A CASE STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING IN A SCHOOL ESTABLISHED TO INCREASE DECISION-MAKING BY TEACHERS IN AREAS OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION BY SUSPENDING BUREAUCRATIC CONSTRAINTS

by

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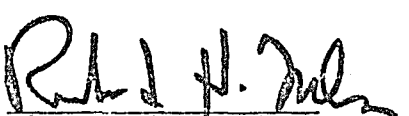

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ABSTRACT

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The organizational structure of one elementary school of the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System was changed to provide opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction. This was done through the establishment of a Cooperative Experimental School Project initiated between the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, and the School of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, in the spring of 1973. A basic premise of the project was concern for improving the education of children. It was felt those who interact most closely and most often with children should make most of the basic decisions about instructional programs for them.

The school established an organization which provided for suspension of the bureaucratic constraints commonly associated with schools. This organization was designed to invest teachers with more direct decision-making authority. It was expected that teachers' professionalism would be enhanced as a result of having greater input into the decision-making process. In implementing the model, teachers were given such instructional options as non-gradedness, multi-aged grouping, differentiated staffing, and more favorable adult-student ratio.

The designers of the Model School Project took the position that teachers were professionals and the school was obligated to provide the climate and opportunities for them to function as such. This dissertation sought to determine the effects of the new organizational pattern on teacher decision-making relevant to curriculum and instruction in the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School. Specifically, the study focused on four questions:

1. Had the organizational scheme of the Cooperative Model School provided opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction?

2. Had the anticipated conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional values occurred?

3. What were the areas of conflict and why were they present?

4. What factors had contributed to this conflict?

The literature researched and reported herein, through case study, strongly suggested that teachers had become increasingly concerned about their role in decision-making involving curriculum, materials selection, certification, and other matters within the realm of professional responsibilities of the teacher.

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The writer wishes to express his appreciation to his Committee Chairman, Dr. Roland H. Nelson, Jr., and to the other members of the Committee: Dr. Dale Brubaker, Dr. Joseph Bryson, Dr. Dwight Clark, and Dr. William Noland.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, there was a strong emphasis on curriculum development and change. There were national curriculum projects with staffs made up predominately of academicians and theorists that produced many ideas in curriculum and new educational jargon. Decisions concerning these ideas and developments were made, as had been the case traditionally, primarily by people other than classroom teachers. Included were such programs for the elementary and secondary schools as:

"Project English," a cooperative venture between the U. S. Office of Education and major universities around the country:[1]

"The School Mathematics Group," formed at a conference of mathematicians sponsored by the American Mathematical Society and financed by the National Science Foundation;[2]

"PSSC Physics," developed by the Physical Sciences Study Committee, with support from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Ford Foundation;[3]

"CBA Chemistry," (the chemical bond approach) and "CHEMS Chemistry," (the chemical education material study) developed by groups

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[1]J. Lloyd Trump and Delmar F. Miller, Secondary School Curriculum Improvement, Proposals and Procedures (Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968), p. 69.

[2]Ibid., p. 147.

[3]Ibid., pp. 170-71.

sponsored by the National Science Foundation.Both advocate a research chemist's approach to the learning of chemistry;[1] "BSCS Biology," developed by the Biological Science Curriculum Study, a subsidiary of the National Science Foundation;[2] "ESCP Earth Science," developed by the Earth Science Curriculum Project sponsored by the American Geological Institute;[3] "Project Social Studies," sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education through the cooperation of colleges, universities, state departments of education, and public schools.[4]

In addition to the many curriculum plans, a multitude of teaching innovations were introduced into the classroom. Many teachers tried such innovations as team teaching, flexible scheduling, independent study, open classrooms, individualized instruction, continuous progress and non-gradedness. But, as House pointed out, "The teacher does not usually initiate an innovation, but he almost always decides whether he will implement it or more precisely the degree to which he will use it. The teacher's power in education innovations is that he can veto for himself. He is the ultimate consumer."[5]

Traditionally, the classroom teacher relied heavily upon the teaching position as a source of authority to gain unauthorized power or

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[1] Ibid., p. 172.

[2] Ibid., p. 173.

[3] Ibid., p. 175.

[4] Ibid., p. 197.

[5] Ernest R. House, The Politics of Educational Innovation (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1974), p. 67.

"functional autonomy."[1] This source of authority has been effectively used to accept or reject curricular innovations or ideas originating outside the classroom.

Today's teachers attempt to be more involved in the initiation and planning stages of curriculum development. They sought recognition as curricular and instructional experts. Having seen themselves as professionals, teachers sought to exercise more control over matters for which they were responsible. "Teachers have organized a number of bodies which, by virtue of their claim to a special field of knowledge, seek to control such decisions as to whether to administer psychological tests, what to do with slow learners and gifted children and which are the preferred textbooks and teaching methods."[2]

In the negotiated agreements of most teacher contracts were the provisions directly or indirectly relating to the curriculum decision-making process. Teachers had been found to be content with limiting their negotiating to the "bread and butter issues." The National Education Association (NEA) reports that "many negotiation agreements between boards of education and teacher organizations guarantee professional staff participation in curricular decisions. The structure ranges from joint teacher-administrative committees to develop policy on any matter of common concern to committees directed to curriculum decision-making."[3]

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[1]Ronald G. Corwin, A Sociology of Education, Emerging Patterns of Class, Status, and Power in the Public Schools (New York: Appleton, Century-Crafts, 1965), p. 26.

[2]Ibid., pp. 129-30.

[3]NEA Research Bulletin, XLVIII (December 1970), p. 106.

Teachers turned to bargaining for several reasons. Among these were economic security, better working conditions, better educated teachers, more men entering the profession, greater emphasis given to the use of collective powers in professional groups, and the frequent dysfunctional aspects of a bureaucracy. (In schools, certain dysfunctional consequences of bureaucracy have been seen by many writers as being self defeating and restrictive to the process of creative curriculum and instruction development.)

These dynamic aspects of bureaucracy, Blau pointed out, contradictorily are not part of a rigid and unyielding system. Bureaucrats have made changes and adaptations of rules to meet the need for flexibility to some extent. However, these bureaucracies have also developed dysfunctions. They continue to operate, but the bureaucratic machinery turns out some kind of output that can best be described as unanticipated consequences. One of these outputs is displacement of goals or inversion of means and ends.[1] This inversion results in the blind following or execution of rules and directives without questioning their value or purpose. To some people in schools or other organizations, rules, plans, and controls become ends to be pursued without thought as to whether or not they contribute to the organization's objectives.

In discussing still other effects of the bureaucratization of schools, Edinger and Nelson pointed out that teachers, "do not and cannot function as professionals in the highly bureaucratic and semi-professional places called schools."[2] This view was supported by Myers, who stated,

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[1]Peter M. Blau, The Dynamics of Bureaucracy (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1955), pp. 251-65.

[2]Lois V. Edinger and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., "Can We Tolerate a Teaching Profession?" N. C. Educators (January 1974), pp. 12-13.

> "It is impossible for teachers to become further professionalized without an increase in their authority. The authority of the practitioner to follow his own dictates rather than being constrained by a superior, or even colleagues, is a basic characteristic of professionals. Virtually every sociologist of occupations places it high on the list of characteristics of a profession. . . Teachers live in a world where the organization has almost complete domination over their decisions."[1]

"A professional functions on the basis of an esoteric body of knowledge which he shares with colleagues but which few people outside the profession can understand."[2] The teacher in the classroom makes a professional judgment on the basis of knowledge of psychology, sociology, and educational theory. For example, if a teacher had decided that the most effective learning situation for a given student was to permit him to remain out of school for six weeks to engage in learning experiences not appropriate to a school environment, then that could be done. Such a decision, the authors pointed out, is not likely to be understood by the layman or the school organization, although it may be supported by knowledge and is a legitimate application of that knowledge. Professional decisions cannot be prescribed, as efficient bureaucracies expect, since conditions change from day to day and from hour to hour. According to the authors, "The more professional the decision, the more ambiguity there is likely to be in the situation calling for a decision."[3]

In an effort to give teachers a greater voice in decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction, a new model for school

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[1]Donald A. Myers, Teacher Power--Professionalization and Collective Bargaining, (Hereinafter referred to as Teacher Power) (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Co., 1973), p. 17.

[2]Edinger and Nelson, "Can We Tolerate a Teaching Profession?" pp. 12-13.

[3]Ibid.

organizational structure was designed. The school selected to implement the new model was Tarawa Terrace Elementary School II, located at Camp Lejeune, North Carolina. The school was one of five elementary schools in the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools system. The organizational design of the school was to remove curriculum and instruction decision-making from a bureaucratic structure and place it within a professional structure.

Significance of the Present Study

To implement the new model, a Cooperative Experimental School Project was initiated between the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, and the School of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, in the spring of 1973. The project was an effort to change the organizational structure of an elementary school to allow teachers to function in a more professional manner and to be more directly involved in the decision-making process for curriculum and instruction.

A basic premise of the project was the concern for improving the education of children by providing more opportunities for teachers to make critical decisions about curriculum and instruction.[1] It was felt that those who interacted most closely and most often with children were the ones to make most of the basic decisions about instructional programs for children.

Howard conceptualized the new school model as one option designed to provide teachers with a greater voice (in curriculum and instructional decision-making). The actual implementation of the model occurred

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[1]Consultant Report, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, October 11-12, 1973.

during the 1973-74 school year at Camp Lejeune, North Carolina.[1]

The school established an organization which provided for suspension of the bureaucratic constraints commonly associated with schools. This organization was designed to invest teachers with more direct decision-making authority. Enhanced professionalism on the part of teachers was expected as a result of their having greater input into the decision-making process. In implementing the model, teachers were given such instructional options as non-gradedness, multi-aged grouping, differentiated staffing, and more favorable adult-student ratio. This organizational scheme will be presented in detail in Chapter III.

Two assumptions were made in the beginning. First, teachers, when given more options and freedom, would exercise them in planning appropriate learning activities for children. Secondly, teachers knew much more of what to do than they were often given credit for in the typical school.

The program was designed to facilitate teacher decision-making so that teachers made sounder decisions about what to do, had the freedom to do it, and had the resources to implement their decisions. Teachers were not viewed solely as implementers of other people's ideas, but as professionals competent to make most of the major decisions about how to teach children.[2]

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[1]James M. Howard, Jr., A Study of the Relative Significance of Positional Authority and Expertise in an Experimental School (Ed. D. dissertation, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1974).

[2]Consultant Report, October 11-12, 1973.

In the cooperative relationship that was established between Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools and the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, there was early agreement to a basic principle: primary attention would be given to process, rather than to program. Two major assumptions were the basis for this principle. First, the end result or the product of schooling was generally agreed upon: a successful student was one with a healthy self-image; an inquiring mind; and training in the basic skills such as writing, reading, arithmetic, speaking. The process by which these goals were reached was the second issue, but was one not generally agreed upon. It was also the one which those in the cooperative relationship felt should be the subject of their time and energy.

Since the focus of this project was upon the decision-making process of the teachers, it was fitting that particular attention should be given to the processes involved. Selected as the subject of this dissertation was: A Case Study of Decision-Making in a School Established to Increase Decision-Making by Teachers in Areas of Curriculum and Instruction by Suspending Bureaucratic Constraints.

The designers of the Model School Project at Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School took the position that teachers were professionals and that the school should provide the climate and opportunities for them to function as such. This study sought to determine the effects of the new organizational patterns on teacher decision-making relevant to curriculum and instruction in the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Specifically, the study focused on the following questions:

1. Had the organizational scheme of the Cooperative Model School provided opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional

type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction?

2. Had the anticipated conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional values occurred?

3. What were the areas of conflict and why were they present?

4. What factors had contributed to the conflict?

Method of Investigation

The mechanics of this study utilized nonexperimental techniques--specifically, the case study method. McAshon pointed out that, "A case study may result from: (1) lack of information about a matter; (2) conflicting information about something deemed to be important; or (3) misinformation about some individual or group; or it may occur (4) just as an attempt to gain new insights into factors that result in a given behavior or complex situation."[1]

> "The great advantage of the case study approach, as far as adding to our body of knowledge is concerned, is that it is a tremendous producer of ideas, suggestions, and hypotheses about behavior..."[2] Conversely, according to the author, "The case study often assumes that all past experiences of the individual or past happenings in the situation have contributed to the final result. Second, more than other approaches, the traditional case study seems dependent upon the recall of others as to what has happened. Third, since case studies often involve a problem case, undesirable traits tend to be over-emphasized and undesirable characteristics tend to be underemphasized, thus limiting the extent to which results can be generalized to more typical situations. Finally, the case worker is likely to become frustrated with the incompleteness of the data he can obtain, and if more than one case is involved, with the variation in information from one situation to the next."[3]

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[1]Hildreth Hoke McAshon, Elements of Education Research, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1963), p. 21.

[2]G. C. Helmstadter, Research Concepts in Human Behavior. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crafts Educational Division., 1970), p. 52.

[3]Ibid., p. 53.

The researcher was aware of these disadvantages, but did not consider them to be a serious handicap to the study. The data most relied upon in this study were the individual logs kept by members of the faculty. In addition, supplementary data gathered through the use of personal interviews were used.

Because of the nature of this study, generalizations to similar situations may be difficult to make. Several examples serve to illustrate this point. Teachers in writing in their logs may have over-emphasized certain events, thus causing the researcher to draw invalid conclusions. The data presented in Chapter 3 suggests that undesirable events and situations overshadowed the desirable. A more precise instrument measuring teachers' attitudes and feelings concerning the project probably would not confirm strong teacher negativism. Finally, the researcher could not judge the accurateness or objectivity of the views of events presented by teachers in their logs or their interviews.

Definition of Terms

A number of terms appeared throughout this paper which were not fully defined in context. In the interest of clarity and understanding they have been listed and defined for the reader as follows:

curriculum. The term as used in this paper referred to all of the learning experiences of students under the direction of the school, planned or unplanned. For the purposes of discussion of the activities of teachers in the decision-making process, it has primarily referred to those experiences planned by teachers for students.

instruction. This term referred to the teaching methodology.

bureaucracy. From the literature on the subject, there was general agreement that bureaucracy had the following characteristics. Presthus lists them as:

1. Fixed and official jurisdictional areas, regularly ordered by rules, policies, regulations, and by-laws.

2. Principles of hierarchy and levels of graded authority that ensured a firmly ordered system of super- and sub-ordination in which those in higher offices supervised those in lower ones.

3. Administration based upon written documents.

4. Administration run by full-time, trained officials.

5. Administration planned according to stable and comprehensive general policies.[1]

authority. The right to perform an act because of the office held in an organization.

conflict. "To come into collision or disagreement."[2]

The review of related literature which follows focused on decision-making in educational settings from a historical and sociological viewpoint. Decision-making in other professional settings was also reviewed. The purpose of the literature search was to support and provide a basis for understanding and analyzing the data in the study.

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[1]Robert Presthus, The Organizational Society, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), p. 5.

[2]Laurence Urdong, ed., The Random House College Dictionary (New York: Random House, Inc., 1973), p. 282.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

"To be a member of an educational organization is to make decisions continuously."[1] Teachers have become increasingly concerned about the quality, the scope, and the influence their decision-making has on curriculum development, materials selection, certification laws, and other matters within the realm of their professional responsibilities. As a result,

> "Teachers are becoming a discipline problem. They are no longer waiting passively for others to seek their advice. They are offering their advice whether it is wanted or not. They are demanding the right to make decisions concerning their personal welfare, the educational program for students and the governance of their profession. They are no longer willing to remain silent or engage in collective begging--advising legislatures, boards of education, and administrators who then make decisions for them. They are demanding autonomy--the right of all professionals to govern their own affairs . . ."[2]

Accordingly, teachers' limited autonomy and lack of authority to make decisions, Myers has stated, are due to several factors.

> "Citizens . . . feel free to offer advice and criticism . . . Follow-up studies of high school graduates have revealed consistently that students have very definite views concerning teachers, curriculum, co-curricular activities and methods of instruction . . . Many parents feel especially free to offer suggestions and advice to teachers, since they consider themselves intellectually superior to teachers by virtue of more years of schooling . . . The teacher does not have unlimited control over his clients, the students.

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[1]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies, (hereinafter referred to as Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies.) (Berkeley, Calif: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1974), p. 5.

[2]Myers, Teacher Power, p. xiii.

> The teacher must accept all students sent to him in all but a few school districts, even if he considers himself unable to teach them . . . He teaches what he is told to teach. The prescription begins at the state legislature and extends all the way down . . . Textbooks in many schools are selected for the teacher or the teacher selects them from a list prepared by others."[1]

"The public," contrasts Myers, as he concludes, "can decide to build a bridge, but engineers decide how to build it; the public can establish a system of courts but lawyers determine who will try a case in court; the public can authorize the construction of a hospital but physicians determine the equipment needed and the medical treatment to be used with patients. Similarly, the public can establish a public school system, but teachers should decide what students will study and which experiences are most useful."[2]

As early as the 1900's, John Dewey had recognized the need for teacher involvement when he said of the University Elementary School:

> "If you will permit one personal word, I should like to say that it is sometimes thought that the school started out with a number of ready-made principles and ideas which were to be put into practice at once. It has been popularly assumed that I am the author of these ready made ideas and principles which were to go into execution. I take this opportunity to say that the educational conduct of the school, as well as the administration, the selection of subject matter, and the working out of the course of study, as well as the actual instruction of children, has been almost entirely in the hands of the teachers of the school; and that there has been a gradual development of the educational principles and methods involved, not a fixed equipment. The teachers started with question marks, rather than with fixed rules, and if any answers have been reached, it is the teachers in the school who have supplied them."[3]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 47-48.

[2] Ibid., p. 49.

[3] John Dewey, The School and Society, (New York: McClue Phillips and Co., 1900), pp. 113-29.

Involving teachers in instructional decision-making was an attitude not widespread in Dewey's time. Few people thought much of the idea, or even thought at all that teachers should play a role in determining school policies. In contrast, "The doctrine of educational administration then stressed the 'authority' of the superintendents, not 'democracy' and 'participation' as it does today. With regards to teachers and their spokesman, except for a few hardy souls promoting the cause of unionization, scarcely any addressed themselves to the question."[1] Rosenthal further pointed out that until the mid-1930's school administration was heavily influenced by concepts and practices associated with scientific management.

From the works of men like Franklin Bobbit and Ellwood Cubberly, Rosenthal had concluded that the school administrator prior to the mid-1930's was one who was supposed to know all the answers, hold all authority. Consequently, it was his job to supervise, lead, inspire, and befriend teachers. And while the administrator was encouraged to be humane in managing his staff and the instructional program, he viewed all policy decisions as being outside the rights and professional competence of teachers.[2]

With the advent of the human relations movement, the emphasis in much of the literature dealing with administration, and especially educational administration, emphasized democratic leadership. Admini-

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[1]Alan Rosenthal, Pedagogues and Power; Teacher Groups in School Politics, (hereinafter referred to as Pedagogues and Power.) (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1969), pp. 2-3.

[2]Ibid.

strators were urged to involve their workers or staffs in decision-making.

Argyris cited three reasons for this human relations movement.

> "The growth of trade unionism brought to light much of the discontent the employees had been feeling for years and placed the blame on poor management.
>
> "The research by Mayo, Roethlesberger, and Dickson had presented concrete evidence showing that productivity and human relations were intimately tied up. Poor human relations, wrote the authors, creates low production (e.g., rate setting and goldbricking) which leads to worse human relations which in turn leads to lower production."
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> "Many executives were beginning to develop a sense of social responsibility."[1]

Still another, more positive reason has been stated by Rosenthal.

> "A final reason, one that is usually left vague, is the cooperative approach promotes more effective administrative control of the educational enterprise. It permits administrators to artfully influence the behavior of their employees and it enables them by means of cooperation to discourage teacher tendencies toward anti-managerial orientation."[2]

While the validity of these reasons for involving staff in policy making has been obvious, Argyris has reminded educators that research shows:

> " . . . that under democratic conditions people do tend to feel that they are a part of a team and respected. However, this does not mean this will tend to be the case if a supervisor tries to be pseudo-democratic or democratic under autocratic conditions. We must not forget that the formal structure of most organizations and the management controls are fundamentally autocratic. The small group experiments from which the use of 'democratic leadership' seems to have arisen never coped with these two factors . . ."[3]

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[1]Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization; The Conflict between the System and the Individual, (hereinafter referred to as Personality and Organization.) (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), p. 139.

[2]Rosenthal, Pedagogues and Power, p. 4.

[3]Argyris, Personality and Organization, p. 150.

As he listed the three steps in the decision process Tannenbaum pointed out that the administrator's dream seemed to be that subordinates participate, but not control. Because there was always the possibility of participants gaining control, this was a source of tension. Even when administrators had made every effort to secure participation of subordinates, they were cautious to institute measures which guarantee that subordinates will not gain control or affect policy.[1]

Gross found that the majority of school superintendents and school boards want their teachers to participate in major policy decisions.[2]

In a 1949 study, Hoppock found the most frequent single suggestion by teachers for the improvement of administration was for teachers to be given more important roles in determining school policy.[3]

Another criticism, levied this time by Lefton, Dinitz, and Pasamanick, was that the hierarchial pattern of decision-making often obscured ideologies which supported the right of professionals to influence the decision process. They found in a study involving a psychiatric hospital that the ideological emphasis on team decisions contrasted with the fact that decisions were actually made by those who had the most authority within the hospital's hierarchy. The other committee members all professionals, did not find that their participation provided them

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[1]Robert Tannenbaum, "Managerial Decision-Making," The Journal of the University of Chicago 23 (January 1950): 22-39.

[2]Neal Gross, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role, (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 196.

[3]Robert Hoppock, "What Teachers Think of School Administrators," School Executive 69 (November 1949): 40-42.

with any power to make decisions even within their special spheres of competence. Merely assigning more authority to subordinates did not, then, guarantee that they were more satisfied if discrepancies remained between the power to implement their professional role conception and their employee status.[1]

An example of how bureaucratic and professional values work together was seen in a study by Goss of physicians in a large teaching hospital. It "indicates that, where there might have been conflict between bureaucratic standards and the professional values of physicians, there were instead institutionalized structural mechanisms that served to reconcile potentially discordant elements in ways that were approved by physicians as well as functional for their work."[2] She further pointed out that "the mechanism also served to give the organization a distinctive character of a type Weber did not explicitly describe"[3]. . .but that which she described as an advisory bureaucracy.

In addition, "it was found that physicians placed high value on assuming personal responsibility and exercising individual authority in making professional decisions."[4] Physicians' positions were

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[1]Mark Lefton, Simon Dinitz, and Benjamin Pasamanick, "Decision Making in a Mental Hospital," American Sociological Review 24 (December 1959): pp. 822-829.

[2]Mary E. W. Goss, Patterns of Bureaucracy Among Hospital Staff Physicians, ed. Eliot Friedson. The Hospital in Modern Society (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1963), pp. 170-190.

[3]Ibid., pp. 175-76.

[4]Ibid., pp. 176-77.

hierarchically organized, giving evidence of the existence of bureaucracy. Continuing conflict or strain as a result of curtailed individual authority had been anticipated. Yet, conflict was not apparent. This lack of conflict was explained by examining the role relationships between those who were formally superordinate and formally subordinate.

> "Individual authority in making professional decisions was not curtailed, by virtue of the fact that the hierarchy of positions entailed two different types of control relationships that varied according to whether the work was professional or administrative in nature. Only in the realm of administration did the supervisory hierarchy refer to a set of formal authority relationships, that is, to the right to make decisions with which subordinates have an obligation to comply. In the realm of professional work, the hierarchy referred to formal role relationships that are most properly termed advisory, that is, the right to give advice that subordinates are obliged to take under critical review, but not necessarily to follow in making their decision."[1]

According to the literature on educational decision-making, participation in decision making and delegation of minor decisions had been encouraged and enforced by school administrators while they had been careful to guard decisions that affect policy.

In most cases, Sharma reported, the percentage of teachers desiring participation in decision making was considerably larger than the percentage reporting such participation. Teachers especially wanted responsibility for decisions relating to instruction and curriculum. He concluded that teachers' satisfaction with their school was directly related to the correspondence between desired and actual decision-making practices among teachers.[2]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 176-77.

[2] Chiranji Lal Sharma, "Who Should Make Decisions?", Administrators Notebook 3 (April 1955): pp. 1-4.

Campbell, in discussing this role of the teacher has stated, "Their ideas or proposals for action make a difference to those who have the power to make final decisions."[1]

Another study sought to define participation in decision-making in operational terms and to study the personal and situational factor governing the administrator's tendency to provide for participation.[2] Bridges, in this study, hypothesized that principals with open-belief systems would provide for a significantly greater amount of teacher participation in decision-making than principals with closed-belief systems.

Contrary to the hypothesis, open-minded principals did not involve teachers in decision-making to a greater extent than did close-minded principals. The level of participation within the schools studied was related instead to the size of the school and the age and experience of the principal. In small schools, the older, experienced principals involved teachers to a greater extent than did any other grouping of principals. This behavior of the older principal was characterized by a heavy reliance on asking the teachers for possible solutions and then choosing from among suggested solutions. Younger principals, regardless of experience, most often resolved problems by choosing a course of action and announcing it to teachers. Sex of the

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[1]Ronald F. Campbell et al, Introduction to Educational Administration, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1958), p. 214.

[2]Edwin M. Bridges, "Teacher Participation in Decision Making," Administrators Notebook XII (May 1964): pp. 1-4.

principal, social class of the schools' clientele, or percentage of teachers spending their first year in the building had no significant relationship with the participation provided by the principal.[1]

In discussing the responsibilities of school administrators, Walton points out that instruction must be a chief area of responsibility.

> "In addition to his managerial responsibility, and his ambiguous role in the determination of overall educational policy, he must make innumerable decisions involving a great variety of technical and professional matters. He may, for example, be responsible for the adoption of new teaching methods, and the new mathematics curriculum, or the employment of a new physics teacher. He cannot absolve himself of the responsibility for the results."[2]

Administrators had realized the necessity of investing some of their authority in others. Such delegation of authority Anderson saw as a means by which the organization provided each of its members with the authority to carry out his responsibility.[3]

> "Since teaching is carried out by the lowest participants of the organization and is of an esoteric nature, a certain degree of authority must be delegated if the goals of the organization are to be met. The amount of authority delegated will depend upon expectations of gain for the organization resulting from the investment."[4]

A logical question followed: What did the teacher do with this authority? Barnard has found the individual had a great deal of latitude and responsibility for the process of legitimatizing authority. The

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[1]Ibid., p. 3.

[2]John Walton, "New Concepts in Educational Administration," Educational Administration: Selected Readings, 2d ed., ed. Walter G. Hack et all (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971), p. 230.

[3]James G. Anderson, "The Authority Structure of the School: A System of Social Exchange, Educational Administration Quarterly III (Spring 1972): pp. 130-148.

[4]Ibid., p. 142.

individual having received an order or command was the one who determined whether the command had authority. Authority, according to Barnard, did not reside with the person of authority, but within the person to whom it is addressed.[1] Each individual he described as equipped with a "zone of indifference" or "zone of acceptance" in which orders or commands were accepted more or less at face value. Thus certain commands were automatically given legitimate status if they fell within the range or boundary of specificity of the person of authority.[2]

> "A person can and will accept a communication as authoritative only when four conditions simultaneously occur: (a) he can and does understand the communication; (b) at the time of his decision he believes that it is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organization; (c) at the time of his decision he believes it to be compatible with his personal interest as a whole; and (d) he is able mentally and physically to comply with it."[3]

According to Boyan, contemporary organizational analysts had seen the potential for conflict between authority of position and the authority of competence when the organizational "subordinate" performs complex, technical tasks.[4] This source of conflict Parsons had identified by defining conventional bureaucratic authority and professional authority. Bureaucratic authority presumed a rational distribution of

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[1]Chester Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1964), p. 163.

[2]Ibid., pp. 168-69.

[3]Ibid., p. 165.

[4]Norman J. Boyan, "The Emergent Role of the Teacher in the Authority Structure of the School," Organizational and Human Behavior, Focus on Schools, (hereinafter referred to as The Emergent Role of the Teacher.), ed. Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergrovanni, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1969), p. 201.

power over a hierarchy of positions in which incumbents of superordinate positions possessed authority over subordinates. Professional authority on the other hand presumed a collegial rather than a hierarchial relationship in which the distribution of authority rested on demonstrated knowledge or competence. He further pointed out:

> "The source of discipline within a bureaucracy is not the colleague group but the hierarchy of authority. Performance is controlled by direction received from one's superior rather than by self-imposed standards and peer group surveillance, as is the case among professionals. The difference in social control, which is related to that between expertness and discipline . . . constitutes the basic distinguishing feature between professional and bureaucratic institutions which have otherwise many similar characteristics. The significance of this difference is brought into sharp relief if one examines people who are subject to both forms of social control . . .[1]

In support of this idea, Becker reported that teachers whom he had interviewed preferred the principal to work with them on a collegial basis in matters of curriculum and instruction. At the same time they wanted the administrator to exercise his positional authority to control pupil behavior and to regulate parental interference.[2]

Bidwell had identified the conditions in school systems which contributed to the development of bureaucratic tendencies among administrators and which perpetuated movement toward autonomy among teachers. Administrators, he pointed out, must assume responsibility for coordinating the tasks and activities of personnel to ensure the

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[1]Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 60-63.

[2]Harry S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School," Journal of Educational Sociology XXVIII (Sept 1953): pp. 128-41.

movement of pupils through the public schools at a relatively uniform pace. Responsibility for coordination tended to produce bureaucratic orientations and behavior, such as reliance on general impersonal directives from superordinates to subordinates. On the other hand, the "structural looseness" of school systems tended to generate a pattern of relatively unsupervised teacher behavior which supported and drew support from a professional norm in favor of teacher autonomy.[1]

There had existed in the traditional authority structure of the school two dimensions of authority, administrative and supervisory. According to Boyan, this administrative authority was the legitimate power to make rules and regulations which governed the behavior of members of an organization. Supervisory authority, then, referred to legitimate power which had been distributed to others for the definition of and assessment of specific tasks performance by members of the organization. The administrative officers of schools had traditionally exercised both dimensions of authority. The conflict arose because the administrative dimension of authority rested on the social control of organizational discipline, while the supervisory dimension presumably rested on the social control of expertness.[2]

> "The traditional structure assumes a differential in technical expertness between the teachers and administrators that justifies merger of the authority of position and the authority of competence at the managerial level. When teachers perceive that the assumed differential narrows, vanishes or reverses

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[1] C. E. Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," Handbook of Organizations, ed. J. G. March, (hereinafter referred to as The School as a Formal Organization), (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 1012-1018.

[2] Boyan, "The Emergent Role of the Teacher", p. 202.

itself, they tend to challenge vigorously one of the foundations of the existing structure."[1]

Initiative-prone teachers were found by Corwin more professionally oriented and less bureaucratically oriented than compliant teachers. They also exhibited consistently higher rates of conflict with the administrative authority structure of the school.[2]

No support for Moeller's hypothesis; that bureaucracy in school system organization induced in teachers a sense of powerlessness to affect school system policy,was found. Contrary to his expectations, teachers in "high" bureaucracies reported a higher sense of power over their own behavior than teachers in "low" bureaucracies. Teachers in "low" bureaucracies reported they received closer supervision which Moeller attributed in part to a lower administrator-teacher ratio and in part to more active community interest in the schools.[3]

The role of the teacher as a professional in a public bureaucracy had been little researched previously. The research available tended to confirm the conflict between administrative and supervisory authority.

This conflict between the administrative dimension and supervisory dimension of authority was seen by Brubaker and Nelson as the governance function of schools, on one hand, and on the other, as the

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[1] Ibid., p. 202.

[2] Ronald G. Corwin, "Militant Professionalism, Initiative and Compliance in Public Education," Sociology of Education XXXVIII (Summer 1965): pp. 310-331.

[3] Gerald H. Moeller, "Bureaucracy and Teachers' Sense of Power," Administrators Notebook XI (Nov 1962): p. 1.

curriculum and instruction function of schools. Governance, the administrative function, "encompasses the formal, legal rules and regulations that control the overall operation of the organization. Governance decisions provide a framework in which daily decisions are made."[1]

Curriculum and instruction, or supervisory functions, "refers to that area within the school . . . where learning experiences for students occur." Typical decisions that fall into each of the categories were outlined as follows:

"GOVERNANCE	"CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION
"Rules concerning health and safety in the school.	"The choice of course titles and content for such courses.
"Directives concerning the maintenance of buildings.	"Sequence and scope of the curriculum.
"The decision to initiate a bond issue and particular issues to be voted on.	"Choice of textbooks and other instructional materials.
"Particular accounting procedures for the receipt and dispersal of funds.	"The establishment of seminars for honor students.
"The formation of committees designed to maintain a working structure for the year.	"The decision to adopt team teaching as an alternative in ninth grade English."[2]

In light of the two distinctions, Brubaker and Nelson suggested that the governance functions represented a bureaucratic model of

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[1]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., Introduction to Educational Decision-Making, (hereinafter referred to as Introduction to Decision-Making), (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co., 1972), p. 37.

[2]Ibid.

organizational structure and that the curriculum and instruction functions represented a professional model of organizational structure.

> "The bureaucratic model is appropriate for schools when they have as their primary goal the production of incipient scholars, for the end is measureable, (the production of successful students). The means are known, (teach courses so that students can successfully complete examinations and standardized tests) and causation is known since only students who take courses and do well on examinations are successful students."[1]

The professional model was found in such organizations as hospitals and research institutions and was differentiated from the bureaucratic model by:

> "Firstly, the professional organization is primarily concerned with the discovery or application of knowledge. Its basic function cannot be programmed and therefore cannot be carried out efficiently by hierarchical arrangement and compliance with administrative orders.
>
> "Secondly, professional organizations have many non-professional and semi-professional workers who may be organized in the traditional bureaucratic manner, but basic decisions about functions are made by the professionals themselves.
>
> "Thirdly, professional organizations emphasize achievement of objectives rather than disciplined compliance to a highly programmed process for achieving objectives. Processes used in professional organization can be highly flexible and individualistic as the professionals' judgment dictates."[2]

Having concluded that schools will vary as to the degrees of professionalism and bureaucratization present, Brubaker and Nelson contend that most schools leaned more toward the bureaucratic model than the professional model. This, they said, was to be expected since most schools were government organizations and were organized bureaucratically

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[1]Brubaker and Nelson, Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies, p. 67.

[2]Ibid., p. 68.

for instruction because their primary objective was to produce "good students or incipient scholars."[1]

Having taken a similar look at school organizational structure, Myers presented four models which Richard C. Williams described as used to resolve the problem of professional decision-making: the self-employed professional, the modified hierarchical, the academic, and the union models.[2]

The self-employed professional model was used by the professions such as law and medicine. There the practitioner was self-employed and charged a fee for individual services.

Today's schools were classified with the modified hierarchical model. This model recognized that schools were public monopolies and that parents, rather than students, were clients; that the educational programs in most districts were alike. It also found that teachers varied in competence and need of the supervision of administrators who also varied in competence.

The academic model recognized the existence of the formal bureaucracy and assumed the need for some management control. It granted teachers increased authority in academic areas, while administrators maintained management authority. On the other hand, the union model, found within the modified hierarchical model, recognized the existence and need for a hierarchy in education.

Williams had concluded that none of these models was a viable

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[1] Ibid., p. 70.

[2] Myers, Teacher Power, pp. 100-105.

alternative for providing more authority for the teacher. Instead, he proposed the academic union model. It encompassed the characteristics of the academic model, but used collective bargaining as a coercive means of gaining and maintaining teacher authority. In the suggested model, teachers had the responsibility through collective bargaining for making academic decisions such as selection, promotion, and evaluation of staff, development of curriculum, and selection of materials. In addition, teachers negotiated with management concerning salary and working conditions.

Williams' model further recognized that schools and teachers existed in a hierarchical structure as in most other bureaucratic organizations; therefore, the model was pyramidal and provided for dual lines of authority. (See Figure 1 following page.)[1]

In the hospital setting, the professional was exposed to two lines of authority, professional and bureaucratic, and both were necessary for the proper functioning of the intricate enterprise. Professional authority rightly demanded freedom to act on behalf of the individual patient in a particular situation, regardless of bureaucracy's rules. Professional skill, knowledge, and judgment formed the basis of that right.

The professional person got his basic authority from sources external to the hospital. The nurse and the physician had a professional license to practice in a hospital. The organization's bureaucratic authority demanded regularity and conformity to its

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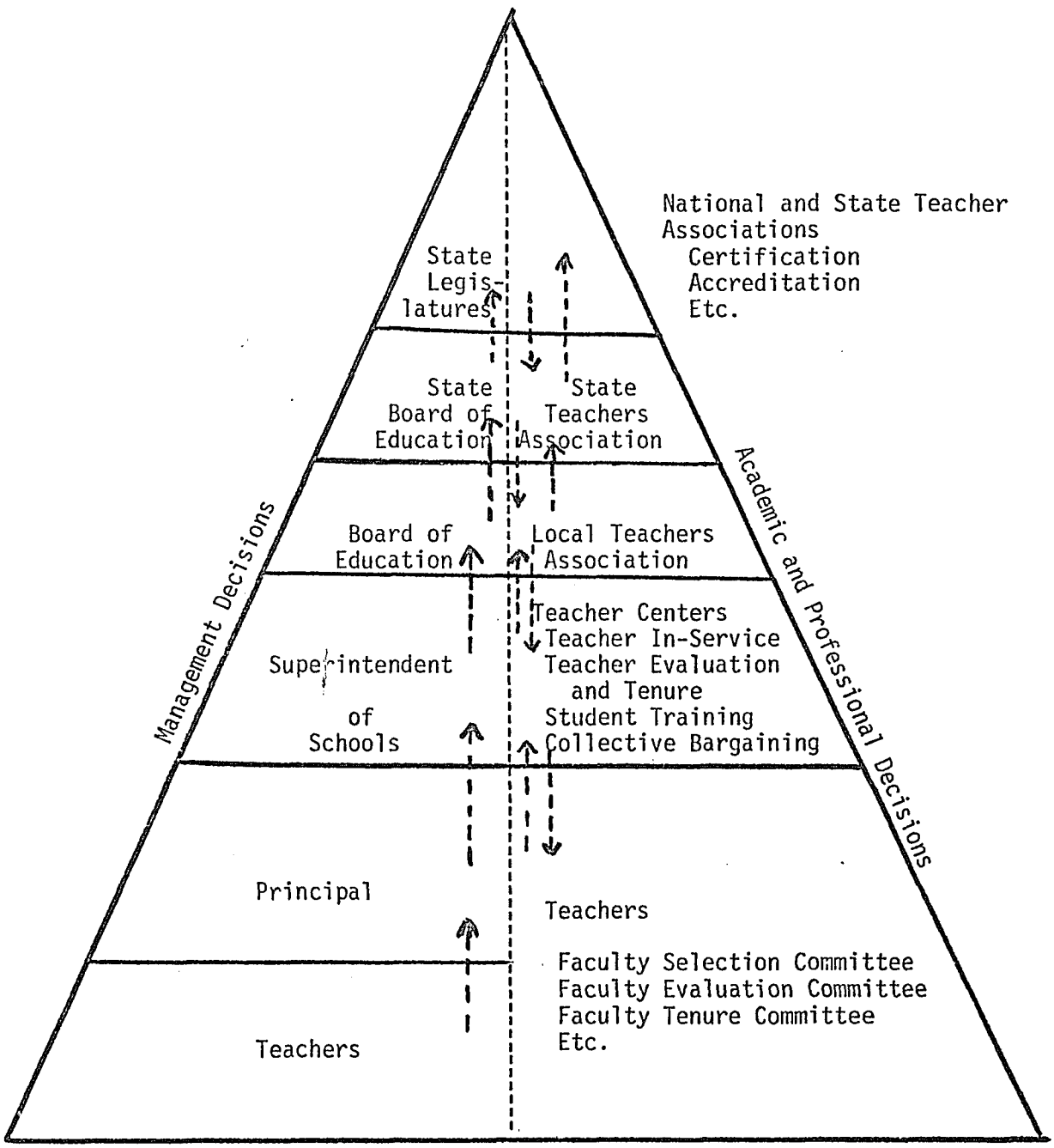
[1]Ibid., p. 104.

FIGURE 1



ACADEMIC UNION MODEL

regulations already established to maintain order and predictability within its structure. Bureaucratic authority to maintain regulation was given from internal sources within the bureaucracy. Both the nurse and the physician had legitimate claims to authority. Failure to understand each other's claim was seen as conflict producing.[1]

A further example of how the two lines of authority work together was seen in the role of the professional nurse.

> "The nurse is often in the hospital full time, with formally assigned bureaucratic as well as professional responsibilities for all her patients, while the physician is more often only briefly in the hospital and primarily charged with professional responsibility for his individual patient. Therefore it is the nurses who actually set the balance between bureaucratic and professional responsibilities in many areas. Just as the charge nurse often holds the key to medication closets on her floor, she also symbolically holds the key to how her floor will function. If she is allowed to succeed with her bureaucratic responsibilities, physicians as well as patients can benefit. The nurse provides them both with order and dependability within the complexities of specialized and scientific medicine. Working from that stable base, physician and nurse alike can make rational choices in the interest of the patients--not apologizing for sticking to regulations when feasible, but allowing for necessary flexibility when professional requirements truly demand it."[2]

Another study of how decisions were actually made in a traditional bureaucratic setting quite different from the hospital was found in a doctoral dissertation, "Decision-Making in the House Rules Committee." Robinson used a conceptual scheme of Richard D. Snyder, H. W. Bruck, and Burton Sapin in the formulation and statement of propositions about the Rules Committee's behavior. The major hypothesis

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[1]Emily Mumford and J. K. Skipper, Jr., Sociology in Hospital Care, (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), pp. 143-44.

[2]Ibid., p. 145.

of this scheme was that political behavior in a decisional unit may be accounted for, explained or predicted by three clusters of variables: spheres of competence, communication and information, and motivation.[1]

As socio-political systems, the school and House Rules Committee posed many variables that had to be dealt with by the decision-maker. Nelson and Brubaker have identified those variables as individual and group needs and desires, available resources, rewards and sanctions, group norms, and informal influence patterns.[2]

In addition, they have identified a series of postulates which take into account the "various dimensions of the decision-making process" in schools.[3] They are:

1. "Most decision-making situations place the decision-maker in the position of choosing between several good alternatives."[4]

2. "The decision-maker will necessarily do some things he believes he should not do and certainly prefers not to do. He should then choose what to him is the decision that is least harmful to himself and others."[5]

3. "Some decision-making situations involve balancing the desirable with the undesirable. Trade-offs are made so that you get

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[1]James A. Robinson, "Decision-Making in the House Rules Committee," The Making of Decisions, ed. William J. Gore and J. W. Dyson, (hereinafter referred to as Decision-Making in the House Rules Committee), (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964), p. 318.

[2]Brubaker and Nelson, Introduction to Decision-Making, p. 85.

[3]Ibid., p. 73.

[4]Ibid., p. 85.

[5]Ibid., p. 93.

what you want with the minimum amount of concession to that which you consider to be undesirable."[1]

4. "Be aware of the fact that your own values should be open to change as different situations present themselves."[2]

5. "Recognize that there are some students that you will not reach, others that you will reach minimally, and still others for whom you will make an important difference in their lives."[3]

6. "If you want to slow down change make it visible."[4]

7. "Although bureaucracies demand obedience to written rules and directives from 'superiors', recognize that if something is not prohibited you can do it, and if it is prescribed you can do more."[5]

8. "The actions of the teacher as a decision-maker should support what he or she states as her real objectives."[6]

9. "As all decisions affecting groups focus on the relationship between freedom and order, the more order the less individual freedom and conversely."[7]

What..."should be used in determining the form and amount of participation in decision-making by subordinates in different classes

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[1] Ibid., p. 96.

[2] Ibid., p. 100.

[3] Ibid., p. 104.

[4] Ibid., p. 107.

[5] Ibid., p. 111.

[6] Ibid., p. 113.

[7] Ibid., p. 115.

of situations?"[1] Vroom and others have concluded from an examination of research evidence that "participation in decision-making has consequences from one situation to another."[2]

Five basic assumptions thus guided the development of a model, which specified a set of rules, and the situational attributes contained within it. They were:

> "1. The normative model should be constructed in such a way as to be of potential value to managers or leaders in determining which leadership methods they should use in each of the various situations that they encounter in carrying out their formal leadership roles. Consequently, it should be operational in that the behaviors required of the leader should be specified unambiguously."
>
> "2. There are a number of discrete social processes by which organizational problems can be translated into solutions, and these processes vary in terms of the potential amount of participation by subordinates in the problem-solving process."[3]
>
> "3. No one leadership method is applicable to all situations; the function of a normative model should be to provide a framework for the analysis of situational requirements that can be translated into prescriptions of leadership styles."
>
> "4. The most appropriate unit for the analysis of the situation is the particular problem to be solved and the context in which the problem occurs."
>
> "5. The leadership method used in response to one situation should not constrain the method or style used in other situations."[4]

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[1]Victor H. Vroom and Philip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision-Making, (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973), p. 11.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 12.

[4]Ibid., pp.16-19.

The letters used to designate each of the decision-making levels signify the basic properties of the decision-making process: "A" stands for autocratic; "C" stands for consultative; "G" stands for group; and, "D" stands for delegated.[1] The model is shown as follows:

"GROUP PROBLEMS

"AI. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.

"AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

"CI. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

"CII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

"GII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt 'your' solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.

"INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

"AI. You solve the problem or make the decision by yourself, using the information available to you at the time.

"AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinate, then decide on the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell the subordinate what the problem is in getting the information from him. His role in making the decision is clearly one of providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

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[1] Ibid., p. 14.

"CI. You share the problem with your subordinate, getting his ideas and suggestions. Then you make a decision, which may or may not reflect his influence.

"GI. You share the problem with your subordinate, and together you analyze the problem and arrive at a mutually agreeable solution.

"DI. You delegate the problem to your subordinate, providing him with any relevant information that you possess, but giving him responsibility for solving the problem by himself. You may or may not request him to tell you what solution he has reached."[1]

Each of the preceeding propositions, postulates, and the decision-making model supported the idea that "a decision is essentially a judicial proceeding."[2] "A state of affairs is present and a judgment is made concerning it. The judgment is such as to influence action which results from the decision. Action is implicit in a decision. The judgment is made so that a course of action will be influenced. . ."[3]

Further, Griffith pointed out that an implication in the definition of decision-making was that it was painful and time-consuming. Even though decision followed a period of consideration, it did not follow that this had to be a long period. "The term decision is to be applied to all judgments which affect a course of action."[4]

The manner and the degree that individuals in professional positions participate in decision-making varies.

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[1] Ibid., p. 13.

[2] Daniel E. Griffith, Administrative Theory, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 75.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

In summary, then, "Decision-making is becoming more complex--involving the interaction of many variables and of many people and agencies. It is becoming more consensual in that authoritarian and paternalistic decisions following from remote heights of a steeply hierarchical system of centralized bureaucracy are no longer possible without the involvement, mutual consent, and agreement of others. Decision-making is increasingly characterized by interdependence of peer agencies and subordinate systems and organizations . . ."[1]

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[1]Ewald B. Nyquist, "State Organization and Responsibilities for Education," Designing Education for the Future, ed., Edgar L. Morphet and David L. Jesser, (New York: Citation Press, 1968), p. 135.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF DATA

"Once a decision is made, it influences or forces other decisions. This ripple effect can limit severely the scope of decisions made by teachers."[1] Prior to the establishment of the cooperative model school project and during the first year of its implementation there were to be many decisions made which caused ripple effects and established parameters which limited the scope of decisions teachers were able to make and implement.

Four questions focused on in this study which point out these decisions were:

1. Had the organizational scheme of the cooperative model school provided opportunities for and increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction?

2. Had the anticipated conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional values occurred?

3. What were the areas of conflict and why were they present?

4. What factors contributed to the conflict?

Presented in narrative form, the data contained herein were taken from teachers' logs, official files of the Superintendent of Schools, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, and from personal interviews with the Director of Academic Affairs, instructional leaders and senior teachers. The implications for each question were noted briefly. A more thorough and complete examination of each question was made in Chapters four and five.

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[1]Myers, Teacher Power, p. 59.

The cooperative model school in its present organizational scheme was formally approved by the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools Board on 10 April 1973.[1] The complete text of the proposal can be found in the appendix. According to the minutes of the School Board meeting, the model school was to consist of approximately 600 students. These 600 students would be grouped into six groups; three groups would include children whose ages ranged from 6 years old to 10 years old and three groups of children whose ages ranged from 10 years old to 12 years old.

Assigned to each group of approximately 100 students would be the following personnel: an instructional leader, two senior teachers, three intern teachers, and three paraprofessionals. The paraprofessionals would consist of two instructional aides and one clerical aide. "This provides all types of possibilities for grouping so that it would not be rare to have one teacher working with two, three, or four youngsters while others might be working with youngsters in groups varying in size from 5 to 60 depending on the learning activities which are to take place."[2] The original arrangement of the cooperative model school appeared in figure 2.[3]

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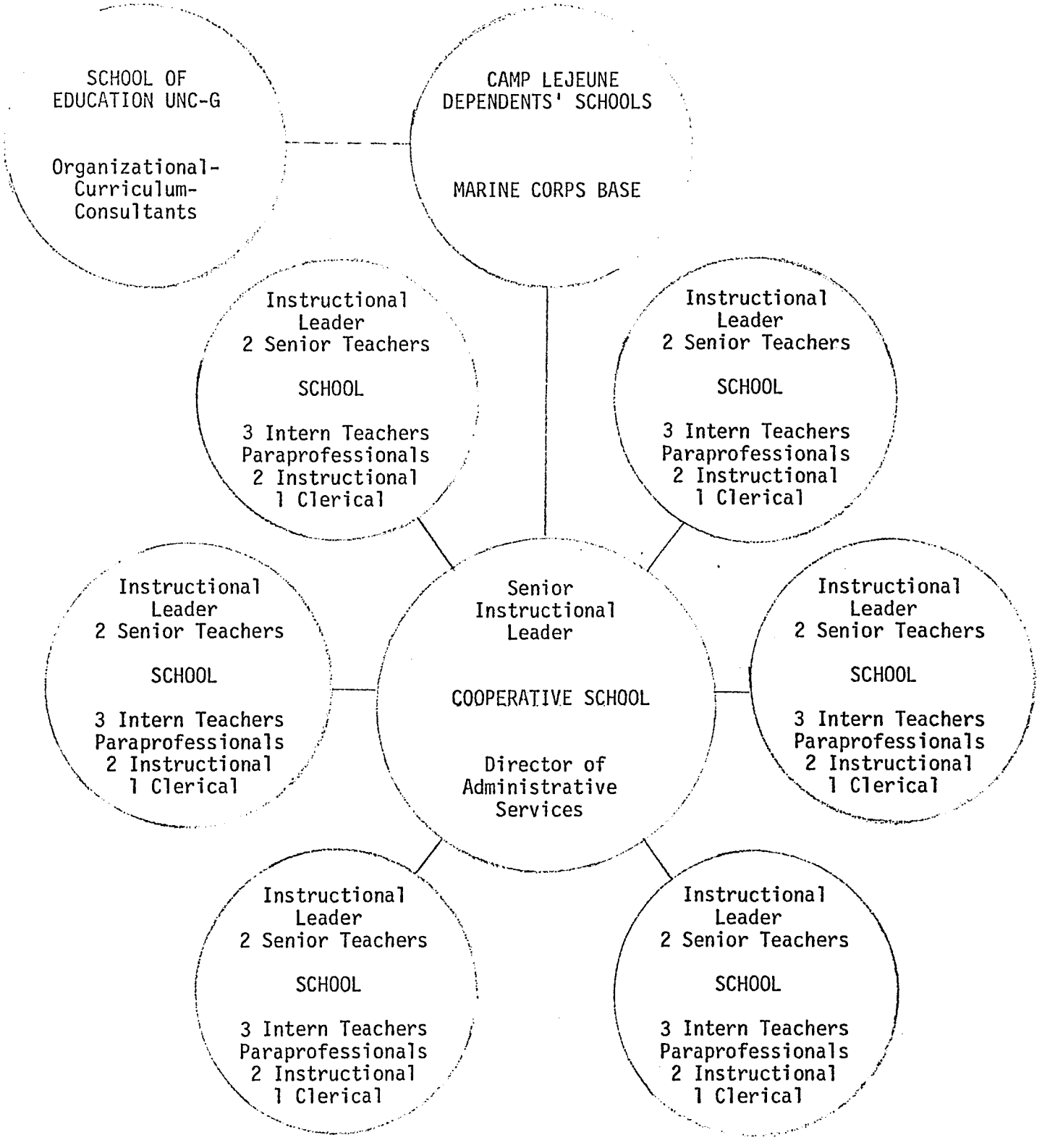
[1]Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, Minutes of Meetings of the School Board, Meeting of 10 April 1973.

[2]Roland H. Nelson and Dwight Clark, "Cooperative Project for Creative Individualized Motivation of Students Through Organizational and Instructional Innovation in Schooling," mimeographed proposal/ Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, 1973, p. 2.

[3]James M. Howard, Jr., A Study of the Relative Significance of Positional Authority and Expertise in an Experimental School, Ed.D. dissertation, Greensboro, North Carolina, 1974, p. 32.

FIGURE 2



COOPERATIVE SCHOOL

Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School was designated as the site of the model school. The school population consisted of approximately six hundred students in grades one through six. Most of the students came from homes of Marines of the rank of E-6 and below. The general education level of the parents was high school or below. Most parents had come from a low socio-economic level.[1]

The school was one of five elementary schools in the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System. The school consisted of thirty classrooms, one art room, one reading room, an auditorium, a library, one teacher's lounge, a cafeteria, an office complex and various storage areas and restrooms. Prior to implementation of the model school concept, the school staff consisted of the following: one full time principal, twenty-three full time classroom teachers, two half-day teachers in language arts and math, three full time special education teachers, and nine paraprofessionals (one clerical, eight instructional).

In a memorandum from the Superintendent of Schools, dated 18 June 1973,[2] the duties of the Senior Instructional Leader, also called the Director of Academic Affairs, and the duties of the Director of Administrative Services were given. "In order to function smoothly the responsibility for the overall operation of the school is shared by the Director of Administrative Services and the Senior Instructional Leader. The Director of Administrative Services is responsible for matters pertaining

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[1]Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School Self Study (Camp Lejeune, North Carolina: Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, 1972), p. 12.

[2]Memorandum from the Superintendent of Schools, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 18 June 1973.

to governance of the school operation. The Senior Instructional Leader is responsible for all matters pertaining to curriculum and instruction."[1] The duties specifically listed for the Senior Instructional Leader were as follows: "The Senior Instructional Leader will spend the major portion of his time working with instructional leaders, senior teachers, intern teachers, paraprofessionals and others as they relate to the academic program. He will also observe classes, screen requisitions for supplies, conduct curriculum and instructional meetings, both during and after school to make certain that the overall academic program progresses commensurate with the expectations."[2] On the other hand, "The Director of Administrative Services will be responsible for the physical and fiscal operations of the school to include such things as discipline of students, maintenance of transportation, cleanliness of the building, and other such duties normally related to the physical and fiscal affairs."[3] Regarding responsibilities in decision-making the memorandum states: "Although the responsibilities in decision-making are shared by the personnel indicated above, it is anticipated that certain issues and/or questions may somewhat overlap and difficulty in establishing their proper domain may be raised. Should such questions arise during the course of the school year, the Senior Instructional Leader has the authority in making such decisions."[4] A complete listing of the duties of the instructional leader, senior teacher, intern teacher and aides may be found in the appendix.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

The organizational scheme of the cooperative model school provided many opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction. One of the first opportunities was seen in the decision to remove certain classroom walls. Prior to the opening of the school the Director of Academic Affairs and those instructional leaders who had been selected at that time decided to remove some of the walls between classrooms in order to provide a more open space.

> "The cooperative model school will succeed in an atmosphere which is conducive to an open situation. The teachers and students within one team (9 staff members and 100 students) must be able to communicate at will without moving from the confines of the suite or "home." Utilizing the space as it is now arranged in TT2 will definitely eliminate the most effective use of resource or learning centers. These centers must be available for all students to have the opportunity to explore all areas in order to find the answers to situations.
>
> "The open situation permits staff members to become thoroughly familiar with all students and meet the needs of the students and thus plan most effectively.
>
> "This plan offers a more economical approach to utilization of supplies in a team situation as opposed to a single classroom situation. The team will surely plan together. Therefore, ideas become more coordinated when teachers teach together. Instead of four groups of students having four centers of supplies, it seems more economical and feasible to combine the four into one excellent center to which all students have access.
>
> "These centers will include areas other than Language Arts and Math which will be somewhat structured. Some centers are Social Studies, Sciences, Reading and Math (for reinforcement and/or fun), creative writing, Art, Music, listening and drama."[1]

Once the decision was made to remove the walls, authority to spend the necessary funds for the modification had to be obtained from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The permission was not

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[1]Cooperative Model School, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, Director of Academic Affairs Log, 1973-1974.

obtained until 15 May 1973. Following this, necessary plans had to be drawn and materials obtained before work could actually begin. It was not until after school had begun in August 1973 that work was actually started. This work was not completed until the end of 1973. In the meantime, teachers who had joined the staff had been told by the instructional leaders that the walls were going to be removed. The teachers were disappointed to find that no work had begun and the instructional leaders were concerned that their decision had not been carried out sooner.

One of the chief areas of conflict was centered around the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs. The beginning of the conflict was noted prior to the opening of school. A memorandum from the Superintendent to the Associate Superintendent with copies to the Director of Curriculum and Instruction, the Business Manager, the instructional leaders, and the Director of Administrative Services dated 18 June 1973 read as follows:

> "As of Monday, 25 June 1973, I am establishing a new organizational pattern for the Tarawa Terrace #2 Elementary School. Enclosure (1) is attached for your information. The organizational pattern will be implemented as of Monday morning, 25 June 1973."[1]

On 2 July 1973 a memorandum from the Director of Academic Affairs[2] foretold of the problems which were to occur later in the school year between the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Services.

The memorandum indicated that the Director of Academic Affairs had visited the model school on this date for the purpose of setting up

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[1]Memorandum from Superintendent of Schools, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 18 June 1973.

[2]Memorandum from the Director of Academic Affairs, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 2 July 1973.

an office to facilitate the accomplishment of certain administrative and logistic matters pursuant to the implementation of the program. When he arrived at the school, he was informed by the staff secretary and the custodians that they had been advised by the Director of Administrative Services that, "Nothing was to be moved until he returned from vacation some three weeks away."

On 23 July 1973 a meeting was held with the Associate Superintendent, the Director of Administrative Services, and the Senior Instructional Leader.[1]

The purpose of the meeting was to try to solve differences that existed between the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs relative to the operation of the model school. The Associate Superintendent stated (to the Director of Administrative Services) that he understood that he had received correspondence dated 18 June 1973[2] whereby the Superintendent had advised him that the Board of Education had made administrative assignments for the 73-74 school year; and that his assignment remained principal (Director of Administrative Services) of Tarawa Terrace #2 Elementary School. At this meeting the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs were again given a listing of their duties as defined by the Superintendent on 18 June 1973.

On 17 August 1973, the Superintendent met with the Director of Administrative Services, the Director of Academic Affairs, and the Associate Superintendent.

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[1]Memorandum from the Associate Superintendent of Schools, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, N. C., 23 July 1973.

[2]Ibid., Memo from Superintendent, CLDS, CLNC, 18 June 1973.

According to the Superintendent's memorandum[1] of this meeting the purpose was to discuss the model school program and the specific responsibilities of the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs. The Superintendent stated that the Director of Administrative Services responsibilities encompassed the overall operation of the school to include the responsibilities normally assigned to the principal of a school; i.e., maintenance as well as plant operation, transportation, overall pupil control, selecting staff personnel, etc. In addition, he would work with the Director of Academic Affairs in observing teachers as well as teacher assignment. The Director of Academic Affairs responsibility embraced the entire academic program in coordinating the efforts of the instructional leaders, senior teachers, intern teachers, and teacher aides. Logistic problems were to be referred to the Director of Administrative Services to include those noted in the listing of his duties. It was further noted that, if problems arose which could not be resolved between the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs, the Superintendent would be informed and a decision rendered from his office. It was also pointed out that both men would agree upon a teacher's evaluation prior to its being forwarded to the Superintendent's office. Both signatures would appear on the evaluation form.

It should be noted that the Director of Administrative Services had been the principal of the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School for two years prior to the change in the organizational scheme. Having learned of the proposed change he had requested reassignment as principal

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[1]Memorandum from the Superintendent of Schools, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 17 August 1973.

to another elementary school in the system.[1] By reply, he had been informed that his assignment was to remain that of "Principal of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School."[2] The Principal or Director of Administrative Services' dissatisfaction with his assignment and lack of understanding or appreciation of the new organizational scheme was responsible for much of the conflict which was evident during the year.

The first direct action taken to implement the model was the selection of the Director of Academic Affairs. This was done by the Director of Supervision and Curriculum and two consultants to the model school[3] and approved by the Superintendent. The individual had not had the traditional background or preparation for the principalship. In fact, as was pointed out in the 17 August 1973 memorandum from the Superintendent,[4] the Director of Academic Affairs would be serving his internship for principal during the academic year. In the year prior to his appointment he had served as the school-wide science coordinator for the elementary science programs.

In selecting other members of the staff, the model called for a plan whereby the Director of Academic Affairs and the Deputy Superintendent selected the first instructional leader. Following his selection the first instructional leader and the Director of Academic Affairs selected each of the other instructional leaders. All instructional leaders assisted in the selection of senior teachers, interns, and aides for the school.

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[1]Principal, Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School letter to the Superintendent, Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, CLNC, 8 June 1973.

[2]Memorandum from the Superintendent, CLDS, CLNC, 18 June 1973.

[3]Ibid., Howard, p. 73.

[4]Ibid., Superintendent's Memorandum of 17 August 1973.

A selection process was established that required application forms to be submitted by any teacher or aide currently in the school system who wished to be interviewed. A video tape recording was made of each interview and an evaluation followed. Some teachers were selected by processess other than that established by the model. Although this was a departure from the procedure which permitted instructional leaders a direct voice in the personnel selection process, there was no indication that the leaders resented it. This, it appeared, was because they agreed with the selections.

One senior instructional leader was interviewed by the Superintendent and selected for employment without having an interview by the selection team. In another case, the Superintendent indicated that since no black teachers had applied or had been selected for the model school at least one black teacher should be on the staff. The Superintendent instructed the Director of Academic Affairs to actively seek a candidate; one subsequently applied. Her original application was for a position as instructional leader; she was not accepted. The Director of Academic Affairs then asked her if she would accept a position as a senior teacher, and she agreed. The departure was an early indication that the Superintendent saw the need to impose certain bureaucratic constraints in this model school in the same manner as he did in other schools in the system. It had been assumed by those in the model school that all bureaucratic constraints would be suspended.

In a personnel action later in the year, the instructional leaders and team members exhibited strong aggressiveness in this area. According to the model, when vacancies occurred in the teaching staff, those teachers directly involved made the selection to fill the vacancy.

In December 1973 the first vacancy occurred due to the resignation of a senior teacher from one of the teams. An interview was held with a prospective teacher by the Director of Curriculum and Instruction. After consulting with members of the team, they in turn talked with the prospective teacher and decided that she was a suitable replacement.

After the new teacher had been at work for approximately two weeks, the members of the team began to feel that she was not suitable. Her actions and behavior were incompatible with the purposes of the school and with the objectives of the team. Following the model they approached the Director of Academic Affairs and told him their concerns.

After several meetings it was decided that the team should meet with the new teacher and discuss their problems and concerns with her. The meeting was held; each of the members of the team told the new teacher of the things they had observed which they felt were detrimental to the overall operation of the team. They informed her that it might be necessary to ask her to leave the team.

Subsequently another meeting was held in which the teacher was informed that the team no longer desired her services and that her appointment was to be terminated. At this point the teacher, not being completely aware of her legal rights under Civil Service law, went to the Director of Administrative Services and related the incident. The Director of Administrative Services called the Superintendent's office and apprised him of the situation. Upon investigation, the Superintendent found that the instructional leader and the Director of Academic Affairs had understood that the teacher would be sent to the school to work with them on a trial basis for a period of two or three weeks, and that if the team

felt that she was incompatible with the other members of the team her appointment would be reverted to that of a substitute teacher or her employment would be terminated--but that no official paperwork was to be done on the teacher until the team had had a chance to work with the individual. Further investigation revealed that the official paperwork had, in fact, been done on the teacher; the teacher had officially been employed prior to going into the classroom. She was subject to the processes of fair employment and dismissal practices. The team was informed that they had no choice except to take this person back and that if she continued to prove to be unsatisfactory, necessary documentation would be made by her supervisor before she was actually dismissed. The team members were disappointed. They felt that their authority had been thwarted by the Superintendent's office. This was one of several instances of conflict between bureaucratic authoirty and professional values. In this case it probably would not have occurred if there had been better communication between the teachers and the administration. It was explained to them that as a group of teachers they had no legal authority to employ or dismiss another teacher; but, they were allowed to be present and participate in the interviews. The final authority for employment or dismissal was a responsibility of the Superintendent and had not been suspended.

In March 1974 a related incident occurred. At this time a teacher aide vacancy occurred on one of the teams. The instructional leader contacted a prospective applicant who had not officially filed an application form with the Superintendent's office. The team leader contacted the person and asked him to come to the school for an interview with her and other members of the team. Again, the team leader and members

of the team stated that they were under the impression that they could call people to come and talk to them about employment and if the members approved of the individual they would recommend to the Director of Curriculum and Instruction that the individual be employed. Again, after having had the procedures for screening applicants and interviewing for employment explained, the team said they understood.

The first attempt at planning programs for the new school was begun on 13 August 1973. The instructional leaders then met for a week of planning with two college consultants selected to work with the program.

On the first day, the Director of Academic Affairs stressed the importance of professional decision-making by the group. He asked leaders to look at traditional education and to think about changes which professionals might make.[1]

The two college consultants working with the instructional leaders led the group in a review of decision theory and decision-making strategies in a bureaucratic organization. In curricular matters, various schemes for scheduling special classes, such as music, art and physical education, were discussed. The discussion of curricular processes, such as methodology for teaching specific skills, was not a major concern of the pre-school workshop. The emphasis was on creating teacher awareness of the possibilities that existed for teachers to make choices and to provide for the students those experiences which they felt were most beneficial. The lack of specific direction as to how reading or math was to be taught was of concern to some instructional leaders. "When we began the year I don't think anyone was

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[1]Teacher's Log #1, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1973-1974.

really sure of exactly what we were to do."[1] Although teachers were told that not giving specific directions of "how to do it" was part of the scheme for increased opportunities for decision making, they did not fully comprehend its implication until later in the year.

In summing up the week and in looking forward to the beginning of school on the first day, one teacher's log listed priorities for children beginning the new school year: (1) they needed to be happy; (2) they must feel worthwhile; (3) they must find school an interesting place; (4) they needed to satisfy curiosities; (5) they needed to develop skills.[2]

The school year began without a formal, structured curriculum that teachers had been accustomed to in the past. That is, the processes were left up to the teacher, specific books or procedures were not prescribed. The model provided for an emerging curriculum within general guidelines that children needed to be happy. Teachers found it difficult to operate within such a framework. During the first week teachers decided to use a variety of interest centers, capitalizing on the students' individual interests. The purpose of the week was to get to know the students and help them have better attitudes about the new school and new school year. During the week there was much changing and regrouping. As the week came to a close, some teachers wanted more structure; students wanted textbooks and their own desks. The conclusion reached by most teachers was that one week was enough time to get acquainted. The inference was that the interest center approach provided too much free time for students to talk to each other and not engage in "constructive learning activities."[3]

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[1] Teacher's Log #2, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1973-1974.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

Another instructional leader wrote, "looking back upon the week's activities many times this week many have lost sight of the fact that this week should be just for fun."[1] It was this person's observation that this was not just the attitude of one team, but one which was spreading throughout the whole school. The leader stated, "I only hope that when the subject matter gets into full swing, we will not revert to standard procedure, but I see it coming because I cannot be in every room, and teachers are going to do it like they have done it before. It is a natural thing and no one can be blamed except we rushed into it too fast; attitudes were not ready."[2]

After several weeks, teams had experimented with several different approaches to grouping, teacher arrangement, and teaching methodology. Teams met with differing degrees of success while using the same approaches. For example, one team felt that after trying a completely individualized reading program there was too much flexibility and moving around for the students to cope with. As an afterthought, the person writing the log asked the question, "Can we as teachers handle it?"[3] Another team working with students of the same age range reported that students responded well after the individualized reading approach was initiated. Though not of a conflicting nature, this difference of understanding was indicative of the impact personal beliefs, and personnel implementing them, had on various activities during the year.

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[1] Ibid., Teacher's Log #1.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

There was, on the other hand, a great deal of frustration among the teams early in the year concerning communications and the relationship between the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs. There were frequent comments in the logs of all teachers concerning this relationship.

The Director of Administrative Services had made it clear in one of the first teachers meetings that he was the Principal of the school.[1] The Director of Academic Affairs stated, "He, the Director of Administrative Services, contended that he was the Principal of the school, but he did not accept the responsibility. A lot of matters that fell within his realm of responsibility were shifted to me."[2] He was frequently reported as having made remarks in faculty meetings which were not supportive of the teachers or of the program of the model school. After one such faculty meeting one team instructional leader had written, "The faculty meeting was a disaster. I was embarrassed. It killed the whole spirit. I talked to the Director of Administrative Services afterward. I told him I thought he should have left unsaid a great many things; that speaking cynically about other schools and the Superintendent was unethical."[3]

The physical arrangements for the two administrators had not encouraged their compatibility. Before school began the Director of Administrative Services had not allowed the Director of Academic Affairs to have his office in the same building as his. Had he done so, the office arrangement already established would have been disrupted. It would also

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[1]Teacher's Log #3, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1973-74.

[2]Interview with the Director of Academic Affairs, CLDS, CLNC, 1975.

[3]Ibid., Teacher's Log #3.

have required the moving of a teachers lounge to another area of the building. As a result the Director of Administrative Services had his office in the original Principal's office, while the Director of Academic Affairs had his office in another part of the building which was not associated with the "administrative offices." Each person had his own secretary and had his own office routine, with separate telephones and separate numbers. The teachers were required to sign in and out of the office of the Director of Administrative Services. However, there were mail boxes in each of the offices, making it necessary for teachers to check in each of the offices each day. The physical arrangement of offices seemed to amplify the differences of philosophy and differences of understanding between the two individuals.

"We had a hard time communicating with the offices here at this school. It was the hardest place for communication to occur. There were some that went to the office of the Director of Academic Affairs and were given what they wanted. Some went to the office of the Director of Administrative Services. The communication was cut off there; we had two places we went to and I am sure that is why our school was so divided."[1]

The teachers reported having to attend different faculty meetings that had been called by each of the two individuals and frequently at the meetings materials were rehashed that had been previously discussed in the other director's faculty meeting. As a result of this arrangement teachers writing in their logs frequently complained about not having ample time to plan with their team and with their teachers because of the many unnecessary faculty meetings that were being called by the two Directors.

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[1]Interview with Senior Teacher #1, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1975.

Another factor which contributed to conflict between personnel was the use of the school intercommunication system. The Director of Administrative Services had in his office the intercom to the entire school. There were frequent references in the logs made to the use of the intercom by the Director of Administrative Services and his secretary. The intercom was used indiscriminately for making all-call announcements when only one student from a particular room needed to be called. It was also used by the Director of Administrative Services to correct a teacher for something he felt had been done incorrectly or for failure to turn in a report when it was due. There was some indication that teachers had brought this matter to the attention of the Director of Administrative Services and asked him not to continue, but there did not appear to be any concerted effort on the part of all team members or even the instructional leaders to bring any particular pressure to bear to have the practice discontinued.

There was also a feeling among some of the senior teachers that the instructional leaders were excluding them from some of the planning and decision-making. An interview with a senior teacher revealed that, "The faculty, around November, December and January, was getting upset with the instructional leaders. They were the ones always meeting. They had a scheduled time two afternoons a week. The faculty and the senior teachers were excluded from those meetings. When they came back they just gave us the highlights--we just talked about books today or we talked about the use of time. Yet we knew they were meeting for two or three hours a day and we felt we were being excluded from the decisions that were being made. We, as senior teachers, submitted a letter to the instructional leaders asking that they write an agenda for their meetings

and give it to the senior teachers."[1]

Conflict was again present when shortly after the school year began the Superintendent of Schools approached the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs about the possibility of moving two special education classes from another school into the model school. It seemed that the school in which the special education classes had been held was overcrowded and that there appeared to be extra space in the model school. Some of the extra space was classroom space which was being utilized by teacher aides as workrooms. As soon as the team members became aware that this move was about to be made, they became quite upset and stated that they had plans for the rooms. They had planned to use the rooms for activity centers and other kinds of instructional spaces during the school day. In their opinion, there were no extra spaces. Instructional leaders requested that a meeting be held with the Superintendent in order for them to make him aware of their plans. A meeting was held and the Superintendent explained his reasons for asking that the classes be relocated. He further explained there was no space in any of the other elementary schools to accomodate the program. It appeared that this school with the number of students assigned could best accomodate the special education program. The team leaders, unaware of any other alternative, reluctantly agreed to give up the necessary space.

During the year there were several activities that posed problems for teachers and instructional leaders. These included the scheduling of special classes, the scheduling of activities such as lunch period and recess time, and the planning of a curriculum. Traditionally, all of

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[1]Interview with Senior Teacher #2, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1975.

these activities had been decided for teachers and had usually been handed down by the administration or had been planned by outside curriculum committees or groups and given to teachers to implement. Following the organizational scheme of the cooperative model school, these were activities that could best be decided and implemented by those teachers that were to be directly affected by them. Consequently, they were of a great deal of interest to teachers.

One of the first activities in which teachers had to become actively involved was the planning of the special class schedule: classes for music, physical education, library and art. One of the major ideas of the model school was to allow at least two hours per day for each team to plan. This was only an idea; no specific directions or planning had been done to assure that this time was provided. It was given as a very desirable goal; however, it appeared that as teachers were interviewed and began to discuss among themselves those things that they expected in the model school, the idea of a large amount of planning time had become for them a very desirable goal. It appeared the logical place for planning time in an elementary school was during the time children were involved in special activities with non-classroom teachers.

As the instructional leaders and the special teachers came together to begin planning their schedules, an initial schedule was drawn up. It provided each of the upper elementary classes with a full period of time each day for the activities, but allowed only a short period of time for the primary grades. This was a plan drawn up primarily by the special teachers. The primary children, they had felt, lacked the attention span to permit them longer periods of time.

The primary teachers objected to the plan on the grounds that it made small the amount of time they had for planning while the children were away. They also objected to the larger portion of planning time being given to the upper elementary teachers. Consequently, the plan was rejected by all of the teachers. At this point various alternatives were discussed; but no plan was developed that was agreeable to all. The decision was made by all the teachers to assign an individual teacher to develop a plan that the others discussed and accepted or rejected. Such an idea was followed and subsequently several plans were rejected. This process, according to the logs, continued for approximately three weeks. During this time several meetings were held by the instructional leaders and the special teachers. Meanwhile the special classes were not held. After much deliberation and frustration, a plan was finally adopted, but according to the logs it was not acceptable to everyone, but as one said, "about the best they could hope for."[1]

One senior teacher stated that, "We found that we were almost knocking heads. No one was able to give. It took a long time and it took many schedules. Everytime someone made a schedule it was fine for their team, but, another team had something planned which conflicted with that period for special classes and didn't want to give it up. I think it was much to our credit that we did come up with something that was at all workable. Eventually everyone started to look a little more at the total situation rather than to his own team."[2]

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[1]Teacher's Log #4, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1973-74.

[2]Interview with Senior Teacher #3, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1975.

Another conflict was the planning of individual class or individual team recess and lunch schedules. There was much time devoted in the logs to discussion of this matter. It seemed that recess time was established by the individual teams and that individual teams decided among themselves which teachers took recess duties and therefore would be on the grounds or in the cafeteria supervising the children. There was some problem noted with teachers who were assigned duty, but had not reported, having left students unsupervised. Neither the Director of Administrative Services nor the Director of Academic Affairs appeared to assume any responsibility for supervising teachers or seeing that teachers accepted or performed the duty they had been assigned. The individual instructional leaders of the teams often were faced with a frustrating situation of enforcing the duty schedules that teachers had imposed upon themselves.[1]

Planning of the curriculum took up a major portion of teacher planning time. As stated earlier, the teachers and team leaders had not gone into this program with a pre-determined curriculum. However, some parameters had already been set which tended to force teachers in a particular direction. One of the earliest examples of this was in the social studies curriculum. The teachers were approaching social studies as they were all other subject matter areas. They thought they were to plan for a curriculum from the beginning. The social studies coordinator was invited to speak with the team leaders to discuss social studies materials. It was then the leaders learned that the social studies curriculum for the school system had been established the previous year. (The school system had a rotation system for adopting subject matter

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[1] Ibid., Teacher's Log #4.

materials. The previous year had been the year for selecting new social studies materials.) The social studies adoption for the school system had been made by a representative group of teachers from all schools. Even though the instructional leaders felt that there was a need for a different kind of social studies program in the cooperative model school they learned that all of the money available for social studies material had already been expended for the newly adopted program. It appeared useless to try to adopt anything different if there were no money available to purchase the materials. The only thing to be done was to accept the materials that had been provided and try to adapt them to their program.

Concern was generated all year because the purchase plan had allocated one set of materials per grade level. At the time materials had been ordered, the organizational structure for the elementary schools was strictly along grade lines; fourth grade, fifth grade, primarily for self-contained classes. With multi-aged grouping, the availability of only one kit or one set of materials for each grade level created problems, for each multi-aged group had within it fourth, fifth, or other combination grades. One teacher had written, "Most of us knew that several thousands had already been spent on the materials, that absolutely no more material would be ordered, and if it were ordered it would be several months before it came. We had a choice--yes--the material being presented or nothing."[1]

The multi-aged grouping in and of itself seemed to be a problem that continued to bother teachers throughout the year. The organizational scheme of the cooperative model school had, however, provided the opportunity for teachers to make some significant changes in the grouping procedures.

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[1]Ibid., Teacher's Log #1.

Before the end of the first semester, the teachers had begun to change the organizational structure from that of a strict multi-aged grouping pattern to differing combinations, reducing the multi-aged groups from three grade levels to two, and in several cases creating self-contained classes according to grade levels. As one instructional leader stated, "We started out with fourth, fifth and sixth graders and we decided that three grade levels were too much to handle because most of our curriculum, especially social studies and science, were geared toward grade levels. There was a wide range of abilities to manage. We decided as a group not to have the fourth, fifth and sixth graders again, but to change to two levels."[1] Another stated, "The students have had a chance to choose, explore, think, and try to discover. That they have not accepted this challenge has been a major disappointment to us. As we ponder over this, our thoughts go right to the individual child and what he has and doesn't have at home, where the problem really is. But the plan we used this year, could be effective with another group of students in another area. I don't believe these students were ready to handle all of this. It is so difficult now to draw them back into the fold, having quiet while I am talking and giving directions is very difficult."[2] This statement focused on an issue that seemed to be of great concern to many teachers in the school. They held a strong idealism for providing for the needs of the individual child. They wanted an organizational arrangement which provided flexibility, but at the same time they seemed to want a great deal of order

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[1]Interview with Senior Teacher #4, Cooperative Model School, CLNC, 1975.

[2]Ibid., Teacher's Log #2.

and structure. The confusing noises and movements which accompanied the more open-structured situation was a source of constant frustration to many of the teachers.

The teaching teams frequently tried new ideas and methods. They experimented freely, constantly searching for organizational arrangements that they thought would better accomodate their ideas of what they wanted to do for children. They desired to help the child better understand himself and to help him like school.

Continually mentioned in the log books as a factor preventing the full implementation of multi-aged grouping was the removal of certain walls discussed earlier. Many of the problems associated with establishing a particular organizational structure, it was felt, would be solved by this. Once the walls were removed, however, the attention was shifted to other areas. Other reasons the multi-aged grouping was not effective were found. It should be noted that although multi-aged grouping had been suggested as the grouping pattern to be used, the teachers were under no administrative direction to continue using it.

As the year progressed, more than problems with grouping, scheduling, or curriculum; the matter of communications between the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs was a constant source of irritation to all of the teachers. It seemed to be a deterrent to the implementation of new ideas and the experimentation with different instructional strategies. The complaints, from parents and especially from teachers, continued to be voiced to the Superintendent until he decided to transfer the Director of Administrative Services to the principalship of another elementary school in the system. The Director of Administrative Services had originally requested to be transferred to this school prior

to the opening of school. The principal of that school was reassigned to the cooperative model School as Director of Administrative Services. The switch became effective 1 April 1974.

From that point until the end of the year there was a decided difference in the relationship between the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Serivces, in the communication process, and in the overall improvement of morale among teachers and students in the school. By the end of the school year, the two Directors had begun to share one office. All teachers were most enthusiastic in their praise of the change that had occurred. As one teacher stated, "The new Director of Administrative Services has made a great deal of difference in teacher morale and hope. His diplomacy is tops. I have not heard a single negative comment from him or about him. It is useless to speculate on what the year would have been like if he could have been here from the beginning."[1] Although the data available had not substantiated the direct role of the teachers in the transfer of the Director of Administrative Services, it seemed definite that they had played a major role through an informal power structure. The Superintendent frequently had visited the school, had talked openly and frankly with the teachers, and was aware of their concerns.

As the year progressed and the teachers, particularly instructional leaders, became more adept at making decisions and began to feel and understand more of the authority which they held, it became apparent that they had begun to form a more cohesive group, and had used the authority of their positions to get things changed which they felt needed to be changed.

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[1] Ibid., Teacher's Log #2.

One of the best examples of this was shown in the matter of a workshop which had been scheduled on one of the workdays at the end of the first semester. There were two days set aside for teachers to participate in in-service education planning. Only a week prior to this an announcement was made that a workshop had been scheduled for half of one of the days. While there had been some minor complaints from teachers from other schools, the instructional leaders at the model school came together as a group and wrote a letter which protested the late announcement of the workshop. It pointed out that this workshop interfered with plans previously made by instructional leaders and teachers in that school to engage in in-service activities and planning of their own choosing. The letter was sent via their Director of Academic Affairs to the Superintendent. In it, the instructional leaders further requested that the workshop be cancelled or that those teachers in the model school not be required to attend. As a result, the Superintendent directed that the workshop be cancelled.

As the year drew to a close, teachers in their logs summed up some of their feelings. One teacher said, "The main thing I have learned is that there are always available several good ways to get a thing accomplished. The problem is finding the most suitable way for the people involved. More than ever, I have become aware of human relations and the importance they play. No mode, professional, bureaucratic, or a combination of both can possibly work unless the people involved have skills to deal with each other. This has been our weakest link. The ambiguities of our situation at the beginning of the year left some people groping for answers, but, the problem was magnified when these same people did not have the human relations skills to ask or even admit the problem

was there."[1]

Another wrote, "When I think about the way we started the year, the things that have been learned and the progress that has been made are absolutely astounding. Some things were certainly not in our favor. The building was not clean, the lack of materials was disappointing, the loads of material and books just thrown into rooms from other schools that someone didn't want, the team vacancies were not filled on time, walls were not removed as planned, one administrator made it obvious that he was not supportive of the program, lack of enough pre-planning made us aware that the staff members did not have a clear concept of the goals of the schools. However, everyone pitched in and helped do what had to be done. We moved from trying to individualize a reading program to ability groups; we learned why some things could and would not work. During the second year we can profit from our experiences. If we begin in a more structured manner the student can be gradually guided to an individual approach where he will be able to function well independently with a minimum of guidance and supervision."[2]

Still another concluded, "There always has to be someone to make a final decision, whether we want it or not. Bureaucracy is a necessity even on a professional level. There is a hierarchy in a professional model by viture of a position, tenure, charisma, expertise, or whatever it boils down to. A hierarchy is necessary for an organization to function."[3]

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[1] Ibid., Teacher's Log #3.

[2] Ibid., Teacher's Log #2.

[3] Ibid., Teacher's Log #1.

CHAPTER IV

CRITICAL DECISIONS

"Practically every decision is one of a series. That is to say practically every decision is one of a sequence. It is almost impossible to determine which decision on a certain state of affairs was the original decision. Furthermore, it is almost impossible to determine which decision of all those made is a unique one. Each decision made appears to tie into another decision reached previously. From this we note the sequential and interrelated nature of decisions. This is a deviation from the dictionary or commonly accepted definition in that a decision rarely terminates or settles a controversy; it alters, changes its direction, or sometimes prolongs it."[1]

From the narrative in Chapter III, the researcher has chosen eleven decisions which he had found were critical to the Model School Project. It was impossible to determine which decision of all those made is unique. It did appear, however, that those eleven decisions chosen had notable impact upon other actions. Each one "appears to tie to another decision reached previously."[2]

1. Critical Decision (What was the decision?)
2. Locus of the Decision (Who made the decision?)
3. Target of the Decision (Who was affected by the decision?)

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[1] Griffiths, Administrative Theory, p. 76.

[2] Ibid.

4. Results of the Decision (What happened as a result of having made the decision?)
5. Analysis and Implications (Why was the decision made? What were the implications for further action created by the decision?)

A composite of the eleven critical decisions was made and shown in figure 3 on page 87. The placement of X designated each as governance decision, curriculum decision, or a combination of the two as originally made. The placement of Y was used to show where each should have been made according to the design of the model.[1]

[1]Howard, A Study in an Experimental School, p. 10.

Critical Decision #1

The inception of the Model School Concept and its components.

Locus of the Decision

James M. Howard[1]

Target of the Decision

The Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School, its Teachers and Students.

Results of the Decision

The concepts which evolved from the model for the school were used as the basis for seeking the approval of the School Board to establish Tarawa Terrace II as a Cooperative Experimental School Project.

Analysis and Implications

The model prescribed the organizational structure of the school, the grouping pattern of its students, and the differentiation of its staff. The intent of the model for the school was to provide teachers the opportunity to make decisions which had traditionally been prescribed. "The prescription begins at the state legislature and extends all the way down."[2] In presenting the organizational plan to the School Board, greater flexibility needed to have been provided for teacher involvement in determining structure and administrative staffing. "The public can decide to build a bridge, but engineers decide how to build it; the public can establish a system of courts, but lawyers determine who will try a case in court; the public can authorize the construction of a hospital, but physicians determine the equipment needed and the medicinal treatment to be used with patients."[3] Likewise, the School

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Myers, Teacher Power, p. 48.

[3] Ibid.

Board established a new school concept, but teachers needed to help decide its purposes. They needed a voice in the kind of administration necessary for the concept, in the qualities needed in the administrators, and in the selection of the best grouping and staffing patterns to secure implementation of the curriculum which they had planned. Many teachers did not have an understanding of the project's unique possibilities for decision-making. The instructional leaders were the only staff members to attend the pre-school workshop. This was the only formal presentation of the school's goals and objectives until much later in the year. Teachers were aware that they had the responsibility and authority for deciding the activities within their classroom; the broader implications for decision-making outside the classroom seemed to lack clarification. However, even though the school organization in this case was mandated, the teachers were free to change much of it. There were no restrictions placed on teachers regarding organization of classroom, use of teachers or para-professionals, or the selection of learning materials or methods. The only direct mandate was the opening and closing of school and the lunch hour.

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[1] Ibid.

Critical Decision #2

Approval of the Model School Project.

Locus of the Decision

Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools' Board of Education.

Target of the Decision

Teachers and Students of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The approval of the Model School Project by the School Board established the structure and organization of the school. The students were grouped into six multi-aged sections of approximately 100 students each. Each group had an instructional leader, two senior teachers, three intern teachers, and three paraprofessionals.

Analysis and Implications

The School Board had the authority and responsibility to approve any departure from established procedure or organizational arrangement. The model had prescribed these; the School Board confirmed them without question. The presentation of the model to the Board did not infer or indicate the degree of involvement in decision-making by teachers. Greater teacher involvement needed to be provided from the beginning, for the School Board had been asked to approve only the concept. Permission was needed for the Model School personnel to have designed the organizational arrangement and the grouping patterns. The approval given by the Board did signify its interest and willingness to provide increased opportunities for participation in professional type decision-making.

Critical Decision #3

Establishment of duties of the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Services.

Locus of the Decision

The Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools' Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools.

Target of the Decision

The Director of Academic Affairs and the Teachers of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

Established the duties of the Director of Academic Affairs and of the Director of Administrative Services.

Analysis and Implications

The model for the school detailed the duties of the Director of Academic Affairs, yet misunderstanding and ambiguity persisted. The Director of Administrative Services, who had heretofore been the Principal, had requested transfer to another school as the Principal, but the request had been denied. In an effort to clarify the Director of Administrative Services' role, the Superintendent stated in a memorandum on 17 August 1973 that "The Director of Administrative Services would be responsible for the overall operation of the school to include the responsibilities normally assigned to the Principal of a school."[1] Not being familiar with or having shown an interest in the Model School Concept, the Director of Administrative services seemed to assume that this definition of duties included responsibility

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[1]Superintendent's Memorandum of 17 August 1973.

for all areas of the school. The Director of Academic Affairs was, in the opinion of the Director of Administrative Services, the person to whom curriculum matters were delegated, but he was responsible to the Director of Administrative Services for the performance of duties.

Avoiding confusion was possible if both persons had been involved in the writing of their job descriptions. Of interest was the official job description file in the Office of the Superintendent which showed only one position description was used for the school, that of elementary school principal. Both persons were officially assigned to that position description.

Critical Decision #4

Selection of teaching personnel.

Locus of the Decision

The Superintendent, The Director of Academic Affairs, and the Faculty.

Target of the Decision

The Faculty and Students of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The staffing of the school was completed.

Analysis and Implications

The model for the project provided that all teaching personnel were to be selected by the Director of Academic Affairs and the faculty. This was consistent with the belief of Brubaker and Nelson,[1] who had suggested that a professional model recognized the need for teachers to make such academic decisions as staff selection.

This selection policy was followed in the Model School Project rather consistently. However, there were at least two occasions noted when the model was not followed. One occasion was the suggestion from the Superintendent that a black teacher be included on the staff. The second occasion was the interview and selection of an instructional leader by the Superintendent. There appeared to be valid reasons for each of these unilateral actions; however, the teachers involved in the personnel selection process felt less involved because an explanation had not been volunteered at any point for the imposition of decisions

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[1]Brubaker and Nelson, Introduction to Decision Making, p. 37.

inconsistent with the model. It seemed to be this sort of thing throughout the year which caused the greatest doubt in the minds of teachers as to validity of the model. "It seems that teachers were given the opportunity to make decisions so long as it did not conflict with what the Administration wanted to do."[1]

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[1]Instructional Leader Interview #2, Cooperative Model School, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 1975.

Critical Decision #5

The decision not to follow a prescribed curriculum.

Locus of the Decision

Faculty of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Target of the Decision

Faculty and Students of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

Some teachers and students found that they were unable to adequately cope with a lack of structure and prescription. Students began to ask for textbooks and their assigned desks. Teachers complained of too much noise and felt that students needed more preparation for an unstructured learning environment before participating in it. Teachers began to add more structure to the curriculum and the activities of students. By the end of the school year, there was evidence that several teachers had reverted to a textbook teaching approach and a self-contained classroom structure.

Analysis and Implications

It appeared to be presumptuous to compare the environment of this school and its teachers with that of Dewey's University Elementary School. However, certain similarities were found in Dewey's description of teacher involvement and in that of the Model School Project.[1] In both cases, the "teachers started with question marks rather than with fixed rules, and if any answers have been reached it is the teachers in the school who have supplied them."[2] The lack of restraint in this area by the administration strongly supported the conclusion that the organizational scheme of the

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[1] Dewey, The School and Society, pp. 113-129.

[2] Ibid.

Cooperative Model School did provide increased opportunities for teachers to participate in professional type decision-making. It was hard to imagine an administration in any conventional school setting permitting the degree of experimentation and uncertainty that was in evidence in the Cooperative Model School.

Critical Decision #6

To depart from multi-aged grouping.

Locus of the Decision

Designers of the Model School Project.

Target of the Decision

Teachers and Students of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The designers of the Model School Project stated that the school was to consist of approximately 600 students. These would be divided into six groups; three groups would include children whose ages ranged from six years old to ten years old and three groups whose ages ranged from ten years old to twelve years old. The Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools' Board of Education approved this plan. It was, therefore, assumed by the teaching staff from the beginning that this grouping arrangement was to prevail. The experience of most teachers selected for the school had been with homogeneous groups of children of like age and ability. Teachers were not prepared to deal with heterogeneous multi-aged groups.

Analysis and Implications

Teachers seemed to have a firm grasp of the idea that decision-making within their classrooms was their prerogative. They were free to do whatever they felt was best for their students. In the beginning, this understanding did not extend into the curriculum-administrative realms, the "gray area". Frequently, drawing the line between responsibility for certain decisions had been difficult. Grouping of students necessitated administrative input as well as teacher input and acceptance. Sorting, then, was a desirable team

decision. Sorting..."is the process one goes through in order to implement one's classification system. It is the process that allows the decision-maker(s) to pursue his objective in a systematic and predictable manner. As such, sorting is a powerful tool in the hands of the person(s) who uses it."[1]

Sorting or grouping was a legitimate function of the school. However, it had been usually initiated or sanctioned first by the administration. If the grouping arrangements had been approached on a collegial basis; that is, administration and teachers working together, the model, then, would have been implemented as intended.

Teachers did find within the school what Bidwell refers to as a "structural looseness".[2] When they found that the multi-aged grouping did not work for them or they did not have the expertise to be successful with this grouping mode, they, without having to go through a bureaucratic chain of command, were able to make changes. Again Bidwell points out that "a relatively unsupervised teacher behavior supports and draws support from a professional norm in favor of teacher autonomy."[3] One of the strongest characteristics to emerge at the Model School was the freedom teachers had to make curriculum decisions.

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[1] Ibid., p. 64.

[2] Bidwell, The School as a Formal Organization, pp. 1012-1018.

[3] Ibid.

Critical Decision #7

Office arrangement of the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Services.

Locus of the Decision

The Director of Administrative Services.

Target of the Decision

The Director of Academic Affairs and the Teachers of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The Director of Administrative Services, formerly the Principal, retained his office and that of his secretary in the Administrative suite. The Director of Academic Affairs was given an office in a small classroom in another building of the school. Teachers were required to go to each office every day. The Director of Administrative Services maintained the official sign-in and sign-out sheets for all personnel as well as an individual mail box for each teacher. The Director of Academic Affairs also had a mail box for each one in his office.

Analysis and Implications

The arrangement from the beginning emphasized the differences which existed between the two administrators and was a serious area of conflict. The office of the Director of Academic Affairs symbolized his position of lesser importance and subordinate role to that of the Director of Administrative Services. Teachers were very much aware of stated and implied differences. Many were not sure as to what the roles of either party were supposed to be; however, they were aware of the role a Principal was supposed to play, and; therefore, appeared to be reluctant to question his authority.

Critical Decision #8

Decision to place Special Education classes in the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Locus of the Decision

The Superintendent of Schools.

Target of the Decision

Special Education Classes and Teachers who planned to use those rooms.

Results of the Decision

The classes were transferred from another elementary school in the system to the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School. Most teachers felt that their responsibility for making decisions had been thwarted.

Analysis and Implications

The Superintendent was faced with a dilemma. In the elementary school where the Special Education classes were located, there was a shortage of space and a need for additional classrooms. He assessed the available space in other schools. In the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School there were classrooms not being used. Teachers said they had plans for their later use; however, in the opinion of the Superintendent, they were extra. He concluded, after conferring with the faculty, that there was adequate space for the Special Education classes and for the other instructional needs of the school. After having requested a meeting with the Superintendent and having heard his rationale for the move the teachers at the model site reluctantly agreed to give up the necessary space.

"The greater the prestige of and respect for the sender, the greater is the impact of the information on the recipient."[1] "The decision-maker will necessarily do some things he believes he should not do and certainly prefers not to do. He should then choose what to him is the decision that is least harmful to himself and others."[2] Both these beliefs, voiced by Robinson and by Nelson and Brubaker, concerning decision-making gave the appearance of apt descriptions of the interchange between the teachers and the Superintendent.

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[1]Robinson, Decision Making in the House Rules Committee," p. 318.

[2]Nelson and Brubaker, Introduction to Decision Making, p. 85.

Critical Decision #9

The establishment of the Special Class schedule.

Locus of the Decision

All Teachers in the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Target of the Decision

All Teachers and Students in Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

A planned schedule that provided a regular and equitable amount of time for all students to visit the library, to have physical education, and to have art and music classes was necessary. The classroom teachers used the time for planning. This was their only time away from the children.

Analysis and Implications

In most traditional situations, the Principal made the schedule and handed it down to the teachers. In this case all the instructional leaders and the Special Teachers met in an attempt to create a schedule. An assumption was made in the early planning stages of the Model School, prior to implementation, that each team could have at least two hours each day for planning. This was for many teachers a very desirable goal, and they seemed to feel that there had to be a way through scheduling to provide it. Plan after plan was drawn, and after being presented, rejected. It was only after several weeks of this kind of struggle that an agreeable schedule was finally made.

To avoid having teachers feel they were incapable of making decisions for themselves, neither the Director of Academic Affairs nor the Director of Administrative Services, though both quite capable of expeditiously rendering a workable schedule, did so. The teachers did find for themselves that

decision-making involved the need for making a decision, finding possible courses of action, and choosing among courses of action.

This episode pointed to the strength of the model in the investment of authority in teachers to make instructional decisions, a situation not found in most schools. Myers pointed out that, "while teachers can make many decisions that are significant for the education of students, clearly they cannot make many decisions concerning their work. It is somewhat paradoxical, for example, that there is almost universal agreement that teachers should be permitted the 'privilege' of deciding the student's letter grade for a lesson, a semester, or a year. However, they are usually permitted no more than an opinion (sometimes not even that and always with the understanding that the teacher has no authority) concerning many instructional decisions."[1]

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[1]Myers, Teacher Power, p. 17.

Critical Decision #10

Removal of the walls.

Locus of the Decision

Instructional Leaders and the Director of Academic Affairs.

Target of the Decision

The Teachers and Students of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The removal of eight foot sections of wall between two classrooms and, where the structure of the building would permit, between four classrooms. The openings provided free access for students and teachers from one class to another and, in effect, created large open spaces for instruction.

Analysis and Implications

The decision to remove the walls was made by some of the instructional leaders and the Director of Academic Affairs before the school year began and before a curriculum had been decided upon. It had been assumed that open space instructional areas were better than closed, single classroom spaces. This decision possibly increased the frustration felt by many teachers in trying to plan a different kind of curriculum and deal with multi-aged groups. Most of them did not have the experience of the open classroom concept.

The removal of the walls was finished near the end of the first semester. By this time decisions had been made to alter the grouping arrangements on several teams. Instead of finding a panacea in the removal of the walls, many began to find that the open spaces interfered with the more structured approach they were now attempting to institute. By the beginning of the second school year, many teachers had found ways of blocking passages from one room to another by placing book cases or other objects in the openings.

Critical Decision #11

Transfer of the Director of Administrative Services.

Locus of the Decision

Superintendent of Schools.

Target of the Decision

The Director of Administrative Services and the Faculty of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School.

Results of the Decision

The Director of Administrative Services was transferred on 1 March 1974 to another assignment, and, in the new assignment, he assumed the role of a traditional Principal. The Principal he replaced became, in turn, the new Director of Administrative Services. Near retirement, he had previously been the Associate Superintendent, and was much in favor of the change. There was a definite change in the morale of teachers and an improved climate of friendliness and communication.

Analysis and Implications

The new Director of Administrative Services was an older person, more widely experienced and anxious to assume the prescribed role. He saw the position of the Director of Academic Affairs as an asset and encouraged teachers and students to acknowledge the difference in the two positions. Teachers, without exception, reported that changes were visible and all aspects of the administration improved.

The changes in the school marked by the new Director of Administrative Services' reliance on teachers and the Director of Academic Affairs to make instructional decisions supported the findings of Bridges. He found that older, more experienced Principals involved teachers to a greater extent than did any other grouping of Principals.[1]

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[1]Bridges, Teacher Participation in Decision Making, pp. 1-4.

CRITICAL DECISION ANALYSIS

CRITICAL DECISION	GOVERNANCE	GOVERNANCE-CURRICULUM	CURRICULUM
1	X	Y	
2	X	Y	
3	X	Y	
4		Y	X
5			XY
6			XY
7	X	Y	
8	X	Y	
9			XY
10			XY
11	X	Y	

FIGURE 3

EXPLANATORY NOTE:

The X indicates the area in which a decision was made. The Y indicates where the decision should have been made, in accordance with the Model and in the opinion of the investigator.

EXPLANATION OF CRITICAL DECISION ANALYSIS

According to the chart, only four decisions were made within the area specified by the model. Yet each of the governance decisions were to have been joint governance-curriculum decisions. The inconsistency of involving teachers in the decision-making process in matters which were not clearly curriculum or identifiable as the teachers' prerogative, became early the significance of this study. Matters of governance and curriculum frequently had not been clearly definable. Because of this there had been a tendency to assume full responsiblity for making the decision by the governance authority. To promote better understanding, higher teacher morale and a higher professional role for teachers, a more collegial relationship was needed.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The organizational structure of one elementary school of the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System was chanted to provide opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction. This was done through the establishment of a Cooperative Experimental School Project initiated between the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools System, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, and the School of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, in the spring of 1973. A basic premise of the project was concern for improving the education of children. It was felt those who interact most closely and most often with children should make most of the basic decisions about instructional programs for them.

The school established an organization which provided for suspension of the bureaucratic constraints commonly associated with schools. This organization was designed to invest teachers with more direct decision-making authority. It was expected that teachers' professionalism would be enhanced as a result of having greater input into the decision-making process. In implementing the model, teachers were given such instructional options as non-gradedness, multi-aged grouping, differentiated staffing, and more favorable adult-student ratio.

The designers of the Model School Project took the position that teachers were professionals and the school was obligated to provide the climate and opportunities for them to function as such. This dissertation sought to determine the effects of the new organizational pattern on teacher decision-making relevant to curriculum and instruction in the Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School. Specifically, the study focused on four questions:

1. Had the organizational scheme of the Cooperative Model School provided opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction?

2. Had the anticipated conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional values occurred?

3. What were the areas of conflict and why were they present?

4. What factors had contributed to this conflict?

The literature researched and reported herein, through case study, strongly suggested that teachers had become increasingly concerned about their role in decision-making involving curriculum, materials selection, certification, and other matters within the realm of professional responsibilities of the teacher.

In spite of teachers' desires to be involved they continued to have limited autonomy and to lack authority for making decisions. Earlier in the twentieth century a complex hierarchy had developed in education. In most cases teachers and students were at the bottom.

Education had had many characteristics of bureaucracies. There had been within the school systems many policies, rules, and procedures, a clear cut division of labor and a minimum of personal contact. There had been

hierarchical structure which made assignments based upon technical qualifications and promotions on the basis of seniority or achievement. Conflicts, therefore, had arisen between bureaucratic authority and professional authority. The conflict in education had been between governance (or the administrative functions) and curriculum and instruction (or the areas within the school where teaching and learning occur.)

A different model for schools which recognized these two distinct functions had been suggested by theorists and researchers. Such a model is similar to the organizational structure found in hospitals.

The literature reflected a number of decision-making models and belief systems concerning processes. Central to most of these was the idea that decision-making involved recognizing the need for action, recognition of possible alternatives, and choosing between alternatives. It was further recognized that decision-making may be an individual or group process.

The organizational scheme of the Cooperative Model School did provide opportunities for increased teacher participation in professional type decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction. Most teachers were not conscious of formal decision-making processes. In examining the kinds of decisions teachers made and their attitudes toward decision-making, it appeared that previous experience and "feeling" played an important part in the process. There were indications that the organizational structure had provided teachers with the opportunity to see the possibility of a greater number of alternatives from which to choose. They began to question the kinds of methodologies and strategies they had used before.

Teachers were given increased opportunities to participate in professional type decision-making in the area of curriculum and instruction. Using the authority given them, they departed from many of the prescriptive suggestions that had been made for the school's curriculum. Multi-aged grouping was altered from three age groups to two and in several cases to one. Teachers moved from an unstructured teaching environment to a more traditional one. The curriculum was altered from one providing multiple learning situations for students to a more traditional textbook approach with fewer choices. Teachers began in-depth studies of several curriculum plans and formulated learning continuums for the various disciplines. Teachers had become more adept at assessing the learning needs of children and making curricular decisions to meet those needs.

In the day-to-day interaction with students there had not been much time for teachers to reflect on theory or weigh carefully the alternatives. Decision-making frequently involved a feeling for what was right. The team structure afforded the opportunity for a great deal of free exchange between team members and generated many alternatives.

"It really is amazing to see the decision-making powers that have been produced in the teachers and in the children. On our team we have really tried to foster the ability to make choices... In my role as instructional leader I am now more readily turning to the team to say, 'What decisions do you think we should make?' rather than to say, 'I think so and so ought to be done.'"[1]

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[1]Interview, Instructional Leader #2, Cooperative Model School.

There was evidence that several processes were used by teachers to solve problems or make decisions. The process seen most often involved sharing the problem with other members of one's immediate team. Together they generated and evaluated alternatives. The instructional leaders did not appear to unduly influence the group to adopt their solution. Senior teachers and interns felt that their input was important and that their opinions and ideas were listened to and respected. One senior teacher concluded, "In this school I feel like I am treated as a professional teacher. My faults, my decisions, and my ideas are really looked at; they are all treated with respect."[1]

The conflict between bureaucratic authority and professional values did occur. It was most apparent in the realm of teacher selection and employment. Teachers in the Cooperative Model School felt that they should have had a greater voice in this process. It was possible within the constraints of the school system employment policies to involve teachers in the process. This was not done consistently after the initial selections of staff for the first year of the school.

There were several other areas of conflict. Most of these were centered around the relationship between the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Services.

The assignment of the Director of Administrative Services to the school was a mistake. The organizational model for the school had not provided for it. This was acknowledged by his transfer to another school as Principal before the end of the school year. In the opinion of the

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[1]Interview, Senior Teacher #3, Cooperative Model School, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, 1975.

researcher the request of the Director of Administrative Services to transfer before the beginning of the year should have been honored. The model emphasized the importance of the Director of Academic Affairs and the teachers in the decision-making processes of the school. It de-emphasized the traditional role of the Principal.

The background and the personality of the Director of Administrative Services made him more suited to his role than had previously been the case. He had originally been employed in the district as the Business Manager. His formal education and prior experiences had been in the area of business management.

The Superintendent felt that the new title designation and duties enabled the Director to concentrate upon those areas of the school with which he was most familiar and for which he had the training. To be relieved of curriculum and instruction responsibilities had been projected as a welcome change for the Director of Administrative Services.

The Director of Academic Affairs was unprepared to deal with the ambiguities the situation presented. He had been in a similar position for a short period of time in another school. However, in that case the Principal was ill and away from school. There was an Assistant Principal whose normal role was closely akin to that of the Director of Administrative Services. The Principal of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School was not willing to become the Director of Administrative Services in the same school and assume what appeared to him to be a subordinate role even though the Superintendent had confirmed his continued authority for the "overall operation of the school."[1] Technically and legally, the Superintendent

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[1]Memorandum from the Superintendent of Schools, 17 August 1973.

had no other alternative, if the man felt most qualified to lead this new program was to be a part of the program from its inception. The Director of Administrative Services was a certified principal. The Director of Academic Affairs was not. In order to protect the school's accredited status by the regional accrediting association, it was necessary to have a certified principal responsible for the school's overall operation.

The intention of designating the Director of Administrative Services as the principal was not to negate the model. There was nothing written or implied which should have prevented teachers or the Director of Academic Affairs from performing their assigned roles. Teachers were in a position to exert formal and informal sanctions. There was little indication that this was done. The fact that the Director of Administrative Services had been principal in the school the previous year seemed to hold action in abeyance.

The Director of Academic Affairs stated, "I expected him to at least be cooperative. I expected him to be supportive of the program since it was approved by the School Board. The division of responsibilities was not channeled appropriately, and, due to this, there was difficulty working with both teachers and parents. Teachers were put into the position of having to make a choice of whether to go with the decisions of the Director of Academic Affairs or the Director of Administrative Services. The Director of Administrative Services thought this was a good example of decision-making."[1]

The model did not anticipate the conflict between the Director of Administrative Services and the Director of Academic Affairs. The resulting

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[1]Interview, Director of Academic Affairs, Cooperative Model School.

conflict had its effect on the overall school program and caused teachers and observers of the model school concept to, at times, doubt its validity. An objective view of the project, based upon the organizational scheme as provided for by the model, recognized distinct advantages not frequently found in traditionally organized elementary schools. The conflict pointed to the need in such organizational arrangements to ensure compatability of personality and philosophy within the persons assigned as administrators.

The continuous conflict and uncertainty which was apparent in the administration caused individual teams to become more united and to become somewhat of a school within a school, with the instructional leader as the principal. All decisions not directly related to in-class activities were discussed with the instructional leader and other team members. The instructional leaders formed an informal coordinating council. As was previously mentioned, there was some resentment of these meetings by senior teachers. Nevertheless, the instructional leaders maintained close contact with each other and were looked upon by their team members as the ones most likely to get concessions from the administration or to get action on matters of concern to them.

It should be noted that the present organizational arrangement does not inlcude a Director of Administrative Services. The Director of Academic Affairs became, in fact, the Principal. There appeared to have developed an informal power struggle with some instructional leaders. The instructional leaders have begun to blur the distinction between governance and curriculum. They have seen the principal more in the light of his governance functions than in the light of curriculum and instruction functions. Instructional leaders had seen themselves as being

responsible to the faculty for curriculum and instruction functions, just as they had when two directors were involved. The instructional leaders, more than other teachers, came to function as decision-makers and realized the potential they had for making changes in the school. A hierarchy had definitely developed which began to exclude the Principal's former role, that of Director of Academic Affairs.

In summary, teachers were given more freedom for making decisions and were becoming increasingly aware of the potential it provided. Instructional leaders understood their roles more completely and were unwilling to relinquish any authority with which they had been invested. One thing seemed very clear: When administrators and school boards agreed that teachers were to make decisions that were significant for the education of students, they had to also agree to accept as valid the decisions made. This did not mean that all constraints were to be suspended. It did mean that teachers needed to be provided expertise in the form of consultant services of all types and a collegial supervisory relationship with in-school administrators and allied personnel. Having done less when there were decisions to be made within the realm of teacher responsibilities only confirmed in the minds of many teachers that decision-making was permitted only when it was convenient and in the best interest of the bureaucratically structured school system.

A number of topics for further study have been generated during the present study, including the following:

1. What will happen when the organizational model used in Tarawa Terrace #2 Elementary School permits teachers to select all staff including the administrators?

2. What will happen over a period of time to the relationship between the instructional leaders and the Principal in a school designed to give teachers more authority for making instruction and curriculum decisions?

3. Will teachers in a school organized bureaucratically for governance and professionally for matters relating to curriculum and instruction continue over a period of time to move more toward traditional self-contained, textbook-oriented instruction strategies?

4. What kinds of educational experiences do teachers need to better prepare them to function in a school organized to encourage decision-making in matters pertaining to curriculum and instruction?

5. What significant differences are there in a school organized to encourage decision-making in matters pertaining to curriculum and instruction and one traditionally organized in such matters as teacher self-image, authority for making decisions, both real and perceived?

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APPENDICES

MODEL SCHOOL PROPOSAL

We know that children differ dramatically in physical, emotional, and mental development. Recent innovations in education have been designed to take into account these differences among children, as these affect their learning in school. Some of these innovations of direct concern to this project are: individualized instruction; nongradedness; differentiated staffing; and various technological advances, such as program learning and instructional media.

Critics of public schools have legitimately pointed out that most current patterns of school organization cannot cope effectively with individual differences among students in the traditional classroom, nor can one or two teachers carry out the varied tasks which must be accomplished if each student is to have an equal opportunity to succeed in school.

This cooperative project between the School of Education, University of North Carolina at Greensboro and the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools focuses on providing more meaningful instruction for children and, in turn, promoting student learning on an individualized basis. The project further provides for a cooperative arrangement with a major institution of higher learning whereby the university resources will be brought to bear on the instructional efforts of the Camp Lejeune School System. Such an arrangement should provide for infusion of the most current organizational patterns and instructional programs into the project school at Camp Lejeune, together with development of the staff and evaluation of the Camp Lejeune program by a group of objective experts.

This cooperative effort will focus on an effective approach to meeting the individual needs of each student. It will be designed to meet those needs by a more efficient use of professional and paraprofessional personnel and will bring to bear on the instructional process within the school a wider range of teacher abilities and expertise than is now possible under the present school organization. A brief description of the program follows:

Current enrollment of the school in question is approximately 600 students. These 600 students would be grouped into six groups. Three groups would include children whose ages range from six to nine or ten, and three groups of children whose ages range from ten to twelve, or possibly thirteen. Assigned to each group of approximately 100 students would be the following personnel: instructional leader, two senior teachers, three intern teachers, and three paraprofessionals (two instructional and one clerical.) This provides all types of possibilities for grouping so that it would not be rare to have one teacher working with one, two, three or four youngsters while others might be working with youngsters in groups varying in size from five to sixty, depending upon the learning activities which are to take place.

This organizational arrangement not only permits but actually encourages learning as an individual act on the part of the student, rather than a required activity for all students, no matter what their current level of achievement and motivation might be.

The instructional organization, briefly described, is undoubtedly more efficient than the current organization. It is no more expensive, largely because of the duties of student interns and teacher aides, who can perform quite well many of the tasks now performed by teachers.

A brief listing of some of the advantages of the proposed means of staffing and organizing for instruction should point out the advantages that will accrue to students as a result of the organization herein proposed.

The number of adults available to work with children will increase. For example, the current ratio of 1 to 16 will become 1 to 13; that is, one teacher--one adult for each 13 students.

The expert teachers in the school (that is, those with the most experience and those who demonstrated the most competence) will have a much wider influence in the school than is true under current organizational patterns. For example, they will directly influence the education of about 100 young students, rather than be restricted to influencing the education of approximately 20 to 25 students.

The instructional staff will, through this type of organization, not only be permitted, but encouraged to interact in such a way that the professional development of the staff will certainly be enhanced.

Curriculum innovations will be much more likely to be effectively employed, since the flexible organization herein proposed does not bind an individual teacher to a rigid daily schedule.

The support of university personnel would encourage continued experimentation of a controlled and relevant nature, providing alternate modes of instruction and employment of the latest teaching techniques.

Appropriate instructional changes are more likely to be adopted, by virtue of the close interaction of university personnel and school staff, as well as by virtue of the continued interaction of each instructional team.

Accountability for sound instruction will reside where it probably should reside; that is, with the teachers. But under this organization, teachers will actually be provided with the resources and decision making authority so that they can realistically be held accountable for what they do.

By employing differentiated staffing, model personnel can be active full-time within the school, rather than their normal placement in the Central Office. For example, the Instructional Leaders are to be of a caliber which one normally associates with curriculum coordinators at the Central Office

level. Basically, this provides for placing the expertise immediately in the situation in which that expertise is likely to be most effective, rather than having it at the Central Office where it is likely to be considerably less effective.

This program undoubtedly will attract regional, if not national attention, and thereby bring to the Camp Lejeune School System much educational focus which is, of course, in itself flattering but more importantly, seems to bring out the best in people as they perform their duties--and that includes students and teachers. To oversimplify, people who seem to think they are good and seem to look good in the eyes of others, turn out to be good!

All elements in the program are based on the most current and demonstrably sound approaches to instruction and school organization.

Director, Supervision and Curriculum

28 March 1973

DUTIES OF THE DIRECTOR OF ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES

1. Supervises non-instructional personnel such as secretaries, custodians, food service staff.

2. Supervises transportation of students.

3. Supervises buildings, grounds, and storage.

4. Handles requisitions of supplies and materials.

5. Maintains necessary records such as attendance of students and staff.

6. Is responsible for fiscal operation of the school.

7. Works with the public in community use of the facilities.

8. Works closely with Senior Instructional Leader in recommending to the person in charge of system-wide business matters instructional materials and supplies to be included in the school budget.

9. Can be approached by the teachers without going through the Senior Instructional Leader except for requisition of supplies and materials.

10. Works with Senior Instructional Leader to provide smooth operation of lunchroom, secretarial services, use of resources, and the like.

DUTIES OF THE DIRECTOR OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS

1. Assumes responsibility for instructional leadership.

2. Assists in planning continuing educational programs.

3. Assists in selecting teachers.

4. Assists in relating programs to objectives of the school system and to local community needs.

5. Encourages innovation and experimentation on the part of teachers.

6. Meets with parents to discuss and describe the program.

7. Helps teachers develop more effective teaching-learning situations.

8. Helps teachers deal with problems of pupil control and discipline.

9. Aids teachers in effective use of instructional media and materials.

10. Arranges for consultants to assist teachers.

11. Works with other supervisors and staff members to relate program to over-all system programs.

12. Works with Director of Administrative Services to provide smooth operation of lunchroom, secretarial services, use of resources, etc.

DUTIES OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

1. Organizes, with the assistance of team members, material to provide for clarity, continuity, and coverage of subject presentation.

2. Assists other team members in presentation of materials for classroom instruction to large and/or small groups. Numerous techniques of instruction are used; e.g., lectures, demonstrations, active student participation, and audio-visual aids. At times, outside consultants may be invited to participate as needed.

3. In cooperation with other team members, will keep current the required records of all students in that school on a daily, weekly, semester, and an annual basis.

4. With the assistance of the Director of Supervision and Curriculum, the Director of Administrative Services, and the Senior Instructional Leader, the Instructional Leader will conduct a testing program for the pupils she supervises.

5. Will participate in extra-curricular activities as an intricate part of the teaching responsibilities to include workshops, in-service training, etc.

6. In coordination with the Senior Instructional Leader, will coordinate activities with the School Librarian.

7. Will make special provisions for specialized instruction for pupils who need additional help in reading and speech.

8. In coordination with the Senior Instructional Leader and other team members, will be responsible for individual parent conferences and reports to parents on a periodic basis.

9. In cooperation with the Senior Instructional Leader and other team members, will be responsible for coordination of audio-visual equipment for both large and small group instruction.

10. In cooperation with the Senior Instructional Leader, will be responsible for the placement and reassignment of pupils within a program and/or other academic programs as required in order to meet the individual differences of each pupil assigned.

11. Will be responsible for the assignment of duties to the teacher aides in accordance with the current job description for teacher aides and the aide's ability. This will include, but not be limited to, such assignments as working with all members of the team, cutting stencils, supervising pupils in the cafeteria, etc.

12. Will be responsible for the assignment of duties to Intern Teachers in accordance with current directives of the college or university which assigns students to the school system. This includes working closely with the college professors who supervise the Intern Teachers. Will be responsible for coordinating the supervision of Intern Teachers by the Senior Teachers as well as herself---to include specific as well as general guidelines in assisting Intern Teachers in preparing lesson plans, in assigning them to other team members, and in making certain that each Intern Teacher becomes an active fully-participating team member.

13. The Instructional Leader will be responsible for briefing substitutes assigned to his/her team prior to reporting to the classroom.

14. Will utilize the services of the School Counselor in the instructional program, and will refer students to the Counselor when emotional, developmental, or behavioral problems are exhibited by students for whom she or her team are responsible.

15. Will assume other duties as they occur.

DUTIES OF THE SENIOR TEACHER

1. To organize material to provide clarity, continuity, and coverage in presentation, in cooperation with the Instructional Leader.

2. To present prescribed material as classroom instructions. Techniques of instruction are varied; e.g., lecture, demonstration, active student participation, both as a group and as individuals, and selective use of available visual-aids. The technique used will be dictated by the prevailing conditions which include background and interests of the students, maturity and sophistication of students, and knowledge of subject. This requires that the teacher exercise a high degree of perception and sensitivity to the needs of the student. Presentations will also include large and small group instruction and team teaching. Provisions will be made for individualized instruction as needed.

3. To evaluate student progress and provide counsel in ways and means to meet the needs of each individual student.

4. To keep current the required records.

5. To discuss students' progress with Senior Instructional Leader and parents as needed, both orally and in writing.

6. To participate in extra-curricular activities as assigned as an integral part of teaching responsibilities, to include workshops, in-service training, etc.

7. To assist the Instructional Leader in assigning duties to and guiding the progress of Intern Teachers.

8. To perform other duties as they may occur.

DUTIES OF INTERN TEACHER

1. Primary Responsibility: will include those tasks which the intern is competent to perform and for which the Intern will be responsible.

2. Secondary Responsibility: will include those tasks requiring competences less than those possessed by the Intern Teacher and normally performed by someone else but may be performed by the Intern Teacher if necessary or expedient to do so.

3. Assisting Responsibility: will include those tasks which require more skill and competence than the Intern Teacher currently demonstrates but for which she can and will develop the required competence by assuming an assisting role. When this competence occurs, the task will become primary responsibility.

DUTIES OF INSTRUCTIONAL AIDE

The Instructional Aide, with professional supervision, will function in an instructional setting. There will be daily planning with the Instructional Leader, Senior Teacher, and/or Intern Teacher; and specific teaching duties will be assigned. Some other typical duties will be as follows:

1. Supervise small study groups and committees, testing situations, children's individual research projects, and interest centers.

2. Help small groups and individuals with skill, remedial, and make-up work.

3. Collect resources such as maps, charts, magazine articles or library books for the teacher; correlate lesson assignments with special teachers and librarians.

4. Work in the school library as assigned.

5. Assist instructor of large groups by calling the roll, controlling fringe disciplinary problems, etc.

6. Accompany teacher on field trips.

7. Read to pupils and hear children read.

8. Perform miscellaneous duties as they occur.

DUTIES OF CLERICAL AIDE

The Clerical Aide will assist the team with routine non-teaching duties. Typical activities will include the following:

1. Preparing ditto masters, stencils, offset masters, and other instructional materials related to class lessons or displays, operating any office machines.

2. Working with all audio-visual aids.

3. Supervising playground, clean-up and safety patrol.

4. Typing letters, tests, schedules, and related teaching materials; assisting with bulletin boards.

5. Supervising children in the lunchroom, hallways, restrooms, etc., and collecting lunch money.

6. Assisting teachers with record keeping and attendance taking.

7. Copying reports, checking seatwork, and working with room library.

8. Performing miscellaneous duties as they occur.