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A PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE APPOINTED LEADER'S ROLE IN CREATING AN EDUCATIONAL SETTING

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro ED.D. 1982

A PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE APPOINTED LEADER'S ROLE IN CREATING AN EDUCATIONAL SETTING

by

Barbara Little-Gottesman

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APPROVAL PAGE

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Curriculum development has infrequently addressed the problem of the gap which lies between the researcher's development of theory and the teacher's implementation of those theories in the classroom. Recently, Goodlad, Sarason, and Brubaker have validated the narrative approach to the study of the creation of settings process itself as an alternative to statistical analyses of the component parts of the process.

This study examines the important distinction between change and innovation and examines carefully the conserving element in educational settings. The crucial figure of the leader and the evolving methods of analyzing leadership bring the researcher to development of a new model with which to examine curriculum development and leadership in the creation of a new setting in a small private school. The social psychology of Sarason and the dynamic interchange between theory and practice developed by Brubaker are the writings which led to the construction of the model. The model is then used to analyze the process of a leader's experiment in creating a new setting at New Garden Friends School.

A method of inquiry is fashioned which embodies sequence, order, and proof and which links the creation of settings to the creation of an aesthetic experience. A mode of narrative interpretation was chosen to discuss both the model and the leader's role in the setting. The relationship of this model to the influences of Sarason, Brubaker, and

Habermas is discussed. Conclusive statements are a result of applying the theories of the model to the setting and assessing the outcomes. Situational complexity in the creation of a setting can lead to success or failure of the leader or the setting, but the process of rigorous analysis can bridge the gap between theorizing and implementing theory into practice.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express special thanks to Dr. Dale L. Brubaker for serving as Dissertation Advisor. Dr. Elisabeth Bowles, Dr. Richard Weller, and Dr. Amy Charles have made valuable contributions to this study in patient discussions and significant suggestions. I owe special thanks to the late Dr. Anne Adams for her initial encouragement to write and publish.

Especial appreciation goes to Kevin Gottesman for managing the business and the house so that I could research and write.

This paper is dedicated to Max and Helen Little for their continuing support and for their training in poetry and logic.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Educational research has found many sets of answers for the questions and problems of curriculum design. Ralph Tyler has re-examined his original linear sequential framework for curriculum planning and has found it satisfying.[1] The reconceptualists have added new dimensions to curriculum theorizing in discussion of the facets of values teaching, psychological processes, sociopolitical conditions, and language perceptions.

The real challenge lies neither in the arena of pure theory in all its emerging dimensions nor in the rational linear order, sequence, and proof of traditional analysis of separate entities in curriculum. The most interesting challenge lies in the problems and dilemmas that arise in implementing theory into practice in an educational setting. In the abstract and in practical reality, the easiest way to achieve this implementation is to insert new curricular ideas or technical innovations into the prevalent bureaucratic settings most commonly

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[1]Ralph Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949); Ralph Tyler, "Desirable Content for a Curriculum Development Syllabus Today," in Curriculum Theory, eds. Alex Molnar and John A. Zahorik (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1977) pp. 36-44.

found in public schools. Doing away with inadequate design or programs and inserting new ones in place is the prevailing practice. In a few years, however, it will be just as easy to pull out that program and to insert the newest bandwagon fad for the ensuing few years.

Social psychologist Seymour Sarason examined the problem from an entirely different standpoint, describing and analyzing the process of the creation of many different settings.[2] The problems and dilemmas that his analyses consider present a new perspective from which to view the implementation of theory into action for curriculum workers.

In order to avoid the convenient plug in, pull out method of most bureaucratic and chronologically mature school settings, it became a challenge to find an opportunity to create a new setting in order to implement curricular ideas previously tried in a public school. The nature of the curriculum change envisioned involved more than a convenient inserting of programmatic innovations. The ideas involved new ways of thinking about the attitudes toward change, innovation, conserving, leadership, teacher involvement, and group process in an educational setting.

The opportunity presented itself in the form of administrative direction for a small private school in Greensboro, North Carolina. The school was chronologically immature and had the raw materials necessary for creating a new setting involving an analysis of the

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[2]Seymour Sarason, The Creation of Settings and the Future Societies (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977).

whole climate of a created curriculum. In general educational research could follow the traditional lines of order, sequence, and proof in presenting a statistical analysis of the individual factors leading to the success or failure of the experiment or case study. It would be easy to describe the stages in the process of training teachers in the new techniques; to present time studies of how much more efficient instructional on-task time became; to compile the improving test scores and attitudinal adjustments of students; and to present administrative reports budgeting time, resources, and talents with appropriate items checked off from the guidelines in the administrator's task book.

The nature of this problem and the method chosen to present it take a somewhat different turn. Instead of a chronological examination of statistics in this case study and model, the researcher will present an examination of a fascinating amalgam of ideas, operations, and values present in the creation of a new educational setting for curriculum change. The point of view is that of the researcher herself, examining and analyzing the process in the experience on the job and in her role as leader, principal, and curriculum director of the new setting.

In many ways, the experience is similar to Bertold Brecht's dramatic illusions. In the midst of the most emotional crisis of a play, he will forcibly remind the audience that this is indeed only a play with make-believe persona and events and that the audience should remain intellectually aloof and not become too involved in this unreality. For example, in the highly emotional scene where Galileo finally confronts

his young disciple to explain why he recanted his new theories in astronomy when threatened by the Inquisition, his speech is a dash of cold water in the face of passion.

> As a scientist I had an almost unique opportunity. In my day astronomy emerged into the market place. At that particular time, had one man put up a fight, it could have had wide repercussions. I have come to believe that I was never in real danger; for some years I was as strong as the authorities, and I surrendered my knowledge to the powers that be, to use it, no, not use it, abuse it as it suits their ends. I have betrayed my profession. Any man who does what I have done must not be tolerated in the ranks of science.[3]

The difficulty is to provide a narrative that conveys the situational complexity and dispassionate analysis.

The point of the endeavor is to examine the problems of curricular change, not as an analysis of individuals or textbook problems, but as an examination of the process itself. The emerging issue becomes greater than the initial problem as the process and interaction take on a power and life of their own. Statistical methodology of individual progress or psychology was deemed inadequate as was a chronological compilation of events and their outcomes. Just as the whole is greater than the sum of its statistically separate parts, so the process of creating a setting became more than its separate parts. The process took on a life and power of its own. The interaction of individuals in the group setting was something quite separate and apart from the summing up of a list of individual actions. The situational complexity

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[3]Bertold Brecht, Galileo, edited and translated by Eric Bentley (New York: Grove Press, 1961), scene 13.

and the whole which was greater than the sum of its parts became the problem to analyze. Not only were the traditional answers to curriculum problems laid down by Tyler inadequate, the questions asked were also inadequate to cover the complexity involving human beings, change and the creation of a setting. In short, the setting itself has a personality of its own.

Scope, Purposes, and Intents of the Study

This study will examine the development of change, innovation, conserving, and leadership with specific application to the creation of a new educational setting. The set of problems and dilemmas described by Sarason will be used to form a model with which to analyze the process of curriculum change in creating a new educational setting at New Garden Friends School. A review of the literature of both curriculum theory and practice will place these ideas within the channels projected by the reconceptualists. The first evolutionary stages of implementing these theories into practice will begin the process of synthesizing the idea with the practice, will develop the importance of the prehistory of the setting and the individuals, and will ask some important questions concerning situational complexity. The essays in the review of literature in Chapter II will describe the range of studies on educational change and on creative leadership. The conceptual model developed in Chapter III will serve as the analytical guide to synthesize the social and psychological processes involved in the creation of this particular setting. By applying those principles in practice

in an experimental case study described in Chapter IV, a new awareness of theory into practice can be discerned. The final purpose of the study is to present a model for focusing on problems and dilemmas in new settings in order to better understand the complexity and necessity for continuing to theorize and to test those theories in realistic situations, especially those concerning change, conserving, and leadership. The implications for studies and research into the essential processes of leadership, curriculum direction, and educational change will be a help to educators in dealing with the gap between theory and practical implementation of innovations in the classroom.

Significance of the Study

There is some concern about the reality of curriculum development in schools today. The more things change, the more they remain the same. The idea that some new textbook will solve the problem or that a new language tape instead of verb conjugation drill will solve students' problems with learning and teachers' problems with teaching continues its endless cycle. Each year publishers come out with more expensive and more commercially appealing educational packages; but the teachers use the same methods, the school settings have fewer or more walls, and the atmosphere for learners remains much the same.

The need for special programs for remediation, the excitement of teaching the gifted and talented, and the distractions of buildings and politics take the spotlight away from the school setting as a whole, the development of a curriculum for the great majority of average students, and the utilization of unstimulated teaching abilities.

This study is significant in that it will do four things.

1. It will present the concepts of change, conserving, and creative leadership and relate them to the dilemmas of the leader in the creation of a new setting.
2. It will advance the idea that the power of the setting and the group of teachers interacting is a more forceful operation than any one part of the whole.
3. It will provide a conceptual model to assess the effective operation of the creation of a new setting for curricular innovation or change.
4. It will project implications for the relevance and transitory nature of curricular change and innovation in nature of curricular change and innovation in mature established settings.

In much the same way that reading progresses from the science of decoding into the illumination or art of comprehending the written word, this study will attempt to apply theories of curriculum in a systematic manner to be assessed in a new setting. After experiencing and analyzing the process of illuminating those theories in the creation of a setting in which theories become practice and are revised and adapted as they are practiced, comprehension of the situational complexity of the sociopolitical environment created will enable the curriculum worker to reflect and create further adaptations which may eventually improve the climate for education.

It is not unrealistic to compare this study to the creation of a modest work of art or an aesthetic experience. Following established principles and working in the recognized media of schools with the raw materials being the human beings (teachers, administrators, students), one could see the comparison with a painting or a short story or a poem. An observer looking at the finished painting may perceive what the artist had in mind, but she may also recognize a new perspective for herself and her work in that artistic synthesis of varied components that an artist calls a painting.

So it is with this finished study. It is hoped that a curriculum worker may view this synthesis of curriculum change theories, of demanding practice, and a summary evaluation as a painting to show one view and to provide the curriculum worker with a stimulating perspective to use in order to review her own work or previously held convictions. By frequent comparisons between educational experiences and aesthetic experience in other fields, new dimensions of thought processes could be stimulated. By widening the educational metaphor beyond the factory, new realities could be stimulated.

Definitions

Several words are crucial in this study and require an evolving as well as an operating definition in order to clarify their use and justify their existence as educational jargon. Dwayne Huebner's understanding of the use of language as propaganda points to the dangers

inherent in assuming the prevailing technological vocabulary of curriculum theorists.[4] His idea of how words themselves take on a power which can shift the whole meaning of an experience or a case study is an ordinary human failing to walk continually into the trap of blindly assuming certain factors. The curriculum worker must continually caution herself not to assume too much. The trap is as easily baited with words as with values, definitions, philosophies, or statistics.

Ralph Tyler defines curriculum as "an instructional program as a functioning instrument of education."[5] James B. Macdonald dramatically increases the defining dimension when he discusses curriculum in relation to values in curriculum issues.

> Curriculum, it seems to me, is the study of "what should constitute a world for learning and how to go about making this world."[6]

Dale L. Brubaker defines the curriculum as "what persons experience in a setting."[7] Brubaker goes beyond Macdonald's should and by implication includes those unintended events and emotions which also make up the world of learning.

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[4]Dwayne Huebner, "Curriculum Language and Classroom Meanings," in Language and Meaning, eds. James B. Macdonald and Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964), pp. 8-26.

[5]Tyler, Basic Principles, p. 1.

[6]James B. Macdonald, "Value Bases and Issues for Curriculum," in Curriculum Theory, eds. Alex Molnar and John A. Zahorick (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1977), p. 11.

[7]Dale L. Brubaker, Curriculum Planning: The Dynamics of Theory and Practice (New York: Scott, Foresman, 1982), p. 1.

From these definitions selected from the literature, an emerging definition of curriculum will be used for the purposes of this study. Curriculum will denote those activities planned by teachers and curriculum workers to promote learning among students. In the creation of settings process, however, the definition of curriculum needs to be extended to include the hidden curriculum: those activities, planned or unplanned, which are a part of the learning atmosphere of any educational setting. These unintentional activities may be as specific as the educational background and professionalism of the teachers or as intangible as the moral values of a counter culture or the personalized interpretations of religious and political implications of teaching techniques.

Praxis (from Greek and middle Latin) has a rather simple definition according to Webster's dictionary 1) practice especially as opposed to theory or 2) a set of examples for practice. Macdonald is also concerned with Marxian socialism and Jurgen Habermas' three elements of work, communication, and power in these questions about praxis:

> Rather than simply ask whether our actions or praxis reflects our talk in some linear hierarchical pattern, we can more fruitfully ask what the relationships between talk and actions are? Thus, for example, in what ways does our present praxis distort our talk or communication? In what ways are the so-called failures of talk being translated into action - really not failures of talk but out-comes of power realities. We have moved a long way when we can separate clearly the difference between "talk that is impractical" and "talk that is not politically viable." In the first case, there is a suggestion of the violation of reality, whereas in the latter we recognize the feasibility of the talk to be in existing, arbitrary human arrangement. Existing praxis, held in activity

> by power arrangements is thus quite capable of distorting the meaning and value of curricular talk.[8]

Brubaker extracted the essence of praxis as "reflective action" in his study of creative leadership.[9] John Dewey throws some light on the more modern discussion in his comments on ends and means:

> Ends are not, as current theories too often imply, things lying beyond activity at which the latter is directed. They are not, strictly speaking, ends or termini of action at all. They are terminals of deliberation, and so turning points in activity.[10]

In this study, praxis will denote the cycle beginning with curricular theorizing, continuing as that theory is put into action in the practical reality of an educational setting, and reforming in a refined curricular theory which has been modified by the vicissitudes of practice. This definition certainly implies that no theory or action is ever fixed in time and space in a final form. In curriculum, the opposite of this evolving definition of praxis is what all this talk, work, and reflective action is attempting to correct. The extreme example is a teacher using the same plan of instruction year after year, never modifying it for different students, current events, or new developments in curriculum theory. Another life cycle for curriculum illustrates praxis. Teachers participate in curriculum talk and planning; they use a particular plan;

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[8] Macdonald, "Value Bases and Issues," pp. 12-13.

[9] Dale L. Brubaker, Creative Leadership in Elementary Schools (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall-Hunt, 1976), p. 179.

[10] John Dewey, Human Nature and Conduct (New York: Modern Library, 1922), p. 223.

they daily modify the plan using many classroom actions and factors; they participate in more curriculum talk about the plan, which is now almost unrecognizable as the original plan.

A more apt comparison might come from the sports arena of soccer coaching. A coach drills and practices her forwards in a play that involves an intricate combination of wall passes, dribbling, and fakes. When the play in action meets an impregnable defense line of stolid fullbacks and a daring goalie, the coach does not repeatedly try the same play for a losing game. Instead, she modifies the play with headers and back passes to lure out the goalie, to penetrate the defense, and to score.

The third term which must be defined in this study clarifies what is meant by the creation of settings. Sarason has a succinct definition:

> I have labeled this set of problems the creation of settings that provisionally may be defined as any instance in which two or more people come together in a new relationship over a sustained period of time in order to achieve certain goals.[11]

While Sarason discusses the creation of varied settings such as marriages or psychology clinics as well as schools, this study is confined to the creation of an educational setting. Implications and applications for other settings are clear in some parts of the study.

In order to provide three clear strands, it is convenient to summarize the definitions which form part of the basic assumptions in this study. Curriculum is defined as those planned educational activities which promote learning as well as the unverbalized hidden factors

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[11]Sarason, The Creation of Settings, p. 1.

of the unintended curriculum that influence learning and the educational climate. Praxis is that life cycle of theory, action or practice, and resulting modified theory which is the heartbeat of current theorists and practitioners. The creation of a setting denotes here the new relationships that two or more people create over a period of time to achieve certain commonly held educational goals.

The Hidden Curriculum

Curriculum is defined as those planned educational activities in praxis which promote learning in an educational setting. The hidden curriculum of an educational setting is perhaps even more important than the tangible, easily analyzed plan of instruction or activities for a school. The emotional climate or the learning atmosphere of every classroom or school is highly charged with strong currents which cannot be found within the textbooks, the lesson plans, or the directives from the central office.

Socio-economic conditions of the school population or clientele and the previous history of curriculum development in the school are forceful and usually unseen forces which are the basis for the hidden curriculum. The educational background and professional competencies of the teaching staff and how they function as cooperative colleagues are as important as the personality and leadership style of a school's principal. There is also a distinct difference between teachers who hold a tenured eight-to-three job and those master teachers who inspire.

The same difference might be noted between principals who are business managers and those who use the skills of business managers and also inspire achievement toward a visionary goal of better education in a better society.

The hidden curriculum of a school answers the question, "Is this also a good place for adults to work?" Without a positive answer to that question, a school is rarely a good learning environment for a student. Comparing the education business abstractly with any other business produces some provocative questions and answers. Is the work interesting? Does the worker find satisfaction in using her previous training and avocations in her present vocation? Is there a lively exchange of ideas among professional colleagues? Do workers see a respect for their achievements and have some sense of personal growth from year to year? In a business in which individual adults spend most of their working time behind closed doors with developing students, it is vital that there be both interpersonal collegial interaction and a sense of professional growth. Schools might otherwise serve as institutions containing non-volunteer children serving mandatory ten-year sentences.

The problems of supervision and evaluation bring a rare contact with a principal in somewhat strained circumstances. Unless there is interaction as colleagues and teacher participation in decision making, the strained circumstance of evaluator and dependent can greatly increase the tense atmosphere of the hidden curriculum.

Curriculum developers also contribute to the emotional climate of a school. Walter Doyle and Gerald Ponder see teachers as rational adapters or stone-age obstructionists in dealing with curriculum innovations or changes. Curriculum workers must become realistic strategists to make the innovation teacher-proof or they must provide relevance to and easy transition from what is presently happening in the classrooms.[12]

Herein, of course, lies the problem with curriculum praxis: Ideas and changes may be formulated by curriculum workers or theorists , but what teachers deem practical in the classroom is what really happens to innovation and change. A continuing dialogue between classroom teacher and curriculum planner is necessary if there is to be any possibility of reflective action. When there is no dialogue, no praxis, classroom and techniques gradually drift back to the way things were before the latest innovation. Teachers with collegial respect participating in choice making and planning strategies can greatly influence the hidden curriculum of a school as a learning environment.

Below the surface of both the written curriculum and the professional lives of teachers is still another current supercharged with energy. Values, aesthetics, and nurturing set the stage for a positive learning

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[12]Walter Doyle and Gerald Ponder, "The Ethic of Practicality: Implications for Curriculum Development," in Curriculum Theory, eds. Alex Molnar and John A. Zahorik (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1977), pp. 74-80.

environment or death at an early age. Values can be separated into categories according to the theories held about schooling: control, understanding, or liberation. If the prevailing mode is in accordance with Tyler's rationale for instruction developed in the thirties, then a linear, sequential mode of teaching will be imposed upon students for control in a hierarchical situation. A student of human development or a teacher familiar with Piaget's theories of cognitive development or Maslow's hierarchy of needs will bring great understanding as an intellectual exercise to the classroom situation. When the two, control and understanding, are used as friction agents, a new liberation for students and teachers emerges. In the same way that theory is modified and revised in praxis, so both control and understanding can be used to create a dialectic in which both students and teachers can learn and liberate themselves.

Values have more specific manifestations in the form of an abstract multiple-choice questionnaire. Are standardized test scores more important or is meeting individual needs? Is mastery of content area more important or is comprehension of the process? Is the aim of education to read about scientists or sociologists or to do some of the things those specialists actually do in science or social studies? Is history memorization of dates or participation in a microcosm of how government operates? Is reading decoding mastery or comprehension and internalization of the written word? Is math drill in tables and working endless examples or is it problem solving and logic?

What contribution does health or instruction in physical recreation make to the learning environment? Is it necessary to paint or to dance

in order to be educated? What part do respect, self-esteem, and social cooperation play? Is the aim of education to transmit culture or to improve the human condition? All of this is not an attempt to set up a value system for educational settings for a positive hidden curriculum; it is merely an attempt to illustrate that even supposedly value-free technological systems, such as Bloom's mastery learning and the Individualized Personalized Instruction booklets for math developed by the University of Pittsburgh, are based on values, hidden or obvious.

Aesthetics is receiving some long overdue attention from writers in education, such as Elliott Eisner.[13] Going beyond the aesthetic experience in content areas such as music, art, and movement, many curriculum workers are studying the importance of clean places, inviting physical plants, and the greenhouse effect. Part of the immediate impact upon entering a school is the aesthetics of a building, old or new. This influence is not so hidden when walls and windows are warm, cheerful, and friendly. If the aesthetics includes pride in the place and student displays of art, writing, math, and design instead of bare walls and locked trophy cases, then the curriculum is not very hidden or negative. Even more striking is the classroom where cursive practice floats along to a recording of Swan Lake and children break into spontaneous song while looping L's. Surely this is an aesthetic contrast to handwriting books, frustrating copying, and checkmarks. Aesthetics

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[13]Elliott Eisner, The Educational Imagination: The Design and Evaluation of School Programs (New York: Macmillan, 1979).

can be in the climate of the school as well as in the physical appearance or the offered curriculum.

Nurturing is also part of the hidden curriculum, creating or denying a positive learning atmosphere. A school in which teachers and learners treat each other with mutual respect is in sharp contrast to a tightly controlled atmosphere where teachers are superior trainers and students are the undeveloped, immature trainees. Nurturing is also caring about causes for sharp deviations. Gechokia throws a speller across the room. Instead of suspension or failing that day's spelling test, the sequence of events includes a two-minute conversation revealing parental abandonment in the night. Nurturing could take the form of written comments on reports instead of the letters A through F on a standard checklist.

The manifestations of the hidden curriculum are present in every aspect of schooling: in buildings, in principles, in curriculum workers, in students, in teachers. It is not only that we march to different drummers, but also that we sing different songs inside our heads as we learn and teach. Often those songs drown out the carefully planned lessons and obscure the bright colors of a dissecting experiment.

The Teacher as Scholar: The Leader as Activist

The problems that Doyle and Ponder raise in their article include a strategy for teacher-proof curriculum for innovation or change. They see classroom teachers as rational adapters or stone-age obstructionists.[14]

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[14]Doyle and Ponder, "The Ethic of Practicality," p. 80.

What happens to the lovely innovations inside the practical classroom is a factor for despair for those who work in the two separate worlds. Some curriculum planners have suggested that teachers participating as choice makers and as participants in praxis might provide a lasting solution to the problem. Ideally that involvement of administrator, consultant, curriculum worker, and teachers would bring about the desired revolution in education.

In the predominantly bureaucratic hierarchical order of public education, that ideal has very little chance to succeed. Consciousness raising of teachers as professionals who control the instruments of education for nurturing is a desirable outcome. Where teachers desperately cling to job security and the tenure system rewards the incompetent, there is no approach to professionalism. Where principals supervise and evaluate teachers by their so-called products (test scores) like foremen chastising workers on a production assembly line, there is no chance that independent thinkers will emerge in great enough numbers to make a difference.

Despite the pure abstraction of theory and the nurturing involved in understanding and liberating curriculum, change and innovation in school settings is political involvement. James Macdonald expresses the idea succinctly:

> Any person concerned with curriculum must realize that he/she is engaged in political activity. Curriculum talk and work are, in microcosm, a legislative function.[15]

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[15]Macdonald, "Value Bases and Issues," p. 15.

With the almost daily increasing technological improvements, the implications for education involve analyzing the probable directions. Choosing among the array of possible directions makes the analysis of values a basic assumption. The conflict which will arise over which direction is preferable is already among us: to use technology or to be used by it. Alvin Toffler in Future Shock defines determining the probable as a science, delineating the possible as an art, and defining the preferable as political activity.[16]

To decrease the enmity among curriculum theorists and obstructionist teachers, it is possible to involve teachers in decision making, but not probable on a large scale. One teacher's experience as a curriculum innovator was possible within the hierarchical school structure as long as she provided a demonstration classroom within confined boundaries. When her innovations were disseminated beyond the confines of a single classroom, and she was invited to act as a consultant to other schools and systems as a teacher-scholar, she was sharply put in her place by the principal-foreman and the central office: a teacher cannot be a consultant.

The hidden curriculum in this case was an overriding factor for this particular teacher and scholar of both curriculum and teaching. This study is partly a result of the control theory which in this case limited practice to the classroom and by no means encouraged the sharing

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[16]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Bantam, 1971), p. 460.

of ideas or innovations in the wider world. The outside stimulation and dialogue necessary to generate new ideas was too threatening for the hierarchy. As a result of that closed door, this researcher became convinced that teachers can be consultants or scholars and that the action and praxis necessary for educational improvement cannot take place in an isolated classroom or in a single article. Theorists who view teachers as obstructionists are often justified. To encourage dialogue and to bridge the gap between the theorist and the teacher became a desirable end in the progression from teacher to scholar to active leadership and back to reflective action on the part of this researcher.

It became a challenge to extend the boundaries of a single classroom to seek the duties of principal, curriculum director, or leader in the creation of a new educational setting. The example of John Dewey's school provided an inspiration that once existed in at least one fully documented nurturing school whose purpose was the liberation of its students and teachers. In the years of its existence, the school had a hidden curriculum which also made it a good place for adults to work. Despite the fact that Dewey as a theorist was a deviation from the mainstream of scientism and control in curriculum, he provided much insight and practice as to suitable processes for modern schools.

The nurturing atmosphere of Dewey's school and that of New Garden Friends School were strikingly similar in concept if not in practice. The parallels between his resignation which came partly as the result of political deals when the school merged with three others[17] came to

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[17]Katherine Mayhew and Anna Edwards, The Dewey School: The Laboratory School of the University of Chicago 1896-1903 (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936), p. iv.

mind when this researcher also resigned during the process of creating a new setting in an almost textbook parallel to the headings in Sarason's progression in the decline and death of a new setting including the isolation and boredom of the leader after almost one year.[18]

With the example of Dewey's school leadership and the political acumen of Sarason's analysis as a guiding line, it seemed a feasible alternative, indeed a preferable future, to become involved as a political activist. With the positional authority as principal and the curriculum expertise in theory, the head of a private school could find the ideal arena for implementing her curriculum theories into the practical classrooms and the nurturing atmosphere of the new school using all the reflective action gleaned from teaching, research, and consulting. Dewey's lab school and Sarason's set of problems and dilemmas in the creation of settings provided a basis for an emerging model to use to analyze and project the findings from the experience in the case study concerning New Garden Friends School. The whole cycle of teacher-practioner becoming a leader-activist-curriculum director who then became a scholar reflecting upon the theory modified by practice could now be completed.

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[18]Sarason, The Creation of Settings, pp. 216-240.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Two distinctly different trends emerge in discussions about educational change, a technical approach and an approach which involves the change process itself. These two trends demand widely divergent methods of analysis. A technological approach to educational change would be best framed in scientific terms with statistics, measurable objectives, and pre- and post-tests for evaluation. From a behaviorist point of view, the separate items in programs designed by rational change agents could be reduced to their smallest component parts and logically analyzed. A technocrat could put the parts together and implement productive change which could be easily reproduced for educational improvement. The approach which involves discussion of the change process itself presents the view that the whole is greater than or different from the sum of its individual parts.

Although technological problems may be discussed as tools or instruments, the process orientation is more concerned with persons in a setting as the operating mode for educational improvement. The process orientation eschews more statistical records or objective testing as ends; it regards numerical analysis as less important than descriptions of how people and settings change over a period of time. The change process itself is the focus. The most convenient methodology for this approach is narrative description of the process itself and a comparison and

contrast with the factors involved. The factors to be analyzed are regarded, not as reducible components, but as vitally interconnected subsystems in an inseparable whole.

Any writing about educational change which does not include recognition of educational conserving is unrealistic. Schools are not often reflections of revolutions, but they must have some elements which remain stable. The second essay in this chapter follows what is perhaps the most important component in educational change or conserving, the leader as mere business manager or the leader who uses the skills of business manager and has the more encompassing orientation of a person with a vision for her school and for society.

Change and Conserving

The proper use of language and the careful skirting of educational jargon make precisely defined terms important. The vocabulary often determines the attitude, the effect, and the results of any given project. Just as autocratic, demanding directions present a different atmosphere from consensual discussion, so technical terms lead away from the person-centered creation of climate.

Seymour Sarason explains both innovation and change in two separate definitions:

> Any attempt to introduce a change into the school involves some existing regularity, behavioral or programmatic.[19]

> Innovation involves new regularities that co-exist with the old; change involves some altering of existing regularities.[20]

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[19]Seymour Sarason, The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971), p. 3.

[20]Ibid., p. 109.

Much of what has been written about educational change does involve innovation. Innovations take the form of new regularities to replace some of the old ones. A new manipulative math program to replace workbooks and textbooks is an example of an innovation. Change implies more than replacing outmoded regularities with modern ones; it also implies an altered way of thinking or working together within a school or classroom.

Dale Brubaker points out some differences in change strategies in an analysis of first-order and second-order change strategies. He attributes a technical approach to a social engineer who is concerned with manipulating individuals and who is more comfortable with a self-centered vocabulary and a bureaucratic governance model. The second-order change strategies are person and setting centered and are more concerned with reconceptualizing goals and processes than with the technique and its outcomes. He sees first-order change strategies sometimes leading to second-order change.[21]

Reviewing the literature about educational change and reform with the definitions of innovation, change, and first and second order change strategies in mind, it becomes apparent that most of what has generally been called educational reform or change or improvement has, in effect, been in the nature of innovation concerned with first order change strategies.

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[21]Dale Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, "Pitfalls in the Educational Change Process," Journal of Teacher Education 26 (Spring 1975): 63-66.

The aim of education generally found in Western culture from Plato to Dewey is usually concerned with the wise and compassionate individual as participant in and producer of the good society. What is not generally agreed upon are the means whereby education is to reach that aim. Often, it seems, the aim is forgotten when educators become involved in setting other goals and become yet further immersed in confusion between ends and means and the technology that promotes means as ends in themselves.

Although it is obscured by time and dust, Frederick Winslow Taylor's book about scientific management changed more than the management fficiency of businesses and industry: it also influenced how schools were managed.[22] The great metaphor of the school as factory probably dates from the impression that the cult of industrial efficiency left on education. How efficiently managed by an administrative bureaucracy were the raw materials (students) processed by the workers (teachers). Within the industrial Carnegie unit of approximately one hour and with the students moving from station to station on the school conveyer belt, the teachers could in separate compartments fill the students' heads with knowledge so that the finished product (an educated person) would be produced in uniform quantities at the end of the ten-year assembly line.

John Dewey was the major deviant from this mainstream of scientific management because he was concerned with the child himself in the school environment rather than with what the student learned.[23]

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[22]Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Norton, 1911).

[23]John Dewey, Experience and Education (New York: Macmillan, 1938).

Within the next two decades and within the framework of efficiency, the making of a national curriculum was far advanced by textbook publishers especially in the area of basal readers.[24] It was also during this era that the mathematician Ralph Tyler did the work for his principles of curriculum planning although he did not publish this until 1949. A rational scientific analysis made the elusive art of curriculum planning a reducible and replicable model of efficiency.

World War II and the rapid advancement of technology was seemingly a halcyon era for American education. People were glad to be alive and taking advantage of the best educational system in the world. Classes were larger with the post-war population explosion and teachers had more problems with discipline, but the rosy haze of confidence in American superiority obscured many details. Equal access to education began by court order in 1954, but the rosy haze became a thundercloud three year later.

The repercussions of Sputnik in 1957 were second loudest in the public schools (after Defense). If American technology and education were the best, how did the Soviets get ahead? There was no easy or pleasant answer to that question. The impact of Sputnik must have produced many replicas of the "moment of history" atmosphere that was present in a freshman history class on an October day in 1957 when Josephine Hege told a class of women at the University of North Carolina

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[24]Jean D. Grambs, "Forty Years of Education," Educational Leadership 38 (May 1981): 651-654.

at Greensboro that they were part of one of the significant turning points of Western civilization. That doomsday effect was unique in the blase days of the complacent fifties.

Almost immediately science, modern languages, and mathematics were the areas of intensive research and funding so that America would not be for long a second-class power. The intensity of what is now called "the schooling decade"[25] produced innovations and became the epitome of technological advances in education. Jerome Bruner asserted that any child could be taught any subject as long as it was presented in an intellectually honest manner.[26] Bruner paved the way for the onslaught of mastery learning technicians: Benjamin Bloom with his taxonomy of reading comprehension, James Block and the promise of A's for all students, and Robert Glasser's development of individually Prescribed Instruction booklets at the University of Pittsburgh.

The popularization of the epistemology of Jean Piaget fit in nicely with the ideas of mastery learning. Piaget's division of cognitive processes into sensorimotor, pre-operational, concrete operations, and formal operations stages justified many of the technological innovations although that had not been Piaget's intent.[27]

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[25]John I. Goodlad, The Dynamics of Educational Change (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), p. 45.

[26]Jerome Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1960).

[27]Jean Piaget, The Essential Piaget, eds. H.E. Gruber and J.J. Vonache (New York: Basic Books, 1978).

The development of alternative schools such as Summerhill in 1960 and the Parkway School in 1969 set the pace and precedent for open classrooms in public schools. The success of the British Infant Schools brought learning stations into those open classrooms. Machine-marked tests, team teaching, and the new math were only a few of the innovations placed in schools to coexist with the old regularities.

B.F. Skinner's comment on the innovations of this schooling decade sheds some light on this blending of means with ends:

> It is true that the techniques which are emerging from the experimental study of learning are not designed to "develop the mind" or to further some vague "understanding" of mathematical relationships. They are deisgned, on the contrary, to establish the very behaviors which are taken to be the evidences of such mental states or processes.[28]

With all the innovations and energy put into educational research, it is difficult to ascertain why the quality of schooling has not improved since (for instance) this writer's student-teaching days at Curry School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in 1960. Part of the reason seems to be in the gap between the innovations of researchers and the implementation by teachers. The process of change seems to be the key because teachers have not participated in the decision making about change and researchers seldom went behind classroom doors to analyze implementation. This is the conclusion reached by John Goodlad.

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[28]B.F. Skinner, The Technology of Teaching (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968), p. 26.

> One conclusion stands out clearly: many of the changes we have believed to be taking place in schooling have not been getting into classrooms; changes widely recommended for the schools over the past fifteen years were blunted on the school and the classroom door.[29]

Reading down a checklist of the innovations of the sixties to see how many are still present in the schools of the eighties continues to startle many educators.

One thing schools have done is to reflect the national anxiety in an age of uncertainty. Just as Sputnik ushered in the golden age of educational innovation, so in the early seventies, a San Francisco teen-ager who sued the schools for graduating him as a functional illiterate brought Gary Hart's bill on mandatory competency testing and the back-to-basics movement.

The conserving element in education came to the forefront and brought innovations to a screeching halt with the back-to-basics movement. Jean Dresden Grambs presents one view of this movement:

> And it was the vociferous criticism by the public which shamed the schools into a closer look at student performance, resulting in the "back to basics" movement. Since the schools had not really left the basics but had only neglected to see if students in fact had learned them, the return to basics has been relatively painless. It will be interesting to see how the development of exit-competencies for high school graduation will be manipulated so that the essential sorting function of the school will not be affected.[30]

From another point of view, the back-to-basics movement may be seen as a stability factor in education, an overreaction to the innovation-

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[29]John I. Goodlad and M. Frances Klein, Looking Behind the Classroom Door (Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1974), p. 97.

[30]Grambs, "Forty Years of Education," p. 654.

for-innovation's sake trend of the previous decade. The failures of the innovative decade were glaring to the public. The new math concept was teaching by reconceptualizing numbers and the whole number system, but the change agents did not visualize that it would be taught in the same way as the old math behind the classroom doors. Failure and the innovation-implementation gap were closely connected.

Robert Donmoyer makes an interesting comparison in contrasting the present back-to-basics movement with the golden age of schooling after Sputnik in 1957. They were both spawned by dissatisfaction with a non-rigorous child-centered education. While Sputnik and the ensuing concern with education found its justification in national welfare, the furor that produced mandatory competencies for graduation is a concern for the individual. The difference in objectives (excellence and minimum competencies) is obvious. In accountability, the striving for excellence produced some empirical testing and a call for national exams; but competency testing produces management by objectives, published newspaper accounts of test scores, and rigorous evaluation to justify federal, state, or local funding. The psychological perspectives of the sixties were at least initially concerned with cognitive and intellectual excellence, but now the behaviorists hold sway because atomistic reductionism is in harmony with individual competencies and measurable outcomes. Again at the onset, pedagogy and curriculum were concerned with helping students think like mathematicians

and scientists. Now the competency testing concern is with the skills in reading, math, and writing, not with the thinking process.[31]

The forcible interjection of a contrast with a possible future for education makes the back-to-basics movement stand out sharply in the mainstream of education. Alvin Toffler in Future Shock proposes many alternative futures, among them schools which educate students in the traditional ways but also rent out space to plumbers, lawyers, and beauticians so that those practitioners will be available to teach trades. Toffler does, in fact, advocate stability zones within schools so that the "future shock" of rapidly advancing technology and communications will not be so traumatic.[32]

In essence the back-to-basics movement seeks to negate change and even innovations because of dropping test scores. In the sense that this recent movement points to the failure of the innovation-for-innovation's sake and the gap between researched innovations and taught implementations, it could also point toward another approach. Equating the conserving element in American education with the back-to-basics movement is not justified; but through negative elimination, it shows another way. C.H. Edson's words about the curriculum are an appropriate expression of this idea:

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[31]Robert Donmoyer, "Back to Basics Now and 20 Yeqrs Ago - A Comparison of Two Movements," Educational Leadership 36 (May 1979); 555-558.

[32]Toffler, Future Shock, p. 407.

> In other words curriculum needs a socially conserving component as well as an individually liberating component.[33]

The cry for return to another era because individuals have not acquired skills can be answered in the accents of futurism. In order to soothe the uncertainties of the age of anxiety, the society or the educational setting of the school needs to become the stable element, the conserving good society in which the individual can be educated and liberated to fulfill her own best potential. The relationship of this concept with the positive hidden curriculum of schools and the real difference between significant change and technical innovation is related in John I. Goodlad's five-year study of 18 schools in California in the "League of Cooperating Schools"[34] Goodlad and his cohorts from UCLA believed that the research-development-diffusion model for change ignored the implementation process. Instead of becoming consultants to schools as outside change agents, they persuaded schools to see that change must come from within the school setting and that regularities could be altered to produce real change instead of mere short-term innovation. Although first-order change strategies were used and technical innovations did link to second-order changes, the major focus was on the process itself.

Through altering existing regularities such as faculty meetings and classroom teacher isolation, teachers and principals within single schools found that they were making significant changes for and within

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[33]C.H. Edson, "Curriculum Change during the Progressive Era," Educational Leadership 36 (October 1978): 68.

[34]Goodlad, The Dynamics of Educational Change, p. 82.

themselves. In the changed atmosphere or climate of the school setting, innovations suitable to the regularities of individual schools could succeed. As the regularities of faculty meetings are altered by increased individual communication and small groupings, schools could become good places for adults to work and communicate and to be stimulated to grow professionally, school settings inevitably change for students. The setting becomes a place for individuals to be liberated to learn to capacity in a stable stimulating environment. The individual school can become the stabilizing conserving force in a nation torn by conflict and doubt. Just as principals treat teachers as intelligent, worthy members of a community, so teachers treat students as worthy, intelligent beings in a compassionate atmosphere of the school ecosystem.

The aims of education voiced so long ago by Plato and Aristotle can be reaffirmed and conserved in the school setting. Within that setting or stability zone, children and adults alike can find a centering in which to learn those basic competencies of "reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic," to find self-actualization, to learn any subject in an intellectually honest manner, to keep pace with the future of advancing technology, to avoid the inward and outward disasters symbolized in the prophetic lines of a poem by Yeats. He is describing the overturn of one civilization, but the words could apply to something as mundane as curriculum or our age of anxiety:

> Turning and turning in the widening gyre
> The falcon cannot hear the falconer;
> Things fall apart; the centre cannot hold
> Mere anarchy is loosed upon the world.[35]

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[35] W.B. Yeats, "The Second Coming," in The Collected Poems of W.B. Yeats (New York: Macmillan, 1959), lines 1-4.

In the final analysis, it would be most useful to discard the factory metaphor along with the attitudes that view schools in terms of raw products, workers, and assembly line production. A new metaphor would use the language to indicate that schools are settings for education, centering places for liberating the minds of students in an academically and socially stabilizing atmosphere. Although the schools in Goodlad's League of Cooperating Schools did not all become Utopias of the mind, his description also discards the factory metaphor:

> Schools are not factories, using any means at their disposal to turn out young people who can read, write, and spell. They are social work places - places of joy, places of sorrow, places of fun, places of boredom - where people of various ages live together for five or six hours a day, 180 days a year. If they are failing, as many people think they are, they are not failing because teachers should have eighty semester hours rather than fifty in English literature and related subjects or because teachers use the wrong one of several possible methods of teaching reading. They are failing because they are malfunctioning social systems, more preoccupied with maintaining their daily routines and regularities than with creating a setting where human beings will live and learn together productively and harmoniously.[36]

It seems that both change and conserving have an important part in improving education. Reactions such as the back-to-basics movement would do away with any change because innovations have failed in implementation. On the other hand, it would be unwise to assume that because schools are not improving, all the socially conserving factors need to be discarded. What is necessary is to recognize the value of both. Even more important is the theory-practice-praxis design which compels researchers to pay great attention to the implementation process and the implementers (teachers) to become part of the decision making and planning process for dynamic change and improvement.

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[36]Goodlad, Dynamics of Educational Change, p. 95.

Leadership

Crucial to this balance of conserving and change in educational settings is the pivotal figure of the leader. Although it was generally assumed that leaders were born, not made, two classical studies of leaders were written as guide books or philosophical treaties on effective leadership. Plato's Republic contains descriptions of the ideal solution for a Utopian leader: a despotic poet-philosopher-king with absolute authority.[37] Niccolo Machiavelli in 1513 wrote his synthesis of leadership qualities supposedly modeled on Cesare Borgia. The Prince might be cited as an underground but perhaps unconscious cult book in administrative circles.[38] Machiavelli, the patriotic Italian diplomat and administrator, would be surprised at how roundly the modern age condemns his masterwork on duplicity and how faithfully modern administrators adhere to his principles, consciously or unconsciously.

The false modesty which assumed that leaders were either egocentric, egomaniac, or Machiavellian has been replaced with a realistic attitude toward analyzing leader traits, behaviors, and interactions as educational situations become more complex and technology advances more rapidly. Some part of a democratic society still denies the overweening importance of analyzing leadership because the authoritarian nature of most leaders is in obvious contrast to our cherished principles "...of the people, for the people, and by the people."

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[37]Plato, The Republic (Indianapolis: Hackett, 1974).

[38]Niccolo Machiavelli, The Prince (New York: Bantam, 1974).

When Cecil A. Gibb reviewed the literature on leadership in the mid-fifties, it is interesting to note that most of the studies had been in the discipline of psychology, not in education. Gibb points out three types of studies which emphasize various approaches to leadership:

1. A study of leader traits
2. Observation of leadership behavior
3. Group dynamics or the interaction of leaders on group members.[39]

The most influential studies were conducted by Ralph M. Stogdill. He found and listed characteristic traits of leaders as opposed to non-leaders, although no standard set of traits could be ascertained for every leader.[40] The criteria for effective leaders in schools has undergone psychological refinement from the early days of research in case studies of bomber crew commanders in World War II and their applications to educational leadership. F.H. Sanford could find no general leadership traits, but he found that leaders do have traits that set them apart. Traits that may be effective in leaders commanding an air strike may not be effective should a downed crew have to make its way out of a jungle.[41] These traits, however, vary from situation to situation and sound much like behaviors rather than character traits.

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[39]Cecil A. Gibb, "Leadership," in Handbook of Social Psychology, vol. 2, ed. Gardner Lindzey (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1954), pp. 877-920.

[40]Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership," Journal of Psychology 25 (1948): 35-71.

[41]F.H. Sanford, "Research in Military Leadership," in Psychology in in the World Emergency, ed. John Flanagan (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press,1952), p. 51.

John K. Hemphill and the Ohio State group concluded after studying wartime leaders that variance in leadership behavior is associated with variance in situation.[42] From these studies of situations, Hemphill developed the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire which also produced a dialectic between a realistic staff perception of a leader's behavior and the ideal self-perception indicated when the leader answered the questionnaire.[43]

In the new light of situational behavior, Fred C. Fiedler's theory of leader effectiveness was a contingency approach which analyzed, not the traits of leaders and non-leaders, but the behaviors of effective as opposed to non-effective leaders.[44]

The influence of psychologist Kurt Lewin was a major factor in the emerging third strand in leadership analysis, group dynamics or the leader's relationship with group members. Andrew Halpin was one of the first to deal with observable phenomena and the important differences between leadership behavior and the evaluation of the effectiveness of that behavior. He set up two observable measurements of leadership effectiveness, Initiating Structure and Consideration. In the first

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[42]John K. Hemphill, "Situational Factors in Leadership," Bureau of Educational Research Monograph 32 (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University Press, 1949).

[43]John K. Hemphill and Alvin Coons, Leader Behavior Descriptions (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1950).

[44]Fred C. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

category, a leader was judged on his relationships with the group, the patterns he set, and communications. The evaluations under Consideration were friendship, warmth, and mutual trust.[45] An effective leader would score high in all areas.

Dorwin Cartwright noted that a group itself had only two behaviors significant in determining the leader's effectiveness: achievement of the goal and the maintenance of the group itself. Using that insight into the leader and the group, Cartwright defined the role of leadership in the context of the total group process and in the terms of the group's role. "Leadership is viewed as the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its preferred outcomes."[46]

Part of the climate of the setting is the attitude of the people involved or the atmosphere of their setting or the metaphoric language they chose to use. When Taylor set up scientific management for business, he also set it up for schools. The authoritarian bureaucratic hierarchy of administration interested in a product has repeatedly attempted to improve schools and upgrade their product by adapting business management practices to education.

Chris Argyris' theories advocate group process and democratic operations, but the leader as autocrat is the bottom line in the group workers' unspoken agenda.[47] Rensis Likert divided the responsibilities

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[45]Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), pp. 81-130.

[46]Dorwin Cartwright, "Leadership and Group Performance," in Group Dynamics, eds. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, and Company, 1960), p. 492.

[47]Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper Brothers, 1957).

of leader and group. The leader is responsible for group decisions, effective communication, linkage, and new possibilities. The group has only to perform task roles and to maintain itself.[48]

All of these management skills have direct bearing on the skills necessary for a leader in education. Alfred H. Gorman's study of business practices useful for education analyzes the adaptation and produces his own theory of situational leadership. He is a precursor of Sarason's later social psychology concerning leadership and the creation of settings when he asks future researchers to consider these important variations:

1. Relations of leader and group outside setting
2. Relations of all within the group setting
3. Relations of leader and superiors outside the setting.[49]

The most recent influence on education from the business world comes from Japan. William Ouchi's Theory Z is unlike the usual detailed set of management assumptions that guide action. Ouchi speaks about the cultural building blocks of trust and loyalty to the organization, commitment to the job, and dedication to the purposes of the organization evident in Japanese businesses.[50]

In Japan the prevalence of quality control circles of from two to ten employees who meet regularly to discuss and research work issues

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[48]Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), p. 359.

[49]Alfred H. Gorman, The Leader in the Group (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1963), p. 23.

[50]William Ouchi, Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge (New York: Avon, 1981).

makes every employee a committed worker with a vested interest in the company. The ringi (from ringisho, papers) is an even more elaborate network of group decision-making processes whereby suggestions from lower-echelon employees are circulated horizonally for approval of modification. The modified-by-consensus suggestion paper is then sent vertically in the company so that company tradition is constantly enriched by new suggestions and so that new employees have contact with the hierarchy.[51]

While all of these practices from the business world do have a certain value as tactics to keep in mind for the operation of the school business, none in itself answers the dilemmas of education as opposed to the problems of business. Most often there is no real answer to a problem in education because there are only dilemmas to be momentarily reconciled before they appear again in a slightly different form. In business, problems as such can be resolved and solutions found.

The simplistic and outdated defining of leadership by listing personality traits of leaders gave way to the more comprehensive defining of leader behaviors in different situations. When the social psychologists added the perspectives of group dynamics, a fuller definition was possible. Seymour Sarson's research into the creation of settings stresses the importance of the pre-history of the setting, its cultural background, the leader in the beginning context, and the formation of the

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[51]Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Ten Principles of Quality Leadership," Educational Leadership 39 (February 1982): 336.

core group and its priorities.[52] His later book, The Psychological Sense of Community, also deals with the importance of group dynamics in a setting and adds a deeper understanding to the role of leader in a community or in any setting.[53]

In modern studies of leadership, the Vroom-Yetton classification of leadership styles into authoritarian, cooperative, and group categories is a useful analysis.[54] Such a classification is quite useful for one's own analysis of style or a style to use in specific situations. There is a caveat with styles, however, that harkens back to traits. Can a person alter style to suit the situation or is style too closely allied with personality?

Thomas J. Sergiovanni presents a package of prerequisite leadership skills which can evolve from training.

Skills

1. Mastering and using various contingency leadership tactics
2. Conflict management tactics
3. Team management principles
4. Shared decision-making models
5. Group process techniques.[55]

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[52]Sarason, The Creation of Settings, pp. 24-96.

[53]Seymour Sarason, The Psychological Sense of Community (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974).

[54]Victor H. Vroom and Philip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision Making (Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Press, 1973), p. 13.

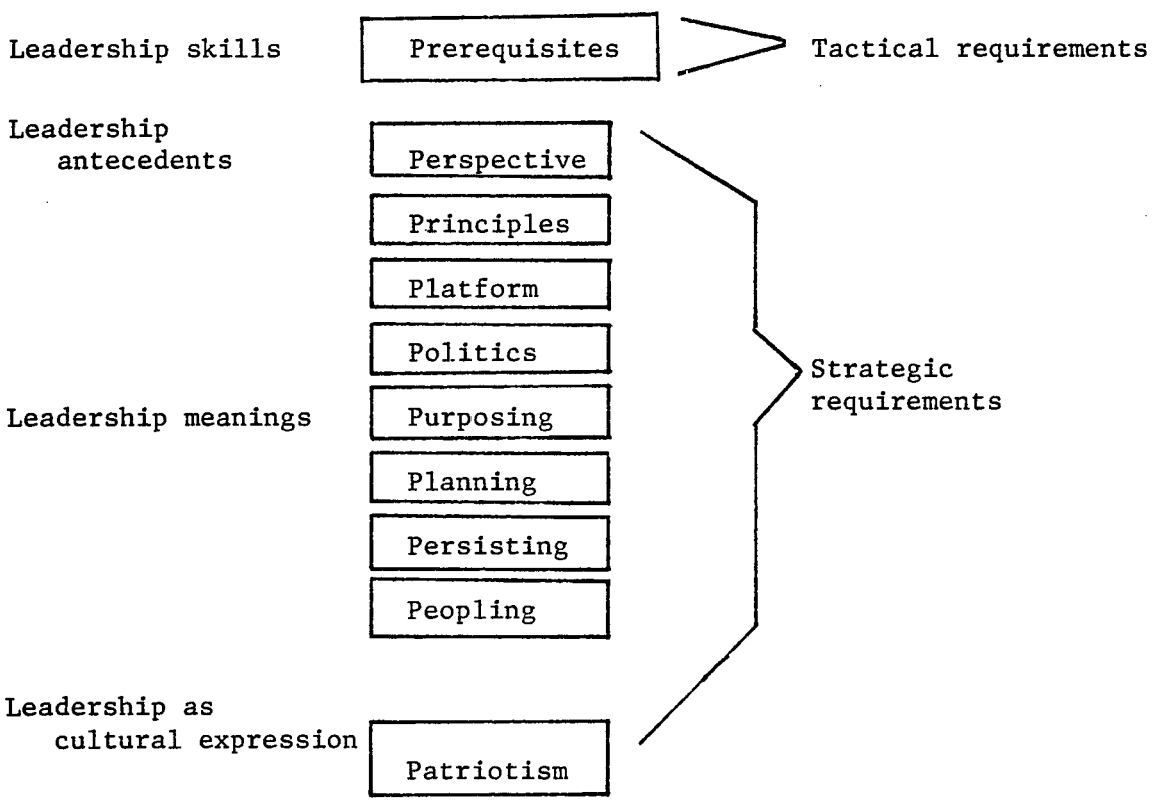
[55]Sergiovanni, "Ten Principles," p. 330.

Sergiovanni does not brush aside the importance of tactics or managerial skills in leadership, but he does put the skills in the subordinate position of requirements instead of indicating that leadership consists only of effective use of those skills.

> What a leader stands for is more important than what he or she does. The meanings a leader communicates to others are more important than his or her specific leadership style.[56]

The long range perspective for quality schooling and holistic values of purpose, goodness, and importance balance the original tactical skills Sergiovanni lists, and expands them with a balance of leadership strategies in the following model.

The Ten P Model of Quality Leadership[57]



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[56] Ibid.

[57] Ibid.

Sergiovanni's model of tactics and strategies for quality leadership is much more encompassing than the original studies in leadership traits and assumes many more dimensions than situational behavior and group dynamics in relation to qualities of a leader.

There is, however, another dimension to leadership. It can be called "creative leadership." Dale Brubaker goes beyond the dynamics of situation and group interaction in this definition of leadership:

> If we were to observe people in each of these situations, we would find that participants would have varying degrees of effectiveness in influencing the behavior of others. We will refer to the process by which a person influences the actions of others to behave in what he considers to be a desirable direction as leadership.[58]

The genesis of such a definition might be traced back to Ernest Melby, who is not often mentioned in the literature. Melby said that to be a leader is "...to release the creative talents of those with whom he works."[59] Melby's definition brings to the full cycle the aesthetics of leadership. This perspective goes beyond management systems, whether geared for industry or for education. It transcends listings of traits and skills or even the transactional operations of group dynamics. This definition points to the leader as an inspirer above and beyond managing.

Often educational theory gains from comparison and contrast with studies in other disciplines. In his monumental study, James McGregor

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[58]Brubaker, Creative Leadership, p. 3.

[59]Ernest Melby, "Leadership is Release of Creativity," School Executive 68 (November 1948): 58.

Burns treats four political giants, but he directly compares education and leadership (in politics) because they both consist of "...reciprocal raising of levels of motivation rather than indoctrination or coercion."[60] Burns attributes the development of his theories directly to three who also influenced education, Sigmund Freud, Lawrence Kohlberg, and Abraham Maslow. According to Burns, leadership is an aspect of power; but true leaders differ from mere power holders because they consider needs of followers as well as their own. He defines leadership as transactional and transformational. In a manner similar to that of Melby, Burns says that power and leadership are not concentrated on the few but are widely distributed. Top leaders are more effective if they help followers become leaders in their own right. In a burst of enlightened optimism, Burns asserts that leadership can be taught because great leaders are teachers and great teachers are leaders. They both "...treat students neither coercively nor instrumentally but are joint seekers of truth and mutual actualization."[61]

Burns' cogent advice to would-be leaders includes clarifying one's own goals, defining the followers, setting directions, and overcoming obstacles. His best advice moves the leader from manipulation to power-wielding to engaging followers in a commingling of needs and aspirations and goals in a common enterprise. Burns advises the leader to move up from checkers to chess and then to move again:

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[60] James McGregor Burns, Leadership (New York: Harper and Row, 1978), p. 448.

[61] Ibid., p. 449.

> But democratic leadership moves far beyond chess because, as we play the game, the chessmen come alive, the bishops and knights and pawns take part on their own terms and with their own motivations, values, and goals, and the game moves ahead with new momentum, direction, and possibilities. In real life the most practical advice for leaders is not to treat pawns like pawns, nor princes like princes, but all persons like persons.[62]

Leaders who take Burns' advice, in politics or in education, will probably feel the excitement Rudyard Kipling's Kim felt after years of training and a joyous natural inclination when he was ready to engage in "the Great Game."

The combination of two Arabic Moslem terms from the political journalism of Jean Lacoutre provides a counterpoint of perspective to the leader as visionary or the leader as business manager. The zaim is the mystical incarnation of the needs, goals, and aspirations of the people. The rais is the French patron or American boss, the one who gets things done in operational concentration.[63]

The aesthetic quality in leadership, the excitement, the drama, the vision, are part of a hopeful optimism for the future in education and a wider view of leadership. While visions of the ideal and inspired definitions may seem beyond the grasp of ordinary mortals who act as leaders in educational settings, it is well to keep in mind that the words of the Constitution, "...of the people, for the people, and by the people" do have meaning for both leadership and education in a democracy. By embodying and activating the enduring needs, goals, and

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[62] Ibid., p. 462.

[63] Jean Lacoutre, The Demigods: Charismatic Leadership in the Third World (New York: Knopf, 1970), p. 7.

aspirations of the group can a leader best lead. By activating the creativity of the group and empowered with the authority the will of the group gives her, the leader transcends ordinary roles and becomes that visionary who can make a significant difference. By embodying the best of the goals, aspirations, and needs of the society can the schools transmit the best of this culture to the changing worlds of future generations.

Abstractions and generalizations from a review of the literature about leaders and leadership find a significant metaphor in the personification of these idealistic modes of operation in a representative leader. Katherine Mayhew's tribute to John Dewey is a concrete example of these abstractions, a tribute from a principal to her leader. In the introduction to her book about the Dewey School, Mahew describes Dewey the leader:

> This book has been called the Dewey School not because Mr. Dewey as its head ever exercised any of the dominance too often evident in a "one man's school." Rather was the title chosen out of gratitude to the great person who made the school possible by his objective and impersonal attitude of faith in the growing ability of every individual, whether child or teacher. Mr. Dewey was never dominating. His respect for the opinions of even the youngest and least experienced of his staff bore fruit in the creative character of the work done. Only a person who has worked in such an atmosphere can understand what inspiration to creative work such freedom gives. After all teaching is a creative social act. Mr. Dewey's philosophy expressed through his personality stimulated others and released their powers so that all who understood his point of view worked freely and cooperatively under his guidance.[64]

Dewey illustrates many of the points. He released the creativity of others; he changed the possibilities for education as well as bringing

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[64] Mayhew and Edwards, The Dewey School, pp. v-vi.

innovations to teaching; he combined theory and practice in educational praxis. From the evidence in Mayhew's book, he also made leaders out of his followers.

There is a marked difference between a leader who is a skillful business manager and a leader who effectively uses the skills of a business manager and also adds the extra dimension of vision to leadership. A list of styles, behaviors, traits, skills, and attitudes would give only one or two dimensions to an analysis of creative leadership; but the most accurate test is to look at the setting she creates in a school. The social atmosphere of a school as a creative work place, the relationships of principal, teachers, and students, and the love of learning which permeates the school are the best evaluation of the leader. In such an atmosphere, change, innovation, and conserving are all possible. With a visionary leader (who is also a skillful business manager) in a school, almost any improvement is possible.

CHAPTER III

A PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE APPOINTED LEADER'S ROLE IN CREATING AN EDUCATIONAL SETTING

The problems of educational change in existing public schools involve dealing with an unmanageable traditional bureaucracy, state adopted texts, and a rigid hierarchy of objectives. Creating an entirely new setting so the seeds of curriculum changes could flourish in a more humane atmosphere seemed to be the answer. When Katherine Mayhew wrote about the atmosphere of the Dewey School, she conveyed some of the excitement teachers must have felt working in a situation where the great theorist put his ideas into action. John Dewey created for his teachers that combination of theory and practice which teachers ideally create for their students. Dewey took the format of existing schools and teachers trained in that tradition and created a new setting which is still being analyzed and its parts replicated almost eighty years later.

In accepting the directorship of a small private school, this researcher found an opportunity to test some of the curriculum theories which she had experimented with in a public school setting. Familarity with James Macdonald's definition of praxis as theory and practice continually modifying the form of both was a first step. Dale Brubaker's explanation of praxis as reflective action was easy to keep in mind as

the scholar-theorist became the leader-activist in a new role as both leader and curriculum planner. Seymour Sarason's warning that new settings often fail or decline rather quickly was one of those important facts pushed to the back of the mind.[65] The idealistic enthusiasm of a new venture sustained optimism for a long period of time.

Sarason's five stages in the creation of new settings were carefully studied along with his warnings about the pitfalls inherent in any educational situation. Fortified with Dale Brubaker's analysis of commitment, covenant, and power, the framework for success appeared to be within the grasp of the theorist.[66] This model will deal with those stages of Sarason's and the questions continually posed by Brubaker's analysis, but the model will present a dicotomy between that framework and the organic entity called situational complexity.

Five stages or processes in the creation of a setting determine the ultimate fate of that institution, according to Sarason. The processes are pre-history, the leader in the beginning context, the prioritizing of resources and values, the formation of the core group, and the establishment of constitutionality. In this case, the minute examination of the pre-history of this private, alternative school was of overwhelming importance. The leader's operation in the beginning context included individual teacher interviews which proved to be

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[65]Sarason, The Creation of Settings, p. 243.

[66]Brubaker, Curriculum Planning, p. 6.

another keystone of the whole operation. The inventory of resources and needs enabled the leader and others to form a priority list during those early interviews. Identifying the leader with those concerns and the voiced need for change and the creation of another setting brought her into the context of the school before the school year began.

The formation of a core group was methodical in ranking key leaders from the old setting who voiced the need for change into a steering committee with the "young Turks" who came into the setting at the same time as the leader. The constitutionality of the setting, its reason to be and a mechanism for dealing with problems and dilemmas, was clearly recognized as the next step or process.

If these steps are carefully taken and analyzed, the pitfalls inherent in this evolutionary process can be avoided, according to Sarason. The pitfalls to be avoided include the myth of unlimited resources; the socialization, privacy, and superiority of the leader; and the use of buildings as distractions. The signs of death and decline, ignoring conflict, and the withdrawal of the leader, need not appear.

Mounting that structured staircase toward creating a new setting for educational change and development of curriculum was a simple task in theory. No process in the modern world is ever so simple as it seems. What seems at first glance to be a simple logical progression may at second glance be as complex as the double helix spirality of DNA within a single chromosome. Only the brave who penetrate further would see in each chromosome a microcosm for the implosion of a galaxy or some

other mind-boggling complexity. Only the foolhardy would dare at third glance. Each of the human beings involved in this social relationship called creating a setting is in herself a myriad complexity of other relationships, thoughts, feelings, achievements, goals, and capabilities. That complexity shifts the focus and changes the perception of reality at every step.

The manageable questions the leader must ask continually complicate Sarason's "simple" steps. According to Brubaker, these include questioning commitment, covenants, and the use of power, not only on the part of the leader, but on the parts of all involved. The six levels of commitment range from 1) the sacrifice of life to 6) not mattering. The levels in between are 2) foregoing respect and status, 3) foregoing money and career, 4) conflict between what should be done and the leader's reluctance to do it, and 5) altering comfortable habits.[67]

Although the four covenants seem simple, one would do well to review them for each action taken and with each relationship established. The four combinations of time and intensity are 1) very intense, brief time; 2) not intense, brief time; 3) not intense, long term; and 4) very intense, long term.[68] It is especially elucidating to examine the constituencies of a private school as well as each committee inception and the subsequent meetings in the harsh light of the four kinds of covenants.

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[67]Brubaker, Curriculum Planning, pp. 37-38.

[68]Ibid., pp. 38-39.

The sources of power and the appropriate use of each is another of Brubaker's measurements which must be used in the creation of settings. Those four kinds of power are positional authority, expertise, succorance, and charisma.[69]

A model which resembles a programmer's flow chart would seem reasonable to represent this event or series of events, this conjunction of theory and practice into praxis. That model, however, is too simple and mechanical to represent the leader in the creation of a setting. Instead of a programmer at the control panel, the image should be of a mountain climber using all the training, skills, ingenuity, and imagination of a human being in order to meet the challenge of scaling the mountain. The matter is not a simple one of cause and effect, but it contains a universe of relationships. These are not separate entities, but a continuum of matter, energy, life, mind, and spirit. Just as no action is made up of one pure impulse, so no leader comes to a situation with only clear uncontaminated ideas which, if the correct formula is used, work in the new and simple setting. If things were simple, the setting could be created by ascending the staircase made up of Sarason's steps. (See figure 1)

Applying Brubaker's questions on every upward step (action and for each foundation step (theory), the model takes on the appearance of a staircase with supporting banisters. (See figure 2)

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[69]Ibid., p. 6.

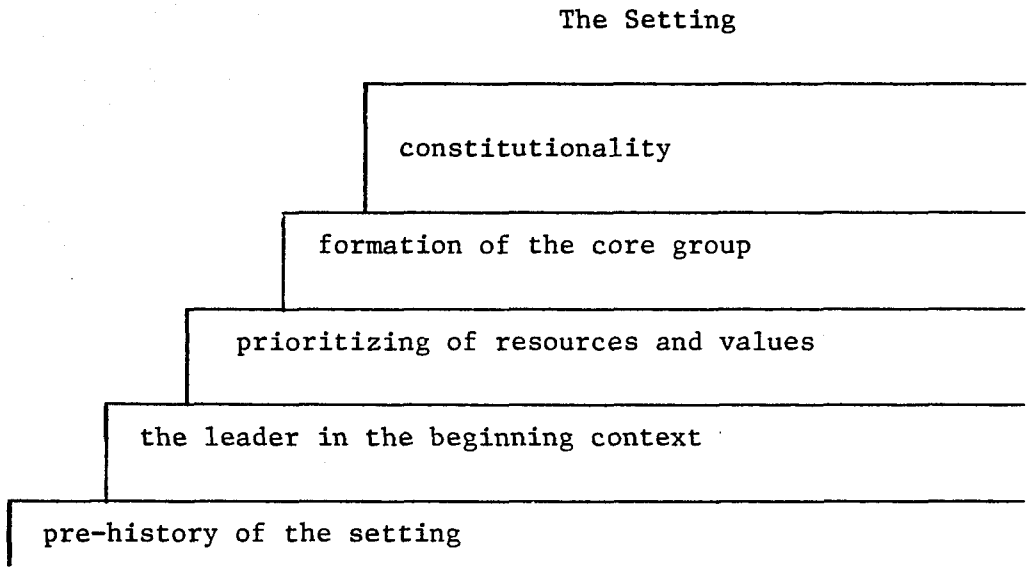

figure 1

A Staircase Model Using Sarason's Steps

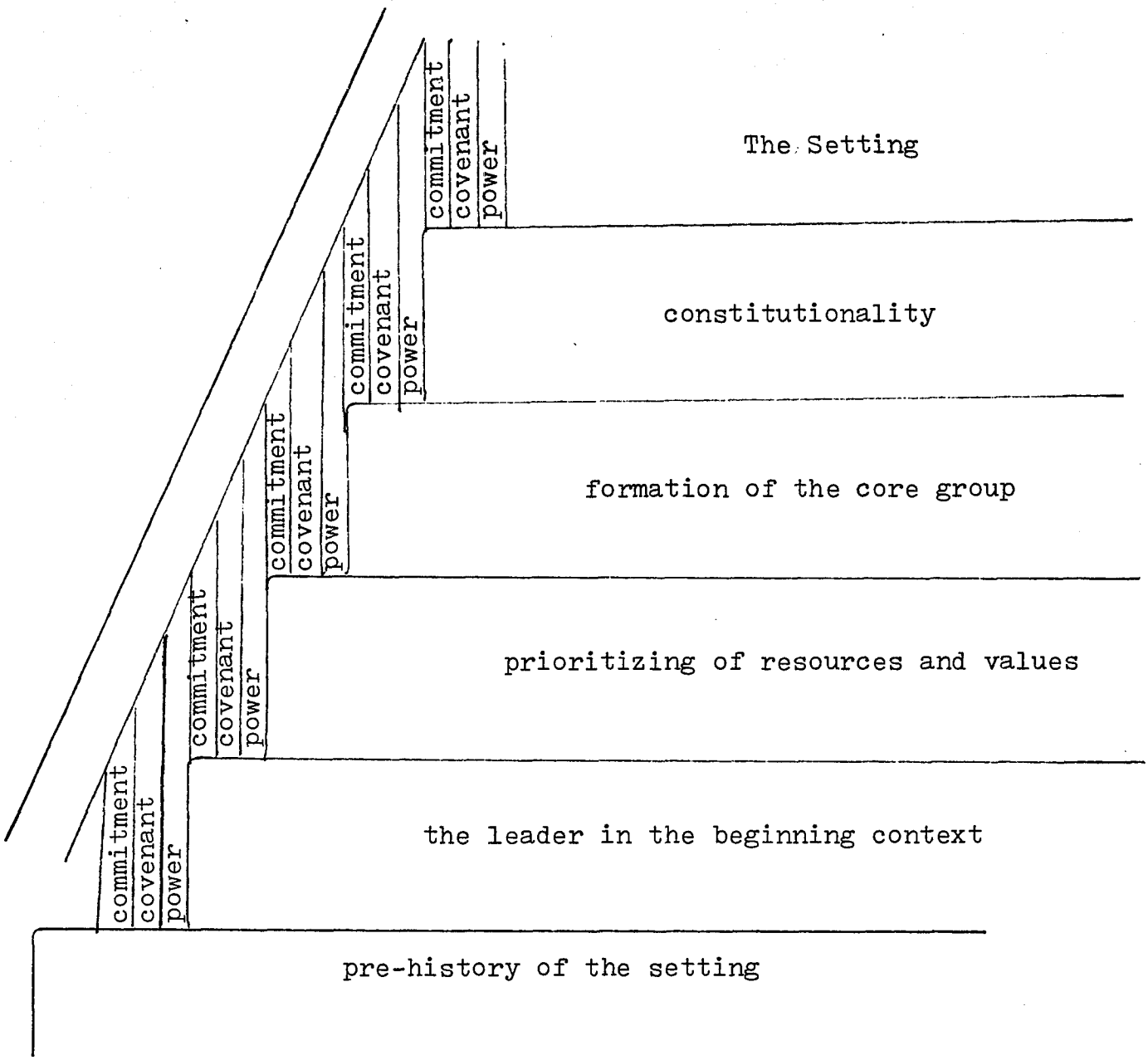

figure 2

Staircase Model with Brubaker's Questions

An analogy with the staircase is an association with the familiar one typical of hierarchical or pyramid structures of ideas, needs, or values. This particular staircase denotes movement, upward or downward, rather than the static structure of the pyramid. It is also open-ended, part of a much larger structure which may have many staircases and many opening doors. The particular open staircase in figure 2 is the desired new setting.

The analogy with the staircase is, however, only the beginning of any representation of the situational complexity involved in creating a new setting which involves new and old people, old setting, old and new leaders, ideas, curricula, finances, buildings, and previous history of people as well as of the setting. Even the most simple representation of this situational complexity calls for a model which represents the organic, growing, and constantly shifting relationships involved in an educational setting.

The model in figure 3 represents the stages in creation of settings as steps and the questions as banister supports, but the added feature is a set of footprints which represents the human interrelationships. The footprints are also diagrams of living, simple life forms called paramecia.

The paramecium has a nucleus and is composed of particles which it ingests through its cell wall and which become part of the whole organism. The footprint shape of the organism also fits the chosen analogy because these two separate footprints begin the initial climb up the steps of the formulated staircase.

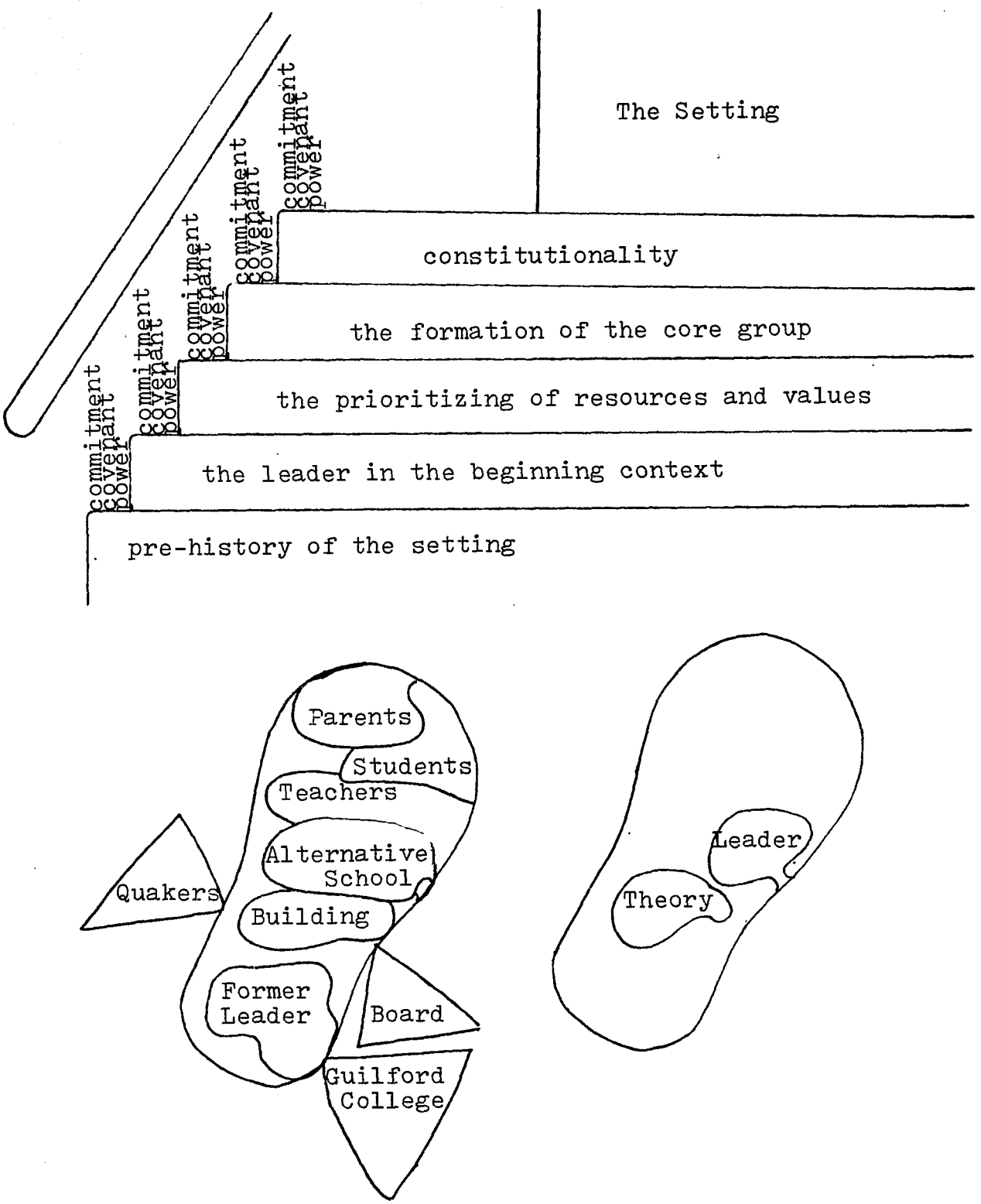

figure 3

Staircase Model of the Setting with Situational Complexity

Starting with the leader and the alternative school as two distinct paramecia or footprints is the outline of the theory, but the action begins instantaneously as soon as one names the theory and praxis occurs. Through osmosis or cell wall absorption the two share or trade off interior particles and exterior "burrs." At times on certain steps, the paramecia become identical or indeed seem to merge into one being. At times one may lie dormant or seem dead, needing only a slight touch or reviving stimulus to become an active organism once again.

The two footprints in the model in figure 3 have only a few of the particles that exist in reality. Before the beginning and for the sake of simplicity, one paramecium contains only the leader and her theories about curriculum. The moving impetus for the other paramecium is the need for a new setting voiced by elements from the old setting. The most important factor is the nucleus called the culture of the alternative school. Other particles include teachers, parents, students, and buildings. The former leader is both an interior particle, an exterior burr, and a vital part of the pre-history of the setting. The exterior burrs for this private school happen to be the educational influence of Guilford College, the tradition of Quaker religion and education, and the amorphous board of directors of the school. In another situation, these exterior burrs might well be the educational community, the teaching of American citizenship, and the influence of the central office administration of a school system.

Ideally, the qualities, values, and characteristics of one paramecium in the model ascending the staircase merge with the other footprint-

paramecium as they climb each of the steps of a successful setting creations. The theory of the leadership in action is reconceptualized on the spot. Praxis occurs because theories are adjusted in midst of play as on a soccer field because the coach, like the theorist, does not stubbornly cling to one play. In praxis or reflective action, the theory changes in action and in play.

When people and action merge in a harmonious blending of work and thought, the process itself leads to stimulation of more productive work and thought which produces a suitable climate for improvement.

In his long poem Four Quartets, T.S. Eliot has an image which comes from the third quartet poem "Dry Salvages." The comparison of person with music could be a symbol for the harmonious blend suggested for productive praxis:

> ...but you are the music
> While the music lasts.[70]

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[70] T.S. Eliot, "Dry Salvages," in The Complete Poems and Plays (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1952), section V, lines 28-29.

CHAPTER IV

THE CREATION OF A SETTING: NEW GARDEN FRIENDS SCHOOL

In artistic or literary criticism, the creator is judged by accepted standards of form, medium, content, skill, and universality of appeal. In music, criticism judges a composer's creativity or a musician's performance of the written note. The dancer dancing is more central to that work of art, so that criticism includes the skill and interpretation of the art form. In the same way, the creation of an educational setting is like a work of art. Standards of criticism can be used to discuss and evaluate the performer as an integral part of the work of art. This simile is, however, oversimplified; there is more than one performer, roles constantly change, processes do not remain static, there is no final resolution. The simile is apt, however, if one considers the imaginative thinking and the shifting perspective necessary even to survive the stages, not to speak of the constant creativity necessary to continually reconcile dilemmas or conflicts with no hope of ever finding the answer.

Just as Eliot questions the separation of the person from the music in "Dry Salvages," so separating the creativity involved in the creation of a setting from the theories of educational research is questionable. Keeping the simile and the resemblance to the creation of a work of art firmly in mind, let us examine Sarason's suggested set of conceptions to objectify the creation of settings. (For clarity, they are separated and numbered.)

1. That a new setting has a pre-history, local and national; that locally many different individuals and groups have had a role in its birth;
2. that much of its past is in the living present and must be dealt with;
3. that resources are always limited and usually overestimated because of a sense of mission and boundless enthusiasm;
4. that conflict with the setting (and between settings) is a fact of social life exacerbated by the conflicts between ideas;
5. that verbal agreement about values is no substitute for forging a constitution that anticipates and helps deal with differences in values, ideas, and changes;
6. that the leader is inevitably a model for the thinking and acting of others; and
7. that in the usual unthinking course of things the leader visits on others his increasing sense of privacy, fear of openess, dependence on extrinsic factors as criteria of worth, and boredom;
8. that the usual structure of settings as well as the definition of and credentials for work tend to extinguish curiosity and the sense of challenge...[71]

The staircase model in figure 3 which uses five stages in the process of the creation of a setting with the three supporting and analyzing criteria for each stage needs only one further metaphoric comparison. The situational complexity of paramecium-like footprints was added to suggest a flow of action in the study. Suppose that the footprints are those of Fred Astaire in an intricate dance performance. Astaire would dance, not plod carefully. He would dazzle the eye with partial ascents and descents. At times he would dance on the railing or go backward or even dance on the walls through the magic of trick photography. He would use many different styles: tap, jazz, ballet, gymnastics. The metaphor admits no separation between dance and dance, between creator and creation. The metaphor is useful as long as we remember that there are many dancers on this conceptual stairway. Not only do they create different dances, but they also hear different music.

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[71]Sarason, The Creation of Settings, p. 277.

The thesis should be clearly stated once again: that the situational complexity in the analysis of the creation of the setting gives the process a power and personality of its own which is greater than the sum of its separate parts. To prejudge the success or failure of such a venture is not necessary if the venture produces leaders and followers who have learned from the process and can recognize the stages in objective analysis if not with absolute control. Indeed at times in the creation of a new setting, it may appear that no one has any control, that events produce outcomes with a power of their own.

The researcher also recognizes the special challenge she faced in being as objective as possible in researching a setting to which she gave leadership. Three personal-professional threads can be seen in the dissertation: the literary-artistic, the analytical, and the polemical.

The literary-artistic strand follows the metaphor of the creative person working with materials to fashion representation of her view. The parallel between the literary, expository writing which re-creates and analyzes an experience and the creation of a setting itself is similar to a landscape painting. Van Gogh's brilliant primary colors are not in actuality a representation of what exists, but the colors serve to dramatize a point of view and to enable others to gain new insight from a different perspective.

The analytical thread led to the rejection of a simple staircase model in Chapter III and produced a radically mixed metaphor in figure 3. The organic footprints tap dance while logic would procede up

numbered steps. While situations can be analyzed and categorized in convenient compartments, outcomes involving human beings with differing basic values often have unpredictable outcomes. The organic element was introduced to symbolize that unpredictability in a logical analysis.

The polemic strand recognizes that all action in curriculum is essentially political. The necessity for adaptation and change in schools involves educators in legislative functions with colleagues and clients in order to persuade others to a specific point of view. The precise use of language is part of a polemic, but a writer describing a personal involvement in a metaphoric artistic creation uses words chosen to represent that point of view. Endless qualification or disclaimers for each situation would render the points chosen for dramatic emphasis colorless. This researcher and writer wishes to emphasize that only five steps in the creation of settings were chosen to discuss the leader's role in the creation. Other viewpoints exist, and other points could have been chosen.

A blending of the artistic with the analytical was chosen to best represent situational complexity. Discussion of every viewpoint or a year-long progression of events was not chosen. Herein lies a dilemma: the leader's political role of persuading followers to a viewpoint to include both cognitive and affective learning is a part of this researcher's dilemma in analyzing the failure of that one role.

Pre-history

Each setting has a pre-history that locates it in the national and local culture. New Garden Friends School is no exception. Founded in

1971 by a group of Guilford College parents who found that public schools ignored values, the school ostensibly based its curriculum on Quaker values of individual worth, social cooperation, and non-violence. In fact, the culture which it institutionalized was the backstream of the white flight from integration and the separate commune outlook of the flower children of the sixties. In truth, the flight from reality was more dominant than the flight from integration because there were minority students, and the school's physical plant was the black AME Persimmon Grove Church near Guilford College.

When the new leader came, the school had existed for nine years from hand to mouth. It became apparent that a series of brief intense covenants would no longer sustain the school. Too little planning (both curricular and financial) became apparent. The observed dichotomy between the stated Quaker values of self-respect, group cooperation, and non-violence, and the actual social conditions within the school was alarming to some people. Indeed there was an individual self-esteem as intended, but the result was little respect for others: students, teachers, adults, parents, and property. Indeed there was a group cooperation, but to that were sacrificed academic excellence, basic skills, environmental cleanliness, goals or purpose, time frames, and planned teaching. Indeed there was a lack of physical violence (except for volcanic outbursts from the problem students), but the sublimation of violence into verbal abuse and oral put-downs was important to note.

The importance of language in this pre-history can not be over-estimated. Children were nurtured too much. Teachers had open classrooms where learning happened to groups because planning curriculum or structuring learning experiences was limited. Teachers and children were always affirmed, seldom evaluated. Sensitivity games were words the students knew better than the words report cards or grades. And love was a word often used in conversation.

At the mid-point of the ninth year, the school met in the classrooms of the Salvation Army Boys Club after moving from the Persimmon Grove Church to First Friends Church to Greensboro College. People in the old setting voiced a need for the creation of a new setting. The new setting would see the school as an integrated part of a multi-age Quaker learning community which would include Guilford College, Friends Homes, and the local community in a way never achieved by the mere location in the urban ghetto and the lip service paid to participating in that community. The location and the lip service to the urban ghetto and minority action did not make the school an integral part of that community.

A new location, clear values, and educational excellence could allow relationships between older students and the college and among the younger students and the senior citizens of Friends Homes. The old leader saw teacher evaluation, planning, financial security, definition, and institutionalization approaching. He became a teacher in the new setting.

The new leader hired by the board to create the new setting for education in a Quaker community was aware of some of the pre-history of the school and rapidly learned more. She had, however, her own

agenda for becoming a dancer in this dance. Within the structure of the public schools, she had turned some of her curriculum theory into practice. An interest in the educational applications of research into left and right brain hemisphericity had led her to pilot a reading and writing program which had many spatial, non-verbal activities directed to creative right-hemisphere learning. Initiating a teacher cell for peer supervision and evaluation was her first step toward making schools good places for teachers to work as well as good places for students to learn.

The new leader saw in the creation of a new setting a wider scope than a single classroom at a time. Her expertise in curriculum, scholarship, teaching from pre-kindergarten to college, and planning was seen as a positive power. With an intense time covenant of three years' duration with the people who voiced the need for a new setting, she could see the beginnings for an educational setting which balanced her agenda for cognitive learning within the old setting's agenda for affective experience.

The Leader in the Beginning Context

Although the new leader's agenda for the creation of a setting has been discussed, the choice of the new leader is an important factor in how the leader operates in the beginning context. With accurate hindsight, two factors were of paramount importance. First, the academic and planning strategies that the new leader brought as strengths would be most effective if that lack in the old setting had been evaluated

by the leaders for change. The board and faculty members who voiced the need for change had been at the point of evaluating the old leader and clarifying the values for the new setting. They unfortunately dropped these processes and expected the new leader and the new setting to start fresh without the need for evaluating or clarifying. Secondly, the voiced need for a new setting was wholeheartedly embraced by most board members, most teachers, and most parents, but not by all. Not all of any group clearly saw or supported the need.

Because of the lack of evaluation of the old setting and the old leader and the fact that the need for the new setting was not unanimously supported, the old problems and dilemmas would live again to plague the new setting and the new leader and would eventually determine the success or failure of the final effort. The new leader assumed that the values of curriculum planning and academic excellence voiced by the leaders who chose her expressed the values and goals of the whole community. Warm feelings and the missionary zeal of creating a new setting are an inadequate substitute for clarity about values.

The leader's operation in the beginning context of the new setting for New Garden Friends School was an orderly procedure of investigating the pre-history as well as conducting teacher interviews for priority setting and the formation of her core group. If she seemed to display some of those qualities attributed by Machiavelli to his ideal prince, it was by design and not out of adopting that leadership style. Feelings were always taken into account; but reflection, logistics, and strategies were actions of a leader bent upon being the activist-scholar as well

as the practical theorist who tested theory by constantly using it in action, in praxis. There are admittedly what we call Machiavellian characteristics in any leader, but those heroic qualities which set the leader apart also are the egocentric, manipulative qualities which isolate her.

There were several conditions that set up the initial enthusiasm which blinded the leader to the growing importance of the unevaluated work of the old setting. The former leader (who was now a teacher) and the new leader together ascertained the standards and requirements for upper school students and together hired another teacher whose organizational abilities complemented his obvious spontaneity. Buildings as distractions came into the picture very early because of a generous gift for the first building. The problems of construction, moving, and purchasing new physical embellishments were easily dealt with and covered up the urgency of the unresolved dilemmas of evaluation and values. Unexpected success in a weak area, fund raising, also obscured old dilemmas under the cover of the beginning excitement.

In all of these early beginnings, the leader's commitment was very strong to the point of foregoing money and career, number three on Brubaker's scale of commitments.[72] At first glance, the covenant with

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[72]Brubaker, Curriculum Planning, pp. 37-38.

the new setting was seen to be very intense over a long period of time; but hindsight shows that intensity cannot be sustained at the same high level even over a short period of time such as a year. The leader's intended use of power was clearly expertise and succorance. There was, however, in the perception of others, a fine line between expertise and positional authority. What might have seemed to the leader to be a use of power depending on expertise was often seen by others as power from positional authority. Succorance also became a blurring and blurred distinction. The new leader's style most often depended chiefly on succorance of the group process and individuals as teachers and as means toward educational ends. Certain members saw succorance only as personality nurturing which cultivated needs of the individual teachers at the expense of both the faculty group process and the needs of children. For some, it was more important to get to know each other thoroughly than to address the educational and group dilemmas.

Finding Priorities for Resources and Values

In the beginning context, extensive individual teacher interviews were conducted by the new leader both to gather more information about institutional and individual pre-history as well as to begin setting priorities for resources and values. It became clear from interviewing teachers who were factors in the old setting that evaluation and curriculum planning were priorities. The emerging issue of evaluation was one which meshed with the leader's perceived expertise in peer super-

vision and evaluation. In this case, the leader's expertise was the resource; and the ability and time to share her expertise seemed unlimited at first. Through many classroom observations and individual conversations, the leader satisfied this priority by reaching evaluations by way of the teacher's self-evaluation of strengths and weaknesses, the leader's independent observation, a discussion of the areas to be improved, and an agreed-upon written summary. This technique owes much to the descriptions by Mayhew of John Dewey's weekly faculty meetings to evaluate successes and failures in the Chicago Lab School of a more leisurely age.[74]

The leader's expertise as an unlimited resource was a myth both in the case of evaluation and in the case of innovations in math and reading curricula. Just as the leader followed to conclusion the one problem in evaluation, so she "sold" the innovation in reading called Success in Reading and Writing to individuals who then generated group enthusiasm.[75] A demonstration of the new techniques and a classroom critique of each teacher's adaptation of the technique was all time permitted within the school year. The myth of unlimited resource of the leader as curriculum innovator was soon disspelled. Curriculum innovation did, however, meet several stated priorities of time and

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[74]Mayhew, The Dewey School, p. 69.

[75]Anne H. Adams, Success in Reading and Writing (Santa Monica, California: Goodyear, 1976).

subject area management. Although it was always stated in different terms, one of the things all teachers valued was an effort to reach the learning modes of the right hemisphere of the brain with non-traditional learning techniques geared to other activities than the traditional pencil-and-paper sequential activities.

Formation of the Core Group

The formation of the core group began during the initial teacher interviews and in the course of the new leader's enlightenment about the pre-history of the setting. An experienced primary teacher came first with the second being a dynamic director of the third and fourth grade program. At first it seemed as if the former leader would be part of this core group because of the intellectual compatibility of the one-on-one working relationship. This relationship was not manifested in the whole group dynamic and soon deteriorated into a situation of unresolved dilemmas containing a silent, aggressive minority.

Two new teachers with standards of excellence as well as flexible teaching techniques came next in the core group to join the academic orientation of the core group. These four were the generators of ideas along with the leader as well as her strong support within the larger group. This group functioned as a sounding board and a supporting group. Over a period of time, the core group replaced the leader in the operation of the larger group.

The emerging role of the core group in the operation of the school made them strong leaders when the leader took on too many roles. The core group did not always function with coordination and agreement, but it did fulfill Burns' advice for a leader to make leaders of his followers.

Even in these early stages the seeds for decline and possible death were already sown. There were too many unvoiced assumptions, too much attention to individual teaching values and none to the community values of the school, and many differing assumptions about and by the leader which were inaccurate. At this point in the dance, a lesson from the road company of the play She Stoops to Conquer would have been valuable. The two stars of the Philadelphia production, John Gielgud and Ralph Richardson, took turns playing the roles of hero and villain on alternate nights. Imagine their heightened awareness of their own roles made possible by the switch. Switching roles was impossible for the leader in a financially unstable setting, but an awareness of playing too many roles would have postponed the uncertainty of decline and withdrawal. The roles of curriculum director, supervisor, fund raiser, publicity agent, construction supervisor, and administrator for business were too many for any one person. The myth of unlimited resources was unrealistically perpetuated by the leader in her assumption of too many roles.

Constitutionality

It appeared in the early beginnings that the rules or governance or constitutionality of the new setting could be firmly established to

take care of problems or difficulties that might arise. The weekly staff meeting was the de jure governing body as teachers and leader talked over the problems and dilemmas and reached decisions concerning the time management and subject structure of the school as well as the day-to-day operating procedures. Once a suggested rule or policy was discussed and a course of action agreed upon, that rule would become part of the governing constitution. The leader discussed problems in a collegial atmosphere with teachers.

A symptom of the underlying dilemma became apparent by mid-year. Rules agreed upon by the faculty for meeting emerging difficulties were then flagrantly violated by some teachers. Angered with the violation of Quaker consensus as well as the infringement upon the constitutionality, the leader reverted to positional authority to enforce the will of the faculty group. The most effective procedure would have been reflection while waiting for the faculty to take action on the violation of its own constitutionality. The dichotomy of the egocentric and heroic qualities of the leader are never more apparent that when a leader reacts in anger. This instance of anger illustrates the situational complexity which makes it difficult for a researcher or theorist to be directly involved with the additional responsibility of praxis.

By mid-year, it was also apparent that the signs of death and decline were present. In the leader's sense of privacy and superiority and boredom, one could see that the excitement of the new beginning had vanished. The angry thrust to enforce the group's own rules upon group members who had participated in consensus was the touchstone. The myth

of unlimited resources was a most significant declining sign. The new leader had tried to fill all the roles. As it became clearer that she could not fill all the roles, she looked to the board members who had voiced the need for the new setting and found them inactive and dormant as if choosing the new leader had been an overwhelming effort from which they could now rest.

As she began reactivating dead committees and searching for more delegation of power, the specter of old dilemmas arose. Although it was clear by that time that both the intensity and the commitment of the leader had declined in a phase of withdrawal, the leader set in motion a task force mechanism to force the school community to evaluate the old setting and to agree upon school values. It now appeared that the silent aggressors were becoming a vocal minority because they had never agreed with the voiced need to create the new setting. If the new setting were to continue evolving, it was vital that all this talk about warm feelings, self-esteem, new buildings, and creativity would have to take second place to clarifying and reaching consensus on at least a few common values.

The danger point of values clarification which should have been faced before the beginning became the overwhelming dilemma which needed reconciliation. The danger point was epitomized when during the process of clarification, one of the part-time teachers listed twenty-seven responsibilities of a teacher in a school community and education of children was not listed as one of her responsibilities.

Epilogue: After the Ending

At the end of the first year, the task force to clarify values was meeting once a week. Nine other committees to deal with the dilemmas in other areas had also been resurrected by the leader. The functions of the group process took over the operation of the school with an endless procession of parent meetings, committee meetings, faculty meetings, and board meetings to the point that education of the children was lost as the process took on a personality of its own.

During the first half of the second year, the leader's withdrawal permitted the values of the vocal minority to prevail. The structural complexity and the multiplicity of roles assumed by the leader weakened her covenant. When feelings became more important as a value than education, the leader withdrew completely, counting this effort at the creation of a new setting a failure. The failure was not necessarily hers alone, however, as others who supported academic excellence also withdrew.

The school was restructured by a new chairman of the board. The school faced the potentially crippling fate of other alternative schools of the sixties: a small private school with financial difficulties.

The leader's failure amounted to an exercise in situational complexity and a lesson in not probing deeply enough into the pre-history of unreconciled dilemmas. As a learning experience and as an opportunity for reflective action in curriculum planning and theorizing, the creation of a setting was a personal success because it left the leader with some eagerness to reflect on this practical application of theory and to try again, having learned from her errors.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The problem which the study addressed was exploring the issues and dilemmas that arise in implementing theory into practice in an educational setting. The working hypothesis of the study was that it was possible to create a new model to represent the situational complexity of leadership in the creation of a new setting. A methodology that set out to apply curriculum theories in a systematic manner to be assessed in the new setting was adopted. A narrative of interpretive inquiry was the form chosen so that the study would take the form of a creation of a work of art. The curriculum theories were applied in the same way that decoding techniques are used in beginning reading. The implementation of theory into practice paralleled the fusion of decoding skills into practice which leads to comprehension of the written word. The model was developed to embody the order, sequence, and proof required by educational research. The social psychology of Seymour Sarason and the dynamics of curriculum planning according to Dale Brubaker were the systems used to develop the model for the creation of a new setting. Both were used to elucidate and analyze the experience in an actual excursion into the creation of a new setting.

The significance of the study rested on its attempt to present information about the gap between researchers' innovations and implementation in the schools. It was also significant in that it examined the necessity of theory being modified in practical action and of researchers following through the implementation process as well as teachers being part of the research and planning. The study presented the concepts of change, conservation, and creative leadership in order to relate them to the dilemmas faced by leaders in the situational complexity of creating a new setting. The study also advanced the idea that the setting has a power and personality of its own which is not merely the sum of its separate parts. The study provided a conceptual model to assess the effective operation of the creation of a new setting for curricular change and educational improvement.

The definitions in Chapter I formed the basic value assumptions for the two essays in that chapter. The two essays functioned as positional papers as well as value bases for curriculum theory. Curriculum, praxis, and the creation of settings were concepts which formed a core of understanding in this study of researched innovation and practical implementation. The hidden or unintended curriculum was a significant factor in working toward a hypothesis that real change for educational improvement involves more than technical innovations. Real change involves an attitudinal shift toward the process itself instead of simply learning new teaching techniques. Illuminating the differences between an authoritarian bureaucratic procedure and a combination of shared decision making involving researcher, administrator, and teachers was the viewpoint presented in the discussion of the hidden curriculum.

Praxis was viewed as the central concept in this attempt to bridge the gap between theory and implementation. The power of the hidden curriculum was explored as the force which may blunt theory on the classroom door. The interaction which is denoted by the dynamic interchange between researchers' theories and the teachers' implementation was seen as crucial praxis, theory being taken into the classroom, modified and adapted by actual practice, and rediscussed as an adjusted theory by all parties. The leader was seen as a key element in facilitating the process.

The literature review established the existence of strands of scholarship in which individual researchers or groups were linked by the evolution of theories on change and leadership. In the section on change and conserving in education, the important difference between change and innovation was attributed to Seymour Sarason. This distinction, along with Dale Brubaker's explanation of first- and second-order change strategies, were the two touchstones with which to discuss educational change trends from Dewey to Toffler. The important difference between the present back-to-basics movement and the golden age of the schooling decade (1957-1967) formed the basis for the perceived conserving element in education. Alvin Toffler's stability zones in education were seen as key elements in conserving for the future.

Great attention was paid to the aesthetic methodology necessary for clear distinction. Language was made precise with definitions. Metaphors, anecdotes, and comparisons were used systematically in order to avoid jargon. The value base of chosen words was examined carefully.

In the section on leadership, three categories were examined and found insufficient to express the extended dimensions necessary for a leader to go beyond the skills of a business manager. The listing of leadership traits, the examining of a leader's behaviors in various situations, and the dissecting of group dynamics were evolving states toward a definition of creative leadership. Ernest Melby, James McGregor Burns, and Jean Lacoutre provided significant perspectives on the final dimension of leadership which embodies the will of the followers and seeks to make every follower a leader.

Chapter III used the critical models of Sarason and Brubaker to construct a new model for the situational complexity involved in creating a new setting. The five crucial steps in Sarason's creation of settings were reinforced with Brubaker's analysis of commitment, covenant, and power. The paramecium-footprints of the leader and the alternative school made the ascent of such a model staircase an organic relationship with every new situation and individual precipitating complex interrelationships and outcomes. The impossibility of representing such a complex interaction in the static dimensions of words and paper was recognized.

The description of the model was expected to serve as a guide for the fourth chapter which was a case study of the researcher's experience in creating a new educational setting at New Garden Friends School. The five steps described by Sarason were used as headings for stages in the process of creating the setting. Some of the writer's experiences as principal, curriculum director, and business manager served to illustrate stages in the process. The disparity between the group

process and the lack of agreed-upon definition of the goals and values of the school formed a dramatic contrast to the usual lack of attention to process. The stages of negative elimination of challenge for the leader and the decline of the setting were compared to Sarason's analysis of decline and the death in any setting.

Conclusions

This study does not represent conventional statistical research. What it has done is offer a new way of analyzing leadership in curriculum design by studying the process of creating a new setting. Regardless of the methodology of the inquiry, some statement of conclusion seems appropriate. From an examination of the theories and studies about how theories are implemented, some conclusions can be drawn about this case study in praxis.

1. It is possible to fashion a method of inquiry which includes interpretive narration as well as the sequence, order, and proof required by educational research.

2. A method of inquiry should be based on consideration of the interconnectedness among researchers, teachers, and leaders in bridging the gap between innovation and implementation.

3. Formalistic inquiry into the theories of other curriculum designers should be coupled with inquiry into case studies of actual implementation inside schools in order to cover the whole range of curriculum in theory and in practice.

4. It is possible, through this combination of critical endeavor, to design a model which represents an organization of the existing

knowledge of the particular concept as well as to provide a device for analyzing an experience in the creation of a new setting from the viewpoint of the leader.

5. The postulated stages of Seymour Sarason's creation of settings designs were used as headings in order to assess the experience of a leader who attempted to use the process of change as a major factor in extending the scope of administration beyond that of the skills of a business manager. These experiences were compared with the change and innovation in bureaucratic public schools in order to focus on the process itself rather than the programmatic innovations possible in any setting.

6. While the style chosen for this study included both formalistic inquiry and narrative interpretation of personal experience, it is recommended that future inquiry include formalistic study and implementation research by a curriculum designer or a leader. The situational complexity of both responsibility for and objective analysis of theory implementation dissipates energy which could be directed toward a more extensive continuum in the research-implementation gap.

Recommendations for Further Study

As defined by Sarason in Chapter II, innovation and change for educational improvement involve two different approaches. While innovation involves new regularities existing side by side with old regularities, change involves an alteration in regularities, an attitudinal shift in ways of thinking about teaching children. There are several programmatic recommendations which could provide areas for future study or research.

During this study, it became apparent that vocabulary is a powerful force in education and especially in curriculum theorizing. As soon as one begins to use words, the dissecting of experience has begun. The choice of precisely defined words or the use of educational jargon makes a significant difference. Words become propaganda, infused with the emotion of weight of political persuasion, as was seen in Chapter IV describing New Garden Friends School. The weight attached to apple pie and motherhood serves as an example of how simple words have become charged with emotion. Curriculum workers might construct one or more analytic linguistic frameworks to involve the following concrete steps:

1. Establishing a list of significant words used by curriculum workers, leaders, teachers, students, and parents in particular schools.

2. Deriving a dictionary of meanings from such a list and studying the differences in definitions given to the same words by the various groups in a school.

3. Initiating a study of a series of faculty meetings or planning sessions in which precise words and agreed upon definitions are used instead of facile jargon. The study might be linked to effectiveness of the group in achievement of its goals.

4. Comparing the operating vocabularies of leaders in group meetings and in dealings with individuals in order to ascertain style, effectiveness, or additional dimensions of the leadership role.

The second programmatic recommendation concerns the process of educational change. As Goodlad, Sarason, and this study have shown,

it is the process itself which is a key factor, not necessarily the programs or innovations to be implemented. The mechanics of the process, its nature over a long period of time, and the relationship with the conserving element in education are all directions for more extensive long-term studies. Research projects might

1. Establish experimental three-to seven-person discussion groups in schools to confer at regular intervals on work-related issues and to propose alternative techniques for dealing with problems. Changes in the hidden or unintended curriculum might then be traced through origins in the study group. As a part of a theoretical design, the use of these quality circles in Japan might be compared with unit groups in schools.

2. Establish stability zones in areas of school life that might be conserved through the next two decades. Toffler's books, Future Shock and The Third Wave might be used to set up a variety of theoretical and non-theoretical designs to select such zones.

The third programmatic recommendation that might lead to future research lies in the area of value bases. Implicit in this study and explicit in the cited works by James B. Macdonald are the value bases for curriculum issues. Just as the supposedly value-free theories of Jean Piaget, B.F. Skinner, and Benjamin Bloom in truth are based on values, so a value base can be abstracted from the whole range of curriculum issues from mastery learning to the creation of new settings. Finding the value base of any curriculum issue should be quite clearly separated from Tyler's method of deriving goals and experiences from

all available sources. The guiding principle should be the Latin query qui bono? (for whose good?). In the process of using that question as the touchstone, value bases begin to emerge from issues and can be more precisely defined. If the answer to the question is for the good of administrators in order to facilitate the paper work of the bureaucracy, then the derived value base will be different from one which is for the good of the teachers in order to make teaching for the standardized tests more uniform. Still different values might be perceived when the answer concerns the good of the students so that their motivation and attitudes toward learning could improve. An altogether different perspective might be found if the answers all concern the good of society. When the usual society of a school is examined, a pattern emerges of frontal teaching position, students marching in line, class changes regulated by the clock and human beings learning to obey orders from central office to principal to teachers to students. It was said of the Nazis in Germany that at least they made the trains run on time. The comparison with a well-regulated authoritarian school raises some provocative questions. If the aim of education is to produce thinking citizens who can actively participate in a democratic society, it might be necessary to give them some practice during their formative twelve years in schools. It might also be necessary to set up some models of behavior in the persons of their teachers behaving as intelligent participants in the process of a democratic education instead of fearful myrmidons who execute without scruple the masters' orders.

Some other programmatic research possibilities stemming from the search for value bases might

1. Determine the value bases of selected programs or processes in a school by applying the query qui bono? and analyzing the alterations necessary for the answer to shift closer to the good or interest of the learner.

2. Assess the extracted value bases of a set of beginning teachers and a set of veteran teachers and use the assumed values to compare teaching techniques and intended outcomes for similar programs taught by teachers of different experience and values.

3. Project the curriculum areas probable in schools at the millenium and assess the significance of firm value basis in teaching in an even more rapidly accelerating technological age.

Theoretical and Critical Studies

Three categories of educators, teachers, leaders, and curriculum designers, have been central to this study. In the case study involving New Garden Friends School, an example of the leader as both principal and curriculum director was presented. Often principals are not so closely involved with curriculum design in a large system which has curriculum directors for each area in the system. Advocating an over-balance in the opposite direction, involving teachers in curriculum planning, is necessary to achieve the happy medium of all three categories being actively involved in curriculum planning, innovation, and

the real change which could lead to the creation of new settings for education. Of course, the basic assumption in any discussion of these three categories is that most curriculum planning is for the good of the students.

Writing about change in education necessarily involves an examination of its purposes as well as analyzing the value bases if significant improvement involving more than programmatic innovation is to occur in schools. Critical writing about educational purposes may be centered around Jurgen Habermas' reasons why human beings gather information. His reasons are 1) gathering information or knowledge for controlling or manipulating people or situations, 2) gathering knowledge or information for understanding social and cultural phenomena, and 3) gathering information or knowledge for the emancipation or liberation of human potential.[77]

A speculative discussion of the relationships between Habermas' paradigm and the dimensions of teacher, leader, curriculum researcher interaction would involve each of the groups surrendering significant territory of control in order to work toward not mere understanding but also toward liberation of each learner's potential. A healthy working relationship among adults in an educational setting could liberate more than students in centered learning. Both teachers and leaders could make strides toward self-actualization if the climate

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[77]Jurgen Habermas, Knowledge and Human Interests, trans. Jeremy J. Shapiro (Boston: Beacon Press, 1971), p. 35.

of the setting were stimulating. Curriculum theorists could also find a liberation in following theory through its implementation praxis and working with teachers in a shared modification of the original theory.

Instead of a simple linear representation

THEORY ⟶ PRACTICE

figure 4

Design based on Tyler's Rationale

a more complex and active representation would be more accurate. The Venn diagram consisting of three interlocking circles as figures upon the ground of the educational setting gives a better idea of the overlapping and the complexity involved although even that representation does not contain enough of the action and interaction present in situations of many more dimensions than one.

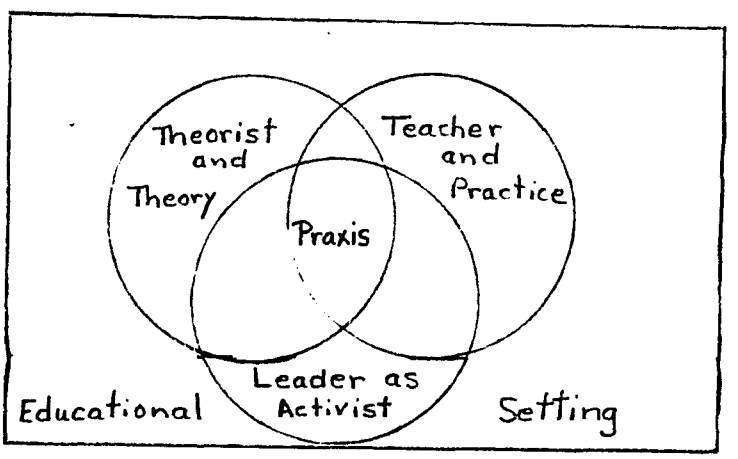

figure 5

Interactions of Theory and Practice

Although the representations are static and convey no impression of action, the model does represent the complexity of theory and practice with separate territories and praxis as the focus. The overlapping areas of the Venn circles suggest that theory is altered by the interaction and that practice is also changed by direct interaction with the theory. The leader serves as a catalyst to activate the ivory tower research and the daily classroom implementation interaction. The extra dimension of the leader as efficient business manager and stimulating visionary is suggested by labeling the leader as an activist.

Extending the dimensions of curriculum research to include teleological realms for both curriculum in praxis and leadership in addition to business management leads to speculation beyond the programmatic mechanisms of innovation into the broad avenues of real change for improvement in education. Further research in these areas could address such questions as

1. What are the real aims or purposes of education as perceived by leaders, teachers, parents, and students in a school and how much of the school's time and energy are spent in direct action toward the perceived aim?

2. What are the implications of modeling dictatorial behavior in schools and teaching community action in social studies and citizenship classes? Could Eichmann's defense that he was only following orders become the motto of a new generation?

3. What is an effective method to instill shared decision making or consensual planning into the fabric of a school so that it will endure in the school beyond the tenure of an inspired curriculum worker or that of a visionary leader?

4. How can teachers become active participants in the theorizing process and how can theorists follow through implementation of theory into long term classroom practice?

5. What effect would dwindling school populations, drastically slashed funding, and the abolition of tenure have on greater collaboration between schools of education and teachers as scholar-theorists?

6. What are the moral issues that must be defined by school populations in order to have stability zones in educational settings during the next eighteen years as the millenium approaches?

7. How can key persons in schools, such as leaders, teachers, and researchers be stimulated to achieve that extra dimension so that schools might shed the factory metaphor and be inspired to a new metaphor and a new reality?

In the educational settings to come where children find quiet centers for liberation of their potential; and theorists, teachers, and leaders work in a stimulating atmosphere of curriculum praxis, Yeats' poetic description from "Among School Children" might become a reality. The chestnut tree and the inseparable dancer and dance might become a new metaphor for schools.

> Labor is blossoming or dancing where
> the body is not bruised to pleasure soul,
> Nor beauty born out of its own despair,
> Nor blear-eyed wisdom out of midnight oil.
> O chestnut tree, great rooted blossomer,
> Are you the leaf, the blossom, or the bole?
> O body swayed to music, O brightening glance,
> How can we know the dancer from the dance?[78]

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[78]William Butler Yates, "Among School Children," in The Collected Poems of William Butler Yeats (New York: Macmillan, 1959), lines 57-64.

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