual tasks are left

undone. Even with more adults in the building, with the addition of 4 one halftime positions

due to the LT model, these professionals still feel the pinch of time.

This school has scarce resources of money for materials, supplies, secretaries and enough

teachers. Lack of resources erodes the time teachers at ACHS have to devote to the task of

teaching. Adding extra teachers to implement the Lead Teacher model and adding faculty

secretaries has increased resources on which the staff can draw. The principal and the staff

have fashioned a vehicle both for reducing barriers of isolation and increasing cooperative

sharing of the resources at Alpha County High School. Other characteristics of the school

culture can be barriers to cooperation and collaboration, such as loyalty to equity and narrow

evaluation standards.

Equity as a Norming Influence

Teachers have opposed job differentiation, like allowing classroom teachers to teach

parttime and perform other duties for the school parttime. The National Education

Association (NEA) frequently articulated the equity value held so dear by teachers (NEA

Resolutions, 1982). Loyalty to the perception that each teacher is equally competent still

surfaces at ACHS.

> Kate, board member: I expected some jealousy among the teachers. Since the LTs are
> elected, that helps out.
>
> Judy: Everybody here is a merit teacher. It's those that sell themselves the best get
> recognized.
>
> Antonia: There was jealousy at first (of the first four). Once others tried being Lead
> Teachers, that lessened when they saw how hard it was.

The LTs comment on the ambiguity about this new role:

> It's hard to trust another teacher. We are almost like middle men or administrators.
>
> Some teachers accept that (a peer) is there to do for you; others won't let go of the idea
> that they may be imposing. We need to get rid of that mindset.

The equity issue is mentioned by most of the former LTs in the context of the history of

the project. The terms of service for the LT are that one applies and is elected by one's team

each year. One can serve no more than two consecutive years. Three of the original four LTs

wished to apply for a third year. The faculty voted to adhere to the original limitation,

against the wishes of Mark Shaw. This is only one of several instances in which Shaw

accepted a decision from the faculty and/or LTs that he opposed.

The success of this Lead Teacher model may well be due to the loyalty to equity. The

LT job is passed around in the department. The perception that the LTs constitute a layer of

bureaucracy between principal and teachers is not evident.

We were aware that the job would be service. We knew that and insisted that the job rotation be two years. We didn't allow it to become a perpetual assignment.

Besides the condition of scarce resources and allegiance to the social value of equity, the culture of the school is characterized by frequent and sometimes redundant, inspection and control. These factors can be played out in interesting ways.

Inspection and Control

Public schools are subject to constant and pervasive monitoring and inspection. An example is North Carolina's requirement for the 8-hour evaluation of each teacher on a 6-point scale for competence. Others are the End of Course (EOC) testing, data on students who drop out, and Average Daily Membership (ADM) on which state funds are calculated.

Teacher evaluation. The principal at ACHS was relieved of the TPAI demands through the flexibility language in the Pilot Project legislation. He ponders his ambivalence over the issue of formal, state-defined evaluation.

> Mark: There is not enough time to do formal evaluations adequately. The best observations are the informal ones. It has become a low priority for me to do formal ones. It is a strength of mine to observe and identify ways for a good teacher to become a great one.

On the matter of who should be an evaluator, Shaw stated emphatically,

> Since the beginning, this faculty has clearly identified that the lead teachers play no role in the evaluation process. A mentor or evaluator will come in at the teacher's request. This faculty is adamant that the Lead Teachers not be two things: administrators or evaluators.

The LTs expressed no regret at the absence of the TPAI. They do regret that the Outside Evaluator project was so shortlived. Their brief (two years) experience with true clinical supervision was one they believe fostered best practice. If the choice for evaluation is solely the TPAI, they assert that the feedback from student performance and opportunity for staff development are sufficient evaluation. They assume that if students are doing well on all

measures of success and teachers are able to choose opportunities for professional

enlightenment, the teaching must be good.

Even though these professionals have the freedom to concentrate on their two goals of

improving school for teachers and students, other monitoring and control practices ar evident.

> We had to add more to our exams. The experienced teacher now knows what is on the
> state test. I'm cutting out three hours of something I used to teach because it's not on the
> state test. We are always looking for ways to to improve instruction—get more in.

The self-imposed accountability is taken seriously.

> Accountability is the biggest headache. The pressure is on everybody. We're
> accountable for increasing teacher involvement, professionalization. We don't know if
> we have proved that student outcomes have improved.

Many state requirements, while made in the best interest of students, block change

because of scarce resources.

> I wanted an all-day open schedule. But the constraints of bus schedules, lunchroom
> hours, the state regulations, prevented that. The state regulations got in the way of
> what was good for kids. Flexibility is illusory, rhetoric. We did some good things, but
> real restructuring was not done.

Student testing. Each spring, North Carolina routinely tests students in third, sixth,

and eighth grades on standardized achievement tests. This emphasis on inspection for factual

knowledge is seldom challenged by the constituents of the school. Parents and school board

members have become socialized to expect some numerical benchmark against which to compare

the local school system with regional or state averages. Some school systems in the state use

the scarce resources of local funds to test students in the grades that the state does not fund.

Administrators at ACHS budgeted for testing of ninth graders on the California Achievement

Test (CAT) until 1989.

The Lead Teachers voted, in opposition to Shaw, to discontinue the testing.

Shaw: At the time, I thought it would appear to parents that we were not trying to do our part to be accountable. Now, when I see what this staff has done with analysis and planning from End of Course (EOC) testing and Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT), I know the teachers did the right thing.

Sarason (1982, 1990) asked: For whom do schools exist? This question forces a focus on analysis of values espoused and practiced at ACHS. The teacher and principal comments noted above and below reflect a belief that while schools exist for students, teachers are making decisions that juggle students' needs with state requirements. In spite of the ethic of inspection and control that emanates from the SDPI, the LTs at ACHS believe that teacher enthusiasm and collegiality are the catalyst for learning.

Students weren't impacted until last year. I saw that they became more aware that the faculty was moving toward solidarity. The strongest indicator (of success) is student performance which happens now that teachers have time to teach.

Students don't realize what's happened. The teachers communicate more. The students see us working together. I hope they feel we're trying to better them and help their educational process. There is more parent contact. Because of the discipline policy, teachers have been made more responsible for discipline.

I can only speak for my team. There so many more opportunities, courses for students to take. It has rejuvenated teachers. We all designed a course we were interested in and have done marvelous things with it because of that interest. This attitude has slipped over into our other teaching.

Though they don't articulate it, there seems to be an awareness on the part of teachers of a connection between student as learner and teacher as learner (Sizer, 1984). Authority has devolved from administrator to teacher. Both are learning as they change the norming behaviors and values practiced in their school.

"There are some things only a principal can do," remarked Mark Shaw's receptionist and secretary. Having worked for the last three principals and married to one of the Lead Teachers, she is confident of her statement. The Lead Teachers and Shaw have decided that one of those things a principal must do involves personnel.

Collaboration on personnel. As noted in the matter of achievement testing, Shaw

regarded his authority as being one vote among many in decision-making. He models the

democratic process not only in decisions on allocation of resources, such as purchasing equipment

and testing. He includes his staff, as Ken Devereaux did before him, in hiring personnel and

assigning teaching duties.

> Devereaux: Early on, I included staff in hiring. I had to learn how to set parameters for
> decision-making and for the levels of decision-making. After I set parameters for
> screening candidates, I reserved the right to make the final call.
>
> I also made teachers responsible for the master schedule; I gave the requests,
> the number of sections needed to the departments. I said, "You schedule your
> department." We got beautiful results (because) teachers were teaching what they
> wanted to teach.

Shaw continued the practice of teacher input in hiring and in scheduling classes. He

states his valuing of the process:

> When the faculty knows the LTs are involved see how it works, they trust. They
> (faculty) hired what I would.

The year that Shaw was hired, there were 10 LTs. Superintendent Norris sent six

applicants for the LTS to interview for the principalship. Shaw was one of their two top

choices. Norris made the final decision.

The process for hiring new teachers has been one in which Shaw screens applicants and

sends his top two or three choices to the department to interview. In every instance, Shaw says,

the department's first choice has been his.

> We decided to hire a social studies teacher. I knew this position also had to coach
> football. I told the social studies team in the beginning that that was what we had to
> look for. That they accepted this condition shows the level of trust we have. The
> person hired happened to be the first choice of both the social studies team and the
> football coach. My whole intent was to hire the best. The worst thing I could have
> done was not tell them about the double requirement and inform them after the fact.

Shaw does not extend collaboration on hiring staff to dismissal.

> I have dismissal obligations. I believe that I have improved the staff here by acting on those and have seen to it that some people who shouldn't have been in teaching have left.
>
> I believe in the TPAI. It has sound points. There simply isn't the time to do the eight-hour evaluation per person it requires. I've used the TPAI tenets to persuade certain teachers to consider other career options.
>
> I do go over each teacher's Critical Objectives (two per person) each year. In Alpha County Schools, everyone can earn a Performance-based Supplement (PBS), a bonus for achievement of Critical Objectives and school-wide objectives.

There are 20 new teachers on the staff since 1987, each hired on the recommendation of their respective departments. Teachers speak with pride: "We hired ____, you know." Such a practice is a beginning for collegiality. Both veteran and newly-hired staff member begin the relationship with a sense of ownership. The veteran has a vested interest in the success of the new department member; the new teacher enters the department, not as a stranger, but as a chosen colleague.

Summary

Schools have a "culture" (Sarason, 1982, 1990) with observable behaviors, norms, and espoused and practiced values. Within the context of ACHS there are observable obvious and more subtle characteristics common to the culture of a school. These characteristics have influenced how teachers and administrators approach the task of designing ACHS's Lead Teacher model. Over the last four years, with input from the staff they represent, LTs at ACHS have tailored the job to meet the faculty's expectations both for certain values of equity and for meeting the challenges of inspection and control from the state. They assume, indeed expect, the responsibility of allocation of scarce resources for the instructional program.

The administrators have practiced norming behaviors that encourage collaboration with and among the LTs. While sharing authority for decision-making with other adults in

the culture of the school, they lead by articulating the value that the mission of the school is always student-centered. Collegiality has replaced bureaucracy in decision-making.

One characteristic of schools has not changed at ACHS; adults still make virtually all decisions for students. There is some interest from LTs in devolving authority to students.

The LTs and administrator, at this point, have expressed clear priorities for the decision-making done by their group. Budget, curriculum, and personnel matters take up the major portion of their time, as illustrated in this section. Further evidence for their priorities is presented in the section on Professionalizing the Environment.

From 1987-1990 the legal flexibility to change brought stress as well as opportunity. Characteristics of change and the impact of change on the culture of ACHS are discussed in the section below.

Change

From the literature, the researcher selected five characteristics of the phenomenon of change. These characteristics are clearly evident in the history of ACHS since 1987. First, change is a process, not a product (Sarason, 1982; Achilles & Keedy, 1983-1984; Fullan, 1985; Rogus, 1988). From Sarason (1982): when trying to implement change, 2) it is essential not to confuse means with ends. Third, change always involves competition for scarce resources which will be manifested in power struggles. Fourth, the leader(s) are critical in norm setting throughout the process. Finally, to the degree that all constituents are included in the decision-making about the change, the change will be successful. (Sarason, 1982).

Those who are part of the decisionmaking will have ownership in the results of implementation (Berman and McLaughlin, 1977). Meaningful change can bubble up from those closest to the work of the school, as the partnership of administrators and faculty at ACHS has demonstrated.

The first year (1987-1988) of the freedom to design a restructured school was characterized by meetings, discussions, surveys, voting, and voting again. All 18 LTs interviewed agreed that acquiring skills in conflict resolution and in coming to consensus is essential to movement from the bureaucratic form of school governance to the present one.

The LTs comment on fear of change:

They were afraid of change. Norris scared us to death, with so much change, the first year he was in Alpha County.

The first vote—to do it—was easy. Then each additional vote—the closer we got to specifics—the harder to agree. People don't mind changing, if it suits them.

Appointed leaders set the norm for wrestling with change:

Norris wanted to change the high school. He thought this faculty could change. He brought us the Carnegie project.

Devereaux and Shaw have been easy to work with. I'm glad there is continuity all the way to the superintendent.

Devereaux reveals his grasp of change as a process:

The LT and this particular model are not ends in themselves. (All our) ideas were means to our two goals. There are keys to restructuring.

a) have dialogue-don't expect change to be an event; it's always a process because you are creating restructuring and change.

b) it's process versus product: the idea of flexibility had more to do with process than product. With the freedom to define the product, we can educate the public to important outcomes, such as with issues of the class schedule. This schedule was a way to show how to use time and money.

c) keep the process moving to decisions to be made.

"I use the Taylor-Card model (see Appendix 3) for shared decision-making," Devereaux explained. "Those who are affected make the decision. If they have a stake, they should have a say. No one should relinquish the right and responsibility to be part of the process."

In 1987, the faculty of ACHS concentrated on the goal of professionalizing the workplace. The year began with the addition to the staff of three secretaries. Norris asked the school board to approve using all of the first monies from the state for the Basic Education Plan (BEP) in Alpha County to hire the secretaries. No other school in Alpha County received BEP money for adding teachers to the instructional program that year.

The original four LTs frequently attended workshops. "They could go to any training they wanted," said one of the former LTs. They learned to analyze California Achievement Test (CAT) scores, attended a poorly regarded session on leadership, and met with the Lieutenant Governor. State university consultants brought training to the faculty on time management, conflict resolution, change, and computer software, among others (See Appendix 2).

The 10-member "Structuring the Learning Environment" committee printed a report noting that any change depended on resources for personnel and equipment. The nine-member "Professionalizing the Environment" committee generated a wish list centering on five different environments, from instruction to physical to extracurricular environment. Each committee set out to find examples of different learning and working environments to observe.

Selected faculty members traveled to worksites to learn what constituted a "professional workplace". These sites included a power company, a law firm, and a bank.

Ev Lee, an energetic teacher who had assumed administrative duties under the principal before Devereaux, read of a schedule in a school system called Alpine. Lee and the Alternative Schedule Committee researched the possibility of replicating the Alpine schedule by changing the day's schedule from six classes a day to seven or eight over two days. They found schools within driving distance to visit to observe alternative schedules. Faculty members visited the North Carolina School of Science and Math (NCSSM), North Carolina State University (NCSU), and two high schools, one in Raleigh and one in Virginia.

Lee and his committee printed a lengthy description of three alternative schedules, with pros and cons. The faculty voted—twice—before choosing the current schedule of eight classes, four on A day, four on B day. Teacher, administrator, student and parent agree that, by far, this was the most drastic change wrought by the freedom of flexibility.

> Ev Lee: It was scary. It took strong discussion and careful planning. It took time, became tedious. It caused breakouts in moral. It never got so bad that we wanted to chuck it. We recognized the need for it. There was no way to check if we were right as we planned and analyzed.
>
> We were hindered by impatience. We weren't allowed to go on until all had examined and agreed 100%. That frustrating for me. Often what a few of us wanted in the beginning, we got in the end, but only after everyone agonized over it, discussed it.

Those LTs who were "present at the creation" talk with some wistfulness in their voices of the energy and enthusiasm evident in the planning year. Compared with the palpable tension of change taking place in 1987-1988, the work of the Lead Teachers in the current year, 1990-1991, seems tame. "It seems like we have lost momentum," said one.

The change to the new schedule was typical of the decisionmaking at ACHS. Many teachers were included in the fact-finding and analysis for the entire faculty. Every decision was preceded by lengthy discussion, and by a secret ballot vote. Approval required a 75% majority vote of the faculty. Since any staff member's suggestion was included on the survey, the staff voted on over 90 items. Only those items with 75% approval were accepted. Several key items seemed best implemented with a new schedule.

Support for the new schedule came in part from the desire of each department to design new courses and require another course per department for graduation. In the spring of 1989, the Alpha County Schools Board of Education approved ACHS' request to add one new course per department: Physical Education, social studies, math, science, and English.

The English department added two one-semester courses, Folklore and Modern Fiction. The teachers also coordinated with the math department to design a preparation course for the

Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). Another cross-departmental course, Study Skills, gives

leeway to pull students from class for remediation. Along with the proposed new courses, the

board approved the schedule of four 90-minute periods a day, with classes meeting on alternate

days with very little discussion.

Sarason (1990) admonishes that a change facilitator must seek to change something

because what one seeks to change is so embedded in the system, that if it is changed, changes

are likely to occur elsewhere in the system (p. 16).

What has the schedule changed in the culture and context of this school? By 1991, the

schedule has been in effect for almost two full years. Students are required to pass five units a

year, including English and two academic courses to pass from one grade to another. In this

manner, they accumulate 15 of the 22 credits needed for graduation by the beginning of their

senior year. To phase in more stringent requirements, the following timetable pertains:

graduating class	units to graduate
1991	22
1992	24
1993	26

Each department added a course required for graduation. The social studies department

wanted to offer United States History, required by the state for graduation, over two years,

instead of one. They believed that one year was entirely inadequate to cover the material. In

all departments, teachers designed courses that mirrored their interests and then recruited

students for those courses.

Student enrollment is now up in every department. For the first time in memory, enough

students enrolled in journalism to merit a class. Shaw and several of the LTs state with pride

that 92% percent of the entire student body is enrolled in a vocational course.

The new schedule relieved some of the stress in meeting specific student needs. Study Skills and Healthful Living courses were designed to avoid pulling students from academic classes for remediation to pass the state competency test and driver's education, respectively.

The intent of the change was to improve learning outcomes for students. The urgent need was to get rid of singletons, courses that could only be offered once in the day. Students and teachers were frustrated that students couldn't take all the courses they wanted because of conflicts—like band offered the same time as physics. By 1990-1991, singletons had been reduced from 72 to 50, even with 10 new courses added.

Other effects of the change are noted. The first year of the new schedule, "a lot of heavies (academic courses) got loaded up on one day; the conscientious students had a hard time," said one of the Lead Teachers. "We have tried to distribute academics and electives more evenly." In addition,

> Preparation for teachers has increased, not decreased.
>
> We cut by a third the number of students a teacher sees in a day. Surely it makes a difference in teacher good will and patience at 1:55 p.m., when her last class is coming in, if s/he has seen 50-60 students that day instead of 90-100.
>
> We're all teaching courses we love. That has to come across to the students.

Teachers and students like alternate, rather than every-day exposure to one another. Having three lunch periods instead of two reduced crowding and subsequent discipline problems in the lunch room.

Positive consequences cut across all disciplines. Members of each department expressed appreciation of the extra time now available for labs, field trips within a class period, student internships in health occupations. The social studies department used the flexibility provision of Project Design to get permission to divide the EOC U.S. History test, giving one half one year, the last half following the second year of the course.

We have adjusted to trying to change the pace. I let them do hands-on, work in groups. Still, you have to have structure, deadlines. We lost contact hours. It's hard to come up with new techniques to make up for 30 hours.

Study Skills works for me because I teach the remedial classes for passing the state competency test. It's still not developed as a resource. We're procrastinating on making it work.

Many things happened: people in the school acknowledged that other people on the faculty were teaching useful things. Students became the focus of everyone, not just "what I can get for me and my department".

The 90-minute class period has put pressure on everyone, especially teachers. The veteran with 15-20 years of 55-minute lesson plans has had to learn new teaching strategies. Shaw and the staff frequently ponder aloud whether the loss in total hours affects student outcomes—like EOC test scores. Shaw analyzed:

The decision to go to 135 hours (instead of 165 achieved in daily contact) increased graduation requirements and put pressure on this faculty. Yet, I see that even with fewer contact hours with students, our scores are still competitive.

They say this with almost two full years of the schedule. The first year, few would have predicted any satisfaction with the alternate schedule.

When Shaw came, in 1988, the faculty's focus was on how to design a new schedule. The first full year of the alternative schedule, 1989-1990, teachers had more students than ever. By October, said Shaw, "the lid was ready to blow. We had a faculty retreat at a lake in the county seat. I asked them to analyze how much of their feelings were tied to change itself."

By providing a conduit for the staff frustration, Shaw and the Lead Teachers resolved some of the tension over the added responsibility. This is discussed further in the section on leadership.

Teachers created new English sections and let students elect to change or not to a newly-created section. Students were able to make a decision, however modest. This lightened some teaching loads. In addition, the LTs requested that the school board grant flexibility in hiring

a person who was not certified to teach. She became certified to teach in science and is still on the faculty.

Students who were interviewed were divided over the benefits of the new schedule. (See Chapter 3, Methodology, and Appendix 4 for explanation of student selection for interviews). They liked having more time between assignments and due dates and having time to review in class just before taking a test. Ninth graders expressed difficulty remembering whether it was A day or B day, especially after a holiday. The rest of the student body is experiencing a second year of the schedule. Comments from those interviewed reveal that student appreciation of the 90-minute class turns on teacher initiative.

I don't have to do my homework every night. It's easy to remember the assignments for just four classes. We get more done in class, I remember more. Sometimes it's boring with 90 minutes. (9th grade, repeater)

I liked six periods. I get more courses now, but more homework. It's hard to keep up with what is due when. The long class period is OK if you have a class you enjoy. If you are bored, you go to sleep. (12th grade, achiever)

I have more time to do my work. I do a better job. I can ask more questions. (12th grade, achiever)

You can get more courses in, especially if you fail. (12th grade, at risk)

I think it's great, even though classes are shorter (when time is totaled for the year). We got 90 minutes to cover the material. (12th grade, achiever)

I like it; it makes the day go faster. Study Skills helps. It gives me time to get my work done, go to the library. (9th grade, average)

Those who objected to the schedule made these comments:

Eight subjects is a lot to carry. Ninety minutes is OK for trades (vocational), but it's too long for me. By meeting every other day, I'm having trouble remembering math and French. (11th grade, achiever)

I like the schedule, but 90 minutes is too long. It gets so boring. The teacher goes too fast. Last year classes were more fun than this year. (12th grade, at risk)

The schedule is bad in certain cases, with two days between classes. Teachers don't realize we have a load. They need to get more teachers for certain classes. The schedule is good for science, band, and drama. Other classes it's hard to keep attention. We're still learning the same amount as if we were in 55-minute classes. (11th grader, achiever)

Parents react:

Ninety minutes gets boring. It's not the 90 minutes; it's what you do with the 90 minutes. Some of the teachers are very inventive. The younger ones seem to be; the older teachers seem to be burnt out. (Parent of two graduates, one current ACHS student)

Homework seems to be two nights worth. I wonder how the slower student manages. There is the potential to push students out. (Parent of one graduate, three current ACHS students)

The most frequent complaint is that the 90-minute class periods are too long. The students taking fewer academic courses complain most about teacher rigidity in instruction and long class periods. The LTs have not confused means with ends. They see the new schedule as a means to increase student opportunity; they also sense that there are opportunities not yet seized in the new schedule. Tailoring the schedule is on-going in the process of change at ACHS.

Teacher use of the 90-minute class period is a topic of concern in Lead Teacher meetings and in interviews. The LTs chose to deal with it through staff development, which is discussed below in the section on Professionalizing the Environment.

Summary

Leadership for change at ACHS began with administrators. Teachers acted on their own leadership skills by welcoming the responsibility for research and garnering support for planning long-range change. Through consensus, reform bubbled up to create the new schedule. Teachers designed it, based on their professional instincts and perception of students' need.

While the intent of the new schedule was to increase the students' opportunity to take more courses, many other effects have been noted, more of them positive than not. "Schools

aren't static," remarked Mark Shaw, "they are always getting better or worse." At this point,

the schedule is accepted with a healthy skepticism. It may make school better; it may make it

worse. The latest faculty survey (1991) shows that some teachers want to review it, but not

enough of them to warrant a vote. The annual survey—still over 90 items--and the Lead

Teacher conduit seem sufficient vehicles for dealing with scheduling problems.

A critical component for change is leadership. The following section depicts

leadership characteristics observable in the context and culture of Alpha County High School.

Leadership

In this section, leadership on the part of several players is noted using data from

interviews and observations at ACHS. The superintendent, Ken Devereaux, formerly the

principal of ACHS, was the original leader of Project Design, the Lead Teacher model. The

current principal, Mark Shaw, has steered the faculty since the second year of the

implementation. His leadership and norming behavior are evident in the behaviors of the

Lead Teachers.

Schein (1985) states that a paradox of cultural leadership is that the leader must be

able not only to lead but also to listen, to involve the group in achieving its own insights into its

cultural dilemmas and to be genuinely participative in the approach to change (p. 324). The

two administrators, Devereaux and Shaw, model this behavior in their participation in

creating a new school setting and, on the part of Shaw, guiding the new Lead Teacher

organization through midlife to a mature organization (Schein, 1985).

Devereaux now views the Lead Teacher model from the perspective of a superintendent

who must distribute resources.

> We are concerned with equity. Alpha High has more resources than any other school in
> Alpha County. They have more secretaries, more Lead Teachers. If the legislature
> doesn't fund, we don't have the resources for personnel expansion in the rest of our
> schools.

As to leadership characteristics, Devereaux states:

> My philosophy as a principal, as a superintendent, has been participation, not abdication. Leadership is a very critical ingredient. It sets the vision, the agenda, the collaborative. Even in the shared decisionmaking, the leader makes decisions about the decisions to be made. I use the Taylor-Card model (Appendix 3). It provides a systematic way of thinking about what decisions have to be made. What the process is designed to do is get leaders to realize the persons they supervise have a vested interest in decisionmaking. If they have a stake, they should have a say. Don't relinquish your right/ responsibility to be part of the process. The principal should be part of the team. Know when to risk looking indecisive. I try to model it at the central office for principals. Participation has to do not only with subordinates, but superordinates. Caution: don't exclude superordinates because they also have a stake. Keep them in the loop. The issue of inclusion/exclusion is important. For superintendents, it means asserting yourself. Don't abdicate; know you have expertise and concerns to contribute.

Devereaux expressed no qualms about leaving the project at such a critical point.

> The project's success didn't have to do with Ken Devereaux, but a solid, creative faculty. I believed, was concerned, that my replacement be philosophically in tune with the concept. The process was rolling but there were no results to report. I felt confident about the faculty. If the project rested on my personality—

Mark Shaw, seemingly never at a loss for words on any subject, speaks with fervor on the role of the school administrator and his own entry to Project Design.

> I had an easy enough time buying into the two goals (student outcomes, professionalizing the environment). No matter what the job, those are primary goals for any school system. I wanted to see teacher leadership emerge in working with administrators. I wanted that to lead to improvement and to provide leadership in determining what would work well and identify problems of significance.

He seems generous with his time; some comments on the 1989-1990 faculty survey were critical of how Shaw used his time. Several were concerned that he spent too much time at school. Yet in an interview, he reveals a sharp sense of how to manage time.

> It is important to identify the leaders in your faculty, teach them to observe an agenda, stay on task, respect a minority opinion. There should be no frustration about participating in a meeting.

I have a philosophical commitment to confer when needed. I also need to structure some of these requests. I use management by walking around. If I get in visibility time between 7:55 and 8:15, I get in 50-60 student and teacher contacts as I walk around the building. I maximize my visibility.

I get irritated by "I've been trying to get up with you". I try to return all calls and speak to teachers within the day of the request. This system values principals being in the building, so I am on campus. I can get back to people.

Shaw makes decisions about who makes decisions:

Faculty Council should deal with administration, procedural matters, and policies. Lead Teachers should do curriculum, exam scheduling, and so on. We can get full faculty input, but some decisions can't be made by 56 people.

Strategic Use of Time

One way Shaw controls how critical time is spent is by using statistical data to focus

group attention. Some examples:

One quarter, (the assistant principal) had to do 537 corrections on entering grades. I asked for a breakdown by teacher of the corrections done. I told faculty of the situation, saying that I had the list by teacher if anyone wanted to see it. No one did. The next quarter there were less than 40 corrections made.

31% of the faculty have planning first and fifth.

What percent of the faculty is using Integrade? 41%; our goal is 100%. I'm not willing to give up the technology because we can't do it right.

1% (of teacher salaries) for Performance-based Supplements generates $14,000 here at ACHS.

Most fees and fines are low, 70% are for $6 to $7.

61% of the parents came to school and picked up the report cards. We probably could get another 25% easily. We could work on the last 15%.

Involving the faculty in hiring procedures takes time and, while he notes potential

hazards in allowing faculty to have input on hiring personnel, he shows no inhibitions about it.

"When the faculty knows the LTs are involved, and see how it works, they trust. They hired

what I would."

He believes that the model works because

> . . .the implementation is based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It draws on the needs of people within an organization. I like to think that the school staff is now getting more sensitive to the needs of kids.

> The total support of the Board of Education is critical. You need support by a superintendent who will let it work, who believes that the schools can make the decisions. The last two let people beat up on them. Norris came out here and let staff beat up on him for two and one half hours. If you don't have that, you can't have (the model) work.

Norming Behavior

Shaw sets a norm for decision-making at the lowest possible level. He gives secretaries

and janitors opportunities for deciding.

> You can't have a principal in this process who doesn't believe in sharing decisions. In this day, school faculties have outgrown the old leadership roles. Faculties are so professionalized that they need a new kind of leadership.

When the Lead Teachers seemed unable to reach consensus, he offered an alternative:

> The decision should be made by true consensus; if not, I'll weigh the advantages and disadvantages and decide.

He wanted Integrade at all costs, yet never in a Lead Teacher meeting did he argue for

it. He nudged the group toward making a decision to meet deadlines: "We need to set up for

Integrade in 3 or 4 days." In the end, several LTs convinced the others to continue the grade

management program and make it a priority for secretarial assistance.

In another case, 40 minutes spent was spent on discussing who should have a computer.

Shaw directed the group:

> Enough disagreement. It's better to decide rather than have a four-four vote and me breaking the tie. It would be a decision without substance.

The LTs pick up as if on cue and assume responsibility for closure.

Vickie: Is this it, Luke? Lead Teachers have priority.

Luke: In their department, not their room.

Nancy: She (one who requested a computer but will not have one by virtue of this decision) wants to see computer room guidelines.

Vickie: I'll write them.

Shaw set a norm for the Lead Teacher being the liaison with administration as well as being the norm setter for group values.

Mark: Let teachers know that we can't waste paper like this (a memo with 5 student names on it for a field trip). I'll let the lead teacher deal with this teacher.

He also models valuing of staff as potential sources of professional information. In the discussion on staff development, he offers: "Use our faculty. We could do professional readings and discussions. Nancy, what the math team is doing on team goals might be informative for this faculty."

"Staff development should reflect what we're trying to do for kids," he says.

Shaw consistently refers to student needs and measures of success—or outcomes.

I'm not convinced that double periods will increase algebra scores.

On whether the EOC tests define what the curriculum will be:

I'll bet this faculty is too good for that. You step outside your comfort zone. When you have kids engaged in schemes of history, you've got more than drill sheets. The real test is to give the EOC test two years after the class.

After the first quarter of the year, the LTs are concerned about the procedure of requiring parents to come to school to pick up the report card. Though they like a policy that

might guarantee that the parent sees the report card, some LTs are afraid that some students might be humiliated because the parent didn't come in. Teachers don't want to handle the report cards themselves. Several state that since they don't teach the homeroom kids, they don't know them. Mark's stiffened body and shocked expression convey that he does not approve.

> Luke: If we're doing the job we're supposed to do with 110-140 kids we're teaching, we're covered.

Mark relaxes and agrees. The LTs discuss his feelings. In private, Shaw praises the teachers' priority of concern for the student over their own convenience.

Mark Shaw's norming behavior sets a standard for respect for others in the culture of the school, while maintaining high expectations that each person will make a valiant professional effort to obtain group goals. The Lead Teachers model this behavior, too.

One secretary, the newest at computer grade management had made mistakes on a teacher's progress reports and the teacher had reacted angrily. The LTs discuss how to handle the situation.

> Gerald: There was no need to jump Ellen.
>
> Vince: It was real unprofessional the way the teacher handled it. She went all over school and to Mark.
>
> Tally: She's on my team. I told her Ellen is new, she's learning this.
>
> Vince: The teacher should have gone to Gerald, first.

They decide to have spreadsheets run for all teachers to edit before publishing progress reports. Since Ellen is out for a few days, Gerald has already asked the other secretary to run the spreadsheets that Ellen did. He had already assumed the responsibility for the matter.

Mark Shaw isn't reticent to assume either responsibility or blame for unilateral

decision-making. In various Lead Teacher meetings, he states:

> Blame me or Tanya. I made the decision to hold up the other teachers. I don't manage
> by embarrassment.
>
> On requiring faculty to turn in grades early: I think this faculty would, if forced, be
> angry and pushed for 6 or 7 days. I'd get hate mail. By the next 9 weeks, it'd be
> forgotten.
>
> We need to be fair. I don't want to be in a situation where the principal picks who goes
> to conferences. Not just my pets.

He discusses with both Faculty Council and LTs the dilemma of assigning unpopular

duties of student supervision:

> I'm ashamed to tell you that last year someone got 1% (salary supplement) for doing
> faculty refreshments.
>
> Teresa: Tell the new person "your duties are..."
>
> Ned: That goes against the site-based decision-making we're touting. We know, they
> know, they did little for the money.
>
> Mark: This system has gotten so far from that. I end up sometimes saying "sorry, you
> have to do that".

Shaw models Bennis and Nanus' (1985) categories of competence. By accepting people

as they are, he helps the group focus on solving problems in the present, not in terms of the past.

His trust empowers the Lead Teachers so that both leader and follower raise one another to

higher levels of motivation. Interdependence is valued.

At various times, the LTs model the sense of selflessness that Shaw does. Two

examples are:

> Tally: (on secretaries) Some teachers are abusive.
>
> Gerald: Right, give her time, be humane.

and

Vickie: $2500 is a lot but nothing compared to others. I wouldn't tell him to cut until everyone else has submitted.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) also list the ability to articulate vision as a leadership quality. The effective leader is able to identify opportunities and dangers associated with the vision and is able to sequence events to achieve the vision. Mark Shaw describes how he dealt with a crisis.

> Last year the staff was on edge, it was frightening. With the new schedule, some people were teaching 7 of 8 class periods. It was stressful. There were too many demands, too much pure change. The best thing that happened was the retreat at ___ Lake. The roof was ready to blow by October 15. The staff was actively looking for relief. We surveyed the faculty on the number of student contacts, preparations. I prepared fact sheets based on the surveys. We used these in collaboration with the Lead Teachers. We had a faculty meeting to air grievances. After the faculty meeting, the LTs immediately went to work. We didn't wait a day. The LTs met right then and designed a survey based on concerns.

>> EX.   How many student contacts?
> > How many preparations?

> If ___ complained about her load, we looked at the data and saw she had two preparations in her field, 130 students over 2 days. We shared the results of the survey.

> The most difficult work then was to determine whom to hire (to redistribute the teaching load).

Shaw consistently affirms his belief that he is dependent on the group to carry out the school's mission. Schein (1985) divides organizations into life cycles: new, midlife, and mature. The Lead Teacher model at ACHS is between midlife and mature. Shaw is concerned that the values of the project be consciously affirmed by newer members of the faculty.

> We have about 20 new staff members since we began this model. They are aware that they have input in their teams, they know that much about the model. We need to bring them into the program more (teach them the history of our model here). They were each interviewed by their teams before they were hired. Team play is important. The message is sent: you have team obligations here. The school is at a point that I need the lead teachers to take new folks and give them a history of the school since '86. It comes up in job interviews when (interviewees) ask: why the 90-minute class period?

Summary

The leader is the "culture manager", says Schein (1985, p. 326). As such, Mark Shaw demonstrates an ability to sense the values of the culture of ACHS while shepharding the LTs and rest of the staff toward a viable shared governance for making decisions about the adults and students in the school. All the while, he works toward obtaining consensus on the vision for professionalizing the work environment and improving learning opportunities and outcomes for students.

On the 1989-1990 20-item Principal's Survey, the staff agreed or strongly agreed 88% or higher on 14 of the items. The item on which he got the least approval was still 74%. The survey data show that the staff has high expectations for the principal's norming behavior; he should set standards for student and teacher behavior.

On the survey, teachers and other staff members indicate that they are least satisfied with

1) an environment that encourages innovation and improved instruction,

2) a school climate that sets high expectations for appropriate student behavior. This may be a reflection, not of failed achievement, but of high expectations.

How scarce resources, change, and leadership have manifested themselves in the culture of ACHS in 1990-91 is also illustrated in the following sections on the school's two primary goals: 1) Professionalizing the Environment and 2) Increasing Opportunities for Learning and Outcomes for Students.

Professionalizing the Environment

Sarason (1982) states that change has occurred if there is change in behavioral regularities. The teachers note that there is a change in behavioral regularities, like who makes decisions, when and how often. They also note a change in atmosphere and staff relations. LTs comment:

There is a change in our relationships and conditions. We don't have to sign in. We have secretaries. It's good to know we have someone to go to who is under the administration. There is also pride in knowing that we were sought out.

Another: As a teacher, the school is better after five years. We are involved more, there is a sense of ownership. I could live with the old way, but I like it better like this.

Olivia, school receptionist: Each principal is different, but before Lead Teacher, one person made all the decisions. That wasn't right. Now, teachers have input. They can decide how to spend money. Adding the secretaries changed my responsibilities. Before, I had to do all the copying to control paper. Moving that responsibility to the back of the building helped. There are still things only a principal can do.

The staff of ACHS now has secretaries who do work solely for teachers. No longer do teachers have to collect fees or picture money. A secretary will log teacher grades on a computer and do any copying needed for them as well as type their tests. Each department assigns teaching duties among themselves. A teacher can choose at least a few of the courses s/he wants to teach. When Shaw came to ACHS in 1988, fewer than 40 of the 56 teachers had a planning period. In 1990, virtually every teacher has a planning period at the ratio of one per day. Those who don't have some very small classes to compensate.

LTs teach five out of eight classes. There is an office with a phone, typewriter, and computer for exclusive use by teachers. Teachers have colleagues who will chase down extra textbooks for them, handle data gathering for state reports, call and arrange for a speaker or a field trip, or locate a particular book, film, or magazine article for use in instruction. This brings us to examine: what is the job of a Lead Teacher?

Being a Lead Teacher

The mean number of years of experience for a Lead Teacher is 16.2, the median is 14. With the exception of one teacher now in his third year of teaching, the range of experience is from 11 to 29 years. These are veteran teachers. They have also spent the majority of their teaching years at ACHS, that mean being 11.6.

Asked if this faculty was unique, in 1987, most of the teachers say "No, we weren't that different." One who has left to become a principal mused, "Maybe a cut above other faculties, but really not that different."

The first four LTs began the job with a job description arrived at by consensus. The successive ones continue to define the LT job according to the department's perceptions and needs. What do Lead Teachers do?

> Social studies: Help everybody in the department any way they request. I tried to run interference for my team, like write the team Critical Objectives. The LT becomes the department chair.

> Communications: Do everything to promote student progress. The person who does this should already have decision-making skills. It doesn't need to be on-the-job training.

> Vocations, business: Typing reports, making telephone calls, get service and supplies for them. I attended meetings, made sure my team got feedback and information. Some team members hesitate to ask for help. I would offer.

> Science: The first year, I thought I had to take care of team. We developed new courses, curriculum, and looked at test results. The second year, my perspective changed with the budget constraints. We must run the whole school. We make decisions because Shaw can't know like we do. He's not in there like we are.

These comments are typical as they note an effort to meet every day short term needs of the classroom teacher as well as to be their representative in making policy. Noticeably absent, indeed, the LTs pointed out its absence, is evidence of intellectual tasks, such as reading, research, and writing new curriculum.

Perusal of the Lead Teacher logs of their activities for 1989-1990 reveals how the Lead Teachers spent their time. Three of the eight LTs kept logs for the entire year. Most kept the log until midyear, which they note is a value statement about how these professionals chose to allocate their time. One kept the log only from August to October, but in that time noted 65 contacts with the secretaries on setting up the computer grading program. The researcher found 27 kinds of categories of activities noted in the logs. In only three categories did all eight note

activity. These also had the largest totals of noted activity. The three categories are curriculum (398 total), attending meetings (270 total), and student management (227 total).

"Those (curriculum and student management) are the toughest to change," noted a former LT. "I'm not surprised that we spent so much time on them." Curriculum items tend to be particularistic rather than theoretical or innovative. Finding a speaker is more likely the task than planning and researching.

In succeeding years, various LTs have picked up the responsibility of being the liaison between the staff and the secretaries. The Lead Teacher's interpersonal skills seems to the primary consideration when the group designates this job.

Two teachers were LTs for only one year, choosing not to run for reelection. "It was my worst teaching year," said one. The other corroborated: "Something had to give in all the duties and it was always my time for planning teaching."

"If I hadn't had over 20 years experience and could walk in and 'teach off the top of my head', I couldn't have done all that the LT had to do," said a veteran LT.

One kept a log of his hours for one month. He found that he spent 65 hours a week at school "and I was average", he said.

Several LTs lament the fact that there is not enough time for reading and research. This may be another symptom of scarce resources—there is no one else to do the tasks that the LTs are now doing. The equity ethic and the anti-intellectual atmosphere of modern schools may inhibit LTs from insisting that reading on the job is a reasonable use of their time. Time is of overriding concern to all the LTs. Compensation is accepted, but by 1990-1991, is regarded as incidental to the essential quality of the model.

Compensation: In the first year, the differential pay for Lead Teachers was to be 15% of a given LT's salary. The faculty voted to pay the LTs from 5% to 15% of their state salary and to pay each staff member, including secretaries, 1% of their salary if the annual goals were

achieved. The LT supplement capped at a total of 6% of their salary. The difference not spent on supplements was spent on materials and supplies. The following year, each LT received 6.5% of the individual's state salary. In 1989-1990, with funding being a compilation of Basic Education Plan expansion funds, local money and a small amount of state money, the Lead Teacher salary was a flat $1250. In 1990-91, every school in Alpha County, except two, had completed a plan for a Lead Teacher model. The county school board allotted $1200 per Lead Teacher as supplement at the ratio of four per high school. With eight LTs, ACHS has to dilute the funding for the high school. Lead Teachers receive $600 for extra duties in 1990-91.

In the Lead Teacher office: In mid-September, at mid-morning, three teachers are in the Lead Teacher office. Two social studies teachers, their classrooms being used for other teachers' classes, are here for their planning period. They discuss a videotape on the Iran-Iraq war. The LT for the math team checks papers while waiting for a call from the county school office. The LT from the communications team comes in with a stack of an issue of Life magazine that she offers to the social studies teachers. "English doesn't need these," she explains.

A week later, the researcher finds a math teacher, George, in the office, checking papers during his planning period while the science team leader is working on the computer.

"See if you can do something about the upcoming Open House for parents," George asks. "I think pushing them through eight periods in an evening is too much. Try four periods for 10 minutes each."

Vince agrees to bring it up. A science teacher opens the door to ask George if a student can switch his math class so she can move him to a more academic science class. He agrees to move the student.

"Our math curriculum has the flu," George offers. "It needs a major overhaul."

Gerald comes in and asks Vince for help with using the Integrade program. "It's a Lead Teacher duty!", he declares.

During the next class period, Nancy, math Lead Teacher, shows a business teacher and two social studies teachers how to use Integrade on the computer. Judy, social studies Lead Teacher, and the art teacher discuss effects of the Lead Teacher project and the 90-minute class. Judy says that she can vary instructional strategies and give more group problem-solving activities: "My students scored better on the End of Course test for American History than the Advanced Placement kids did."

During the regular weekly meeting, the Lead Teachers discuss use of the office.

Vickie: It seems that too often there are students in the Lead Teacher office.

Judy: Ralph does that a lot. I feel like I have to supervise when a student is left in here to take a test. I'll talk to Ralph.

Mark: I believe a student can take a test in the back of my class. Everyone on the staff can be collegial and work it out.

All: Most of us do.

Judy: Sounds like two of my team members.

Lead Teachers consistently and gently complained about both misuse of the office and asking LTs to cover a class for someone to meet a doctor's appointment or other obligation. However, in LT meetings, the greatest amount of time was spent, constructively, on curriculum, budgeting, and student management matters. From August to early December, various LTs also nagged, gently, for the group to devise some kind of staff development package. Over the history of the project, the ACHS staff became accustomed to a fairly rich selection of opportunities. The reduction to zero funding for such activities threw them on their own resources.

Professional Growth and Practice

Staff development, school jargon for fostering professional growth and improving professional practice, has for the past two decades been what a supervisor in the system's

central office believed teachers needed. Since 1987, ACHS staff members have, through LTs, chosen what staff development opportunities they believed were needed—conflict management, computer skills, Adler's Socratic method, etc. Teachers chose to go to state conferences sponsored by professional organizations in specific subject areas: math, social studies, office occupations and vocational instruction.

In early December, LTs find time to meet an hour earlier than their regular meeting time to make plans. All semester they had discussed kinds of programs, the time needed, whether to require, or make optional, staff participation. On this day, they generate a list of suggestions. Attached to each subject is a name of an ACHS staff person, someone in the county school office, or a professor who has expertise in the matter. They choose time in January to offer a mix of required and optional activities.

The group designates these required activities:

-Working with individual at risk students,

-90-minute teaching strategies,

-team building and collegiality,

-cultural awareness.

For optional sessions, they discussed items ranging from first aid to "Issues in Education."

Tally: What about different kinds of homework?

Luke: I might pick up things I haven't thought of as homework.

Mark: Call it "The Homework Blues: Relieve Frustration Pick Up Strategies."

Judy: Watch TV and find grammar errors, even Sesame Street.

Luke: Ain't got time for that!

Mark: We got a list, knock out a schedule.

Vince and Vickie work on a format covering two teacher workdays and four consecutive Monday afternoons, repeating some of the sessions. Nancy and Nora offer suggestions. The meeting takes two hours.

At 4:15, the group begins their regular LT meeting. Agenda items include two teachers who have received $1200 in grant money; there is anger over administration's disciplining (or lack of) a student suspected of smoking in the bathroom; when should Channel 1 be shown— beginning or end of class?

Frequent topics throughout the semester center on budget, curriculum, student management. Any discussion on personnel is based on human relations concerns: how to approach secretaries or how to deal with one teacher's request that she be given a computer (to do so would deprive another teacher). Occasionally, an issue would be designated "That's Faculty Council". Roaches in the teacher lunchroom, getting parents into the school, the secretaries' duties, getting tests graded by machine, gathering data, and reporting the data to parents and central office are frequent agenda items. Lead Teachers object to frequent use of LTs as substitutes.

"We need a permanent substitute," was a recurring remark. "I know we need to save money, and I don't mind covering in an emergency," said Judy, "but I lose my planning time when I have to sub for others."

Accountability. The Lead Teachers spend less time in 1990 on accountability than they have in the past. The project brought with it criteria and timelines for accountability. Initially, great care had been taken to devise an accountability model. The legislation provided the incentive:

> Funding of these pilot projects shall continue for subsequent fiscal years only if the pilot units successfully submit local school improvement plans pursuant to the Performance-based Accountability Program. . . . (Public School Laws of North Carolina, 1990, p. 256)

The LTs and principal have changed the specific measures by which they account for what they have done with flexibility and the extra funds. Each year, from 1987 to 1990, the Lead Teachers were selective in choosing goals to meet for accountability purposes. Rather than to rely on traditional measures, such as standardized test scores and percentage of graduates attending college, they used more original measures. Some they have discarded as not necessarily helpful ones; others they have retained. First, data was gathered to have a baseline such as the previous year's scores, dropout numbers, etc.

Total number of A grades through total number of F grades were computed. Drop-outs were sorted by grades; drop-ins after dropping out were counted. Parent participation, whether at a ballgame or a school conference was tallied. Total number of absences were noted and compared.

While collecting this kind of archival data, the staff also sought constituent feedback on "satisfaction" from parents, students, and teachers. Surveys consisting of 20 to over 90 questions were sent to each constituent for completion. Table 3 shows accountability measures for Spring, 1988, after one year of Project Design.

In 1988, attendance for seniors went up .08% after they were exempt from exams for good attendance, but attendance for juniors went down. Ninth graders' average score on the California Achievement Test (CAT) was lower than when they took the test in the eighth grade. More students took the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) than in 1987 and they scored higher on both the verbal and math sections. Students surveyed asked for more input, activities, course offerings and improved school appearance and discipline.

In 1989, the same data were collected. With juniors exempt from exams for good attendance, attendance went up about one percentage point. Dropouts increased to 61; out-of-school suspensions dropped to 103. Ninth grade CAT scores crept higher toward the fiftieth percentile; the SAT scores increased as did the number of students taking the test.

Table 3: Accountability measures, 1987-1988

SUSPENSIONS

In-School		Out-of-School	Dropouts	
9th	148	110 total	9th	19
10th	74		10th	10
11th	64		11th	11
12th	34		12th	5

California Achievement Test Scores			Scholastic Aptitude Test		
	8th grade	9th grade		1987	1988
math	47%ile	44%ile	took test	44	61
reading	47%ile	45%ile	math score	401	450
			verbal	340	402

STUDENT SURVEY RESULTS

Strengths	Needs
Good staff/student relationships in class, athletics, extracurricular activities	Increase concern for student input
	Improve school spirit
Friendly atmosphere among students	Provide more activities
Academic program	Improve school appearance
Extracurricular activities	Improve course offerings
Small school, small classes	Improve school rules, discipline
Well-organized school	

The words accountability and flexibility are used once each in the legislation (see Appendix 1). The two words became the title of an effort to promote decision-making at the building level of schools in North Carolina, called the Accountability/Flexibility Act of 1990.

For Alpha County High School, accountability and flexibility have been the framework for making decisions to meet the school's two goals.

A comparison of two significant questions on the parent survey shows important changes in parent relationships with the school:

I came to school often to discuss my child's accomplishments.

    1988   23% agreed
    1989   73% agreed

Academic learning is a priority for ACHS.

    1988   37% agreed
    1989   62% agreed

Comparing the staff surveys of 1988-1989 with 1987-1988, one notes a drop in the belief in staff ability to influence policy and in the perception that the principal represents the majority of opinion of the staff. (This was the year of the new principal.)

On the positive side, by 1989, the staff noted changes in their authority and in student attendance.

Teacher participation in determining faculty assignment often:

    1988   29% agreed
    1989   56% agree.

Students attend class regularly and punctually:

    1988   66% agreed
    1989   91% agree.

In 1989-1990 the surveys were revised to a Likert scale. The first LT and principal satisfaction surveys were used. This also was the first year that all tenth graders took the

Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) and these scores were part of the Accountability document. In-school suspensions remained over 300; out-of-school suspensions were 98.

In this year a new baseline was established, an SDPI criteria, for comparison of each high school's scores on the End of Course (EOC) tests with county and state averages. In the fall of 1990, ACHS LTs and principal were pleased with their EOC scores, with the exception of the algebra I and II scores.

Each year, until 1990-1991, the Lead Teachers invested a lot of time in designing the Accountability Model report. In the brief history of accountability models, ACHS developed the prototype for North Carolina. In 1990-1991, every school in Alpha County, and North Carolina, is preparing one that meets state-wide criteria. The state model includes state accreditation standards and allows the choice of "other school indicators". The programs and objectives unique to ACHS will be the "other school indicators" for achievement of goals. This year there is no extra Lead Teacher money to give the entire staff the one percent bonus for achieving goals though all Alpha County School staff can earn from one to two per cent for achieving Critical Objectives.

Comments already noted by LTs relay that accountability, i.e., measuring what you did, is accepted by virtually everyone as a unquestioned part of a school culture. That professionals must be held to some kind of standard is a norm. The ACHS staff and its LTs deal with it by meshing their own criteria for self-evaluation with that required by the state. Even the state demands, such as EOC tests, they regard as an opportunity for planning, as will be seen in the following section on student outcomes.

In 1989, a doctoral student compared faculties of two elementary and two high schools (including ACHS). One of each pair had participated in Project Design. The Project Design faculties had significantly higher 1) satisfaction with teaching, 2) belief that they had adequate support and assistance, and 3) belief that they had power in decision-making than

did the comparison faculties (Owens, 1990). Owens noted a competitiveness in interviews and concluded that the freedom to speak freely in the school culture may have revealed a new dimension of professionalism. He found that these faculties had significantly more positive feelings about accountability demands and the equity issue of differentiated staffing than did the comparison faculties.

Summary

> A Lead Teacher: Those who want to change, about 70%, have changed. There is still room for improvement. I think we stay busier because we've upped the expectations.

Does the staff at ACHS have a more professional environment? The observable behaviors of meeting and problem-solving collegially seem to indicate it. The release of teachers from time-consuming clerical duties was designed to add more time to teaching duties. Most LTs, when asked what they want to evolve from the present state, express a belief that change at ACHS is a process, it is ongoing. The LTs agreed with Glickman's (1990) observation that the more a school is improved, the more there seems to be a need for improvement. The professional environment at ACHS, is one of expectation, not acceptance. The LTs and ACHS staff created more learning opportunities for students. They expect the measures of outcomes to improve.

Increasing Opportunities for Student Learning and Outcomes

The new schedule was the ACHS staff's proposed strategy to give students more opportunity for course selection. Not only was the intent to allow more flexibility in putting together a more diverse course selection, but the longer class period—from 55 minutes to 90 minutes—was intended to foster greater depth in learning. The proposal is easier to make than to analyze for clear successes. At best, the faculty is still attuned to the idea of change as a process. Teachers discuss different tactics to improve on what they already have. An example is the Study Skills class. Several LTs are interested in developing this resource.

All the teachers at ACHS attended a required staff development session, "90-minute Teaching Strategies" in January 1991. Led by the Lead Teachers, the session resulted in a two-page document on types of strategies to make the best use of the 90-minute class and to pique student interest. LTs regards staff as a continuous source of ideas.

> A Lead Teacher: I wish that we had more time to visit each others classes and observe. If I see just one tip to help me in the classroom, it's worth it. The 90 minutes forced me to be more organized for students who miss a day. I saw ___'s system for student student makeup work and I do it, too.

The members of the math team looked within themselves to solve a major problem. Disappointed in their EOC scores, they took the long view in working throughout the 1990-1991 year to improve student opportunity and eventually, student outcomes. They did this by working collaboratively.

The Math Team's Critical Objectives

The math team chose as their Critical Objectives for the year:

1) improving EOC test scores in algebra,

2) analyzing the math curriculum for scope and sequence.

The six-member team met as a group six times between September 20 and January 7 to work on the two objectives. In addition, the team met three times with math teachers from Yancy Middle School, the feeder school for ACHS. Nancy, the team LT, attended various fact-finding meetings outside the school. In the transcription of the team's efforts, there are recognizable issues of barriers and facilitators in the culture of the school, as noted in Chapter 2. The issues of change, leadership, and a professional environment are also evident. The teachers' comments focus, overwhelmingly, on student opportunity for learning and outcomes of those opportunities.

At the first meeting, the teachers grope for a strategic point at which to tackle the problem of ACHS students' EOC test scores, which are below the 40th percentile in both

algebra I and II. Alpha County High's scores hover from 6 to 10 points below the county's and state's averages.

Are text books the problem? What about the standards for beginning algebra at Yancy, the middle school that sends its graduated eighth graders to ACHS? Is the every-other-day schedule the cause of low scores?

Nancy: We have analyzed the stats on the EOC scores.

Leigh: The 10th graders are not the lowest scorers. Look at the algebra scores from two years ago.

Nancy: I think that we should meet with Yancy faculty on how they decide on Algebra I placement in the eighth grade.

Leigh: If there is an eighth grade exit test, maybe we should have a ninth grade entrance test.

Nancy: We don't have entrance standards for anything.

Leigh: I think that they need a certain score to continue to the next level, like from algebra I to II.

Avery: What about guidelines for dealing with misplaced persons?

Leigh and Avery: Barkley's (the other high school in Alpha County) scores are up; what are they doing?

Tad: Do they use the same texts at Barkley? Some of the texts are more test-oriented than others.

Nancy and Leigh: We can't cover all in the text now. Twelve chapters are too much. We can't cover more without losing kids.

The team members discuss the need for parents and guidance counselors to know more about matching student ability with the appropriate math course.

Leigh: It's good to take trig out of algebra.

Nancy: I disagree. The capable can do algebra II and trigonometry. We owe it to them.

Leigh: Teach more algebra.

Nancy: We need algebra III or pre-calculus. If we do away with general math, we increase dropouts. But four years of general math is ridiculous! Do we need general, business, and consumer math? We need a sequence.

Avery: It will take us two years to investigate and implement this.

By now, Mark Shaw has come in and has been listening intently.

Mark: What you're doing is so important; there's no problem if your team's plan isn't written by October 8. A goal of this magnitude will take two years to implement.

At the November 5 meeting, the team continues to discuss possibilities. They list:

-look at tracking.

-decrease singletons (only one section of a course offered).

-clearly define course objectives.

-where are the students going? What preparation do they need?

-look at the Kindergarten-12th grade curriculum

-clearly define prerequisites for each course.

-communicate to parents, guidance what the curriculum is.

George: I know Mark doesn't know; he asks me.

Mark: Don't be so hard on yourselves. It's not just an Alpha High issue. Look at other schools. It's not important to get everybody to agree, but we need to come to consensus on why math is taught at ACHS. Get the kids to set a goal for post-high school. Too many "don't have no idea". You're not tracking; you're designing a program of high school studies.

Linda: Students need teachers to be curriculum advisors. They are lost.

Mark: The issue is not course titles, but the syllabi. Do for or with students, not to them. Build their self-esteem.

Linda: I know; they hate it (math).

Mark: Do good data searches. Don't rely on feelings.

Nancy: I agree.

Mark: We need to convey to parents that there is no shame in repeating algebra I.

Carol (assistant superintendent for curriculum), and Donna (special assistant to the superintendent) have been invited to a mid-November meeting. Donna has been designated "personal broker" from the county school office for both ACHS and the nearby Yancy Middle School. As such, she meets with LTs and is the contact person at the county office when something "needs to be done" and the bureaucracy seems implacable. These two women do most of the talking during the meeting, offering suggestions on issues and how to approach parties outside the context of ACHS.

> Nancy: In working on our two objectives, we found a lot of the strategies for these overlap with what's going on at Yancy.

> Carol: Not much is written (here in Alpha County Schools) about articulating purpose across the system.

> Nancy: Forty students in algebra I in the eighth grade do not equate to 40 in calculus four years later.

> Carol: What do you want to leave a meeting with Yancy having?

> Leigh: That the child that has had algebra has had it.

> Linda: There must be different selection standards.

Carol refers to the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) guidelines as a tool for discussion with teachers at the feeder school. "How about a flowchart and criteria for sending kids through it? She makes suggestions on how to approach Yancy's faculty as ACHS teachers are "lightyears" ahead of Yancy's staff in decision-making. Yancy is in the first year of using a Lead Teacher model. "You should plant seeds for them to go back and think, work out their insecurities," she advises. "Don't expect them to decide with you in one meeting."

> The math teachers want more success for students.

> Linda: They panic if they think that they can't go on from algebra I to II.

> Leigh: You can get into college without calculus.

George: If you're mediocre in algebra I and II, you won't choose calculus.

They end the meeting by planning to meet with Yancy staff in two weeks. Leigh asks that the group "pull me in. I tend to fly off on tangents." The successive meetings with the Yancy staff are very productive. The Yancy people are grateful to be included in planning long range for their students and begin to rework their particular teaching goals.

At the next team meeting, in December, ACHS math team members turn to their own curriculum. Mark Shaw, being the instructional leader he is, is at this meeting, as he has been at the previous ones, if only for 30 minutes. Nancy reports on a meeting she attended on aligning high school curriculum with programs at the community college, a program called Tech Prep. She reports that the local community college staff wants students to be better prepared in math. They need exposure to trigonometry in geometry, right angles, but not a semester's worth. Industrial maintenance curriculum emphasizes basic computer operation, vectors, and basic trigonometry.

George: Could we put that in a technical math course since there is no EOC test for that?

Leigh: Right now, technical has the bottom of the barrel — not the middle 50% that Tech Prep wants. Is this tracking?

Nancy: Tech Prep pushes math advancement, not jumping around and getting out the easy way.

George: We need counseling during registration.

Mark: The academic 35% of our students know what to do.

George: Those that don't, aren't cared for. Those are the ones that industry complains about.

Nancy: Right now, technical math has no algebra.

Avery: What about calculators, keyboarding?

Mark: Are you set on class maximums? You've got ten flexibility on this.

George: We had to take large classes in some areas so we could offer special classes.

The team discusses the redundancy of the business math and the consumer math courses. The teachers note that to give up one course to the business department will reduce the number of teaching positions in the math department but that does not deter them. They don't believe that it belongs in their team's curriculum. They move to writing course descriptions. When they despair of finishing their plan, Mark offers, "Don't worry about meeting the 15th deadline; the 16th will be OK." They laugh: "At 3:00 or 4:00?"

They discuss the pacing of the various sections of algebra; some are fast, others are geared to the average ability student. To get more students to take algebra, this year seniors are allowed to take it. They debate making students who make a D or an F repeat a math course.

> Mark: If you do, then you turn out more strong math students who leave here with four or five math credits.
>
> Nancy: Don't advertise that a student can take technical math after algebra I-B. Stress, recommend, encourage students to take geometry.

They agree that passing a struggling student to the next level increases the failure rate, that the school should have criteria for moving to the next level harder and that most every student needs some algebra. "It's in technical and consumer math,' George says. "A student who makes D or F should take the course over."

> Mark: If there is a low grade at mid-term, the teacher talks to the parent about moving the kid back to the preceding level at quarter's end. Make the kids successful. They need to make good grades for a good college.
>
> Linda: Expect them to be successful now or fail now and be successful later.
>
> George: I don't want a high failure rate.
>
> Leigh: This plan will solve 50% of our problem.

Mark: The failure rate is now anywhere from 0% to 40%, depending on the teacher. Students think we're too hard. But overall, only 19% of our kids failed a course last year.

Linda: I struggle with it every year.

George: We require more units for graduation than any other school in the state.

Mark: I don't know many faculties that would be deciding math issues at 5:21 p.m. You're different.

They plan to write a philosophy statement at their meeting in a week. It's already dark as they depart in the December evening.

The math team's discussion centers around certain values. There is respect for the discipline. No one questions the validity of teaching or learning traditional math courses. The group believes that with maturity, most students can learn the concepts and that it is the responsibility of all the adult constituencies--parents, teachers, guidance counselors--to establish an organizational framework that will support the student in achieving success.

Nancy's leadership has a strong norming influence on the group. She believes that changing teaching techniques, as suggested by NCTM, will improve student learning. She is not looking back by insisting that algebra students need to meet every day to improve their EOC scores.

There is no evidence that the team's teachers believe that the test scores reflect negatively on them. Surprisingly, there was never any discussion on blaming, certainly not blaming students. The suspicion that Yancy Middle School personnel were not being selective in placing students in the earliest algebra class is explored in the context of ACHS's own non-existent policy. They do not display anxiety at being inspected and controlled by the data. Rather, there is genuine concern that students be supported in their efforts to fulfill the cultural obligation of being proficient in math. Their discussions reflect the belief that opportunities, beyond ACHS, will increase for the successful math student.

<u>Working for Student Learning</u>

The Lead Teachers rely on data gathering and analysis to make decisions about student learning and their own professional development. After the January staff development sessions, the LTs surveyed the staff on preferences for staff development in 1991-1992. Of 34 requests, nearly half are for training in instructional strategies. The categories are:

management (time, discipline, technology)	6
instructional strategies	14
student support (dropouts, guidance)	8
professional growth (grant writing, issues)	4
total	4

These requests reflect a "teacher as learner" effort.

The new schedule is the major effort to meet the student learning goal. Its effects and potential are often referred to.

> Mark: Generally, people are happy with six of eight (classes to teach in two days). I see a lot of interaction, cooperative learning going on.

> Mark: This year our failure rate—one kid making one F for the year—went from 19% to 13%. That's great with them taking eight, not six, courses.

> Nancy: I went to SDPI's math retreat. I'm already seeing results in student progress with cooperative learning. I've convinced one of my team members to try it. We've got to teach these kids to think. Ninety minutes gives us time to try some thinking skills exercises.

> Vince: 400% (36 total) more students are taking physics this year than last year.

Is there collaboration across the different departments? The LTs acknowledge that there is some discussion, such as math with science and English with social studies. Those who are aware of the dialogue agree that there is only talk about it; more real effort needs to be made for an integrated curriculum. The English departments' efforts, described in the section on change, is a beginning. The agriculture students built a nature trail that the science department

staff plans to use. On the other hand, one student complained that he was told to compute a problem one way in chemistry, another way in his math class.

   In the classroom. A math lesson illustrates a teacher using traditional lecture methods, practical activities, and concern for student success.

   Leigh teaches statistics, something she last studied formally in 1960. Preparation demands for her have increased by one-third. This is one of the new courses added with the new schedule. She prepares for it one night, prepares for technical math, another new course, the next. For today's statistics class, she has divided the classroom into "rooms" with yarn tied to light fixtures, windows, and furniture. In most "rooms" there is a hanging plant or two.

   Of the nine students, some are advanced in math, some are not. Leigh is pleased with the mix; more students are opting to take math.

   After directing them to sit in a room apiece, Leigh asks, "What is the probability of a flower pot falling on your head?" She elicits the formula for conditional probability from the students, writing on the chalk board giving almost no information as she stumbles on the words they offer for writing the formula.

   "You left out 'intersect'!" one calls. "Oh, you catch me every day," she says ruefully. After the students talk their way through the problem, Leigh starts to remove the yarn. "Don't take away our rooms!" they protest.

   They move closer together. Leigh uses student names as she reviews the concept of conditional probability and moves them on to practice problems. She is pleased with herself as learner and with her students as learners.

   Another new class is Study Skills. Early in the year, LTs hear many complaints about classroom order after another teacher has used their room for Study Skills. Some LTs believe that there needs to be a standard curriculum for the classes. In November, Vince, who does not

teach Study Skills, offers a Study Skills evaluation he has found and tailored for ACHS. The

LTs discuss how to approach those teachers who do.

Judy: Some will resent your doing this.

Mark: Is it fair?

Vince: If the kid gets one half credit for taking the course, it's fair.

Nancy, who teaches a Study Skills class, pleads for individual teacher interpretation.

Vince: I don't teach Study Skills. That's why I'm bringing it here. Go on and complain.

Donna, the "personal broker" from the county school office offers: "If Nancy will pilot, I'll buy the materials."

Nancy agrees. Vickie thanks Vince.

The LTs, as do the math teachers, consistently show concern for each student being able

to learn. While students may not give wholesale support to the new schedule, but generally

they praise their teachers.

Student Opinion

See Appendix 4 for student interview criteria and guidelines.

The students say:
They're understanding. They don't make you do. They help you like to do it, make it fun for you. They treat you with respect, make sure you understand. (9th grade, average)

Teachers are nice and friendly, except my English teacher. (Fifth year senior)

Teachers treat you the same as others, there's no difference. (10th grade, average)

Teachers treat you real good, a lot better than (my middle school) teachers. Here they care a lot. (9th grade, at risk)

Teachers work real good with students and are willing to help after school. If the classes are too large, the teachers can't know when kids are lost. The best teachers try to be friends. It makes learning easier. (11th grade, achiever)

Teachers treat you real nicely. They get to know stuff about you. They have a grapevine. They'll pull you out of class and talk to you. (12th grade, achiever)

Some commented negatively about the staff.

> Some teachers are nice. They treat you like you was ordinary. Others treat you like your color. (12th grade, at risk)

> Some don't care. They should be here to help you. They should see that you get it. Some don't say nothing to you. They think we're here to do what they say. It's not fair. I would change teachers to help me. (12th grade, at risk)

Some Lead Teachers see a relationship between school-based management and giving students some decision-making opportunity. "We expect so much of students, but we are not willing to be flexible. Yet we want so much more flexibility from administrators."

> We haven't involved the students enough. We do surveys, but I want more than bubble sheets. Seems like students should have been involved-like the exam schedule. All students need to be encouraged in leadership. We don't have student council-class officers. It seems an afterthought. We plan something--like the schedule--and then say, let's ask the parents. We don't include the the students.

What are these students like? A student profile follows.

Student Profile

Students in Alpha County come from homes where 60% of the parents have finished high school, 20% have education beyond high school. Of the 44 students interviewed for this study, 27 said that they planned to go on to higher education. Even those students selected from the class designed to coach those who had failed the North Carolina competency test, said uniformly that they intended to go to some kind of college.

The number of dropouts for 1990-1991 has been held to 40, compared with 61 in 1988-1989. Dropout statistics are less reliable measures than those cited in Table 4, above. Simply holding students in school doesn't indicate student success. ACHS has included in its various accountability measures a winter survey of the previous years' graduates. A comparison is made between the December 1989 and December 1990 survey.

Table 4

Follow-Up Survey of ACHS Graduates

	percent of graduating class	
	1989	1990
senior college	21.1	30.4
junior college, technical college, community college	16.0	24.0
trade/specialized school	2.6	1.6
military	5.8	8.8
employed		
full-time	46.8	28.8
part-time	3.2	1.6
employed and attending school	(13.5)	(22.4)
unemployed	3.2	4.8
information not available	1.3	0
total per cent	100	100
survey sample (n)	156	125

These data show a positive trend in graduates attending post-secondary institutions.

Other data include measurement of ACHS graduates against Alpha County overall (one other

high school). For the year 1989-1990, ACHS students made the following accomplishments:

1) 80% of the Average Daily Membership in the school must earn 5 units of credit toward graduation.

Alpha County	83%
ACHS	91%

2) 35% of the graduating students must meet entrance requirements for the University of North Carolina system.

Alpha County	40.91%
ACHS	39.84%

3) 10% of graduating students must successfully complete all courses required for the North Carolina Scholars program.

| Alpha County | 9.09% |
| ACHS | 13.28% |

4) North Carolina competency test for math, reading, and writing passage rate:

ACHS students consistently exceeded the county minimum in all areas on the first taking of the test.

These measures are all promising; ACHS staff have the data to show student opportunities--more are attending post secondary schools--and outcomes have improved. What are the resources for these students?

Bus ride. A bus ride on a wet November afternoon gives a vignette of the culture of ACHS. The bus windows stay steamed over an hour from the body heat of the almost 50 adolescents. The driver, in her late 20's is an ACHS graduate, recently laid off from her textile factory job. She is grateful to have the bus route. She only requires that students stay in their seats as she negotiates the short trip to the middle school to pick up more passengers.

Everyone is in some form of denim. The lack of orthodontia and professional hair care signal modest income levels. Only about half of the students carry books or book bags.

The talk is boisterous and teasing. Once they determine that the visitor is noncommittal about "turning them in" to the assistant principal, they become involved in personal monologues or intent conversation, depending on their audiences. There seems to be an equal distribution of the races, with the students segregating themselves in the seats.

The long drive borders woodland and occasional fallow fields. The driver makes frequent turns down unpaved roads where students step down to mobile homes placed in clearings in the woods. At 25 stops for 47 students over 36 miles, over one third of the students walk toward mobile homes. These students come from homes with modest resources. They show mature insight when asked to put a value on a high school education.

In response to the question "What should high school do for you:

I need to know English. I need to graduate to find a job. My friends tell me to--they're 18, 19 and dropouts. Researcher: You must have nice friends.
They're not nice. They need jobs. (9th grade, repeater)

It should give more opportunities to do things in class. We should have different clubs, like banking. (11th grade, average)

Teach you how to interact with society. Learn learning processes to solve every day problems. (12th grade, achiever)

I should know all about stuff. If I want to go to college, there should be no problem with it. (10th grade, average)

Prepare you for the future in your own way. Help you find what you are good at. Help you with your strong points. (12th grade, achiever)

From the ninth grader who is under a court order to be in school to the deliberately college-bound student, these students are conscious of tomorrow and have a perception of what their years at ACHS should mean. An underlying assumption of the Lead Teacher project has been that students at ACHS must grasp a connection between high school curriculum choices and their futures.

Summary

"Do we make school better for students by making teachers happier?" reflects a former Lead Teacher. "I don't know that we have proved that." Student performance measures are all up. However, "We never were a high flyer," cautions Ken Devereaux.

Teachers at ACHS seem happy and professionally focused. Students still sit in rows, flirt in the library, and complain about the lunch fare. Teachers still count textbooks while students ignore a videotape of Taming of the Shrew. Mark Shaw believes that there is an increased sensitivity on the part of the faculty to all students' needs, not just the achieving ones. He also muses, "Our students see an increased expectation in what they are to do and in the amount and quality of what they are to do."

Lead Teachers believe that the combination of teacher enthusiasm and time to teach affect student interest in succeeding at school. Parents want more: more creativity, more

attention to the slow child, challenging the student to think, less reliance on rote skills, and greater emphasis on bridging the gap between school and work.

"Schools aren't static," says Mark Shaw. "They are always getting better or worse." At Alpha County High School, the commitment is evident that the Lead Teachers, representing faculty and secretaries are focused on making their school still better. Within the context of the culture of this school, the issues of change, leadership, a professional environment, and student opportunities and outcomes are still being contemplated and debated.

From janitors to secretaries to teachers, the staff at ACHS has worked to create a more professional environment. They have been enabled by a supportive school board, superintendent, and two successive principals. This was accomplished after the state legislature gave resources to hire a minimum number of personnel and to purchase needed equipment and supplies. When state funding ceased, the county school system absorbed personnel costs. "It's easy to be flexible when you have the resources," warns Ken Devereaux.

The increased learning opportunities for students evolved from an investment of time for professional reflection, debate, and determination. Measures of student achievement steadily improved through the years of the project.

We know more than we can tell, says Polyani. Also, to focus on particulars prevents a holistic understanding. (1967). Telling the story of the Lead Teacher model is a challenge. The essence of the model is more than statistics for attendance and standardized test scores. The telling of the ACHS story is found in the leadership of all the Lead Teachers, past and present, and their administrators as they worked to replace the barriers of isolation with bonds of collaboration, creating new norms and expectations for all the constituents of ACHS.

There may be other issues about teacher and student empowerment to be observed in the culture and context of this high school. Alpha County High School's four-year effort to

improve the professional environment and increase student opportunities and outcomes is a

model, not to be replicated, but from which to learn.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
-FOR FURTHER STUDY

Summary

In 1987 the North Carolina legislature gave Alpha County an opportunity to restructure schools. The staff of Alpha County High School (ACHS) voted to take that opportunity. Through the leadership of the school board, the superintendent, two principals and dedicated teachers, the Lead Teacher (LT) model at ACHS resulted in an empowered staff. The staff members have been, at times, intrepid, uncertain, argumentative and persistent. One thing is certain: there has been considerable change on several fronts between 1987 and the time of this study (1991).

The LT model, as practiced at ACHS, features secretaries for teachers' work and eight teaching positions in which individuals, elected by their peers, teach halftime and perform duties to assist their colleagues halftime. Though there is job differentiation, compensation for LTs is negligible. Of more importance to the LTs is the opportunity to make democratic decisions about distribution of funds that affect teaching, hiring new colleagues, and designing instruction to meet student needs.

Archival data indicate that ACHS students, over the life of the project, have improved on standardized measures. More robust data, such as those derived from case-study method, support the conclusion that collegiality is thriving among a faculty focused on students and their need to succeed in a rigorous education.

Though the administrators and the LTs are disappointed that the legislature has "lost interest" in their model, their success at implementing the model has had some effect on decentralizing decision-making at the state level. The North Carolina State Department of

Public Instruction (SDPI) now requires all school systems to submit an accountability model, similar to the one developed by ACHS. Also, the success of ACHS at using flexibility options to improve student outcomes was supporting evidence for legislative approval of SB 2/HB 1501, the Accountability and Flexibility Act of 1989. Though funding has to be negotiated yearly, the legislation has the language of flexibility that ACHS has used so assiduously. More recently, the 1991 legislature approved a pilot program for outcome based education. Four school sites will have complete freedom from SDPI regulations for five years. The four will design their own strategies and time tables for meeting criteria for their graduates. The impact of this one school's efforts can now legally reverberate across the state.

The most compelling subtle characteristic of ACHS in 1991, is that of collegiality. McPherson (1989) describes a collegial environment as one where

1) there is relative absence of deference to a single leader.

2) the parties gather, not to grouse, but to plan.

3) there is evidence of both courage and humility.

4) there is expansion of sphere of autonomy.

McPherson's descriptors fit the ACHS atmosphere in 1991. The journey seems long, after four years, yet the air of expectation creates a sense of much to do. When the principal, as head learner, shared Glickman's (1990) Seven Ironies, murmurs of agreement flowed from the LTs. Five of his ironies summarize the burden on Alpha County High School as the staff foster bubble-up reform in the context and the culture of a school.

Glickman cautioned empowered schools, like ACHS, that:

1) the more a school is improved, the more there seems to be to need improvement.

2) the more an empowered school works collectively, the more differences emerge.

3) the more the school becomes a model of success, the less replicable it is by other schools.

4) the more empowered a school, the more hesitant a staff is to act.

5) the more it has to gain, the more it has to lose, as there is a danger of losing sight of the goals while trying to justify choices.

Timar & Kirp (1989) propose that conversation is a powerful indicator of the robustness of reform. What do teachers in the school talk about? In this school, conversation reflects engagement, energy, and enthusiasm for the condition of teaching.

Alpha County High School guards its scarce resources. Teachers have become learners in the quest to shape those resources into viable opportunities for its students. "It's easy to be flexible when you have the resources," noted Ken Devereaux. This year, even with reduced resources, ACHS Lead Teachers seem as energized and committed as ever to their overriding goals.

The Lead Teachers at ACHS would caution against replication. Glickman (1990) warns against replication in (3), above. The sense of accomplishment at ACHS is hard won through painstaking consensus. For a school staff to attempt to impose the exact same model on its staff would deny the tenets of change and leadership that have made this project work. Nor is there much to be gained from a day's visit to the school. These people are busy doing the work of education. They are gracious to their many visitors, but they know that the only way to have meaningful school-based management is to roll up sleeves and do it.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

From this case study five issues emerge. They are:

-schools have a "culture"

-change has specific characteristics

-leadership is crucial to change

-the environment can be professionalized

-student opportunities and outcomes can be improved.

Conclusions can be drawn from an each issue in the context of Alpha County High School.

Culture of the school. The culture of the school is characterized by powerful norms, behaviors, and values. There are scarce resources; teachers and principals work in isolation. Teachers are loyal to an equity ethic that discourages job differentiation. Accountability measures value inspection and control rather than enhancing professional practice and fostering intellectual ferment. ACHS's viable Lead Teacher model is evidence that all these inhibiting factors can be dismantled to allow a new, restructured school.

A coalition of the North Carolina state legislature, and the administrators and the school board of Alpha County committed extra resources to ACHS. Money was only a part of the capital. The flexibility language of the legislation proved to be as critical as the money used to buy more time for teaching. The moral and verbal support of the school board and the superintendent can not be underestimated. The leadership of the superintendent was crucial. Acting as evangelist for the concept, he convinced his school board and the ACHS staff that they could make the project work. The fact that the school board is now financially underwriting the model is evidence of the original superintendent's adroitness at persuasion as well as the board's confidence in the current staff.

The faculty that no one has called extraordinary accepted the challenge of restructuring their school. If they can do it, any faculty should be able to do it. All the pleas for teacher collaboration from advocates like Lieberman, Sizer, Goodlad and the NEA and AFT are substantiated by this model's success. Given the resources, teachers can change professional practice to improve their school.

The assumption that the state has the right, even obligation, to set minimum standards for its students became an opportunity for ACHS. With flexibility and freedom to tailor an accountability plan, this faculty combined conventional archival measures with a more robust inquiry, surveys, of its constituencies. The annual surveys are potentially dangerous;

dissatisfaction ratings could reveal serious flaws. This in turn could cause a backlash against

school-based management. The staff at ACHS has used the surveys to refine and improve their

model.

The equity ethic has contributed to the success of the model. During the time span of

the project, over one-fourth of the present faculty (15 of 56) has served as Lead Teachers. The

strong allegiance to passing around the job has bolstered support of the model. Conversely, the

equity ethic seems to contribute to the anti-intellectual nature of the LT job. The LTs' analysis

of their duties--anything that will help the teacher--shows that routine tasks are valued over

scholarship.

For whom do schools exist? The ACHS staff would state without hesitation that they

exist for students. Indeed, the resources of this school were so scarce that the LTs proposed, and

the faculty accepted, spending two thirds of the startup money for salary supplements on the

entire staff and on badly-needed materials and supplies for their teaching. They value

students highly. Yet the students are noticeably absent from decision-making. Figuring student

empowerment into the equation of restructuring is still a challenge.

Change. The coalition that set the ACHS LT model in motion recognized that local teachers

and administrators were the solution to, not the source of, school problems (Glickman, 1989).

The administrators' intuitive grasp of the thicket of the change process was fundamental to the

emergence of the restructured ACHS. Without their (successive) shepharding of the disparate

agendum and personalities through the last five years, the project could have foundered on the

shoals of acceptance of bureaucracy.

Whether one views the new schedule and its effects as radical or mere tinkering around

the edges, it meets Sarason's (1982) rule: change has occurred when there are observable

behavioral regularities. Enthusiasm for teaching as well as heightened student ambition are

some of the regularities observed in this case study. These behaviors are eminently desirable

for any school. For these observations alone, the Lead Teacher model is worthy of investigation.

Leadership. The leaders in the ACHS culture were not only in the front office. Several of the most experienced teachers led, with passion, from the beginning. They were not the original LTs, though they eventually assumed the job. These teachers exemplify the observation that "teachers teach because they love it". Their goal was to improve school for adults and children. Even with salary supplements that amounted to less than $17 a week, the current LTs did not waver in their high valuing of the opportunity to continue teacher leadership. This case study supports that, given the opportunity, teacher leadership will emerge to galvanize others to focus on a school mission.

The leaders who occupied the front offices were crucial to a context that was hospitable to change and teacher leadership. These leaders had a sense of whom to involve when, when to listen and how to direct the group energy. Every LT interviewed corroborated that the principals and superintendent were genuinely participative. One predicts that had the appointive leaders been lukewarm in their endorsement or timid at relinquishing authority, ACHS would not be an example of school-based management.

Professionalizing the Environment. The effort to professionalize the environment began methodically: find out what one is. The next step was to purchase what necessary materials they could to make their perception of a professional environment.

At this point, they have a professional environment if it is:

-having secretaries and an office to share with your colleagues.

-the opportunity to delegate clerical tasks in order to have the time to focus on professional work.

-to have a say, consistently, in policymaking for the organization.

-the opportunity to determine what you will do with the resources you have.

· -valuing the expertise and experience of your colleagues.

They don't have a professional environment if it is the freedom:

-to plan your own workday.

-to have time to confer and reflect with colleagues.

-to reject clients.

-to pursue professional enrichment activities underwritten by your employer.

Structuring a true professional environment has been stymied by scarce resources. However, ACHS has a more professional environment than it did five years ago. It has a more professional environment than schools in most readers' memories. Given the legal support, start-up money, and astute leadership, a committed faculty can shape an environment that approaches professionalism.

Student Opportunities and Outcomes. For the 10 years or so prior to 1987, ACHS students failed to measure up to state-mandated standards. When the faculty of the school designed their own accountability model and had the flexibility to meet goals they chose, student outcomes increased on all conventional measures. Nothing else changed; there is no evidence that students were better prepared from middle school, parents didn't become more educated or affluent, teacher profiles did not reflect greater preparation or expertise.

What did change was increased dialogue across grade levels and the curriculum. There were avenues to improved student outcomes through the Lead Teacher method of governance and team building in departments. Setting norms for behavior by the principal(s) reinforced valuing of student opportunity and outcomes. The Lead Teachers were aggressive in prioritizing issues for decision-making. LTs' behavior in team meetings supported a positive competition to add courses that reflected faculty passions and student interest. Undergirding the whole effort was a belief that ACHS students want to learn and achieve.

If ACHS students become Drucker's (1989) knowledge workers of tomorrow--self-disciplined and individually responsible for relationships and communication--it will be in part due to the modelling of the worker profile by the Lead Teachers at their school.

<u>Implications for Further Research</u>

There are several issues about school-based management and ACHS that may yet be explored. Such investigation may yield significant findings for the practice of SBM. Such issues are:

What is the character of a Lead Teacher model in a larger school? An elementary or middle school?

What are perceptions and expectations of non-Lead Teachers?

What might a long-range study of ACHS graduates yield in further data on student success beyond high school?

What might a serious effort to empower stu ;nts within the classroom be?

What might ensue if there ere active parent ·volvement in a Lead Teacher model?

What might be the effects . 1 long term clinic... supervision effort in conjunction with the Lead Teacher model?

Real reform may be a school ; gned to allow serious intellectual exploration on the part of students and teachers. A coali: ; of advocates for this type of learning environment may influence a school staff to redefir. ·eir sense of p.;rpose and reshape their culture even more dramatically.

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APPENDIX 1

LEAD TEACHER PILOT PROGRAM

ARTICLE 24D.

Lead Teacher Pilot Program.

§ 115C-363.28. Lead teacher pilot program.

(a) A lead teacher pilot program is hereby established, consisting of six schools in the three counties of Haywood, Stanly, and Granville. It is intended that the six schools together shall represent elementary, junior, and senior high school levels.

(b) Each of the three county units shall develop a plan, setting forth the goals to be attained, the strategies for attaining these goals, and the manner in which the pilot program is to be evaluated. This plan, covering the period from July 1, 1987, through June 30, 1989, must be submitted to the State Board of Education and the Joint Legislative Commission on Governmental Operations of the General Assembly prior to implementation on July 1, 1987, and should set forth as clearly as possible those aspects of the plan that will be enhanced and improved because of the flexible funding provided in the program. If the Joint Legislative Commission on Governmental Operations is not scheduled to meet, the plan shall be submitted to the Education Subcommittee of the Commission. Amendments to the original plan may be submitted as the project counties deem desirable and may be implemented in the absence of objections by the State Board of Education.

(c) The faculties and administrators in the pilot schools should be involved in the selection process of the lead teachers. They should also be involved in developing job descriptions and job functions for the lead teachers. Job descriptions and job functions should focus heavily on the unique duties of lead teachers. Lead teacher positions are limited to a two-year time frame and are to be rotated as projects are funded beyond the initial two-year period.

(d) In the three project units, broad decision making latitude shall be granted to the local boards of education. It is expected that lead teachers and faculties will be allowed broad discretion to experiment with the instructional activities that appear to meet instructional needs in that particular setting. It is the specific intent of the General Assembly that this flexibility shall not be inhibited by statute or regulation (i) so long as the plans and activities are carried out within total funds available for that purpose, or (ii) so long as the State Board of Education does not find as a fact that the discretionary authority contained in this act is being abused, and so long as any changes in the plan and any potential inconsistencies with statute or regulation are reported to the Joint Legislative Commission on Governmental Operations or its Education Subcommittee. (1987, c. 738, s. 205(a).)

APPENDIX 2

HISTORY OF ALPHA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL'S LEAD TEACHER MODEL

Table 5: Significant roles in the Lead Teacher model, 1986-1991.

Year	Principal	Lead Teachers/ Teams	Consultants
1986-1987	K. Devereaux	M. Norris (Superintendent)	J. Dornan (Public School Forum)
1987-1988	K. Devereaux	4 Health/PE/Arts/ Drivers Education English/Foreign Languages/ Social Studies Math/Science Vocational/Business/ Trades	Ray Taylor (NCSU) B. McPhail-Wilcox (NCSU) R. Forbes (PSF)
1988-89	M. Shaw	10 Social Studies Math Science English/Foreign Languages Business Vocational I Vocational II Arts Support Services Health/PE/Driver's Ed	R. Forbes K. Jenkins (ASU)

Table 5: Significant roles in the Lead Teacher model, 1986-1991, continued.

1989-1990	M. Shaw	8 Social Studies Science Math Communications (English/Foreign Languages/ Remediation) Vocational/Business Vocational/Trades Support Services Health/PE/Driver's Ed	none
1990-1991	M. Shaw	8 Social Studies Science Math Communications (English/Foreign Languages/ Remediation) Vocational/Business Vocational/Trades Support Services Health/PE/Driver's Ed	none

TABLE 6: Decision-making facilitators, staff development in the Lead Teacher Model, 1986-1991.

Year and Events	Decision-Making Facilitators	Staff Development
1986-87 voted 81% to participate	Vote Surveys Department, faculty discussion and planning Faculty Council	Devereaux, Shaw directed workshops on site-based management (SBM). Public School Forum sponsored workshop on SBM.
1987-88 Elected LTs; Chose goals, Research. Visited other sites to observe professional environments and site-based management. Interim report published by PSF.	Surveys Vote Faculty Council Accountability Model	Retreat at Quail Ridge, 8/87. Workshops on leadership, analyzing CAT test scores, time management, conflict resolution, EOC testing, study skills course, change, computer software. Teacher choice, off-campus.
1988-89 Visited sites for alternative schedule	Survey Vote Faculty Council Lead Teachers	August retreat. Researched alternative schedule. Visited NCSSM, high schools in Virginia, Hendersonville, Morganton. Teacher choice, off-campus.

TABLE 6: Decision-making facilitators, staff development in the Lead Teacher Model, 1986-1991, continued.

1989-1990
Retreat at   Survey   October retreat
lake   Vote   Paideia Workshop
                   Faculty Council   Teacher choice, off-campus
                   Lead Teachers

1990-91

                   Survey   Lead Teachers design, use school staff as presentors.
                   Vote
                   Faculty Council
                   Lead Teachers

Table 7: Funding, Flexibility and Accountability in the Lead Teacher Model, 1986-1991.

Year	Funding	Flexibility in following SDPI Requirements	Accountability Model
1986-87		•Used state funds for instruction to purchase a copier.	•Fall: Collected baseline data. Developed surveys for teachers, students, parents.
1987-88	$96,720 Used for salary differential; replacement of teachers' costs; inservice training; and flexible funds.	•County school board allowed early dismissal of students one day for faculty to meet and plan.	•Spring: Surveyed teachers, students, parents. Compared 1988 data with baseline from 1987: attendance, suspensions, drop-outs. Standardized test scores: SAT, CAT.
		•Alpha County used its total state allotment for Basic Education Plan to hire 3 secretaries for ACHS faculty.	
		•Job description, application and selection process for Lead Teacher developed.	•Totaled number A, F grades.
		•ACHS added two full positions to replace each Lead Teacher one-half time.	
		•Differential of 5% of state salary paid to Lead Teachers. Bonus of 1% paid to all staff members, including secretaries.	

Table 7: Funding, Flexibility and Accountability in the Lead Teacher Model, 1986-1991, continued.

<u>1988-89</u>	$2500 for 1988-89, 1989-90. •Alpha County schools paid salary difference for federally funded vocational teacher to be a Lead Teacher. Continued to use BEP funds for 3 secretaries.	•ACHS exempt from state mandated annual teacher evaluation. •Given money in lieu of the state funding a teaching position. Used 6% of funding for Lead Teacher salary differential to purchase materials, supplies. Classroom teacher not required to teach 3 of 5, 4 of 6, or 5 of 7 periods of day. •Continued to pay salary differential to Lead Teachers. •Spring: To begin new schedule, ACS school board granted for 1989-90: 1) curriculum additions, 2) requiring more credits for graduation from ACHS, 3) flexibility on class size, 4) exemption from exams for juniors, seniors, 5) adjustment of attendance requirements.	•Surveyed teachers, students, parents. •Compared 1989 data to 1988 data. •Attendance, suspensions, drop-outs survey of 1988 graduates. •Standardized test scores: PSAT, SAT.
1989-90	•Combination of local and some state monies, used flexibly.	•Began alternate day schedule. •Reduced contact hours with students from 165 to 135.	•Attendance •Suspensions •Drop-outs •Standardized test scores

Table 7: Funding, Flexibility and Accountability in the Lead Teacher Model, 1986-1991, continued.

	•$1500 for staff development, Lead teacher salary differential of 5%, and 1% for all staff members. •Continued funding, by ACS of 3 secretarial positions and Lead Teacher replacement positions.	•Added electives to schedule. •Began phasing in increased requirements for graduation	•End of course test scores. •Surveyed teachers, students, parents. •Included surveys on effectiveness of principal, Lead Teachers.
1990-91	•ACS continues to fund 2 secretaries, replacements for Lead Teachers. •Funding for salary differential of $600 per Lead Teacher from Senate Bill 2 funds.	•Continue standards established by alternate day schedule.	•State Accreditation standards plus ACHS's additional indicator.

APPENDIX 3

TAYLOR-CARD METHOD

SHARED DECISION-MAKING
The Taylor-Card Model

Participant Tests

Relevance: The degree to which the issue or decision to be resolved is important to the participants.

Expertise: The degree to which participants have knowledge/skills which can contribute to the decision or problem-solution.

Jurisdiction: Whether or not participants have a lawful authority to make the decision, or whether or not the leader is willing to grant authority when it may be relinquished.

Goal Congruence: Whether or not participants goals/objectives with respect to a given decision are the same as the leader's or the same as the leader's or the same as one another's.

Stages of Decision Making

There are generally four steps in a decision-making process:

1. Defining the Problem (P):
   What is the exact nature of the issue to be decided?

2. Listing the Alternatives (A):
   Generating potential solutions or possible decisions for the issue to be decided.

3. Determining the Consequence (C):
   Examining the potential consequences of one alternative decision versus another. Weighing the options.

4. Selecting an alternative (S):
   Choosing and implementing the decision that will work best based on steps 1-3.

Participant Involvement

The degree to which participants share in a decision should be determined by the degree to which they meet the four tests. Participation can be in stages ranging from none to partial participation to full participation (making the final decision). The Taylor-Card Model suggests levels of participation based on the four tests. Note that the only condition in which full participation is recommended is Condition 1, where all four tests are met. Stages of decision making are outlined for participation in the other eleven conditions.

A leader may seek participant involvement to varying degrees. Levels of participation are listed below (range from least participation to greatest participation
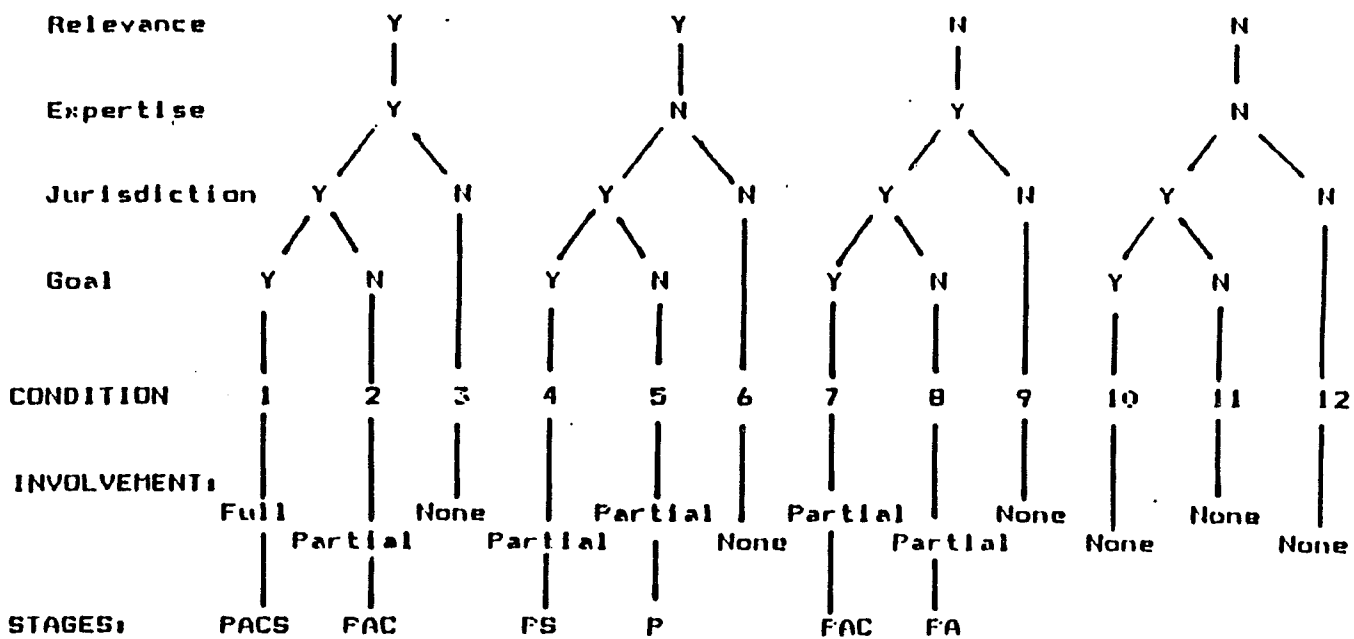
- Leader makes solo decision; no participation.
- Leader seeks information from participants; solo decision.
- Leader seeks information and opinions; solo decision.
- Leader provides for dialogue and debate among participants; solo decision.
- Leader establishes democratic process; vote decides.
- Leader establishes consensus process; group works toward best decision for all.
- Leader delegates decision to participant(s).

Note: There is no one "best" style of leadership participation. Circumstances and the four tests dictate a variable process of participation in decision making.

"There is no limit to what the group can do as long as no one cares who gets the credit and as long as all can share the same."

"SHARED DECISION-MAKING"
The Taylor-Card Model

TESTS:

Relevance   Y   Y   N   N

Expertise   Y   N   Y   N

Jurisdiction   Y   N   Y   N   Y   N   Y   N

Goal   Y   N   Y   N   Y   N   Y   N

CONDITION   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10   11   12

INVOLVEMENT:
         Full   None   Partial   Partial   None   None
           Partial   Partial   None   Partial   None   None

STAGES: PACS FAC   PS   P   FAC FA

P = Defining the Problem
A = Listing the Alternatives
C = Determining the consequences
S = Selecting an Alternative

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APPENDIX 4A

INTERVIEWS, ALPHA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, 1990-91

Lead Teachers

APPENDIX 4A

INTERVIEWS, ALPHA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, 1990-1991

Lead Teachers

Between 1987 and 1991, a total of 18 Alpha County High School teachers served either a one- or two-year term as Lead Teacher. Three have left the school, one to become a principal in another county, one to enter private business, and one to the ministry. All but two of the interviews were conducted in person. The other two were by telephone. Each teacher was asked the following questions. Answers were recorded in script or on tape by the researcher.

-How long have you taught?

-How long have you taught at ACHS?

-How long were you a lead teacher?

-Go back five years to the beginning of the lead teacher project: what differences do

you see between then and now as to how the faculty behaves?

-What do you see as the major responsibilities of a lead teacher?

-What do you see as the major headaches of a lead teacher?

-What did you spend most of your time on?

-What was there not enough time for?

-What makes the project work?

-What has been hard for teachers?

-What has been hard for administrators?

-What has changed for students?

-How have your expectations changed about how a school should be governed?

APPENDIX 4B

INTERVIEWS, ALPHA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, 1990-91

Students

APPENDIX 4B

INTERVIEWS, ALPHA COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL, 1990-1991

Students

Students	Number Interviewed
Freshmen	11
Sophomores	6
Juniors	11
Seniors	14
5th year	1
Total	44

Students were chosen for interviewing from teacher and principal recommendations and from the researcher's selective sampling. Forty-four students, or six per cent of the student body, were interviewed. The researcher chose students from classes known to be populated with lower-achieving students: Study Skills, CCC (tutoring for state competency tests) and health occupations. In addition, the principal recommended students to be interviewed, using descriptors such as, "our Morehead Scholarship nominee", "a homeless kid", "athlete", "arts". The researcher analyzed the list with a lead teacher, who said "You've got our stars. You need to interview some kids that are problems." The researcher then asked teachers to recommend students who were "at risk" in their educational program for interviewing.

The researcher made a deliberate attempt to seek a distribution across grade levels and gender representation. No record was kept of student's race.

The questions asked were:

-How many years have you been at Alpha County High School (ACHS)?

-What year are you now?

-Describe your schedule to me; what classes are you taking?

-You told me what classes you decided to take this year. Tell me what you think a high school should do for you?

-What is good about ACHS?

-What is bad about ACHS?

-What would you change if you could?

-How do teachers treat you?

-When I walk the halls observing classes, I see a teacher in front of the room talking to students sitting in rows of desks looking at the teacher. Are there classes where the teacher arranges the class differently? Are there classes where you get to work in groups? What are they?

-What do you think of the schedule? Compare it to the schedule you have known.

-What do you want to do when you get out of high school?

The researcher sorted and analyzed the data gathered in interviews, labelling students in one of three categories as to success in school: at risk, average, achiever. The researcher made decisions based on the student's schedule as well as what s/he revealed in opinion of school in general, demeanor, and career goals. Many of the students labelled "at risk" for dropping out of school, were seniors. Achievers were found not only in the college-bound population, but among students in vocational courses who had clear-cut goals for themselves.

Of the 44 students interviewed, the results were as follows.

SOURCE	LIKES SCHEDULE		
	yes	yes, qualified	no
at risk	6	3	4
average	7	3	6
achieve	10	0	5
total	23	6	15=44