A STUDY OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A BUREAUCRATIC-PROFESSIONAL MODEL OF DECISION-MAKING AT AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

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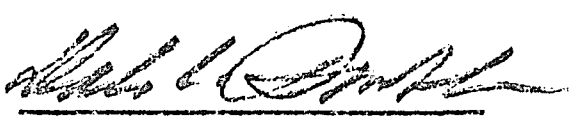

APPROVAL PAGE

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ABSTRACT

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This study analyzes and describes the implementation of a bureaucratic-professional model of decision-making in an elementary school in North Carolina. In the judgment of the originators of the conceptual model for the school, the bureaucratic organizational system was appropriate for governance functions, since it deals with matters in which the ends are measurable, the means for reaching such ends are agreed upon, and the causal relationship between means and ends is concretely demonstrable. In the area of curriculum and instruction, however, the professional organizational form is more acceptable due largely to the abstractness of educational ends. The vertical hierarchical bureaucratic system is less appropriate than the horizontal professional system that depends on trust in the expertise of colleagues.

The case study method is employed in order to investigate and describe the school during three different time spans: Time Span I, 1972-73 when the school operated in traditional fashion; Time Span II, 1973, spring and summer prior to the implementation of the model (planning period); and Time Span III, 1973-74, the school year and actual happenings. The investigator has studied the elementary school as a socio-

political system with emphasis on sociological and political aspect of the school. Elements of sociopolitical systems, such as educational ends (purpose levels, goals, and objectives), norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations served as organizing concepts.

The study is comparative. It compares and contrasts the school as a sociopolitical system at three different times in its history. In the process the investigator centers attention on the educational change process and in particular the relationship between the person and the organization within the culture of the school.

Change brought about by individuals and organizations is described as it relates to the school organization. Involvement in the change process itself is reflected in the attitudes and behavior of participants. In this case the investigator was the Instructional Leader of one of six teams (team five) in the elementary school. The research data were gathered in the form of a weekly log kept by the team members. The present study is a record of the team's attempt to provide conditions for personal development of each child, an attempt to allow teachers and children to influence curriculum decisions in order to meet levels of needs.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe and analyze a bureaucratic-professional model of decision-making implemented in an elementary school in the State of North Carolina. The bureaucratic form of organization depends on a particular attitude toward authority: the member of the bureaucracy is expected to accept the assumption that power should comply with the commands of those who are higher in the hierarchy. In the judgment of the originators of the conceptual model for the elementary school being investigated, the bureaucratic organizational system was appropriate for governance functions for "governance encompasses (and translates) the formal, legal rules and regulations which control the overall operation of the organization."[1] Those responsible for the governance functions in schools (administrators) are politically responsible for their actions and therefore must anticipate public reaction as well as deal with it after their decisions have been made.[2] The most appropriate organizational

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[1]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., "The School as an Organization: A Determinant of Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction," Journal of Instructional Psychology, Volume 1, Number 3 (Summer 1974), pp. 6-7.

[2]Ibid., p. 7.

form for governance functions is the bureaucratic one, for it deals with matters in which the ends are measurable, the means for reaching such ends are agreed upon, and the causal relationship between means and ends is concretely demonstrable.[1]

In the area of curriculum and instruction, however, the professional organizational form is more acceptable due largely to the abstractness of educational ends. The vertical hierarchical bureaucratic system is less appropriate than the horizontal professional system that depends on trust in the expertise of colleagues.[2]

The originators of the model which served as the basis for the elementary school being studied advocated the bureaucratic organizational form for governance and the professional organizational form for curriculum and instruction.

The investigator has employed the case study method in order to investigate and describe the school during three different time spans:

Time Span I	1972-73 when the school operated in traditional fashion
Time Span II	spring and summer of 1973 prior to implementation of model (planning period)
Time Span III	1973-74 school year and what happened to one team during first year of model's implementation

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Roland H. Nelson, Jr. and Lois V. Edinger, "Can We Tolerate A Teaching Profession? Part II," North Carolina Education, Volume V, Number 4 (December 1974), pp. 16-17.

The particular kind of case study method employed is that of the system analyst. The investigator has studied the elementary school as a sociopolitical system with emphasis on sociological and political aspects of the school. Elements of sociopolitical systems, such as educational ends (purpose levels, goals, and objectives), norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations served as organizing concepts. (See Figure 1-1)

It may be helpful to think of this study as a comparative one, for it compares and contrasts the school as a sociopolitical system at three different times in its history. In the process the investigator centers her attention on the educational change process and in particular the relationship between the person and the organization within the culture of the school. Involvement in the change process itself is reflected in the attitudes and behavior of participants. In this case the investigator was the leader of one of six teams (team five) in the elementary school. The research data were gathered in the form of a weekly log kept by the instructional leader and team members. The present study is a record of one team's attempt to provide conditions for personal and self-development of each child, an attempt at allowing teachers and children to influence curriculum[1] in order to meet levels of needs.

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[1]The term curriculum refers for the most part to plans for future action that take place prior to instruction. James B. Macdonald, "Education Models for Instruction--Introduction," Theories of Instruction, eds. James B. Macdonald and Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965), pp. 1-7.

		1972-73 Description of School as Traditionally Organized TIME SPAN I	Spring and Summer, 1973 Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model TIME SPAN II	1973-74 Actual Implementation of Bureaucratic-Professional Model, Team Five and Total School TIME SPAN III
ENDS	Purpose level	→	→	→
	Goals	→	→	→
	Objectives	→	→	→
MEANS	Norms	→	→	→
	Rewards	→	→	→
	Sanctions	→	→	→
	Evaluation	→	→	→

Figure 1-1
Elements of a Sociopolitical System in Three Time Spans at Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools Camp Lejeune, North Carolina

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

The basic approach of the case study method is to deal with all pertinent aspects of an individual or social institution. This procedure has been followed extensively in law, medicine, psychology, education, social work, and other academic areas. It is the most fitting method of research to present detailed, comprehensive analysis of the sociopolitical system of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School. The case study approach is enhanced by use of organizing concepts. The sociopolitical systems' model provides the researcher with an investigative framework to understand the past and describe plans and actual developments in the future.

The case study approach to research has been used successfully in the following fields:

personnel management
child welfare
American history
atomic collision physics
behavior modification
community organizations
cultural anthropology
marketing
school supervision.

Each study provided a unique view into the perspectives of group dynamics. Chinoy stated that the value of the case study method lay in its efforts to discover all the variables

relevant to a given case and provide an insight unattainable through statistical analysis.[1]

The case study approach has a long history according to Brackenbury.

> It probably would not be going far astray to state that Comenius was first to break away [from conceptualizing]...he made a start in "getting down to cases" by introducing the picture textbook. Of course Pestalozzi went him one better by formulating instruction through real objects themselves...Pestalozzian object instruction was inductive...and if we are developing inquiring minds today, by means of "getting down to cases," it is Pestalozzi we have largely to thank.[2]

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, Christopher C. Langdell, Dean of the Harvard Law School, proposed that law students "get down to cases" instead of reading about law in books of principles like Blackstone's or Kent's famous Commentaries on the Law.[3] Langdell proposed that students read cases adjudicated by courts and inductively formulate appropriate rules of law. The courts soon recognized those lawyers trained by the case method as excelling and other law schools began to emulate Harvard's method. Soon other disciplines followed law's lead. The Harvard Business School adopted the case method successfully.[4]

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[1]Ely Chinoy, "Case Study Method," A Dictionary of the Social Sciences, ed. by Julius Gould and W. L. Kolb (New York: The Free Press, 1964), pp. 74-75.

[2]Robert L. Brackenbury, Getting Down to Cases: A Problems Approach to Educational Philosophizing (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959), pp. 9-10.

[3]Ibid., p. 10.

[4]Ibid.

Frederic Le Play is reputed to have been the first to use the case study method for social sciences.[1] John Dewey and other experimentalists urged philosophers to turn their attention from the traditional problems of philosophy to the problems of people, from the search for absolutes, universals and "reality" to the crucial issues of the day.[2]

The investigator is concerned with maintaining objectivity while participating in the situation being described. It is difficult to remain emotionally uninvolved in writing a description of attitudes, alternatives, and changes in a school where one is employed. No apology is made for total involvement in the project.[3]

Blau stated that the observer should note the kind of people who relate to one another, the content of the interaction, and the effects of the interaction on the participants.[4] In order to accomplish this observation an investigator may

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[1]Pauline V. Young, Scientific Social Surveys and Research (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1966), p. 247.

[2]Brackenbury, Cases, pp. 14-15.

[3]A major problem with articles that summarize research findings is that such reports fail to convey to the reader the subjective nature of the inquirer's investigation. The researcher's acceptance of some assumptions, rejection of others, his emotional state at any given moment of inquiry, his ventures down blind alleys, his teasing out of ideas are missing in most research reports. And yet, it is precisely these subjective aspects of research that fascinate fellow inquirers. It is the present researcher's intent to convey the subjective aspects of research to the reader.

[4]Peter M. Blau, "Observation," International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Volume 11, pp. 233-35.

become a participant observer. Riley, however, described valid research through observation without participation contending that this would avoid a biased viewpoint.[1] The investigator has made a conscious effort to avoid a biased viewpoint while reporting subjective analysis.

Most of the information concerning this study was gathered in a weekly log. Every participant, especially instructional leaders, was encouraged to keep a weekly log of events, changes, evident alternatives, and anything considered by the participant to be important. The collection of this material was made with no disruption to the group being observed.

The Sociopolitical System Paradigm

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, information gathered by use of the case study method must be placed in some kind of descriptive framework. The investigator has chosen the sociopolitical system framework with its various elements to serve this purpose. The two major divisions within this sociopolitical system paradigm are educational ends (purpose levels, goals, and objectives) and educational means (norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluation).

Organizations like persons have their own levels of development. Roland H. Nelson revised Abraham Maslow's

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[1]Matilda Riley, Sociological Research Vol. 1, A Case Approach, ed. Robert Merton (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1963), p. 58.

personal needs levels and applied the basic psychological scheme to organizations. According to Nelson, at any given time of their development an organization may be placed on one of four purpose levels:

Level 1 Survival: The organization's very existence is at stake.

Level 2 Commergence: The organization wants to be known as a "status" institution that belongs with other "status" institutions.

Level 3 Differentiation: Secure in belonging, the organization can now differentiate and take some chances.

Level 4 Self-Actualization: Experimentation and creativity are the norm.[1]

Purpose levels may therefore be defined as overall aims of an organization which are influenced by factors external to the organization. That is, an organization can not completely control its purpose level. For example, a school bond issue may not pass due to an incident in the community or economic problems in the region or nation. In the case of Tarawa Terrace II School, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare may at any time simply decide to close the school.[2]

Goals are defined as general statements of intent. Goals are stated in general terms for public relations purposes and

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[1]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974), p. 8.

[2]The Camp Lejeune Dependents' School System, of which Tarawa Terrace II School is a part, is a federally funded division of Health, Education and Welfare, not affiliated with the Public Schools of North Carolina.

a guide for the preparation of more specific objectives. Goals are abstract in the sense that they are not quantifiable or measurable. An abstract goal might read as follows: "This school's goal is to prepare children to become citizens of our democracy." Such a goal is a concept with which it would be foolish to argue. It is the implementation of the resulting objectives which causes conflict.

Objectives are defined as specific statements which are measurable and objectively stated. Objectives reflect goals as goals reflect purpose levels.[1]

The other elements of the sociopolitical system (means) are norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluation.

Norms are defined as "rules of the game." Some norms are stated specifically and some are understood. Since norms are not always precise, it is understood that they set parameters of acceptable behavior. Those persons participating in a sociopolitical system agree, formally or informally, on norms as guides.

Rewards are used to enforce norms. As participants conform to the norms of the sociopolitical system, the system reinforces positive behavior by rewards.

Sanctions are defined as punishment. Just as rewards are given to reinforce acceptable behavior, negative sanctions are given to indicate unacceptable behavior.

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[1]Brubaker and Nelson, Creative Survival, pp. 8-9.

Evaluation is an ongoing assessment process. The following questions are constantly asked:

1. What has the sociopolitical system done to meet its goals and objectives?
2. Are norms fair to participants?
3. Are rewards and sanctions successful in influencing change?

Evaluation is a circular process. It goes back to look at what has been done and circles ahead to project a future course of action.

In conclusion, an organization is faced with a basic dilemma to be reconciled: Its participants have unlimited desires, but the organization has limited resources.[1] The effectiveness of the organization in allocating its resources is determined by the extent to which it reaches its educational ends (purpose levels, goals, and objectives). This effectiveness can be studied by focusing on educational means (norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluation) at any given time in the history of the sociopolitical system.

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[1]Brubaker and Nelson, "The School as an Organization," p. 2.

DESCRIPTION OF SETTING

The Cooperative Model School's conceptualization grew out of a plan of staff development by Dr. P. T. Lancaster, Superintendent of Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools. Dr. Lancaster requested permission from the Camp Lejeune School Board in 1971 that one person each year from the school's administrative system be granted sabbatical leave to pursue a doctoral degree. The first candidate to be granted leave was James M. Howard, Guidance Counselor at Lejeune High School. He chose the University of North Carolina at Greensboro to work on his degree and enrolled there in 1972. The administration of Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools indicated an interest in having consultants from the university work with school personnel in staff development. Since the Education Department at the university was in the process of conceptualizing a new model for schools, both institutions had a unique opportunity to cooperate in an experimental model school. The university agreed to send student teachers to participate.

Plans for the school were written by Howard in his doctoral dissertation, A Study of the Relative Significance of Positional Authority and Expertise in an Experimental School. It was agreed that Tarawa Terrace II School would be designated as the site of the project and that the school year 1973-74 would initiate the experiment.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL POPULATION

The school population of Tarawa Terrace II School consists of approximately six hundred students in grades one through six and special education students from all of the housing areas. Distribution by grades shows approximately one hundred students per grade (more in grades one and two; fewer in grade six and thirty-five in special education). Most of the students come from the homes of the lower ranking enlisted Marines (E-6 and below). The general education level of the parents is high school and below. Previous to their military service, most came from a low socio-economic level.[1]

Since the students are military dependents, they are entitled to free medical treatment but not dental care. Children are required to have a physical examination upon entering kindergarten or first grade. The Regional Medical Center aboard the base provides these services. Annual fluoride treatments are administered as well as eye screening examinations. Free immunizations are available.[2]

The students have opportunities for leisure time activities on the base such as swimming, movies, fishing,

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[1]Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School Self-Study (Camp Lejeune, N. C.: Marine Corps Base Dependents' Schools, 1972), p. 12.

[2]Ibid., p. 14.

baseball, football, hobby shops, hunting, and a summer recreation program that is wide in scope.[1]

Tarawa Terrace II School is one of five elementary schools in the Camp Lejeune Dependents' School System providing education for school age children in grades one through six from Tarawa Terrace and Knox Trailer Park housing areas. The school has a traditional background exemplified in the architecture and personnel. The school consists of thirty classrooms, one art room, one reading room, an auditorium, a library, one teachers' lounge, a cafeteria, and an office complex as well as various rest room and storage areas. Prior to implementation of the Cooperative Model, 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 contrast to this traditional description, the Cooperative Model School was designed to have two branches (the bureaucratic for governence, and the professional for curriculum and instruction). The weekly log of events written by the Instructional Leader of team five cites examples of the joys, frustrations, and responsibilities of bringing about change in the school setting. Since change is the key word, the following search of the literature will be concerned with

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[1] Ibid., p. 15.

change as brought about by individuals and change brought about by organizations.

CHAPTER 11

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There are two different views of change as evidenced in educational research and writing: the first being that the individual is the most important source of power in initiating and sustaining change, and the second that the organization is the most important determinant of change.

Those who initiated change in the Cooperative Model School Project, particularly Consultant Y, supported the view that organizational changes should preceed individual changes. As a result, the plan for change at the Cooperative School Project originated with consultants from the university. The degree of success achieved by those to be influenced by the project was determined, however, by individuals who volunteered for positions in the project itself. Certainly there is no clearly distinguishable line dividing change by organizations and change by individuals.

Sarason made the assumption that with any complicated social organization not all starting points are equally effective in leading to widespread change in a complicated setting. In addition, the problem of "Who should start where?" complicated the change process.[1]

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[1]Seymour B. Sarason, The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), p. 216.

The following review of related literature will describe individuals involved in the change process, and in a later section, change brought about by organizations. The first part of this chapter will review writing and actions of some of the educators from the past and present, each of whom focuses on individual rather than organizational change: Comenius with his picture books; Pestalozzi with his object lessons; Dewey with his life experiences; Sylvia Ashton-Warner with her organic teaching; Paulo Friere with his generative theme; John Holt, Jonathan Kozol, James Herndon, James Macdonald, and many others. Many times their techniques work because of the unique personality of the developer. Other teachers do not find these same techniques to be successful in similiar situations.

The chapter will conclude with a description of research and writing based on the view that organizational change should be primary. Three eras of organization will be described as they relate to education. The eras are

1. Scientific Management
2. Human Relations
3. Behavioral Approach

Human concern for children's learning has been the subject of books, discussions, and informal meetings as long as schools have existed. Many educators believe that change can be brought about best by an increase in teacher sensitivity to the child's needs, just as many others think that the organizational system

itself is responsible for bringing about an orderly progression of improvement. Sessions on sensitivity training have been held for teachers, just as many organizational meetings have been held--all for the purpose of bringing about improvement in children's learning. The intent is the same, but the methods for arriving at this improvement are vastly different.

The two parts of the chapter will be:

1. Change brought about by individuals.
2. Change brought about by organizations.

INDIVIDUAL OR PERSONAL CHANGE

Those who want to begin with and continue with the individual or person as the center of change operate on the optimistic tenet that man can and should be the measure of all things. This idealistic view of man argues that man, if left alone, will naturally tend to do good. Or as some humanists argue, it is the formation of groups, organizations, and societies that corrupts man.

> The great difficulty is that men do notthink enough of themselves, do not consider what it is that they are sacrificing when they follow in a herd, or when they cater for their establishment.[1]

Later Emerson wrote:

> Society everywhere is in conspiracy against the manhood of every one of its members. Society is a joint-stock company, in which the members agree, for the better securing of its bread to each shareholder, to surrender the liberty and culture of the eater. The virtue in most request is conformity. Self-reliance is its aversion. It loves not realities and creators, but names and customs. Whoso would be a man, must be a nonconformist. He who would gather immortal palms must not be hindered by the name of goodness. Nothing is at last sacred but the integrity of your own mind.[2]

Thoreau agreed in the following statement:

> I learned this, at least, by my experiment: that if one advances confidently in the direction of

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[1]Ralph Waldo Emerson, Essays (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1903), p. 388.

[2]Ibid., pp. 49-50.

> his dreams, and endeavours to live the life which he has imagined, he will meet with a success unexpected in common hours. He will put some things behind, will pass an invisible boundry; new, universal, and more liberal laws will begin to establish themselves around and within him; or the old laws to be expended, and interpreted in his favour in a more liberal sense, and he will live with the license of a higher order of beings. In proportion as he simplifies his life, the laws of the universe will appear less complex, and solitude will not be solitude, nor poverty poverty, nor weakness weakness. If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost: that is where they should be. Now put the foundations under them.[1]

These are some of the educators who "built castles in the air and put foundations under them."

In his Pedagogic Creed, John Dewey wrote:

> I believe that
> --the school is primarily a social institution. Education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race, and to use his own powers for social ends...education therefore is a process of living and not preparation for future living.[2]

Durkheim wrote of the school master as one who revealed rules to children. Piaget, on the other hand, did not agree.

> We do not agree with Durkheim in thinking that it is the master's business to impose or even to "reveal" rules to the child. A "priest" is the last thing a schoolmaster should be: he should be an elder collaborator, and if he

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[1]Henry David Thoreau, Walden or Life in the Woods (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927), p. 280.

[2]John Dewey, Education Today (New York: GP Putman's Sons, 1940), p. 6.

> has it in him, a simple comrade to the children. Then only will true discipline come into being--discipline that the children themselves have willed and consented to. Every educationalist who has really made the experiment has found that this is what actually happens. The sense of a common law which, as we have shown in connection with the rules of a game, as it is possessed by children 9-12, show clearly enough how capable is the child of discipline and democratic life, when he is not, as at school, condemned to wage war against authority.[1]

Dewey, Durkheim, and Piaget put their respective philosophies to test in classroom situations.

Lessinger made the analogy that if one airplane in four crashed between take-off and landing, people would refuse to fly; yet our schools somehow fail one youngster in four.[2]

Growing Up Absurd related the problems of youth in the organized system. Goodman said that the solution is hard but simple: decide that the kids are in the right and make good education at whatever cost.[3] His solution is stated in the following premise:

> For many bright "underachievers" it is not the curriculum and methods that are at fault, but their lack of interest in lessons and scholastic environment altogether. They need

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[1]Jean Piaget, The Moral Judgment of the Child (Glencoe: Free Press, 1960), p. 367.

[2]Leon M. Lessinger, Every Kid's A Winner: Accountability in Education (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1970), p. 3.

[3]Paul Goodman, Growing Up Absurd: Problems of Youth in the Organized System (New York: Random House, 1960), p. 200.

> real products to show, not examinations that have been passed.[1]

Friedenburg's research on the influence of a mass society on adolescence is by his own admission biased, but provocative.[2]

> In a mass society, education designed to help people understand the meaning of their lives and become more sensitive to the meaning of other people's lives and relate to them more fully is bound to be education for a minority; for only a minority will accept it or demand enough of themselves to take part in it. The problem is not how to extend the appeal of such education, but how to protect and support it against the hostility of people who are frightened or outraged by it.[3]

There is no end to the definitions, suggestions, and complaints, as individuals face the problems and joys of education. Some retreat to the pessimistic state of hopelessness while others improve the situation with their persistence.

> In his Sixth Annual Message to the Congress, Jefferson suggested a constitutional amendment to enable the establishment of a national university and its financing with "an endowment of lands." The Congress did not follow the suggestion, and in his last years, Jefferson devoted himself to the establishment, against the opposition of the "priests of the different religious sects," of his University of Virginia, to be "based on the illimitable freedom of the human mind...not afraid to follow

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[1]Paul Goodman, People or Personnel Decentralizing and the Mixed System (New York: Random House, 1965), p. 201.

[2]Edgar Z. Friedenburg, Coming of Age in America Growth and Acquiescence (New York: Random House, 1965), p. VIII.

[3]Ibid., p. 222.

> the truth wherever it may lead, nor to tolerate any error so long as reason is left free to combat it."[1]

Phillipe Aries traced the evolution of schools from the medieval colleges, which were rather like open universities, to custodial institutions where children of a certain age were kept.[2] Harsh discipline enforced upon surly and rebellious children became the rule. In sixteenth century England, flogging demonstrations were part of the graduation exercises for prospective Latin masters.[3] In 1870, Benjamin Rush observed that the spread of more humane and civilized ways of treating people had not yet reached the schools: "The rod is yet the principle instrument of governing them, and a school-master remains the only despot known in free countries."[4]

Although changes took place earlier in some other countries, it could be said that down to the middle of the nineteenth century, a state of martial law characterized the schools of England, Canada, and the United States.[5]

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[1]Horace M. Kallen, The Education of Free Men An Essay Toward A Philosophy of Education for Americans (New York: Farrar, Straus and Company, 1949), p. 22.

[2]Phillipe Aries, Centuries of Childhood (New York: Random House, 1962), p. 304.

[3]P. R. Cole, A History of Educational Thought (London: Oxford University Press, 1931), p. 160.

[4]From an extract in E. W. Knight and C. L. Hall, eds., Reading in America Educational History (New York: Greenwood Press, 1951), p. 473.

[5]Paul Monroe, "History of Corporal Punishment," in Encyclopedia of Education, Vol. 5 (New York: Macmillan Co., 1913).
F. H. Johnson, "Changing Conceptions of Discipline and Pupil-Teacher Relations in Canadian Schools" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Toronto, 1952).

Some individuals viewed schools with such pessimism that they advocated tearing down and starting anew.

> Most schools remain about what they have always been, bad places for children, or for that matter anyone to be in, to live in, to learn in.[1]

Holt's suggestion to relieve the situation is

> not primarily to persuade educators and psychologists to swap new doctrines for old, but to persuade them to look at children, patiently, repeatedly, respectfully, and to hold off making theories and judgments about them until they have in their minds what most of them do not now have--a reasonably accurate model of what children are like.[2]

Many students, especially those who are poor, intuitively know what schools do for them. According to Illich,

> ...they school them to confuse process and substance. Once these become blurred, a new logic is assumed: the more treatment there is, the better are the results; or, escalation leads to success. The pupil is thereby "schooled" to confuse teaching with learning, grade advancement with education, a diploma with competence, and fluency with the ability to say something new. His imagination is "schooled" to accept service in place of value...I will show that the institutionalization of values leads inevitably to physical pollution, social polarization, and psychological impotence: three dimensions in a process of global degredation and modernizing misery.[3]

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[1]John Holt, The Underachieving School (New York: Delta Books, 1969), pp. 15-16.

[2]John Holt, How Children Learn (New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1967), p. 144.

[3]Ivan Illich, Deschooling Society (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1970), pp. 1-2.

Illich's solution to the problem was "unhampered participation in a meaningful setting."[1]

Skinner discussed the "Literature of Freedom" and its emphasis on the misery from which one is to escape in order to savor the absence of aversive control.[2] Skinner's solution called for nonaversive techniques of control or "positive reinforcers." He quoted Jean-Jacques Rousseau, one of the great figures in the literature of freedom:

> Let the child believe that he is always in control, though it is always you the teacher who really controls. There is no subjugation so perfect as that which keeps the appearance of freedom, for in that way one captures volition itself.[3]

Rousseau maintained that childhood has a right to happiness, that it is an independent state and not simply an anteroom to maturity.[4] He set about to prove his theories by putting them into practice.

Bereiter's solution to a better life for children

> is not a neutral or value-free treatment of children. This would be impossible in any event. I am proposing that the cultural life of children should be treated like the cultural life of adults--as something that should have quality, meaning, and moral value in the here-and-now rather than in some future state of

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[1] Ibid., p. 56.

[2] B. F. Skinner, Beyond Freedom and Dignity (New York: Random House, 1971), pp. 30-31.

[3] Ibid., p. 37.

[4] Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Emile, trans. Barbara Foxley, Intro. Andre Boutet De Monvel (London: J. M. Deut and Sons, Ltd., 1966), p. viii.

> development. Cultural facilities and activities should be designed to enable children to make fuller use of the human qualities they already have rather than to develop new qualities.[1]

Montessori denounced society for its arbitrary and cruel restriction on liberty. She became leader of the group in which she worked and they called her "Mammolina."[2]

Her idea of "liberty" was that of the Catholic tradition, which offered an absolute freedom to do what was right, but reserved to authority at all times the power of determining what was wrong. According to Montessori, "Things are the best teachers."[3]

This was much the same way that Pestalozzi described Gertrude, "She taught accurate and intelligent observation of common objects..."[4]

Educators, "wanting to do the right thing," have not found their definition of the right way to be the easy way. In The Lonely Teacher, Knoblock described the overwhelming feeling of insignificance as to the impact teachers had on the children in their class.[5] "I found myself becoming more

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[1]Carl Bereiter, Must We Educate? (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1973), p. 14.

[2]Maria Montessori, The Montessori Method, trans. Anne E. George, Intro. Martin Moyer (Cambridge: Robert Bentley, Inc., 1967), p. XXVII.

[3]Ibid., p. XXIX.

[4]Pestalozzi, Leonard and Gertrude (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1885), p. 131.

[5]Peter Knoblock and Arnold P. Goldstein, The Lonely Teacher (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), p. 117.

and more disillusioned by the little box in which I was supposed to fit, and less and less inclined to want to fit there."[1]

There is a continued search for "the right thing" and "the right way" to help individuals become a vital part of their surroundings through the education process. It was proved in Brazil by Paulo Freire that adults could be made literate within six weeks of evening classes if skills were built around the emotion-loaded key words of the adults' political vocabulary. He was, however, considered such a threat to the old order that he was jailed in 1964, later released and encouraged to leave the country.[2]

Individuals changing institutions often meet with suppression from society, but change is inevitable whether it be brought about by individuals or by organizations. Illich offered encouragement to those who could bring about change. "The fear that new institutions will be imperfect, in their turn, does not justify our servile acceptance of the present ones."[3]

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[1]George Henderson, To Live in Freedom, Human Relations Today and Tomorrow (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1972), p. 146.

[2]Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, tr. by Myra Bergman Ramos (New York: Herder and Herder, 1972), p. 11.

[3]Ivan Illich, Celebration of Awareness (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), p. 134.

It is realistic to see change as inherent "in the very nature of things" including the very nature of social life.[1] "Nothing remains what, where and as it was, but everything moves, changes, comes into being, and passes out of existance."[2] Reality is not static. All being is "in flux, is constantly changing, constantly coming into being and passing away."[3] Whether we are dealing with the individuals, or organizations, change is of the essence. The Swiss psychiatrist, Paul Tournier, in his The Meaning of Persons, says: "The perfectly stable being is nothing but an automaton, without life--a thing."[4] "The pure conservative is fighting against the essence of the universe."[5]

Individuals bring about change in curriculum by inserting their own values into a system. Some educators say that curriculum is a set of institutionalized values. Raths lists seven steps in the process of valuing.

1. Choosing freely. If something is in fact to guide one's life whether or not authority is watching, it must be a result of free choice...

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[1]Alfred North Whitehead, Science and the Modern World (New York: Macmillan, 1925), p. 179.

[2]Frederick Engles, Anti-Duhring, trans. Emile Burns (New York: International Publishers, 1939), p. 26.

[3]Ibid., p. 27.

[4]Paul Tournier, The Meaning of Persons, trans. Edwin Hudson (New York: Harper & Row, 1957), p. 100.

[5]Alfred North Whitehead, Adventures of Ideas (New York: Mentor Books, 1933), p. 273.

2. Choosing from among alternatives. This definition of values is concerned with things that are chosen by the individual and, obviously, there can be no choice if there are no alternatives from which to choose...

3. Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative. Impulsive or thoughtless choices do not lead to values as we define them...

4. Prizing and cherishing. When we value something, it has a positive tone...

5. Affirming. When we have chosen something freely, after consideration of the alternatives, and when we are proud of our choice, glad to be associated with it, we are likely to affirm that choice when asked about it.

6. Acting upon choices. Where we have a value, it shows up in aspects of our living...

7. Repeating. Where something reaches the stage of a value, it is very likely to reappear on a number of occasions in the life of the person who holds it.[1]

Allport gets more specific about values.

...some people say, "Well, let's leave the teaching of values to the home and to the church. Schools can't do much of anything about the matter."

This position is untenable. If the school does not teach values, it will have the effect of denying them. If the child at school never hears a mention of honesty, modesty, charity, or reverence, he will be persuaded that, like many of his parent's ideas, they are simply old hat.[2]

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[1]Louis E. Raths, Merril Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, Values and Teaching (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966), pp. 28-29.

[2]Gordon W. Allport, "Values and Our Youth," Contemporary Issues in Educational Psychology, ed. Harvey F. Clarizio and others (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1970), p. 15.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Introduction

In this century three recognizable periods of differing ideas of organizations have emerged.

1. The era of Scientific Management (approximately 1910-1935).
2. The era of Human Relations (approximately 1935-1950).
3. The era of the Behavioral Approach (approximately 1950-).

Each of these will be analyzed as they relate to the school organization.

Although scientific administration has generally been considered a Twentieth Century phenomenon, this is not necessarily so. As early as the Third Century in China, Han Fei Tzu established a set of management principles. His essential ingredient was that management should have a set of clearly defined rules.

> The intelligent ruler unifies measures and weights, sets up different standards, and steadfastly maintains them. Therefore, his decrees are promulgated and the people follow them...When a subject makes claims, the ruler gives him work according to what he has claimed, but holds him wholly responsible for accomplishment corresponding to this work. When the accomplishment corresponds to the work, and the work corresponds to what the man claimed he could do, he is rewarded.[1]

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[1]Donald V. etz, "The First Management Consultant?" Management Review, LIII September, 1965, p. 55.

The Era of Scientific Management

Frederick W. Taylor is the name most widely recognized as the leader of the scientific management era. He had a scientific and engineering background and was one of the top engineering consultants in American industry in the early 1900's. He developed his principles of scientific management which became popular in different kinds of organizations. These principles were aimed at lowering the unit cost of factory production, although he and his followers claimed that these principles could be applied universally.[1]

A popular best seller a few years ago, Cheaper by the Dozen, recounted how "efficiency" invaded every corner of the family life of Frank B. Gilbreth, one of Taylor's closest colleagues.[2] The family was scheduled to perform minute, specialized tasks, which when taken together would get the job done. This was one of Taylor's key steps of management--distribution of minute tasks. Another key step was the coordination of these numerous specialized tasks to accomplish the entire work.

In practice, Taylor's ideas led to time-and-motion studies, rigid discipline on the job, concentration on tasks to be per-

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[1]Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1911), p. 8.

[2]Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 5.

formed with minimal interpersonal contacts between workers, and strict application of incentive pay systems.[1]

School systems were influenced by Taylor's management systems. Specialization set in motion a counter-process of coordination. The specialized work of schools was coordinated from Central Offices responsible for reintegrating specialized activities into a consistent whole. Central Offices were rooted in three principles: centralized graded authority, a system of rules, and impersonality much like industry. From the Central Office resided ultimate authority for final decisions concerning the ends of the organization, decisions on the functions of policy, and the regulation of affairs of subordinate officers. According to Blau, this kind of "Chain of Command" was an elaborate ritual designed to maintain consistency among well-defined spheres of competence.[2] What appeared rational for the individual may violate the rationality of the organization. Lane, Corwin, and Monahan contend:

> Much of the administrator's daily routine consists of applying rules to particular cases. This persistent reference to rules routinizes even the most dramatic work problems which confront the organization by classifying them and prescribing standard solutions. An irate parent who approaches the superintendent of schools with a problem which seems uniquely tragic (as for example, her child's failure in a subject) may resent the routine detached way she is treated by the superintendent's

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[1]Amitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 21.

[2]P. M. Blau, Bureaucracy in Modern Society (New York: Random House, 1956), p. 88.

> office. Nevertheless, at the same time it is precisely this ability to routinize problems whether problems of illness in the hospital, death in the morgue, or failure in school--which increases the public's confidence in the professional bureaucrat. As a matter of fact, the parent would have little confidence in a superintendent who did not see something of the routine even in the tragic; it permits rationality to rule emotion-ridden situations. In addition, this bureaucratic detachment enables the organization to more "exactly" pursue its fundamental purpose.[1]

Callahan documented the influence of scientific management on the thinking of public school administrators. The principles of time-and-motion study were interpreted by some schoolmen to mean that there was one best way of doing any job and that this method could be determined only through scientific analysis. Teaching functions were reduced to formula of dollar and cents.

> 5.9 pupil-recitations in Greek are of the same values as 23.8 pupil-recitations in French...it takes 41.7 pupil-recitations in vocal music to equal the value of 13.9 pupil-recitations in art...[2]

It was suggested that Greek instruction at 5.9 pupil-recitations per dollar was too high and that schools should invest in something else.[3]

In order to implement efficiency, definite lessons were prepared by the teacher for each day's work. Close super-

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[1]William R. Lane, Ronald G. Corwin, and William G. Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, A Behavioral Analysis (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967), p. 184.

[2]Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962), p. 73.

[3]Ibid.

vision was considered a necessity to assure efficient performances. Efficiency was measured in terms of numbers of pupils, classes, and time devoted to work. Remedies for inefficiency were as simple as the formula for computing them. Organizational schemes copying the industrial assembly line were introduced.

> The productivity of the system was measured in terms of the proportion of the students in the system who enrolled and graduated in comparison to the proportion of withdrawals. The alarming number of dropouts, some educators thought, constituted a loss of "raw material during the process of production" such as would bankrupt a private manufacturing industry within a short period of time. One remedy for this problem was to change the curriculum from one which appealed to the bright child to one which would appeal to the average pupil.[1]

Cubberly described schools in 1916 in the following manner:

> Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which raw products (children) are to be shaped and fashioned into products to meet the various demands of life. The specifications for manufacturing came from the demands of twentieth century civilization, and it is the business of the school to build its pupils according to the specifications laid down. This demands good tools, specialized machinery, continuous measurement of production to see if it is according to specifications, the elimination of waste in manufacture, and a large variety in the output.[2]

The principle of impersonality promoted discipline by separating "office" from "person." This maximized job

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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: Meredith Publishing Company, 1965), p. 79.

[2]Ellwood P. Cubberly, Public School Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1916), pp. 337-38.

requirements while minimizing personality. This impersonal characteristic of school bureaucracies was protected by elaborate record keeping procedures and handbooks. This makes knowledge the property of the organization rather than of persons. Some teachers made their own materials or study guides chosen by the organization which would, in the opinion of management, be the most efficient way to teach. Handbooks of stated rules for personnel were impersonal. All personnel were treated alike. Even though the reader of the handbook did not personally agree with the rules, he need not have the feeling that he was being singled out to follow them. The impersonality of the handbook told him that he could expect to be treated the same as everyone else.

Lane described specialization and coordination as a picture of expansion and contraction, a constant process of delegation and recentralization. "In general, the greater the specialization, the greater will be the centralizating tendencies since greater specialization demands greater coordination."[1]

Max Weber, the name most often associated with the word bureaucracy, explained the necessity of bureaucracy in the following paragraph:

> The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization. The fully developed bureaucratic

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[1]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 184.

> mechanism compares with other organizations exactly as does the machine with the non-mechanical modes of production.
>
> Precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of the files, continuity, discretion, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and of material and personal costs--these are raised to the optimum point in the strictly bureaucratic administration, and especially in its monocratic form, as compared with all collegiate, honorific, and avocational forms of administration, trained bureaucracy is superior on all these points. And as far as complicated tasks are concerned, paid bureaucratic work is not only more precise, but in the last analysis, it is often cheaper than even formally unremunerated honorific service.[1]

The era of scientific management was, then, an era of adapting methods of efficiency in industry to schools. However, rules began to function in a circular fashion which were both functional and dysfunctional for the organization of schools. Rules often resulted in a means—ends inversion for the organization. Some schools seemed to lose sight of the fact that the function of a school organization was to educate the child—not to maintain itself. Industry became aware that significant improvements in organizational effectiveness might be dependent upon the ability of personnel to fulfill their needs and expectations. Thus, the era of Human Relations emerged about 1935.

> It is horrible to think that the world could one day be filled with nothing but those little cogs, little men clinging to little jobs and striving toward bigger ones...This passion for bureaucracy is enough to drive one to despair... and the great question is therefore not how we

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[1]Max Weber, Essays in Sociology, trans. H. H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills (New York: Oxford University Press, 1958), p. 214.

> can promote and hasten it, but what can we oppose to this machinery in order to keep a portion of mankind free from this parcelling-out of the soul from this supreme mastery of the bureaucratic way of life?[1]

The Era of Human Relations

There is a significant body of literature investigating the human being at work in the organization. One pioneering study of this subject was the famous Hawthorne Research at Western Electric Company by Elton Mayo and his associates. These experiments were designed to determine effects of light, rest periods, length of work day, wage incentives, fatigue and monotony on employee satisfaction and productivity. The staging of the experiments altered the environment to the extent that researchers were no longer measuring the results of a typical work situation, but were instead observing an environment of the researcher's creation.[2]

The fact that the effort was sponsored by the highly respected Howard Business School and was carried on with the cooperation of American Telephone and Telegraph Company lent an aura of credibility to the studies which provided the work with enormous respectability.[3] The time had come when efficiency was being replaced or at least altered by the recognition

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[1]Reinhard Bendix, Max Weber: An Intellectual Portrait (Garden City, N. J.: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 455-56.

[2]Marcus Alexis and Charles Z. Wilson, Organizational Decision-Making (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 7.

[3]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 16.

that participation, communication and self-realization were being recognized as necessary components of organizations. Individual attitudes came to be recognized as important variables in interpersonal behavior affecting patterns of organization.

> It would be only a matter of time when growing resentment against such dehumanization in organization would develop into a notable revolt. The revolt was fully established during the 1920's and by the late 1930's its tenets had effectively permeated much of American management theory--so much so, in fact, that by the end of World War II, Mayo and his associates drew the following conclusions:
>
> 1. The "output" of a worker--hence, the organization--is determined more by his social capacity.
> 2. Money is only one motivation for working in an organization; there are other, and perhaps more important, rewards that the worker seeks.
> 3. Highly specialized divisions of labor is not the most likely way of maximizing efficiency of an organization.
> 4. Individual workers react to the organization--its hierarchy, its rules, and its rewards--not as individuals, but as members of groups.[1]
>
> There was sufficient basis for describing enterprises as "people without organization.[2]

By the end of the 1930's, human relations had become the watchword of American organizational thought. Its proponents were even more zealous than those of a generation earlier who were crusading for Taylor's principles.[3]

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[1]Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1970), pp. 47-48.

[2]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 15.

[3]Ibid., p. 17.

Bureaucratization affected education significantly in standardization of course work. It is not difficult to note the implications of this fact on individual differences in the classroom as well as teacher decision-making.

In 1929, Henri Fayol's General and Industrial Management was translated into English. He was concerned with general management and was the first authority in that field to consider the teaching of management important.[1] Along with the growing sensitivity toward management education, the social sciences contributed to the understanding of human relations. Mary Parker Follet was concerned with better human relations as essential parts of modern management. Her concern with group dynamics helped to initial later studies in group interaction.[2]

According to Owens, the human relations movement seems to have had more impact on supervisors than it did on administrators due to the fact that administrators were in line positions where they were responsible for exercising power and authority over their subordinates whereas supervisors were in staff positions where influence was more dependent upon expertise.[3]

In 1940, Moehlman published School Administration recommending that the autocratic, inflexible school organizations

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[1]Frank W. Banghart, Educational Systems Analysis (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 54.

[2]Ibid., p. 55.

[3]Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, p. 48.

be replaced by flexible school organizations, a popular theme of the period.[1] But according to Lane, even Moehlman accompanied his appeal for improvement with a table of organization and prescriptive lists of duties which were certain to maintain the status quo he disliked.[2]

Owens stated that many times administrators wishing to do the "right thing" (i. e., be the democratic administrators) would often attempt to decrease the visibility of their power in an honest desire to be democratic, not authoritarian. In many situations, however, teachers felt that their positions were not democratic at all, but that they were being maneuvered in agreeing to decisions which had been arrived at previously. This feeling of manipulation by a clever administrator probably contributed to the cynicism among teachers.[3] Anderson called this the "fatal flaw" in the democratic theory of educational administration.

> Individuals in organizations, and teachers apparently are no exception, want and need a certain amount of autonomy if they are to contribute meaningfully to the organizational endeavor and at the same time avoid the anxiety and conflict endemic in modern organizations...Teachers want to make decisions that they consider within their professional domain, and they are not satisfied with participation in decision-making at the discretion of administrators. There are growing

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[1]A. B. Moehlman, School Administration (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1940), p. 287.

[2]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 189.

[3]Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, p. 48.

> indications that within organizations employees are dependent upon authority structure.[1]

Argyris argued that no organizational structure would be ideal. None could exemplify the maximum expression of the principles of formal organizations. "A satisfactory aspiration is for optimum expression, which means modifying the ideal structure to take into account the individual and any environmental conditions."[2]

Democratic administration appealed to school administrators. Their discontent with the creed of scientific management principles was especially acute whenever they were confronted with the need to evaluate the efficiency of schools. The fact was that industry could evaluate in terms of profit and loss; but school administrators' search for a comparable evaluation tool ended in frustration.

> The child, learning, educational philosophy and educational psychology constituted important elements in the school administrator's frame of reference. It was assumed that he must know about these things in order to appropriately direct the purposes and activities around which schools were organized. Such a frame of reference was not compatible with a point of view which held that people were only so much raw material to be manipulated in terms of the product that was being dispensed.[3]

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[1]James G. Anderson, Bureaucracy in Education (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968), p. 172.

[2]Chris Argyris, "The Individual and Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment," Educational Administration: Selected Readings, ed. Walter G. Hack (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), pp. 164-65.

[3]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 18.

Schools had been epitomized as "wellsprings of democracy" and the event of the human movement provided a new avenue for expressing this point of view.

> This culminated in the so-called "life-adjustment" education view that rose to a peak in the early 1950's...early impetus was provided to the foundations of this point of view by Dewey and his disciples, although Dewey's ideas were badly distorted in it. And it also received impetus from a willing acceptance on the part of American school administrators of democratic administration.[1]

The notion of democratic administrative or person-centered organization proved to be a difficult one to accept in conjunction with the realities of actual school life. Out of this difficult dilemma newer concepts began to emerge.

The Era of the Behavioral Approach

The organization and the individuals within it work toward the prescribed ends of the organization, but have a tremendous impact upon each other during the process. The formal structure and the individuals are constantly transacting and interacting. Argyris set up the following framework to examine the properties of both elements (the individual and the organization) and their impact upon each other.[2]

Properties of Human Personality

1. being an organization of parts where the parts maintain the whole and the whole maintains the parts;

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[1]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 18.

[2]Chris Argyris, "Individuals and Organizations," Educational Administration, p. 160.

2. seeking internal balance (usually called adjustment) and external balance (usually called adaptation);
3. being propelled by psychological (as well as physical) energy;
4. located in the need systems; and
5. expressed through abilities.
6. The personality organization may be called "the self" which
7. acts to color all the individual's experiences, thereby causing him to live in "private worlds," and which
8. is capable of defending (maintaining) itself against threats of all types.[1]

Argyris also described basic developmental trends as follows:

The human being

1. tends to develop from a state of being passive as an infant to a state of increasing activity as an adult...
2. tends to develop from a state of dependence upon others as an infant to a state of relative independence as an adult...
3. tends to develop from being capable of behaving in only a few ways as an infant to being capable of behaving in many different ways as an adult...
4. tends to develop from having erratic, casual, shallow, quickly dropped interests as an infant to possessing a deepening of interests as an adult...

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[1] Ibid.

5. tends to develop from having a short time perspective (i. e., the present largely determines behavior) as an infant to having a much longer time perspective as an adult...
6. tends to develop from being in a subordinate position in the family and society as an infant to aspiring to occupy at least an equal and/or superordinate position relative to his peers...
7. tends to develop from having a lack of awareness of the self as an infant to having an awareness of and control over the self as an adult...[1]

In addition, Argyris listed properties of formal organizations and the incongruency between the needs of the organization and the individual personality.[2]

Administrators became aware of the fact that if they were to be "democratic administrators" they needed to know more about interpersonal expectations, morale, and group feeling.

> ...the human relations approach focused on interpersonal interaction and sentiments in organizational contexts, the context itself usually was "assumed" as a given in the system and was therefore seldom the subject of inquiry. In the current phase [Behavioral Approach], by contrast, more attention is being given to the distribution of power, the function of roles, the degree of specialization, the centralization of decision-making and the character of the prestige system--all of which can more appropriately be considered to be properties of the organization itself than the membership. The phrase that has come to

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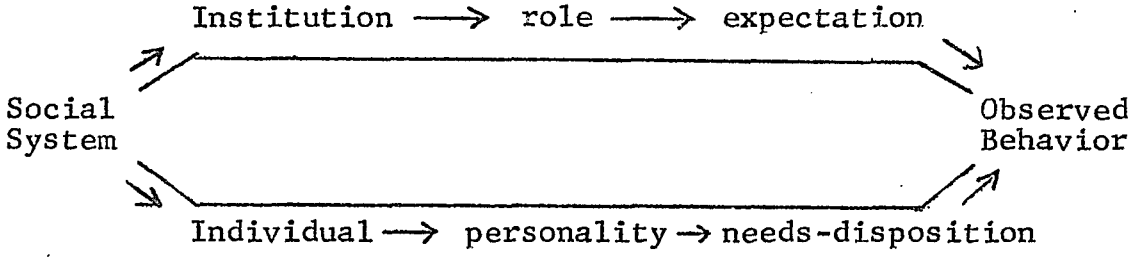
[1] Ibid., pp. 160-161.

[2] Ibid., p. 161.

dominate the field today, though no more appropriate than those of other periods, is administration theory.[1]

According to Gelzels there are two dimensions which are significant factors in producing organizational behavior: the personal dimension and the organizational dimension. See "Gelzels-Guba Model" below.[2]



A social system, the school, has prescribed roles and expectations. This is tempered by the individual's personality and needs. Taken together the observed behavior is the result of both factions.

Bennis described the necessity of a "climate of beliefs." This climate of beliefs or system of values included the following:

1. Full and free communication, regardless of rank and power

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[1]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration, p. 20.

[2]Jacob W. Gelzels, "Administration of a Social Process," Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew W. Holpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 156.

2. Reliance on consensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise, to resolve conflict
3. The idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge, rather than on the vagaries of personal whim or prerogatives of power
4. An atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression, as well as task-oriented acts
5. A basically human bias, one which accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization and the individual, but which is at the same time willing to consider conflicts on rational grounds.[1]

Jane Howard wrote about her discussion with a Japanese banker as they watched a sensitivity training course for business administrators.

> Also observing, with a quizzical look on his smooth features, was a polite visitor who told me his name was Morio Kure. Mr. Kure had come to the human potential movement from the Mitsubishi Bank in Tokoyo...He was soon to take the knowledge he had gained back to his bank's training program. T-groups, he told me, had already affected 3,000 Japanese. "Mostly in business," he explained. "Also priests and monks. Also nurses. There are usually twelve in a group, and the groups last four or five days. In Japan we call sensitivity training 'Western Zen,' because like Zen it is a way to pursue the truth. Like Zen it is painful when it is over, but worthwhile. We in Japan are much more open about

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[1]Warren G. Bennis, Changing Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 19.

> business than you are, but less open about private problems."[1]

Howard also described the Institute for Human Relations in Nigeria, Australia, India, Canada, South America, Europe, France, and Holland.[2] She also described a tension between groups designed for personal growth and those planned to bring about organizational change.

Katz said,

> There is no one way, nor even a few ways, of rightly arranging for education. There are many ways, and anyone who argues otherwise is foolish...But for the most part, the particular form education should take in any one place should be worked out by the people involved.[3]

Just as the era of Scientific Management had its dollar and cents formula for education, the era of the Behavioral Approach has its technology according to Patterson.

> We read a lot about technology freeing the teacher for other things--to humanize education, to develop personal relationships with students--but nowhere have I seen anything about when and how this is done. Wilbur H. Ferry...warns of the dangers of the invasion of our schools by technology, or technication as he calls it. One of these is that an educational system can be thought of in terms like those of a factory. "Factories," he says, "are fine for producing things, but their record with people is terrible..."[4]

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[1]Jane Howard, Please Touch (New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1970), p. 256.

[2]Ibid., pp. 256-57.

[3]Michael B. Katz, "Class Bureaucracy and Schools," The Illusion of Educational Change in America (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973), p. 146.

[4]C. H. Patterson, Humanistic Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1973), pp. 10-11.

Robert M. Hutchins observed that technication will "dehumanize a process the aim of which is humanization."[1]

Toffler suggested that changes such as computer-assisted education, electronic video recording and other technical fields would bring about a long overdue breakdown of the factory-model school.

> Today lectures still dominate the classroom. This method symbolizes the old top-down, hierarchial structure of industry...lectures must inevitably give way to a whole battery of teaching techniques, ranging from role playing to gaming to computer-mediated seminars and the immersion of students in what we might call "contrived experiences."[2]

Toffler also suggested that the three most important skills are: learning, relating, and choosing.[3]

In summary, individuals working with their creative powers have brought about changes in organizations. Organizations, working through the machinery of their own bureaucracies, also bring about changes in individuals. Schools are affected by both kinds of changes. Individuals and organizations bring about change in order to "educate" the young. Perhaps we will never be able to determine which kind of change is more effective since one depends upon the other to a great degree.

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[1]W. H. Ferry, "Must We Rewrite the Constitution to Control Technology?" Saturday Review, March 2, 1968, p. 54.

[2]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Random House, 1970), pp. 360-61.

[3]Ibid., p. 367.

All who are interested in the change process are, however, forced to deal with the degree to which they emphasize the individual and the organization at different times during the change process. The present case study demonstrates the validity of the person-organization distinction.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

PART I

In the introduction (page 4) a plan of analysis was presented in order to study the sociopolitical system of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School in three time periods: Time Span I--as it was (1972-73) prior to the initiation of the experimental school, Time Span II--spring and summer (1973), Time Span III--actual happenings (1973-74) in the experimental school. In this chapter (an analysis of ends and means) each element of the sociopolitical system (purpose levels, goals, objectives, norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations) will be analyzed in the three time periods as the children, teachers, and administrators were affected by the change. The sociopolitical system framework with its organizing concepts is useful in describing the decision-making process on team five, a teaching team in Tarawa Terrace II. Chapter III will therefore, primarily focus on team five as a subsystem of the whole system, but where appropriate the relationship between team five and the entire school as a sociopolitical system will be explored.

The more trust placed in professional decision-makers' judgments, the higher the organizational purpose level is likely to be. As emphasis is transferred to abstract or

affective goals the less behavioral the objectives become. This will be evident as the description of purpose levels, goals, and objectives follow. In dealing with bureaucratic matters in which ends are measurable, the causal relationship between means and ends is concretely demonstrable. In the traditional school objectives may be written in highly specific behavioral terms. In the proposed model, however, more emphasis needed to be placed on the affective domain. The plan was not to develop a product, but to observe a process. The professional organizational form of trust in colleagues and more abstract educational ends provided a better approach for dealing with matters of instruction. Developing a process is difficult to describe in behavioral terms. If an air of experimenting and openness were to prevail the professional aspect of the model needed "open-endedness." This was a real part of the dilemma-reconciliation process at the school: If Johnny does not want to join the reading group today to learn about compound words, would his skill level primarily be considered or his feeling level? Given a choice, knowing the child, what would teachers choose to do?

The conceptual scheme of purpose levels revealed in goals and goals evidenced in objectives will be followed in so far as possible to show the ends of the sociopolitical system. At times, goals and objectives will be considered together in order to simplify the framework.

PURPOSE LEVELS

In the early part of this chapter the investigator will center attention on the educational ends (purpose levels, goals, and objectives) of team five and the total school.

Purpose levels reflect the overall aims of the organization. The organization itself does not control its purpose level altogether since its level is affected by many outside forces. Some of the outside forces for the Tarawa Terrace II School project were HEW, the School Board, the Superintendent, and other social forces. An explanation of the purpose levels of the school in the three time spans follows.

Time Span I--the Traditional School (1972-73)

The Camp Lejeune Dependents' School System operated for dependent children of military personnel residing on the military reservation located at Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, and Marine Corps Air Station. The school system is responsible for providing an academic program comparable to public schools in the State of North Carolina. The academic program provides educational opportunities for all eligible school age children beginning with kindergarten and extending through twelfth grade.[1]

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[1]Administrative Overview for the Report of Self-Study (Camp Lejeune, N. C.: Marine Corps Base Dependents' Schools, 1972), p. 1.

The system was financially secure since funding was supplied by the Federal Government through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Tarawa Terrace II School was between the commergence and differentiation levels. (See pages 8-9 for a description of the four organizational levels.) During Time Span I the school wanted to be known as a status institution among other status institutions. At the same time the school was secure in the system as a whole. It was nearly at the level of differentiating and taking some chances.

> We believe the school to be an institution established and supported by society for the purpose of educating its youth. We believe our school must provide for the physical, mental, intellectual and emotional growth and development of each child. Our curriculum must be broad and flexible. The program must consist of varied learning experiences appropriate to meet the abilities and needs of each child. This is necessary in order that they might participate and recognize their fullest potential in a democratic and everchanging society.[1]

Evidence that Tarawa Terrace II School was approaching the differentiation level during Time Span I is found in the school's readiness to move into an experimental program in Time Span II.

Time Span II--Spring and Summer, 1973, Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model

Dr. P. T. Lancaster, Superintendent of Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools, recognized the importance of in-service education and earmarked two percent ($13,000) of the 1972-73

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[1]Ibid., p. 16.

budget for system-wide in-service education.[1] Basically, the strategy was to move from the top down in order to build in-service activities into the budget: the Superintendent and the Chairman of the School Board worked directly with the Commandant's representative on educational matters. Lancaster's number one in-service priority was to get teachers back to schools and universities in order to bring new life and expertise into their teaching.[2]

At the same time some members of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Department of Education were ifentifying and defining bureaucratic and professional functions that could be implemented as discrete, but related entities in the school as an organization.[3]

> Critics of the school 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 people (called teachers) carry out the varied tasks which must be carried out 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 then focuses on providing more meaningful instruction on an individualized basis. The project further provides for a cooperative arrangement with a university 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

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[1]Brubaker, In-Service Can Make a Difference, ch. 2, p. 1.

[2]Ibid.

[3]It is important to note that the need for change was articulated by forces external to Tarawa Terrace 11 School. The need for change was not initially articulated by educators within the school.

> 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.[1]

The two institutions agreed to combine efforts in what was called the Cooperative Model School. The reorganization was implemented in order to work toward the goal of meeting the needs of individual students more effectively. Leaders in the school system, supported by U.N.C.G. consultants, aspired toward the differentiation level. Some of the Tarawa Terrace II staff shared such aspirations whereas others' anxieties moved them to the survival level. Overall Tarawa Terrace II remained between the commergence and differentiation levels.

The contract between the two institutions held agreeably and firmly. Consultants from the University worked with personnel at the Cooperative Model School. The Superintendent nearly always suspended his decision-making in the school.[2] He was secure enough in his position to allow the experimenting to take place. At any time, however, the superintendent could have closed the project down since he was legally responsible for what went on there.

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[1]Cooperative Project for Creative Individualized Motivation of Students Through Organizational and Instructional Innovations in Schooling (Project C.I.M.S.) (School of Education, University of N.C. at Greensboro and the Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools) p. 10.

[2]Specifically, this meant that the Superintendent had to be invited by TT II staff members to participate in decision-making in the areas of curriculum and instruction.

It was at this time in the history of Tarawa Terrace II School that team five came into existence. During the 1973-74 school year the school's purpose level varied from time to time. Overall, however, it was largely between the commergence and differentiation levels. This was also true for team five.

GOALS

Goals are abstract statements of intent which provide guidelines to the organization. There may be little disagreement about goals until they are operationalized through objectives. Goals are statements to the public stating the intent of the organization.

Time Span I--The Traditional School (1972-73)

The principal appointed a committee to write goals for the school. This committee compiled goals from a questionnaire to faculty members and parents. Goals were discussed and finalized in faculty meetings.[1]

To provide practical experiences in inter-personal relationships.

To provide a learning atmosphere which is conducive to the greatest development of his/her abilities.

To promote understanding and communication between home, school and community.

To provide counseling for those children needing it.

To provide situations which will help children to learn to make decisions.

To provide situations that encourage the child to accept responsibility, develop courtesy and helpfulness.

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[1]Administrative Overview for the Report of Self-Study, p. 18.

To teach basic learning skills in all academic areas of study.

To give each student a feeling of pride and respect for his country's heritage and ability to recognize his role in its future.

To foster awareness of and appreciation for other cultures of the world.

To develop habits that will lead to sound health, both physical and mental.

To encourage critical thinking and objective reasoning.

To teach the ability to locate information, organize and evaluate its importance.

To foster an empathy for people and an awareness of their needs and goals.

To encourage an appreciation of aesthetic experiences.

To develop character traits that are revealed in moral conduct.[1]

These stated goals describe the aims of most schools. The goals show concern for needs of children, but are hardly unique. The abstractness of goals leaves a large margin for the selection of instructional methods and materials.

Time Span II--Spring and Summer, 1973, Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model

The statements of goals and objectives for the Cooperative Model School were not written as concisely as the goals for the

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[1]Ibid., pp. 16-17.

previous year. None of the former goals were disputed. They were considered to be worthy goals. New goals were to be added for administrators, teachers and children. One of the goals in planning for the Cooperative Model was to experiment with differentiated staffing.

> School administrators turn to differentiated staffing out of discontent with traditional staffing patterns. The traditional staff is not geared to meet the individual needs of youngsters. Just as the youngsters have individual differences, so do teachers; yet in traditional patterns there is little opportunity to allow teachers to work full time at the things they do best. The differentiated staff, including the supportive staff, makes it possible for teachers...to work at a level of responsibility and competence which is rare in the traditional school.[1]

Consultant Y proposed six schools within a school. Assigned to each group of one hundred students will be one Instructional Leader, two Senior Teachers, three Intern Teachers, and three Paraprofessionals (two instructional and one clerical). This will provide "...all types of possibiliities 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."[2]

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[1]John J. McManama, An Effective Program for Teacher Aide Training (New York: Parker Publishing Co., Inc., 1972) p. 148.

[2]Roland H. Nelson and Dwight Clark, "Cooperative Project for Creative Individualized Motivation of Students Through Organizational and Instructional Innovations in Schooling," mimeographed proposal (Camp Lejeune, N. C.: Marine Corps Dependents' Schools, 1973) p. 2.

Some of the important advantages of this plan would be:

--The number of adults available to work with children will increase. The ratio will be 1 to 13; that is one adult for each thirteen students.

--Teachers with more experience and competence will have wider influence. They will directly influence the education of about one hundred students rather than the traditional twenty-eight.

--The instructional staff will be encouraged to interact in such a way that the professional development of the staff will be enhanced.

--Curriculum innovations will be more likely effectively employed since the flexible organization will not bind an individual teacher to a rigid daily schedule.

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

--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 with the teachers who will 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 will be active full-time in the school rather than in the central office. This provides for placing the expertise immediately in the situation where it is most likely to be effective.[1]

Administration: The chief administrator traditionally is the principal who supervises curriculum, budget, reports, cafeteria, transportation, and anything else which happens at school. The Cooperative Model planned for a different arrangement.

> There would be no principal, per se, but a staff assistant who would administer the physical and fiscal aspects of the school and a senior curriculum consultant who would, in effect, be the over-all curriculum supervisor.[2]

This arrangement was to wed the Bureaucratic and Professional Models of organization.[3]

A Bureaucratic Model exhibits the following characteristics:	A Professional Model exhibits the following characteristics:
1. The bureaucrat's foremost responsibility is to represent and promote the interests of his organization.	1. The professional is bound by a norm of service and a code of ethics to represent the welfare of his clients.

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[1]Ibid., pp. 3-4.

[2]James Howard, "A Study of the Relative Significance of Positional Authority and Expertise in an Experimental School" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1972) pp. 111-12.

[3]The researcher is indebted to Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson for a discussion of bureaucratic and professional models of organization in Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies, chapter 3.

2. The bureaucrat gets his authority from a legal contract backed by the rights and privileges of his office.	2. The professional's source of authority comes from his technical competence and expertise and knowledge.
3. The bureaucrat's decisions are governed by disciplined compliance with directives from superiors.	3. The professional's decisions are governed by internalized professional standards.
4. The court of last resort for appeal of a decision by a bureaucrat is higher management.	4. The court of last resort for appeal of a decision by a professional is his professional colleagues.[1]

The Bureaucratic Model primarily depends on positional authority and the Professional Model depends more on expertise. The Director of Administrative Affairs was expected to carry out his duties in a primarily bureaucratic manner. These governance duties are concerned with the day-to-day decisions regarding the operation of the fiscal and physical aspects of the school. On the other hand, the Director of Academic Affairs was expected to deal with all issues concerning curriculum and instruction, goals facilitated by the professional model. (A healthy tension was expected between bureaucratic and professional forces.) Decisions regarding the actual learning experiences of the students were supposed to be made by the professionals themselves--the teachers. The Director of Administrative Affairs then deals with governance matters in a normal bureaucratic structure while matters of curriculum and instruction, which are more abstract and should include

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[1]Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962), p. 297.

input from teachers and students, are the domain of the Director of Academic Affairs.[1]

The bureaucratic or governance functions of the school will be directed by the Director of Administrative Services whose duties include the following performance tasks:

1. Supervises non-instructional personnel such as secretaries, custodians, and 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 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.[2]

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[1]Howard, "A Study of the Relative Significance of Positional Authority and Expertise in an Experimental School," p. 33.

[2]Ibid., pp. 34-35.

The professional performance expectations (curriculum and instruction) will be directed by the Senior Instructional Leader, whose tasks include:

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 the 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.[1]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 35-36.

On February 7, 1973, the consultants from the University with the school system's Director of Curriculum and Instruction agreed on a person to be the Director of Curriculum and Instruction for the Cooperative Model School. This decision was approved by the superintendent. The new Director of Curriculum and Instruction suggested a person to be one of the six instructional leaders (team leaders). It was agreed by the consultants and the school administration that it would be consistent with the professional model for these two newly appointed professionals to select the third instructional leader, and then those three select a fourth and so on until six selections had been made.[1]

The former principal (1972-73) will remain in the Cooperative Model School as Director of Administrative Services. This was not in the original plan for the model, but the School Board had already approved principals' assignments for the coming year. It was anticipated that the placement of the regular principal in the new role could be a problem in the implementation stages of the program.

Instructional Leaders (team leaders): The Director of Academic Affairs chose the first Instructional Leader and together they chose the other five. As one was chosen they helped with the selection of the others. Duties of the Instructional Leaders will be as follows:

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[1]Ibid., p. 74.

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 will be used such as 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 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.[1]

Teachers: Teachers in a traditional school depend to a degree on what the principals and consultants plan in curriculum matters. When decisions are made by others than those carrying out the plans remarks such as, "We can't do it because..." are often expressed. Under the leadership of Lancaster and consultants from the university, teachers at the Cooperative Model School were encouraged to adopt a professional attitude of decision-making and say, "We can do it...and we wonder if..." The value commitment was to praxis, a process of reflective

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[1]Ibid., pp. 37-40.

action rather than to product. The plans were that teachers would be encouraged to make decisions and reflect on these decisions. Action and reflection, a continuous symbiotic process (making decisions, reflecting on the decision, evaluating and making more decisions) would be the model.

Teachers in the system would be informed of the goals of the Cooperative Model School and be given an opportunity to volunteer to teach in the new project. It was recognized that some teachers prefer the security of having curriculum decisions made by the principal or an outside source. Therefore, teachers in the system were to be given the opportunity to volunteer for the project after careful consideration of the school and their own capabilities.

After teachers applied for the Cooperative Model School, Instructional Leaders were to choose two senior teachers for each team. Their duties will be as follows:

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 instruction. 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, 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.[1]

Interns: On May 30, 1973, a meeting was held at the University to explain the Cooperative Model School to prospective interns. Fourteen students came to the meeting. In addition to the students, there were parents, Dr. Dwight Clark

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[1]Ibid., p. 40.

who acted as chairman, Dr. Dale Brubaker, Dr. James Howard, Dr. Roland Nelson, and Mr. and Mrs. Conrad Sloan. This was a representation from the University and Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools. The following is a summary statement by Clark.

> The University and Camp Lejeune agree to initiate a Cooperative Model School in order to share ideas, experiences, and learn from each other. Traditionally, students spent time at a university, then went into a student teaching situation to work with a teacher with experience. Little was done to match the student teacher to the master teacher in temperament or ways of thinking. In fact the public school situation is often far removed from the theories taught in the university. Nobody has really been satisfied with the way student teachers get their experience, and this is not unique with this university. The student teaching experience--preservice--as well as inservice for teachers was limited by the structure of the school. Most classes were taught behind closed doors. Teachers taught in private with little visable sharing of experiences. The fault did not lie only with the teachers, the traditional organization of schools did not allow time or support of the necessary amount of staff development. This model project is based on the idea that we can learn from each other. It is easy for a student teacher to assume she knows nothing. Of course, this is a false assumption. Student teachers have ideas to share with experienced teachers as well as personnel from the university. Everyone involved in the project is committed to growth and helping others grow. Because of this, preservice and inservice will mesh in professional growth for everyone involved in the project. We do not learn about teaching in isolation. We learn about teaching by being with teachers, working with students, paraprofessionals, administrators and university personnel. We will not go deeply into the theories of the Bureaucratic and Professional Models here. You are aware of the two types. The project model will emphasize professional decision-making. The traditional curriculum may not necessarily be your choice. You will be trusted to make professional decisions wisely.

> Now for some practical facts. You will be employed for the entire school year, certified as a Class B teacher. This will enable you to begin your regular teaching career the following year with one year of experience to your credit. There is no obligation to stay after the internship, but the Dependents' Schools do hope to recruit teachers through the Cooperative Project. There will be a salary of approximately $4200.00 with fifteen hours of university credit. You will need to report the week before school opens for workshops. There is the disadvantage of the high rate of pupil and teacher turnovers, but we will try to turn this disadvantage into an advantage.
>
> Howard continued the meeting by explaining the location of Camp Lejeune on the coast of North Carolina. He described the Tarawa Terrace II School as a traditional "motel" style building. Walls will be removed to allow for cooperative teaching. He explained the advantage of working in civil service, perhaps belonging to the officers' club, and being in the company of approximately five thousand young Lieutenants. Housing was discussed.
>
> There was a question of how student teachers would be selected. Dr. Nelson answered that a definite standard had not been established, but he suggested that grades, adventuresome spirit, willingness to "open doors" to work with others, commitment to the project, and desire for professional growth would be considered. He concluded by saying, "We know what we're looking for when we see it." Brubaker explained that ideas from Introduction to Educational Decision-Making, the text used in EDU. 381, would be used in the project. Applications were distributed with the directions that they be returned in a week to Clark. Interviews would begin the following week.

As applications came in and interviews began, prospective interns were told that they would be expected to be full team members working under the guidance and assistance of the Instructional Leader and Senior Teachers. The duties, extent of involvement, rate of progression to full teaching would be determined

by the team Intern Teachers would be assigned teaching tasks in three different categories as follows:

1 Primary Responsibility: will include those tasks which the Intern in 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 as assisting role. When this competence occurs, the task will become primary responsibility.[1]

Aides: Aides from the system were informed of the plans for the Cooperative Model School. They were told that volunteers would be considered in two areas--clerical and instructional. A possible pay differential was discussed between instructional and clerical aides It was suggested that instructional aides could receive an increase since they would have direct responsibilities to the children.[2]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 41-42.

[2] Ibid., pp. 42-44.

1. Supervise small study groups and committees, testing situations, children's individual research projects, and interest centers.
2. Help small groups and individuals with skills, remedial, and make-up work.
3. Collect resources such as maps, charts, magazines, 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 instructors 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.

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 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.

Children: Concern for the child in his school environment was the impetus for the Cooperative Model School Project.

> The "raison d'etre" for this entire study, the impetus behind it, is concern for the student as an individual and an opportunity for finding the conditions for his personal and self-development.[1]

Many writers in the 1960's and 1970's (Illich, Holt, Kohl, Postman, Kozol, Friere, Macdonald, Brubaker and others) have written about the need for reforms in the schools. Some of these writers have been revolutionary. They have suggested liberating factors to allow students the "freedom to learn." Others have acknowledged the need for change, but recognize the fact that ambiguity is an inescapable element of education. The fact that educators are concerned about children does not guarantee that they know how to go about effecting better curricula.

It was with these thoughts in mind that goals for children were discussed. The curriculum for each child would be determined by the team (nine adults, one hundred children) of which the child would be a part. In order to do this, adults on the team must know each child personally, his interests, likes and

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[1] Ibid., p. 2.

dislikes, capabilities and weakness. The goal then was to accept each child at his particular level of awareness and work in the learning environment with him.[1] Macdonald expressed it as follows:

> ...We are concerned with facilitating the student's free experiencing of his environment in a playful, self-expressive way as an initial aspect of the learning process. This approach is called either "fooling around," by its critics, or "exploring ideas" by its supporters.[2]

In concluding this section of the chapter the investigator would simply point out that goals generated during Time Span II gave direction to the allocation of educational means as reflected in "new" intended (anticipated) norms.

Time Span III--As it Actually Happened (1973-74)

Instructional Leaders reported to work August 13, 1973, for five days of workshop discussion with consultants from the university.[3] Some of the ideas of discussion chosen by consultant Y were:

1. The ambiguities in education make decision-making difficult. Do people want to make decisions or rely on someone else?

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[1]The effect of this was to decentralize and personalize goals. This gave meaning to the term "differentiation," not only in staffing but in the diagnosis of individual children.

[2]James B. Macdonald, Bernice J. Wolfson, and Esther Zaret, Reschooling Society: A Conceptual Model (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1973), p. 25.

[3]The workshop was held in order to discuss goals predetermined by external leaders and also to allow for emerging goals.

2. The process of working through an idea is a learning experience. A professional should not have guilt feelings if the experiment does not materialize as anticipated.
3. There are five functions of schools: confinement, training, sorting, indoctrination, and self-actualization. The question becomes how much, under what circumstances, and for what purposes.
4. There are four sources of truth: faith, truth by definition, statistical validity, and consensus.
5. In a nonthreatening atmosphere the teacher will not need to look for justification of all actions.
6. Professionals need to act and reflect on their actions. There may be negative affirmation; if no one opposes ideas are cast aside because, when questioned, professionals feel to need to justify actions.
7. How much happens naturally before children are forced into learning? Observe children, think about their interests. Avoid closure. Do teachers justify closure because of external forces, because of academic table-manners, or because of the teacher's mental health? It is important to know the reason for closure.
8. A child needs
   flexible stability
   spontaneous predictability
   controlled freedom.

9. Contrast and compare
   group participation and individual participation
   poor self-concept and good self-concept
   no choice and too many choices
   pressured atmosphere and excitement about learning

10. Which interest holds priority?
    the child's?
    the teacher's?
    or the organization's?

11. Bureaucracy is as powerful as professionals let it be.

12. A list of proprieties for children in the school would be that the child is
    happy,
    feels worthwhile,
    finds school an interesting place,
    satisfies curiosity,
    and learns skills.

13. People who have the most expertise in school should make decisions about curriculum. Use bureaucracy positively, for things which need to be done bureaucratically. If there is not an agreement on curriculum how, the professional more logically should make the decision.

14. Evaluating and grading are not the same.

15. Parent involvement has important implications. In order to make parents more comfortable with change, use the old language to describe the new thing. Teachers need to give information in such a way that they elicit support.

16. In order to slow down change, make it visable.

17. There is no reason for guilt feelings if test scores on achievement tests do not improve. The goal is

that the student asks good questions, is eager to learn, is enthusiastic and dedicated. These qualities are not measured on standardized tests.

18. Problems should remain within the school, not aired outside. Loyalty is of prime consideration. There may be minor animosity or antagonism toward the school since it will be different. Staff reaction is the important element. If the staff is confident in what they are doing, they need not react negatively to outside animosity.
19. The quality of a decision is related to what it is we say we want to do, the resources available for us to do it, and the extent to which we do the best job we can with those resources available.
20. Formal power is like a battery, the more it is used the weaker it gets. On the other hand, if power comes from expertise, it gets stronger.
21. This Cooperative Model School is a commitment to observing process, not product.

After a week of working with Consultants X and Y the Instructional Leaders from each team were ready to meet other members of their team and pass on ideas from the workshop. Members from team five met for the first time on Monday, August 20. In addition to the items on the workshop agenda from the previous week, other items were discussed.

1. Each member of the team told something about herself, family, education, and experience.
2. The Instructional Leader told the team that they were very special people to have been selected to work in a very special school.
3. We can do things here that we have always wanted to do in school. The only limits are our own creativity.
4. We have more space, more people, and we can relax about time.
5. There must be security for children and teachers. We are a team. Ask questions. Security and loyalty are key words to remember.
6. The Director of Adademic Affairs is our Senior Instructional Leader. The Director of Administration will function bureaucratically.
7. The first two weeks should be as relaxed as possible with little structure.
8. Mistakes will happen. We can change things, revamp in midstream. Confidently try out new ideas and if they do not work, do not feel guilty. Each person on the team will have the support of other team members.
9. People should work where they are most comfortable. Each team member should relate to the team her likes and dislikes about working conditions.

10. Open-mindedness and concern for others will be our considerations.

11. There will be good days and bad days, but nothing can get so bad in a day that we cannot change it.

The following pages will demonstrate how predetermined goals are sometimes deleted, sometimes administered, and sometimes added to during the early implementation process.

Then the children came! The following is an excerpt from the first day's log.

> Aug. 27 Children kept coming! Everywhere I looked there were new, unexpected children. Our ratio exploded into one to seventeen instead of our anticipated one to thirteen. The interns were a bit shaky. The National Anthem burst forth at 8:00. We had the Pledge to the Flag and my mind went back to our standard joke of the week, "What do I do after the Pledge?" One little boy ran to me saying, "All the bathrooms are locked." I saw our Director of Administration and asked him for a key. He was looking for the janitor. By this time the little boy was holding onto a post with his legs crossed. I took him to the office to the executive john. Has ever a first day gone smoothly?

In order to know each child personally, the team decided to keep the first two weeks as unstructured as possible. Interest centers were set up. In the five classrooms different activities were in progress such as filmstrip projectors with filmstrips, science experiments, record players and earphones, puzzles, a play store, hobby collections, cards, blocks, a private island (a big box), commercial and teacher-made games, stories, singing, etc.

> Aug. 28 The first morning was spent in touring the rooms. Some children were involved from the very beginning

> while others spent their time running from one thing to another. Most children were overstimulated. We decided at planning time that a quiet reading time would be brought into the schedule on the second day. Students could choose what they wanted to read, then continue at interest centers. Someone laughed when I told them we would have a "read-in" on the second day. "They're getting to you already" was the only comment. It is strange that people equate quiet with punishment, or worse still, reading.

Administration: The former principal remained at the school as Director of Administrative Affairs against his wishes. In a letter to the superintendent dated June 18, the principal requested reassignment to another school. He explained that he had a more traditional philosophy of education which might conflict with the goals of the Cooperative Model. A letter from the superintendent stated that the School Board had already made and approved assignments for the coming year and that the request for transfer was denied. On June 29, the principal wrote a more forceful letter stating that he had been led to believe by the school system's Director of Curriculum and Instruction that he would be transferred, that there was considerable unrest in his school because of the project, and that some of his teachers felt that they were "pawns to be moved at someone else's pleasure." The second request was denied for the same reason. At the first faculty meeting after school started he told the group that he did not know anything about the new program, that he was under the impression that he would be transferred to another school until a week before the workshop, but that he was the principal.

> Aug. 29 The first faculty meeting was a big morale killer. There goes our Bureaucratic-Professional Model down the drain. The two top men in the school cannot agree on it so how can we expect the faculty to follow it? Our Director of Academic Affairs feels somewhat like an intruder. He wants the separation of power to work, but with the former principal's attitude, success looks pretty farfetched.

It became evident that the two men would not be able to work in the same office. The Director of Academic Affairs moved out leaving the Director of Administration in the "office." Teachers, then, were requested to sign in and check mailboxes in the regular office and go to the second office where the Director of Academic Affairs set up a separate set of mailboxes for teachers in another building of the school. Personnel were almost forced to choose sides. We seemed to have crossed the fine line between creative tension and debilitating tension. This undercurrent of awareness that there was division in the administration placed undue stress on the model as it was designed to be--not to mention the personnel involved in the project. In March the Director of Administration was transferred and in his place a new administrator came who was more sympathetic toward the Cooperative Model Project.

DIRECTOR OF ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES: On page 63 goals were stated for the Director of Administrative Services. In spite of the uncomfortable division these goals were actuated to some degree. Secretaries, custodians and food service staff were supervised by the Director of Administrative Services. Transportation of children under his jurisdiction proceeded.

Registers and attendance reports were kept in the office so that teachers would not be required to use their teaching time filling in reports. Time cards for the staff and other reports were kept up-to-date.

> Sept. 4 It is good to know that teachers do not have to keep a register or attendance. Interns will have a chance during the year to work with the office to see how it's done.

A gray area was discovered between governance and curriculum and instruction. When should teachers approach the Director of Administration and when should they approach the Director of Academic Affairs? In areas of discipline there seemed to be no clear answer. When teachers needed to move furniture or change classrooms it certainly involved changes in instruction but it also involved custodians. Personnel began to think that if one administrator would not give a satisfactory answer, the other would. This caused a problem of communications.

DIRECTOR OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS: The person hired for this position had previously been a science teacher at the Junior High School. He had no administrative experience or credentials. He attended all of the workshop meetings during the first week of teacher employment and worked with teachers making suggestions about setting up the classrooms. During the first month of school he gave demonstration lessons using the SCIS (Science Curriculum Improvement Study) materials.

Parents were invited to the school where he explained the program to groups and individuals.

> Sept. 17 Parents know that this school is different. A great many of them equate going through a book with learning. Mr. C. has met . . . with parent groups to explain that this is school, but that teachers are trying to make learning as enjoyable as possible. The reading teacher has been a great help relating to the parents. She was here last year and established a rapport with some of the mothers. Some of the parents go out shaking their heads confident if learning doesn't hurt a little it can't be much good. Others seem enthusiastic about the school and volunteer to help.

One goal for the Senior Instructional Leader was to help teachers deal with problems of pupil control and discipline. In many situations it is the curriculum which causes discipline problems. It was believed that pupil control would be more logically under the guidance of the person working with curriculum. This arrangement was not feasible most of the time. Because of his work with curriculum the Senior Instructional Leader needed to spend time in the classroom. Therefore, on some occasions he was not in his office when a teacher needed help with discipline. Most teachers then would take the offender to the Director of Administrative Services. Somehow he was still the "PRINCIPAL", the dreaded one to meet.

There was a real problem at the beginning of the year because of lack of materials. A complete new social studies series complete with books, records, tapes, games, and suggested activities had been ordered along with the widely acclaimed SCIS science materials. The Director of Academic Affairs encouraged teachers to make their own social studies program by role playing actual life situations.

Dec. 6 Team leaders met during lunch again with Mr. C in the afternoon. We shifted classrooms and discussed schedules and chain of command. I am concerned about the chain of command discussion. The team leaders all agree that a better communication system is needed. We are concerned that we hear the same things from Mr. G and Mr. C...or do not hear them at all. The proposal was made that all our communication go through Mr. C. I think this is a mistake, but I'll listen to the other side. I feel that if we go through this chain of command, we are automatically giving up the authority given to team leaders. In the beginning the idea was that teams would make decisions concerning their children. Mr. C would serve as a facilitator for curriculum affairs and Mr. G would serve as governance facilitator By asking for a chain of command, we are saying that we recognize that there is a bureaucracy for <u>everything</u> including matters of curriculum. I am not ready to say this. As far as I am concerned this vertical arrangement is not in keeping with the original intent of the school. I am not at all sure that the original intent of the school should be changed because of the communications problems of the two principals. That is where the problem lies, and that is not <u>my</u> problem. Why should I have to revamp <u>my</u> thinking on the whole conception of the school because of personalities of the principals? In the original plan, Mr. G was to deal with matters of maintenance and governance. Mr. C was to deal with matters of curriculum and instruction. The first was a bureaucratic model; the second a professional model. If team leaders agree to go through Mr. C for everything, we are giving up the two-pronged model, and saying that the bureaucratic one is all we need. That is exactly what every other school is doing. So how are we unique?

Instructional Leaders: From the beginning the six instructional leaders formed a closely knit group each depending on the

other five, yet independent. The feeling of cooperation and closeness of this group was an example of professionalism at its best. During the first week of workshop with the consultants ideas were discussed and a feeling of comradeship was established which was to last all the school year for Instructional Leaders.

> Sept. 6 Instructional Leaders agreed to meet for lunch since the six of us had not met in several days. It was magnificent. All of us had expended ourselves and "scattered" ourselves on our teams to the point of emptiness. We filled ourselves back up, literally and figuratively, and were ready for anything.

During the first few months of school, special teachers (physical education, library, music) made it possible for the team to have forty minutes of planning time together each day. This was too little planning time, but it gave the team a feeling of support from each other. Each team member spoke out about successes and problems. It was a time of sharing incidents of the day about the children as much as a curriculum planning session. Lack of materials was a real problem. Interns looked to senior teachers for help.

At the beginning of the year it was frustrating for the Instructional Leader. It was a time when she needed to be in all five rooms getting to know children, guiding three willing but inexperienced interns, giving confidence to two senior teachers, and directing three aides. The only solution, with over one hundred children and only three experienced people, seemed to be to divide the children up into three groups with at least one experienced teacher plus an intern and an aide.

This plan was the solution decided upon by the team, but it virtually allowed the Instructional Leader to know only one third of the children. Nothing seemed to solve the problem of needing to be in several places at one time. This was the most frustrating dilemma of the year for the Instructional Leader...how to divide time into the most beneficial arrangement for all. Children needed expert teaching, but interns needed guidance. The number fifteen goal listing the proposed goals for Instructional Leaders was...Will assume other duties as they occur. There was no end to the "other duties."

> Sept. 18 Fire diagrams, flag ceremonies, United Fund, lost and found barrel, bicycle slogan contest, film orders, free lunch count, personnel policy committee, math committee...what about the children we're supposed to help. I am not yet to the point that I feel enough stability in the school. Things seem helter skelter. I can intellectualize about limited resources and unlimited wants, flexibility, freedom, and openness, but a great deal of planning is required for any of these concepts. I would like to think that I would be able to plan a separate curriculum for each child here using no prescribed text. This would take too much planning. Warm bodies are here. It would be nice to build units around a theme from several texts, but when there is only one social studies text that could be difficult. When I mentioned that I was excited about getting into the new social studies books, I could almost read one consultant's mind thinking..."Why would she want to use a set curriculum when she can plan her own?" Well, I do want to use this particular book. It is a place to start. The book is exciting to me and I think I can make it exciting for children. I believe they will feel good about learning and that is my purpose...whether I use a text or a litter of puppies.

Instructional Leaders felt responsibilities of the entire team very keenly. This researcher taught a full teaching load (but did not have homeroom duties) which left interns too independent, and senior teachers without enough guidance. At the time this solution seemed best. Perhaps time spent with children was more beneficial to the team than a planned program of supervision.

Teachers: Several teachers came to the preschool workshop for Instructional Leaders in order to work with their instructional leaders and the consultants. Teachers received no remuneration for their attendance. Their attendance was indicative of their interest and commitment to the Cooperative Model School.

At the end of the first week teachers were surveyed to ask how they felt about the situation. Some of their comments were:

Sept. 5 "A little tired, but still enthusiastic."
"I hope every week is this successful."
"Everything has gone well."
"Tired, but I enjoyed every minute of it."

As time went on, teachers felt less positive about their position. Some felt caught between the instructional leader and the intern in a no-man's-land of no distinction. Younger, more lenient philosophies of the interns began to disrupt the routine of more experienced teachers.

One of the requirements in the plans was that teachers exercise a high degree of perception and sensitivity to the needs of the student. One of the younger teachers showed a

great deal of sensitivity to the needs of children. The other, a teacher who was "placed" in the school in large measure because of her color, had a great deal of experience in teaching in traditional ways--using traditional methods. It was difficult for her to keep from giving failing grades when a child did not understand some material. Many times the team met and discussed a positive position toward grading. The decision was simply that if the child does not understand, help him until he does. All agreed except the more traditional teacher who "did not understand how children could grow unless their mistakes were pointed out." Every member agreed that poor grades were degrading and would not be given on the team. The more traditional teacher reluctantly agreed to go along with the decision of the team.

> Jan. 25 I decided that the team had calmed down enough to discuss the blow up between the intern and the teacher. So, Thursday, at our planning time I suggested that grievances be aired. People on the team spoke up. I don't know that anything will change as far as old habits are concerned, but people didn't hesitate to say how they felt. The air was cleared and we are going on together.

Interns: The interns had not taken any college course of methods of teaching. They had all taken a course in Introduction to Education (EDU 381) in which the book Introduction to Educational Decision-Making served as text. Many concepts on organization and teacher decision-making came from that source.

> Sept. 18 One intern wrote, "Some of the children really felt good in the situation and

> some didn't. The ones that didn't stand out in my mind, but at the end of the day all positive remarks were made. I had anticipated different children. They are really not what I expected. I feel rather let down because I thought that the children were just bored and not really doing anything constructive. But from their remarks maybe I didn't see things as the children did.

The team decided that interns should start the school year with a homeroom. Interns agreed that they came into the situation to learn to teach by teaching. After the first two weeks interns had a reading group.

> Sept. 24 Our reading groups are going well. We have seven groups. All teachers and interns have one except me; I have two. The interns are growing. I am concerned that I have not been able to help them plan--or observe them as much as I should. In order to observe them I have to leave two groups which are at the moment "unleavable."

A very good working relationship developed between a young teacher and an intern on the team. But the relationship developed to a point of mutual dependence, almost to the exclusion of others.

We are fortunate to have three interns who really wanted to be good teachers. They cared. Whatever direction they received from the team only enhanced what they already had. At the beginning of the year one intern did not seem to agree with our two weeks of "getting to know you."

> Sept. 7 She is ready to get on with the business of teaching. She feels that a lot of what we have done is a waste of time. I don't.

The three interns shared an apartment. This had its advantages and disadvantages. Many times I felt that they were totally involved in their work, even at home.

> May 24 One intern told me that they really learned a great deal about each other as well as teaching. She said it was helpful to be able to discuss a child's problem with someone who worked with the child. My concern is that they might not have had a person there with enough experience to offer any guidance on these after-hours sessions.

Two of the interns were unusually intelligent. One of these had an excellent combination of intelligence and sensitivity to the needs of children. The third intern was less exceptional, but related well with her homeroom.

Aides: The three aides were very open to new ideas and change. They agreed to follow any suggestion given by an intern or a teacher, and even came up with some ideas of their own. They were probably more flexible and uninhibited than some of the professionals. They seemed to have the willing attitide of, "I'll help carry it out if you think it's good." Some were more capable than others, but they were most cooperative.

There was a disagreement about salary. Instructional aides thought that they were to be paid more than clerical aides. Meetings were held, but there was no differentiation in salary. Two of the aides worked in the classroom and the third acted as a clerical aide. The classroom aides gathered

materials, made interest centers, set up projectors, heard children read, read to children, supervised play, and helped in may other ways. There were times when one particularly sensitive aide would take a child for a walk and simply listen while the child talked.

Children:

Sept. 7 Children came in assorted sizes, shapes, colors, races, with assorted personalities, abilities, interests, and even smells. I have never seen such a range. What a challenge! Some are so deprived of physical needs that they are not at the point where love will cure their ailments. Others are junior world-sophisticates. The goal is not to make them all equal.

Sept. 8 An intern brought five boys to talk with me about Mike, their archenemy. I told them that I was going to talk to them like adults because I had an adult job for them. I explained that Mike took medicine, came from a different kind of home, and because of all these things he was different. He simply couldn't help some of the things he did. We talked about some of the things we did that we couldn't help. They went away feeling important and agreed to help Mike. Later, the intern came back grinning all over her being. She said that a boy got angry at Mike and she asked Jimmy (one of the five) to go and try to help the boy understand Mike. She said that Jimmy went over to the boy and put his arm around him and said, "Well, you see, it's like this. Sometimes we just can't help what we do." It's working. Compassion, caring, concern, it works.

Jan. 14 Children were really involved in interest centers. There is still no real guarantee that children will be turned on by a center which a teacher has slaved over all weekend. The trick is to get children to help plan and make the centers. We are all pleased with interest centers and packages. Children are responding well for the most part.

The responses of the children made any other difficulty less burdensome. Many times we sat around at the end of the

day playing the part of the philosopher only to be brought back to the very real world of a child falling off the slide. The responses from children made everything else worthwhile. All the difficulty with the ambiguity of our situation was made tolerable by the underlying fact that children seemed to know that we cared and were trying to make school a fun thing.

> Jan. 16 It is one thing to sit around and abstractly discuss the process of decision-making, and another thing altogether to consciously make curriculum decisions which affect children. The responsibility is awesome, but we accept it gladly. We are aware that the outcome of decisions will be to our credit or discredit. There is no supervisor or superior upon whom to place the blame or credit. It's our show and we're doing it, sometimes changing courses in midstream.

The team discussed traditional methods and ways of improving them. It was determined that it was not a matter of taking the traditional and improving it, but rather of starting from the beginning with a new frame of reference.

Traditional	Cooperative Model
1. Child is dependent upon teacher.	1. Increasing self-direction.
2. Content is subject-centered.	2. Content is child-centered.
3. Diagnosis and evaluation by the teacher.	3. Diagnosis and evaluation by teacher and student.
4. Climate of class formal, competitive, with authority.	4. Informal climate, mutually respectful, collaborative.
5. Content plan of texts provides guide.	5. Process plan, working with individuals.

Every member of the team was committed to the new plan and worked to make it a reality. Many times during the year it was necessary to examine ourselves. All agreed that it would have been easier for the teacher to maintain the traditional methods, but no one wanted to revert.

By this time it became increasingly clear that if a job had to be done, it would not be done by supervisors, administrators, or consultants. Supervisors and administrators were allowing the nondirective leadership pattern to prevail. Consultants came about twice a month, but most of the time they were not aware of levels of needs of participants in the Cooperative Model Project. Many of the teachers felt that more help was needed in creating alternative programs rather than the theoretical abstractness of "the ought." It would be up to individual participants to find their own methods of combining theory with programs in order to meet the needs of children.

In short, the goals initiated by external sources (for example, the decentralizing and personalizing of decision-making) had largely been realized: professionals were now setting their own goals.

OBJECTIVES

By way of review, objectives are very specific statements of intent.[1] Progress in reaching objectives is observable in the behavior of persons in the organization. The more bureaucratic the organization is the more behavioral objectives one finds in the organization. For example, in the automobile industry the ends are known and agreed upon (highest profits at the lowest production cost) the means for reaching these ends are quite clear (good advertising, a good sales force, etc.) and the causal relationship between means and ends is readily and concretely demonstrable (for example, the better the advertising the greater the profits).[2] The more professional the organization is the fewer behavioral objectives one finds in the organization. More abstract goals are substituted for objectives and trust in one's colleagues rather than the command-compliance system

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[1]An objective becomes a norm at the point when members of an organization act out the intention. Quite obviously, some objectives are not accepted and therefore never become norms.

[2]Dale L. Brubaker and Roland H. Nelson, Jr., "The School as an Organization: A Determinant of Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction," Journal of Instructional Psychology, Vol. 1, Number 3 (Summer 1974), p. 5.

essential to bureaucratic structure is emphasized.

Time Span I--The Traditional School (1972-73)

The traditional school was highly bureaucratic in its organization with many explicit and implicit objectives. The objectives were established by those higher up on the bureaucracy and teachers apparently accepted their legitimacy. Governance objectives were formed by the central administration as represented by the principal and curriculum and instruction objectives emanated from central office supervisors. The following objectives demonstrate that the bureaucratic decision-making mode existed in both governance and curriculum and instruction:

1. Standardized tests will be given.
2. Letter grades on report cards will indicate pupil progress.
3. Teachers will follow master schedule made by the principal.
4. Teachers will follow prescribed curriculum supervised from the central office.
5. "We devote a minimum of two hours per day to the area of language arts."[1]
6. "Both I. Q. and achievement tests should be given and correlated to determine pupil placement."[2]

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[1]Self Study, p. 21.

[2]Ibid., p. 27.

7. The school has "Listening concepts developed in sequential manner to train students to listen for information and pleasure."[1]
8. Teachers should sign in by 7:30 and sign out at 3:30.
9. Teachers will supervise children on the playground according to a posted schedule.
10. "All students are grouped according to achievement."[2] (For language arts.)
11. The school has, "Formal and informal testing for measuring and recording systematic growth."[3]
12. "We believe that every child should have regular music classes at least once a week conducted by a music specialist, and that the classroom teacher shoulc utilize music in some way every day..."[4]
13. "In an attempt to prepare each child to recognize his fullest potential and because of the degree of transiency of our students, the school's responsibility to organize for learning is intensified."[5]
14. "Students with reading difficulties have daily, one-to-one, trained, parental tutoring."[6]

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[1] Ibid., p. 22.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 27.

[4] Ibid., p. 66.

[5] Ibid., p. 88.

[6] Ibid., p. 89.

15. "Consultants in social studies and mathematics make weekly visitations."[1]
16. "The program should involve students and teachers in a sequential development of achievement, reflecting attention given to skills..."[2]
17. The school has, "a dyslexia program in which a professional team diagnoses, through a series of tests, students having difficulty."[3]
18. The school has a "program providing intermediate student assistance, twenty-five minutes daily, to those primary teachers desiring aid in 'catching-up' students who need extra help because of illness, moving, ability, or other factors."[4]
19. "Students conduct book sales to recirculate used books."[5]
20. The school has "a sequential spelling program."[6]
21. The school has "a program emphasizing a phonetic approach to translating word symbols."[7]

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[1] Ibid., p. 89.

[2] Ibid., p. 26

[3] Ibid., p. 27.

[4] Ibid., p. 28.

[5] Ibid., p. 27.

[6] Ibid., p. 29.

[7] Ibid., p. 28.

22. The school will "allocate daily time for pleasure reading."[1]

These and other objectives illustrate the command-compliance routine of the traditional situation.

Time Span II--Spring and Summer, 1973, Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model

As it might be expected fewer objectives were evident in Time Span II. These objectives were established by U.N.C.G. consultants and the Director of Curriculum and Instruction at Camp Lejeune Dependents' Schools. These objectives were accepted as legitimate by those who wanted to work at Tarawa Terrace II.

1. Personnel will be chosen for the project.
2. The superintendent would suspend his authority in the selection.
3. Personnel should listen to consultants and react verbally to brainstorming sessions.

These objectives were of little value as guidelines for the team of innovators for the really important educational ends were more general and abstract (goals).

Time Span III--As it Actually Happened (1973-74)

Objectives in the area of governance were expected to be made by bureaucratic officials. Many of these were predetermined before the school year began whereas others emerged largely in the form of memoranda. The following illustrate objectives in the governance area:

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[1]Ibid., p. 32.

1. Working hours, sick leave, vacation, etc. will follow regular civil service guidelines.
2. Teachers will sign in at 7:30 at the door of the "principal's office", check mailbox there, then go to the office of the Director of Academic Affairs to check a mailbox there.
3. Each class will follow the master schedule for going to the cafeteria.

Objectives of a predetermined nature were virtually nonexistent in the area of curriculum and instruction. That is, such objectives were, according to the model, to be determined or emerge as teachers involved themselves in the professional decision-making mode. Objectives varied from team to team. For example, the following objectives emerged on team five:

1. Adults on team five will meet daily for discussion of procedures.
2. A variety of reading materials will be in each classroom.
3. Children will have "free" time each day.

Objectives were therefore of a low level order and deserved little attention for professionals focused on more educational goals.

PART II

In the preceeding section the ends of the sociopolitical system were described through purpose levels, goals, and objectives. In this section, the means to accomplish these ends will be discussed.

Efforts to establish norms through the invocation of rewards and sanctions, the choice of evaluation procedures, and the use of data from evaluation are means to accomplish the ends of the system. Norms, "rules of the game," refer to what is acceptable or unacceptable to the organization. These norms may be written or tacitly understood. The boundaries of acceptable behavior (norms) are determined by rewards, sanctions, and evaluations. The organizations system positively reinforces acceptable behavior or compliance with norms. Deviant behavior (noncompliance with norms) is not rewarded, but given negative sanctions. Rewards and sanctions may be given through formal or informal evaluations. Evaluations help to guard the boundaries of acceptable behavior or compliance with norms. In many traditional schools the teacher rewards the student with an A on his report card because he displayed acceptable academic behavior. The student was rewarded in a formal evaluation. Informal negative sanctions through evaluations may be as subtle as a slight frown. Norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations are means to carry out the ends of the organization.

NORMS

Time Span I--The Traditional School (1972-73)

Rules were stated specifically for children and teachers. Principals were directed by the central office. The bureaucratic form of organization was prevalent in matters of administration and curriculum as evidenced in "standards." For example, fifth grade students were expected to read at fifth grade level and were taught from fifth grade books. Students in the fifth grade who read below level were given lower grades. Students who read above grade level were given superior grades. Each student was measured against a standard. Whether or not he met that standard determined his reward or negative sanction. Teachers were expected to teach the curriculum decided upon by the central office staff. Teachers were encouraged to be innovative within the framework of the prescribed standards.

Principals were to act as the authority figure in the school interpreting the wishes of the central office staff to the teachers. Teachers were expected to comply with curriculum and governance functions described by the bureaucratic hierarchy. Principals rated teachers on evaluation sheets which were kept in the teacher's personnel folder. This practice encouraged many teachers to be inconspicuous and comply to the letter with the questions on the evaluation sheet.

Communications were vertical. The central office administration passed down rules through the principals to the teachers. Teachers were expected to communicate with the principal before approaching personnel from the central office. The attitude of command-compliance prevailed.

Decisions concerning the use of time and space were worked out by the central office staff or principal. The master schedule was posted for times of arrival, lunch, recess, and dismissal. The language arts block was scheduled to last for two hours. Teachers were expected to comply with the master schedule to insure orderly process. Classroom space was allocated by the principal. Teachers were given room assignments, and children were distributed equally among the teachers.

Curriculum decisions were made by the central office supervisors. Text books were selected by a textbook selection committee and accepted by other teachers. There was usually one subject matter book per child. For example, each child had a math book of one particular series. Reading teachers helped with selection of reading materials. Each child had a book for reading on grade level. Classroom arrangement for studying was usually set up for the lecture method of teaching with each child in a desk in a straight row facing the front of the room. The general feeling was that the teacher "will impart knowledge."

Time Span II--Spring and Summer, 1973, Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model

Parameters of acceptable behavior would be set by individual teams with children involved in the establishment of the rules. If children are to make decisions and grow, mistakes will be a part of the growth process. These mistakes should be used as learning experiences.

Teachers should experiment with techniques and materials to determine the learning style of the student. No imposed curriculum or standard would be prescribed by the central office. Teachers should use their knowledge of the individual to develop norms for the individual's situation.

The teaching profession will truly be a profession as teachers make decisions and exercise their power through expertise in dealing with children. Since the teacher involved with the child knows more about the child than the writers of the texts, the material in texts or any other source will be regarded as one source, not as a program through which children must be pushed. A system of material such as a reading system would be used by the child only if it could be adapted to his needs. In other words, the child's growth pattern and skill needs should dictate his individual course of study rather than a packaged system of materials. It would not be necessary for every child to read every story in his reading book or fill in every page in a workbook if he is to be the center of his curriculum instead of a prescribed set of someone else's thoughts.

Undue tension will be eliminated, teachers, and students will relax and progress at whatever rate seems most appropriate. Learning should be a joyous business. The drill of skills should not interfere or take the place of the interest factor. Each child's interest will be explored; skills will be taught as needed. Teachers will give students time to explore, pursue interests, and grow intellectually at their own rate.

Communications will open. Instead of the vertical arrangement of communication in the traditional model, a horizontal arrangement will emerge. During the planning time span salesmanship of the program will be a norm. Those people interested in the project will try to convince others of its worth. Leaders of the project will try to convince others of its value, of going ahead with the Cooperative Model.

Out of this openness of communication a trust should emerge so that norms of time and space could be entrusted to those directly involved. Before school began it had been fairly well established by consultants from the university that a multiage pattern of grouping should be tried. They also suggested that the first two weeks of school be devoted to getting to know the children rather than a structured time of lessons. Participants in the project, for the most part, accepted the consultants' suggestions without question.

The whole of Time Span II was the beginnings of interface between norms of the different models. This was a time of norms

in flux, which might be the best definition of educational change. Traditions were being considered, suggestions for the target system were proposed, and norms were changing. This time was the beginning of interface between norms of the proposed system and norms of the target system, Tarawa Terrace II.

Time Span III--As it Actually Happened (1973-74)

Many of the proposed norms of consultants became norms in reality. Multiage grouping was accepted, teachers tried to open communication, individuals were considered first, and subject matter was looked at carefully before it was used. There was more of a horizontal sharing in communications than had existed before.

During this time of flux of norms, a vocabulary unique to the project took on meaning. "Tolerance for ambiguity, differentiation, ought, truth by definition, systems, incongruence," all took on special meanings for the project.

Professionals were perplexed at the dilemma of the Director of Administrative Affairs who openly did not want to be there. Teachers were constantly reminded (by him) that he was the principal. Consequently, many of the governance norms in the traditional model held as norms in the Cooperative Model.

Decisions of curriculum and instruction were made by the teachers. This was a real change from the traditional model. However, the difficulty of coping with the administrative

ambiguities somewhat diminished the joy of being able to make curriculum decisions.

Aug. 25 We want this team to be as rule-free as possible. When rules are imposed there is always a way to beat the system. It becomes a game of "how can I do what I want to do by manipulating the rules?" I guess it is impossible for six hundred people to live together in total freedom. There is always the master schedule of coming to school at a prescribed hour, eating and leaving at a prescribed time. It is not just the scheduling, though, it has something to do with human nature. We trust children, get disappointed when trust is abused, assume that children know how to live together without being told again and again, but we rethink. Is there a time when specific rules and a clear understanding of what is expected is necessary in a child's life? I think so. I'm not sure children automatically know "right" from "wrong." We can see that it will be necessary to have rules about behavior on the playground, and in the classroom, but we'll try to help them follow the rules, not to protect the rule for its own sake. That's what it's all about. Theory X and Theory Y have to meet somewhere in the middle. We try so hard, but one of our leaders seems to enjoy imposing rules. Ambiguity.

Nov. 18 Children feel more secure if they know where parameters of acceptable behavior are fixed. We had to make rules about staying out of desks, leaving the room clean, and rules of general courtesy. We had expected that the children would know what is "right" and do it. Somewhere along the line they need to be reminded. The important elements of our rules are that children helped make them and there is always a <u>why</u>. A conscious effort is made to explain to students that adults on team five "judged" each case individually with input from the students. Each team member is aware of the fact that equal opportunity does not mean equal treatment.

Jan. 20 We have accomplished so many things with the children. I just wish we could accomplish

something at the other end with our Director of Academic Affairs and Director of Administrative Affairs. We get "nondirective" leadership from one, which often means nothing, and dictatorship from the other.

Jan. 25 This week we had a budget meeting with the superintendent, his assistant, our administrators, and team leaders. Everybody looked toward someone to be chairman. Nobody was. I do not feel that we got our needs across at all.

Feb. 8 A meeting Tuesday was the cause of some ill feelings between the new counselor and her assistant. I requested a conference and told her that I had a list of things to discuss with her. I told her that teachers were promised that she would (1) work with crisis cases, and (2) have time for "drop-ins." This has not materialized. I asked who determined priorities for testing--that someone on our team was tested at the request of Col. somebody--fine--but if the Col. determines priorities then we should know about it. The L.D. children were being seen by the counselor, but these children have already been tested and were getting some help. We have children who are not getting any help who are much worse off than the children in the L.D. program. At each meeting the counselor asked us to define her role. We did. We were asked to define her role again and again. We did, but she did not comply with our two top priorities. She said that she thought she had been hired to assess the needs of the school, not to solve problems. Neither of us were angry--good discussion. She said that she wondered why only three teams had responded to her. I told her that teachers were disillusioned with what she had (more accurately, had not) done, so she need not expect their enthusiasm. She asked me for a copy of the list to take to a meeting at the superintendent's office. I think we were both genuinely concerned about children. Both of us realized that we were not meeting their needs and everybody was getting frustrated. By the end of the week she was no longer employed. Something about available funds being cut.

Adults on team five with the help of the children established a set of "understood norms."

1. A child will be taught on his reading level regardless of the number of years in school attendance.
2. Outdoors is an acceptable classroom.
3. A student's problem takes precedent over the subject of the class. (In other words, if a child has a problem, his individual needs are more important than the subject matter being studied.)
4. No poor grades will be marked on papers. Adults will help students correct errors.
5. No specific academic standards are to be maintained for students. Rather criterion referenced materials are to be used.
6. Subject matter may be crochet as well as math.
7. Respect the actions of other people. Every person has a different background of experiences. (This is especially true on this military base.) Actions reflect these experiences.

There were others, but these norms reflect the kind of attitude on team five.

Norms between adults and children on team five were a real change from a traditional school. There was not as much change between teachers and the administrators.

> Feb. 15 Wed. team leaders met. One team was upset about the hiring of a new counselor this week. The team leader was told that the counselor had taken the slot which had been

> intended to go to a senior teacher on her team. All team leaders agreed that the new counselor was much needed and looked promising, but we understood the need for another senior teacher. The team leader requested that the Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum and Instruction come over to discuss the problem. We agreed that team leaders needed to stick together--so we all agreed to come to her meeting. The meeting lasted almost all day. The team leader expressed her need for a senior teacher, not a substitute for whom lessons would have to be planned. Our Director of Administrative Affairs again told us about how he was not consulted on the initial planning, and that he was not in favor of the project to begin with. I suggested to him that we were all laboring under the burden of his problem, but we were trying to put it behind us and go forward to solve problems. The meeting, although long, did accomplish something: (1) that team leaders would stick together, (2) that communications be given in writing and (3) that the team be given a senior teacher.

One of the most positive things about the project was the feeling which developed among team leaders. There was a real empathy within the group. Backgrounds were different, personalities were different, goals were somewhat different on different teams, but in spite of this the team leaders worked together beautifully.

Norms, then, were changed in the teacher-child relationship and the teacher-teacher relationship to some degree. The relationships between teacher and administrator remained much the same as in the traditional school. This was due partly because the Director of Administrative Affairs demanded it.

REWARDS, SANCTIONS, AND EVALUATIONS

Rewards, sanctions, and evaluations are means of insuring that the norms of a sociopolitical system are secure. Schools and organizations try to predict behavior. Behavior which is compatible with predictions receives rewards. For example, comments such as, "He follows our rules to the letter," or "He reacted just as we hoped he would," indicate that behavior had been predicted, was effected, and will be rewarded. On the other hand, behavior which does not follow predictions is discouraged through the use of negative sanctions. The sociopolitical system cannot always predict how effective rewards and sanctions will be. The effectiveness depends upon the timing, the kind of rewards or sanctions, and the method of presentation. As the three time spans progressed, evaluation became more openended. Measurable objectives in Time Span I had specific rewards, sanctions, and evaluations in keeping with the norms of the bureaucratic structure. In Time Span II and III rewards, sanctions, and evaluations were more openended in keeping with the professional model.

Verbal and nonverbal communication is present in some forms of evaluations. The evaluator may say, "I like what you did," in such a way as to imply, "You're great," or "You could have done better." The body language, tone of

voice, level of intensity and vocal expression all are parts of a system of rewards, sanctions, and evaluations.

Time Span I--The Traditional School (1972-73)

First year teachers were evaluated or rated five times during the year by the principal. Other teachers were evaluated three times during the year. The principal used a checksheet to evaluate teacher performance. If teachers conformed to the items on the checksheet, a good evaluation was given, deviant behavior (nonconformity) was checked as not being acceptable. These forms were signed by the principal, the teacher, and sent to the superintendent's office to be kept in the teacher's file. Regular civil service regulations were enforced on matters of sick leave, annual leave, arrival and departure.

Teachers were rewarded for complying with the vertical chain of command in formal and informal ways. The formal evaluation done by principals made teachers aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Formal evaluations rewarded teachers for complying with commands in keeping with the bureaucratic structure.

Children were evaluated by the teacher on a standard report card every nine weeks. Letter grades were given for subjects with checks given for social behavior. Students who misbehaved were sent to the principal, stayed in for recess, or were required to write sentences. There were specific rewards and sanctions for specific deeds.

Time and space were highly segmented as the norms implied. Children were expected to be "in place" on time, and were sanctioned for being late or for not being in place. Each class had a desk for every child, usually in straight rows. Each child had a set of books for which he was responsible and expected to absorb. Children were expected to conform to the commands of the bureaucracy. It was a realization of this fact that helped to bring about thinking of better ways to help children.

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This experimental school could be said to be in the "pilot project stage" for three school years, or until school year 1976-77. At this time, personnel involved should be able to look back and evaluate the program. Also, most problems would be worked out by then and the school would be ready to open its doors as an established, permanent program.

During this planning time teachers from all over the system were being informed about the Cooperative Model. Some indicated their wish to apply for the project. Interviews were scheduled by the Director of Academic Affairs and the Instructional Leaders to evaluate applications and interview applicants. While participants were being evaluated, plans for methods of rewards, sanctions, and evaluations were being discussed.

One plan of evaluation was that teachers should evaluate each other. Since they were to be chosen by their own colleagues, the instructional leaders would serve as their own judges according to the Professional Model. Teachers should act as professionals to offer help to teach each other, offer suggestions to improve teaching or organizations, and in general, "police their own ranks" in the best sense of the word. Rewards of praise for work well done should come from fellow teachers as well as administrators. Briefly, a spirit of helpfulness, growing together through shared ideas, and concern for the improvement of professional skills was to be the guide. Teachers would observe each other to evaluate each other and share ideas. Helpful suggestions would be shared between teams just as Instructional Leaders and team members shared plans within a team. Accountability for sound instruction would reside where it probably should reside--with the teachers. Under this organization teachers would actually be provided the resources and decision-making authority so that they could realistically be held accountable for what they did.

No imposed curriculum would be dictated for teachers. Experimentation, with needs of children uppermost in mind, would be the norm and evaluated with the knowledge that standard tools of evaluation would not be suitable for all forms of experimentation.

Teachers would be encouraged to try methods and techniques which had not been used in the school previously without the

fear of "not teaching the prescribed curriculum." The teacher could justify any method or technique after determining that it would suit the needs of the child.

Children were to be praised, not given poor grades. A helpful attitude on the part of the teacher rather than that of the taskmaster was to be observed. Spanking would be out of the question. Their first report card would be replaced by parent conferences. A revised report card would be sent home three times after the first parent conference. Children should be encouraged to compete only with themselves, not others, unless they were comfortable in a competitive situation. Team five believed that elementary school is too early to start the cutthroat competition brought on by the Bell Curve, imposed academic standards, and letter grade systems. If independent behavior is to occur, opportunity to be independent must be a part of the school day; evaluation of independent activity should be the responsibility of the student to a great degree.

Time Span III--As it Actually Happened (1973-74)

> Sept. 15 I remember reading somewhere in Neill's book about Summerhill about the distinction between overt authority and anonymous authority. Overt is exercised directly and explicitly. The authority figure frankly tells the person subject to him what to do. That is the way traditional schools have been. We say, "You must do this, if you don't, I'll do this." We applied sanctions to preserve rules which might not have been worth applying in the first place. Anonymous authority pretends that there is no authority, and that everything that is done is with the consent of all concerned. For example, a teacher used to say, "If you

> don't do this I'll punish you." Today's teachers say, "Try it, you'll enjoy doing it." Overt authority simply used force. This anonymous authority uses some kind of psychic manipulation that bothers me. In the long run the pill is swallowed, even if it is sugar coated, and the anonymous authority strikes again. I don't want our team to reward and sanction with authority. We'll have to find a better way. I believe that we can.

Personalities became so enmeshed with position that it was difficult to evaluate performance without evaluating personality. Working so closely together it became extremely awkward to criticize another teacher or Instructional Leader. The Instructional Leaders each had a style of leadership, evaluation, and daily functioning, but no one felt that theirs was superior to the extent that they crusaded for their method. Each Instructional Leader was well aware that the others were each doing their best, finding their own way, and honestly trying to evaluate what their team had done. This was so time consuming that none of the teams felt that they had time to really observe another team to see what went on there. When these rare visists did occur it was for the purpose of finding new methods to try in their own team rather than to criticize (positively and negatively) what another team was doing. No one seemed sure enough of what she was doing to try to get others to do better.

> Dec. 10 I don't really believe teachers want to "patrol" themselves. The whole idea of tending to my own team is difficult enough and even though I see things on other teams which I know to be totally unsound, I sit here and say nothing. There are just too

> many variables involved. So I sit sorting them, saying nothing. "Contemplating the variables instead of going into action." Working with friends is good, but it is difficult to criticize a friend.

No teacher felt that they had the "right" to criticize another teacher. It was even difficult to give constructive criticism, in many instances, to interns. There never seemed to be enough time to go to another team to observe. Mere looking at someone teach made teachers feel that they were not making wise use of their time. There was a sense of urgency, a need to do as much as possible on each of the teams. There were so many crisis situations that teachers hesitated about leaving their classes with an aide or intern.

The lack of prescribed curriculum in many instances caused teachers to think about all the things which could possibly be taught. This resulted at times in hurried confusion, rushed expectancy, and harried urgency. Instead of the more relaxed feeling of "we don't have to rush to cover the book," teachers assumed the attitude of "there is so much to teach, how will I ever get it done?" It is very difficult for some teachers to allow growing time for children. Time to absorb, to digest is so essential for children, but that means that the teacher might need to get out of the way.

> Sept. 18 This reminds me of the story of the beautiful school, beautiful books, beautiful teachers, and the beautiful parents sent the wrong kids. We had this idea of positive love and sunshine. It works most of the time, but there are children here who have to be told to do a certain thing at a certain time. To assume that all children can function as decision-makers to

> make choices for themselves is just as wrong as saying that children aren't capable of making their own decisions. The problem lies in being able to identify the child who is capable of decision-making from the one who needs the security of not being responsible for making decisions.

Rewards for children came in many forms: smiles, hugs, candy, parties, acting as teacher helper, extra recess, free books, games, positive remarks--spoken and written, notes to parents, and any form of recognition which seemed appropriate for the act.

Sanctions were as varied: a frown, a private verbal admonishment, hand signals, a note to parents, a conference, a visit to the principal or counselor. No physical punishment such as spanking was used. In some instances children were suspended from school.

> Dec. 8 Funny, even though no grades (except good ones) are given, the children always know who's smart. Somehow smart ones feel more reward and slower ones feel the lack. No matter how hard we try to accept all children where they are--they don't accept themselves. We thought that multi-age grouping would help to eliminate the problem. It does to some degree. Children group themselves. I like multiage grouping, but ask any kid who's the smartest one in math and he'll say, "Shannon". Although Shannon's grades are no better (because everybody gets good grades and succeeds) everyone knows that Shannon is at the top of the heap.

Teachers all got good grades too. But instead of coming from each other, they came fairly traditionally from the principal.

> Jan. 12 It continues to be a shock to be "evaluated" by the Director of Academic Affairs. He observes new teachers five times during the year and others, three times. Evaluation

forms rarely seem fair, at best. What happened to the idea of professional evaluation of cohorts? There are few times when instructional leaders are reinforced with true words of praise. There are some comments about consultants' attitudes of "relax, you're O.K." We seldom hear a specific good thing, and by the same token nobody says anything about a specific bad thing. This has been mistaken for lack of concern. Certainly, teachers ought to be able to evaluate what is done themselves, and not wait around for the pat on the head. That is an "ought", not a reality. No one here is so sure of what we are doing that positive reinforcement isn't necessary.

Mar. 15 Magazine articles are being written about our school. We never know anything about them until we see them, sometimes accidentally, in print. It would be great if we could have some input in these articles. Plans for the ASCD are being made. Our school will have a part on the program. We have asked for the program which will be presented as ASCD to be presented to us, or at least tell us something about what will be said...nothing. What's the big secret?

Mar. 18 The new counselor asked us to give her a list of children to be tested. We tried to be kind and just give her our crisis cases. Right away we came up with fifteen names. Fifteen out of one hundred. These children are not just slow learners or minor discipline problems. These fifteen are simply beyond us.
-------whose father was killed by police, brother a pusher, sister a prostitute, twin in juvenile court, mother gambles, living with cousin.
-------came from a class of six emotionally disturbed children in another city.
-------an animal, like his mother and her third husband who is twenty-one.
-------wakes up at night to eat. Will not let people see her eat. Throws all school lunches away. Mother obese. Under care of pediatrician on base.
-------new from Puerto Rico. Language problem.
-------very high IQ. Afraid of any new situation. Cries easily.
-------enjoys hurting other children. Trembles, withdraws.
-------transferred to us from Team Six after being suspended. Last resort to give him

another chance before asking his parents to take him out for good.
The list goes on and on. God help us.
There were other children who seemed well adjusted and emotionally healthy. These seemed to thrive on what we were trying to do for them.

May 15 I don't know how any valid evaluation or conclusion can be drawn about our experimental Cooperative Model because of the overwhelming obstacles. The two main obstacles were (1) the problems between the two administrators. How can a Cooperative Model exist if the two men at the top are not even cooperative with each other. The Director of Administrative Affairs has constantly worn the "I wasn't consulted initially" chip on his shoulder all year. (2) The type of children. With the inexperience of the interns, the youth of the senior teachers, the newness of the situation, this type of child needs calming structure. All of us wanted to give them choices when they would have been more secure in a different situation. We tried to use all the new-good ideas at the wrong place. I only hope we haven't done any more damage. In the beginning we talked about children feeling free to express themselves. What we didn't know was that they had few inhibitions about expressing self. It was rather self-control and restraint of any kind that they did not know.

Many of the plans for the Cooperative Model were actually implemented. During the first year there prevailed a general feeling that positive educational change was taking place. For the most part the affective domain was considered to a greater degree than ever before.

Standardized test scores did not show that skills improved any more in the Cooperative Model than the traditional model. Teachers, for the most part, agreed that improvement in social skills or skills not measured on standardized tests had been enhanced most.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

This case study of Tarawa Terrace II Elementary School described the implementation of a Bureaucratic-Professional Model of organization and the changes in the ends (purpose levels, goals, objectives) and means (norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations). This study focused on three time spans:

Time Span I, 1972-73, The Traditional School

Time Span II, 1973, Spring and Summer, Plans for the Implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model

Time Span III, 1973-74, As it Actually Happened.

In the judgment of the originators of the conceptual model for the elementary school being investigated, the bureaucratic organizational system was appropriate for governance functions because governance deals with matters in which the ends are measurable, the means for reaching such ends are agreed upon, and the causal relationship between means and ends is concretely demonstrable.

In the area of curriculum and instruction, however, the professional organizational form is more acceptable due largely to the abstractness of educational ends. The vertical, hierarchical bureaucratic system is less appropriate than the

horizontal professional system that depends on trust in the expertise of colleagues.

The investigator studied the elementary school as a sociopolitical system with emphasis on the sociological and political aspects of the school. Elements of sociopolitical systems, such as educational ends (purpose levels, goals, objectives), and means (norms, rewards, sanctions, and evaluations) served as organizing concepts.

This was a comparative study, for it compared and contrasted the school as a sociopolitical system at three different times in its history. The investigator centered attention on the educational change process (norms in flux) and in particular the relationship between the person and the organization within the culture of the school.

The investigator was the Instructional Leader for one of six teams (team five) in the school. The data were gathered in the form of a weekly log, a record of the team's attempt to provide conditions for personal and self-development of each child, to meet levels of needs and to make curriculum decisions based on needs of students. The investigator was concerned with maintaining objectivity while participating in the situation being described.

There were basic dilemmas to be reconciled:

1. Participants had unlimited desires, but the organization had limited resources.
2. Participants had different needs, different levels of tolerance for ambiguity.

3. There was undue tension between the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Affairs to the point that the Bureaucratic-Professional Model concept suffered.

On the other hand, many positive things happened.

1. Teachers made curriculum decisions based on the needs of children.
2. Interns had practical teacher-training experience.
3. Inservice training occurred more frequently.
4. Children seemed to enjoy school.

The review of the literature focused on change brought about by individuals and organizations. Those who initiated change in the Cooperative Model School supported the view that organizational change should preceed individual change. The plan for change originated with consultants from the university.

There are those who believe that the individual is the center of the change process and that man can and should be the measure of all things. As some humanists argue, it is the formation of organizations that corrupts man. Emerson, Thoreau, Rousseau and other more modern day writers such as Dewey, Goodman, Friedenburg, Holt, Illich and others are described as individuals who initiated change and in many instances practised their ideas in the classroom.

Individuals changing institutions often meet with suppression from society, but change, flux of norms, is inevitable whether it be brought about by individuals or organizations. Certainly any change is probably a combination of factors and

no distinct line can be drawn to say that this was a change initiated solely by individuals or organizations since usually one is dependent upon the other. The one important element about change is that to be successful it should start internally, not be initiated by some external force. Another important element is that participants' levels of needs must be considered if change is to be successful.

Change brought about by organizations was described in three eras: Scientific Management, Human Relations, and the Behavioral Approach. School organizations were influenced by these changes in industry. From the era of Scientific Management came specialization, coordination from central office, systems of rules, and an impersonality much like industry. The pupil became the product. Bureaucracy affected education significantly in standardization of course work. The implication of this fact on individual differences in the classroom and teacher decision-making were described. During the era of Human Relations individual attitudes came to be recognized as important variables in interpersonal behavior affecting patterns of organization. The Human Relations movement probably had more impact on supervisors than it did on administrators due to the fact that administrators were in line positions where they were responsible for exercising power and authority over their subordinates whereas supervisors were in staff positions where influence was more dependent upon expertise. The era of the Behavioral Approach was des-

cribed as the time of recognition of the fact that organizations and the individuals within it work toward prescribed ends of the organization, but have a tremendous impact upon each other during the process. The formal structure and the individuals are constantly transacting and interacting.

During the first year of the implementation of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model the investigator concludes that the Hawthorne Effect contributed to school success. There was special attention paid to the participants. It was an honor to be chosen for the project. The administration indicated its faith in the participants by acknowledging that teachers were responsible people, and should be held accountable, but that they also should have authority to make decisions about curriculum and instruction. As the year progressed it became apparent that a rethinking on certain elements of the program would be necessary if participants were to maintain their enthusiasm. A representative from the superintendent's office and consultants from the university were interviewed to give the investigator more insight into the project. Many questions about the project arose as a result of working in the project and conducting the interviews.

The following questions are posed as suggestions for further study, but answered as the investigator's experience with the project indicated. The intent of the writing is not

to be judgmental of others. As a participant in the project, the investigator takes responsibility for a fair share of the successes and failures. Any judgmental arguments are for the purpose of discussion.

1. Is the conceptual model sound?

   A. Are the elements of the model clearly defined? The distinction was made between governance and curriculum, or administration and academics, but a large area in between remained undefined. For example, if a teacher wished to change rooms to initiate some curriculum change, to whom would she report? Certainly, the change dealt with curriculum, but changing facilities affected maintenance which should be an administrative act. There were other ambiguous situations. This is not to insinuate that the model was basically unsound, only that the implementation would have been more effective if elements of the model had been more clearly defined. Certainly in spite of clearly defining elements, some ambiguity would remain. However, with open communication, more explicit definitions, friction would have been reduced. It was indicated in one interview that many times frequent disclaimers about not understanding was a defense. When participants heard, "We have a process, not a

program," they were frustrated. Maybe initially some did not understand, but later they did. Team leaders understood.

B. Do the elements relate to each other in a logically consistent way?

Objectives were to emerge out of goals just as goals were to emerge from purposes. There was a great deal of assumption that everyone could make objectives in keeping with the goals. Goals were listed which implied freedom, implicit faith, and that everyone involved would interpret the goals as they were meant to be interpreted. But when objectives were given, the actual implementation showed less freedom, choice, or experimentation. Teachers and children went back many times to the old concept of school as they had always known it. In many instances this was not bad, because teachers do many good things in traditional schools as well as experimental schools. There was an uneasiness of feeling guilty about doing some of the same things they had done before. Whether or not the things were good or bad was not the point. Teachers needed more faith in their own abilities to deal with children.

One of the most confusing aspects of the project which defied logic was the assumption that change could come from an external source when the

very change itself was decision-making on the part of participants. Since the project was conceived at the university, participants in the project expected, "Yes, you are doing what we conceptualized," or, "No, that is not what we had in mind," from consultants. The consultants, however, felt that the nondirective style of leadership was more in keeping with the model and that teachers were the experts on the children with whom they worked. Participants had the feeling of being suddenly weaned before sufficient help had been given. Levels of needs of participants were not met sufficiently in feedback communications. Perhaps consultants felt that participants were too involved with programs and the immediate needs to see the broader scope of the project. Perhaps if the ideas of the Bureaucratic-Professional Model had originated at the Tarawa Terrace II School, teachers would have relied less on positive reinforcement from the source of conception.

C. Are the basic assumptions of the model explicit? Implicit?

The general explanation of the model is fairly explicit, but the implementation of the model depended to a great extent on the implicit assumptions (1)that participants wanted to make

decisions, (2) that they could generate alternatives, (3) that they realized change evolves slowly, (4) that the Director of Academic Affairs and the Director of Administrative Affairs would cooperate, and (5) that the large "gray area" would be reduced by working together. In spite of the implicit nature of the model, there was enough explicit direction to cause participants to begin work enthusiastically. When Consultant Y was asked this question he said that the decision-making process could be made explicit, but that results are implicit, depending on faith.

The investigator concludes that the conceptual model is sound in spite of some ambiguous elements. More research should be done to more clearly define elements, not just to the satisfaction of a certain group, but to all participants in the project.

2. How effectively was the conceptual model implemented?

   A. Who understood the model?

Consultant Y understood the model and was advisor to a student writing his dissertation on the model. Consultant Y worked with the six Instructional Leaders and the Director of Academic Affairs for two weeks before the opening of school. At the time school opened, of the almost seventy adults, only seven had received any intensive training (two weeks)

on bureaucracy, professionalism, generating alternatives to bring about curriculum change, tolerance for ambiguity, and general coping in a changing environment. Consultant Y agreed that participants were not prepared, but asked how long and under what conditions would it take to prepare them? He indicated that participants were uneasy.

Camp Lejeune"s Curriculum Director told in an interview about a member of the school board questioning the use of the word experimental. It was agreed that the word could have possible detrimental connotations, and that it was necessary for parents to feel secure about the project. It was also agreed that the word model would have a better external image, that it would establish an esprit de corps among the faculty and be a positive step toward better recruitment. Other schools in the system questioned the project and the use of the word model. The Curriculum Director stated that he was prepared to risk the cost in terms of what the project would gain. It was not the intent to take anything from another school, but to see that the Cooperative Model got its due. Everyone hoped from the beginning that the project would be a success, but because of the vast differences in experiences, everyone had his own ideas of how to make it a success. The Director

of Academic Affairs had never held this type of position before this time. The Director of Administrative Affairs was openly opposed to the project. The Instructional Leaders had only two weeks of training. The senior teachers were for the most part very young and inexperienced. The interns had no education courses as such. Perhaps lack of preparedness was the most obvious flaw in the implementation of the model. This, coupled with the lack of communication skills, prevented full understanding of the plan. Many participants were on the survival level from the beginning. Some meetings and consultants attempted to solve problems above the survival level which participants were simply not ready to deal with.

B. Were there effective communications between U. N. C-Greensboro and Tarawa Terrace II?

The interns worked with a very able graduate student from U. N. C. G. This contact person came for two days every two weeks and was a vital link between the two institutions. This was very valuable for the interns. Other participants felt isolated from "the source." Efforts to communicate needs and feelings through the Director of Academic Affairs through the system's Director of Curriculum on to professionals at U. N. C. G. often failed at some

interval. There was a general lack of self-confidence among many participants and a strong need to communicate feelings. The nondirective style on the part of leaders was often interpreted as lack of interest and concern. Because of the nondirective style of leadership there was a feeling on the part of many participants that legitimate requests were ignored. This contributed to some ill feeling which tended to block communication even more.

In an interview one participant said that power was given to the Director of Academic Affairs and Director of Administrative Affairs when their permissions were requested. He also stated that it seemed that consultants and participants in the project were on different channels. One group was more concerned with the process of decision-making whereas the participants in the project had immediate programatic problems. People were not hearing each other.

According to Consultant Y decisions were made and nobody knew who made them. There was the problem of getting people together. Teachers felt the need to teach and not get together and discuss their problems; they could have made time even if it meant long recesses. It was a matter of priorities. Consultant Y said that if teachers had pro-

lems they could have made time to discuss ways to solve them. Teachers did not want to take time out of the classroom. That left a leadership vacuum. He described suspension of bureaucratic functions in three ways. (1) When bureaucratic positional authority was not suspended, those in authority made decisions. (2) On the next level there were times when authority was suspended, but not filled by anyone else. (3) Then there is the next level where bureaucratic authority is suspended and replaced or filled in by another form of leadership. Many times the Cooperative Model fell into the second level of vacuum. He saw Instructional Leaders as overall leaders for instruction for one-hundred children and six or seven adults. By that definition they could not be regular classroom teachers. The Instructional Leader should have been a communicator, a facilitator, supervisor of activity, someone who listened, someone who could be more relaxed about what children were learning. Instructional Leaders felt guilty about not teaching, so it was difficult to get people together to solve common problems.

There were times when team five felt that anything which involved the total school was simply not worth the trouble. Team five worked

well together; decisions on the team were honored. But those decisions which required involvement of the whole school were too cumbersome to be worth the effort. Team five requested certain consultants. Instead of the consultants requested, others were chosen. How far up the communications ladder did the request go? Did requests stop with the Dir- of Academic Affairs in the school, or in the system, or did the consultants choose not to come? There were some requests for materials which were honored, others were not because of budget limitations. Team five understood budget limitations and could accept "no." What it could not tolerate was the fact that it possibly was simply ignored.

C. Were resources accurately or adequately surveyed and employed?

During the two weeks before school started Instructional Leaders tried to get a feel for the overall concept. There was no time to make interest centers, collect materials, etc. The library or media center had an adequate selection of books, some records and filmstrips, and a fulltime librarian. She did not attend the workshop preceeding the opening of school, however, and many of the concepts of the school seemed alien to her. There was a book supply room with an adequate

number of reading texts. A full time reading teacher helped with the selection of materials, but did not work with any children. Instructional Leaders requested that the reading teacher work with very slow learners. This request was not honored. The reading teacher worked with volunteers in a program for slow learners. Instructional Leaders felt that this was not best utilization of reading teachers.

There was a survey of community helpers. Each team was given a list of local volunteers who could come in to share their interests with children.

Perhaps the greatest inadequacy was the inexperience of the participants in the project. The youth of the group combined with nondirective leadership caused many moments of frustration.

The lack of materials in the beginning of the year was a real hindrance to progress. Materials came in as ordered later in the year.

D. Were role definitions clear?

No. Instructional Leaders were clearest on role definition, perhaps because they wanted to be. Senior teachers felt the responsibility of the interns, but were not exactly clear as to how to help them. Interns knew that they were to observe and adapt what they observed to their own mode.

Aides' roles were much the same as in any other school except for the fact that no distinction was made in the classroom between aides, interns, and teachers as far as the children were concerned.

The role of the Director of Administrative Affairs was not understood by him, or the teachers. He denied the project from the beginning and saw himself as the principal, not as one part of a two part administrative team. There were times when participants understood more than their behavior showed.

Participants agreed teaching experience could have been a plus or a minus. More experienced teachers might have had too many experiences to fall back on and this would inhibit their creative decision-making. Younger people found their role at a more rapid pace. There was some frustration because of the youth of the faculty. There was a lack of understanding which could be attributed to many things. First, there was comparatively little preservice training for preparation. Second, there was the inability of team leaders to relate or relay a job description to the senior teachers, perhaps because they did not fully understand their own roles. There was the difficulty of translating role description into behavior.

Some said that mature judgment based on experience would have helped in defining roles, and that the main thing, if the project began again, would be to specify strong and clear leadership in terms of buffering, and in terms of drawing on all kinds of expertise.

In summary of the question, no, the implementation of the model was not adequate. The concept itself was educationally sound, but the behavior required to implement the project was not evident enough to make the project the success it should have been. Many improvements were made in the school, but more could have occurred with better preparation and more communication.

3. Given previous influences, particularly bureaucratic influences of organizations in which they participated, can teachers really be professional?

Yes, teachers can be expected to be professionals. In spite of growing up in bureaucratic schools, and in some cases homes, and churches, they can be expected to make curriculum decisions concerning the children. More research is needed on this question. Teacher training institutions need to help prospective teachers look at patterns of organizations and their interface of roles. Lack of confidence in their own creative

ability causes some teachers to revert to patterns established by tradition. There will always be some sort of hierarchy in a school, but perhaps it should come from expertise rather than authority. The Co-operative Model School was designed to encourage decision-making through expertise (the teacher is the expert on the child that she teaches.)

4. Is it possible to have workable and beneficial relationships between universities and school systems?

   Yes, but more research is needed to determine better ways of communication. The goals of the two institutions are diverse. The university tends toward theory and research. The public school is concerned with the active curriculum of children. Together, each could help the other.

5. What difference occurs if change is initiated externally or internally?

   More research is needed on this point. Educators say that children must have a felt need to learn, or change. Perhaps the same is true of educators. Unless the need is felt, alternatives generated within, and action initiated by them, outside forces are of minimal value.

6. What difference would it make if the investigator were not a participant?

   Certainly, the investigator would have been more

objective, less concerned with personalities, and may have reported more accurately. However, it was a learning experience that contributed greatly to the professional growth of the investigator. It is doubtful that a total outsider could have been sensitive to the project.

7. How much can the model be changed before it is violated?

If elements had been more clearly defined, a definite point could be marked to show where the model becomes changed to the point that it no longer fits the original concept. Perhaps the only real point in the Cooperative Model which would truly violate the model would be the elimination of the two facets of administration and teacher decision-making. The one element which made the school the Cooperative Model was the fact that there was a bureaucracy for matters of governance and a profession for making curriculum decisions. This was the original intent of the project, and when that is no longer in effect, the project is no longer the Cooperative Model. Other elements were less clearly defined so that it would be difficult to know when the model was violated.

8. Should focus be on the change in the individual or change in the organization pattern?

More research is needed particularly in schools. To impose an organizational pattern on individuals

without adequately preparing the individuals for the change greatly increases the likelyhood that the organizational pattern will have difficulty. If, however, teachers are content to sit by and continue in the same rut without generating alternatives to keep up with changes in children, what can be done? Certainly at the university level ideas can be brought to teachers to help them want to change. The best organizational change would be brought about by individuals who are seeking a better way.

9. How conscious should teachers be of the change process?

Teachers need to be more aware of what it takes to bring about change, what makes change, how to initiate it, and how to live with it. More research is needed in this area.

10. What are practical terms and guidelines any school system could use from this study?

The Bureaucratic-Professional Model is the most ideal system under which the investigator ever worked. It is a project which should be studied by other schools. There are certain areas which need more research before it should be tried again. What would be the best method to prepare participants for the project? A great deal was learned during the initial year about what was valuable and what needed more attention. The inservice should be planned ahead of time. Then

participants trained until they felt confident in their own abilities.

These and other questions are recommended for further research. All of the questions will never be answered about the possibilities of the Cooperative Model School since change is one element of its success.

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