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Personalizing the pedagogical environment : a manual for educational administrators.

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PERSONALIZING THE
PEDAGOGICAL ENVIRONMENT:
A MANUAL FOR EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATORS

A Dissertation Presented
by
Gerald J. Bissett

Submitted to the Graduate School of the University
of Massachusetts in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August, 1974

Major Subject: Educational Administration


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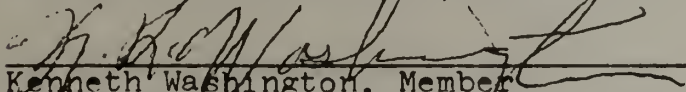
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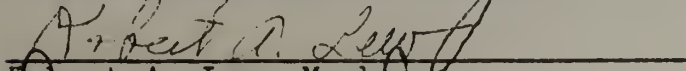
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ADMINISTRATORS


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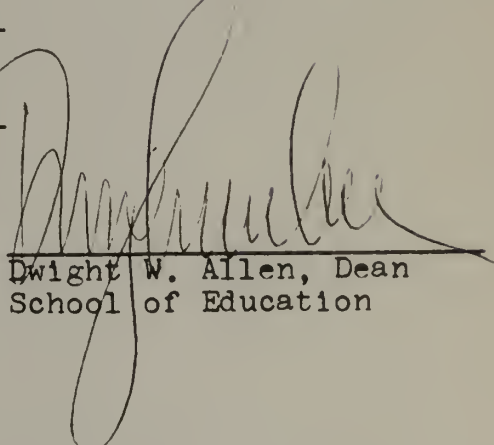
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author is deeply indebted to many individuals who were active in the preparation of this dissertation. Dr. G. Ernest Anderson, Jr., Professor at the University of Massachusetts, provided continuous guidance during the writer's entire stay at the University and served as chairman of his dissertation committee.

The other committee members; Dr. David S. Flight, Dr. Robert A. Lew and Dr. Kenneth R. Washington were also instrumental in helping in the completion of this document.

Very special recognition goes to Mr. Francis P. Higgins, Principal of Marymount High School in Montreal. His enlightened leadership style granted the author much autonomy in the exercising of his professional duties and allowed him to operate on a high self-actualization level: an invaluable experience and one which words alone cannot adequately convey the writer's deep-felt gratitude.

DEDICATION

To the Three Girls in my Life

KATHY

LISA

TARA

ABSTRACT

Personalizing the Pedagogical Environment:

A Manual for Educational Administrators

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This dissertation is directed at educational administrators who are interested in bringing about a more personalized atmosphere in their schools. The author attempts to marry the many components involved in this change process so that the study presents to the reader a working document from which one may readily see how the parts fit into the whole.

The writer first shows the position and the personality characteristics deemed most helpful to a change agent involved in such an undertaking. Next, the reader is made familiar with the general philosophy and the underlying assumptions which are needed to help educators produce better results.

In attempting to illustrate how one puts into practice what one preaches, the thesis then lists twenty fundamentals involved in such a program. These fundamentals are divided into those of primary importance (necessary to the pro-

gram), secondary importance (helpful in the evolution), and tertiary importance (facilitators to the change agency). The needed conceptual framework which will allow these fundamentals to be activated is then dealt with.

Next, the author proposes a change strategy one could follow in successfully and effectively altering the pedagogical environment in an educational institution. The writer lists ten steps one should be aware of and follow in order to bring about the proposed change as untraumatically as possible.

Finally, the reader will find a chapter concentrating on the major problem areas in the process involved. The reader is not only made aware of those areas most likely to give the change agent headaches, but is also given insight into those remedies deemed most helpful. The author further tries to help the reader by describing two case studies (one successful and one not) and analyzing them in such a way as to better illustrate the preceding recommendations.

Throughout the dissertation, the professional judgments and empirical evidence available in the literature have been liberally summarized and referred to as an aid to the reader who wishes to contrast his own concepts with those of the author.

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It is in fact nothing short of a miracle that the modern methods of instruction have not yet entirely strangled the holy curiosity of inquiry; for this delicate little plant, aside from stimulation, stands mainly in need of freedom; Without this it goes to wrack and ruin without fail. (Albert Einstein)

C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

The "necessity" that makes schooling so uniform over time and across nations and cultures is simply the necessity that stems from unexamined assumptions and unquestioned behavior. The preoccupation with order and control, the slavish adherence to the timetable and lesson plan, the obsession with routine qua routine, the absence of noise and movement, the joylessness and repression, the universality of the formal lecture or teacher-dominated "discussion" in which the teacher instructs an entire class as a unit ... the inability of students to work on their own, the dichotomy between work and play ---- none of these are necessary, all can be eliminated.

Schools can be more humane and still educate well. They can be genuinely concerned with gaiety and joy and individual growth and fulfillment without sacrificing concern for intellectual discipline and development. They can stress esthetic and moral education without weakening the three R's. They can do all these things if ---- but only if ---- their structure, content, and objectives are transformed. (Silberman, 1970, p. 208-209)

AIM

Educators have and are continually attempting to better the learning environment. Until recently most such endeavors have been in the direction of presenting the student with better books, better trained teachers and better equipped classrooms. However, there have been some like A. S. Neil who have opened new vistas by dealing with the child as a human being rather than as a learning machine. During the past two decades more and more pedagogues have followed suit and have concerned themselves with attempting to "per-

sonalize" their schools. Many very worthwhile innovative concepts, as a result, have been advanced and implemented in some areas.

Unfortunately, progress in this direction has been painfully slow. No doubt, a major reason lies in the fact that human beings do not readily and quickly accept new ideas where traditional ones have seemingly served the public well. It would appear that conventional approaches to instruction are easier to deplore than to change. In this vein, Schlesinger (1965, p. 595) stated:

Changing the direction of an agency while it continues its day to day operations has been likened to performing surgery on a man while he hauls a trunk upstairs.

But a second very important influence acting against major change in pedagogy has been the poor record of success enjoyed by those institutions having implemented seemingly radical innovations. For example, in a survey of schools conducted by the author, fully 50% of those having implemented a flexible modular schedule were found to have reverted to a more traditional pattern of allocating teaching periods. Not only does the failure of so many in maintaining a particular evolutionary direction serve to dissuade others, but the traumatic periods suffered by even those who have not reverted further stifles experimentation among the more hesitant ones. Time and again the author has heard educational administrators having lived through a period of change comment how unnerving their experience had been.

Why have attempts to change our school settings to a more personalized atmosphere met with such failure or painful transition periods? After conversing with numerous school administrators the writer has hypothesized that those directing the change have been acting in the dark a good deal of the time. A fuzzy notion of what was to be achieved and how to go about it led to a trial-and-error method in all too many cases. It was perceived that obvious steps in the implementation scheme had been omitted or attempted in the wrong fashion.

One is then led to the question: "Why are so many educational administrators, who have been trained for their role, unable to resolve such problems?" Upon researching in several educational libraries, the author has noticed the existence of much rhetoric describing the various pedagogical innovations currently being discussed and tried out. However, little, if any, can be found to be dealing with the administrative details involved in the implementation processes. There seems to be a wide gulf of ignorance existing between the stratosphere of the theoretician and the grass roots level of the practitioner. On this topic Bennis states:

The relationship between theory and practice must constantly be kept within the same field of vision in order for both to cope with the exigencies of reality. We have developed a substantial body of theory and certainly a rich body of practice, but somehow our failure has been to provide the transformations and bridging of the two. (Bennis, Bene, and Chin, 1962, p. 4)

This expanse must be bridged by the administrator who

will attempt to marry the two worlds into a less-than-traumatic union. Kurt Lewin once compared this task and went on to say:

The researcher worker can achieve this only if, as a result of a constant intense vision, he can keep both theory and reality fully within his field of vision. (Lewin, 1948, p. 1)

Because, as stated above, little information can be found dealing with the implementation of new ideas in schools, the educational administrator has had to become a researcher to discover what was to be accomplished and how to best go about it. Time is not something he has much of. The result has, therefore, been the frequent implementation of change without sufficient thought having been devoted beforehand to proper preparation.

What the writer proposes to do then, is to explain and illustrate as explicitly as possible a plan of action which one could use to help a school evolve from the arena of conservatism to that of a more liberal and personalized learning environment. It is hoped the administrator will be taken from the earliest moments of contemplation of change to the post-implementation assessment period.

It is further felt that once these intellectual linkages between theory and practice are suitably recognized, we have to become concerned with social processes that bear on the infusion of knowledge into action and policy decisions. These two foci: practical theory and the social dynamics involved in the utilizing of the knowledge toward effective

change - make up two of the most dominant themes in this document.

In attempting to develop this manual the author will first strive to deal with the change agent himself. It is felt that a relatively clear idea of those characteristics a successful innovator should possess will serve to forewarn such a person of the perils ahead.

Next, the manual will dwell to a considerable extent on the underlying philosophy of the personalized pedagogical environment. Without an in-depth study and understanding of this point it is felt the "raison-d'etre" of the change will be missing, leaving its propagators as easy prey to the whims of the "status quo" seekers.

Following will be a chapter dealing with the fundamentals of the proposed program. One cannot undertake to change an environment, whether social or intellectual, without first ascertaining what plan of action one will follow. The basic points of this plan are what will be referred to as fundamentals. Knowing about and implementing these fundamentals will facilitate the task of the change agent to a considerable extent. It is also the author's hope to illustrate the above-mentioned "bridging" through the latter two chapters.

The final part of the dissertation will be devoted to acquainting the reader with the conceptual framework encompassing these fundamentals along with various aspects of

the change process deemed helpful to the successful activating of this complex endeavor.

It is the writer's hope that future school administrators, by reading and studying the proposed set of guidelines, will be successful in avoiding many of the problems involved and better managing the unavoidable ones. By the same token it should be possible for the change agent, currently in the throes of a myriad of unforeseen difficulties brought about during the recent implementation of certain innovations, to assess why he is encountering such problems and what he can do about them.

Why Change?

Finally, the writer wishes to devote a few words to the concept of change. Throughout this introduction and through the remainder of this treatise change will seemingly be dealt with as though it is necessary and its opposite to be disregarded. To a certain extent this will aptly describe the author's feelings, although it would be wrong to conclude that he uncritically supports the position that all new is good and all old is bad. Nevertheless, it is felt that change is, generally speaking, a valid course of action as it is so obvious a fact of life that it has become a cliché to say so. Certainly one needs no lengthy arguments to be convinced that the last couple of decades have brought greater upset and challenge to tradition-oriented institutions than the previous se-

veral generations. Certain ideas that were dogma ten years ago sound like doggerel today. What impact will such changes have on the traditional classroom wherein a teacher lectures to thirty students - a teaching technique developed before the age of writing?

If change, which will be advocated by few (the innovators) and adhered to by many (the school systems and their human components), is to be successfully undertaken, it should consequently be understood as a viable road leading to a desired end. Therefore, the abstract notion of change must become a knowledge of the concrete fact of life, fully understood and accepted by those involved in a change process. Thus it is that Weaver (1955, 11:123) has remarked that the ultimate in contemporary rhetoric, the god term, is "change" while Oppenheimer (1955, 11:10-11) goes further and remarks that the world alters as we walk in it. It would appear then, that we are beyond debating the inevitability of change. It seems that most students of our society agree that the one major invariant is the tendency toward movement, growth, development process: change. Thus, the contemporary debate has swung from "change" vs "no change" to the methods employed in controlling and directing forces in change (Ben- nis, Bene and Chin, 1962, pp. 1-2).

It is thus necessary to realize that the wave of change we are presently witnessing is at an all-time high. However uncomfortable this might seem to some it is further

necessary to understand that this storm is not about to calm down (Toffler, 1970, p. 22).

It is folly, then, for educators to attempt to perpetuate the past through antiquated methods of teaching. If schools are to prepare members of the next generation to contribute positively to their society, they must start training them for the society of the future. To attempt the preparing of youngsters for the twenty-first century while using nineteenth century methods and mores seems, at best, naive.

Thus, we must seek to make our education more progressive. Conservative critics have been and are continuing to inveigh against progressive education by wrongly accusing it of being negligent in knowledge and morality (Bennis, Bene, and Chin, 1962, p. 10). To more adequately accomplish its goal, then, educational institutions, it is felt by the author, must change their learning environment and the change agent must be fully prepared to fend off the attacks of the more conservative element in this nation. As such, one of the main goals of this manual will be to familiarize the innovators-to-be with the achieving of change.

At this point the reader should be reminded that the author is not aware of any institution having implemented the personalization of its pedagogical environment in exactly the format suggested in this paper. Rather, what the author has attempted is to find the strong and weak points of past im-

plementation schemes and thus build a set of guidelines deemed helpful in successfully bringing about a difficult change. The author has also sought supportative material, both empirical and that of professional judgement, in order to lend credence to the many points of the suggested change process.

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CHAPTER II

THE PERSONALIZED PEDAGOGICAL ATMOSPHERE:
A DEFINITION

With a sudden rush over the last generation we have proceeded to aim our technological genius to the problems of the educational institution. In all the confusion of probing education, pushing and pulling it into a more appropriate shape for our times, we often forget that education is a people business in which the goals we seek and the things we try must be judged in terms of the persons involved. Innovations alone are not enough. They enable us to produce technical and professional knowledge capable of freeing humanity as never before, but capable also of producing a terrible loneliness and alienation (Coombs, 1967, p. V).

We must, therefore, concern ourselves with both halves of the equation: the person and the world, the learner and the subject. Unbalanced concern with either half can destroy the very ends we seek.

For the main point is surely to be a good man rather than to be a learned man. As Rabelais put it, science without conscience is the ruin of the soul. (Maritain, 1943, p. 20)

In fact our educational systems are succeeding in equipping man's intellect for knowledge, but seem to be missing an equally important goal: the developing of Man's emotions (Maritain, 1943, p. 22).

In education, intellectual development is not enough. Education must be both intellectual and emotional. (Fromm, 1960, p. XII)

Today's and Tomorrow's school, then, should strive to provide for closer relationships between students and teachers, (Trump, 1959, p. 19). The student will thus be able to develop a closer rapport with the teacher when he consults him as an individual. The underlying purpose of the school should then be to develop ability to study, think, solve problems, be unique, and appreciate one's cultural heritage in contrast to today's emphasis on memorizing facts. (Trump, 1959, p. 14).

Now, we must strive at bringing the person back into the process of education. But what characteristics does a personalized pedagogical atmosphere possess? What are we striving to achieve?

The Essential Characteristics

1.) Perhaps the most basic of these characteristics is genuineness. When the student enters into a relationship with educators where the latter do not present a facade but instead allow themselves to be seen as real people, an atmosphere more conducive to learning is established. This means that the pedagogue comes into direct contact with the learner, dealing with him on a person-to-person basis.

The student must see the individuals within the professional staff as real people who are enthusiastic, bored, interested, angry, sensitive, sympathetic, etc. The student thus perceives a person as his educator, not a faceless embodiment of a curriculum requirement nor a sterile tube

through which knowledge is passed from one generation to the next.

Unfortunately, it is quite customary for teachers to consciously put on the mask of being a "professional" and to wear this facade all day, removing it only when "school's out". An attempt to change this aspect of the pedagogical environment to that previously suggested must be in the offing if we are to hope to "personalize" our educational institutions.

2.) A second attitude the teaching faculty should exhibit is that of trust. It must be a basic trust - a belief that this person is naturally and fundamentally trustworthy. The learner, thus, should be accepted as a separate person, having worth in his own right.

The faculty possessing a considerable degree of this characteristic will tend to be more accepting of the fear and hesitation of the student as the latter approaches a new problem, as well as acceptant of the pupil's satisfaction in achievement. Such teachers can accept a student's occasional apathy, his erratic desires to explore, as well as his disciplined efforts to achieve major goals. They can understand personal feelings which can either promote or undermine the learning process - sibling rivalry, antiauthoritarianism, etc.

What is being described here, then, is the trusting of the learner, the accepting of his being an imperfect being with many problems and much potential. The teacher's trust is an operational expression of his essential confidence in the ca-

capacity of the human organism. Should the student feel this attitude to be present, he should become a better learner.

3.) A further element which establishes a climate for self-initiated, experiential learning is empathy. When there is a sensitive empathy, the reaction of the pupil could be expressed thusly: "At last someone understands how it feels and seems to be ME without wanting to analyze or judge me!" In the author's experience this attitude of standing in the other's shoes, of viewing the world through the student's eyes has been almost nonexistent. Very rarely does one come across an instance of clearly communicated, sensitively accurate, empathic understanding in schools. But it has a tremendously releasing effect when it occurs.

Here is an illustration: Jay, age 7, has been aggressive, a trouble maker, slow of speech and learning since beginning school. Because of his swearing he was taken to the principal and disciplined. During a subsequent work period, Jay fashioned a man of clay, very carefully, down to a hat and handkerchief in his pocket. "Who is that?" asked his teacher. "Dunno." replied the second grader. "Maybe it is the principal. He has a handkerchief in his pocket like that." He looked at the clay figure: "Yes!" he exclaimed. then he began to tear the head off and looked up at his teacher and smiled. The latter sat down next to him and said, "You sometimes feel like twisting his head off, don't you? You must feel lots better now." Jay grinned and began to rebuild Mr. X,

(adapted from Axline, 1944).

When the teacher has the ability to understand the student's reactions from the INSIDE, has a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the STUDENT, empathy is established. The likelihood of significant learning is increased substantially.

The Evidence

The evidence for the above is not overwhelming, but is consistent. It isn't perfect, but it is suggestive. Unfortunately, in several instances the author has had to delve into research conducted in disciplines other than education to support his suggestions. It is felt, however, that this has not lessened the credibility or appropriateness of the above-mentioned essential characteristics.

1.) In the field of Psychotherapy Barret-Lennard (1962) developed an instrument to measure the attitudinal qualities of genuineness, trust and empathy. Giving the instrument to both client and therapist, it was found that those clients who eventually showed more therapeutic change perceived MORE of these qualities in the relationship with the therapist than did those who eventually showed less change. Furthermore, it was found that the client's perception of the relationship and his experience of it was a better predictor of ultimate outcome than was the perception of the relationship by the therapist.

Thus, it can be suggested that if, in therapy, a cli-

ent perceives his therapist as genuine and trusting, and feels empathically understood, he should mature to the point where he can take increasing responsibility for his own learning.

2.) Emmerling (1961) found that high school teachers, when asked to identify the problems they regarded as most urgent, fell into two groups: the "positively-oriented" group made up of those who regarded their most serious problems as "Helping children think for themselves", "Getting students to participate", "Learning new ways of helping students develop their maximum potential", "Helping students express individual needs and interests", and the negatively-oriented group composed of teachers who tended to see their most urgent problems in terms of student deficiencies and inabilities. The latter voiced their goals as: "Trying to teach children who don't even have the ability to follow directions", "Teaching children who lack a desire to learn", "Students who are not able to do the work required for their grade level", and "Getting the children to listen".

When Barrett-Lennard's Relationship Inventory was administered to the students of the teachers in the first group, it was found that they perceived their educators as significantly more genuine, trusting and empathic than those in the second group. This indicates that the teacher whose orientation is towards releasing the student's potential may exhibit a high degree of attitudinal qualities which facilitates learning.

3.) Bills (Rogers, 1967, p. 11) extended the signi-

ficance of these findings by selecting eight teachers, four rated as adequate and effective by their superiors and the other four as inadequate. The first group also showed more positive orientation to students' problems while the latter had a more negative attitude, as described in No. 2 above. When the students filled out the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, they rated the more effective teachers as having a higher level of regard for the pupils, were less conditional or judgmental in their attitudes and showed more empathic understanding than did the ineffective ones (Rogers, 1967, p. 11).

Though this study is exceptionally small in scope, it nevertheless suggests that the teacher regarded as effective displays in his attitudes those characteristics described at the beginning of this chapter.

4.) From a different angle Schmuck (1963) studied this same problem and showed that in classrooms where pupils perceive their teachers as understanding (empathic), there is bound to be a more diffuse liking-structure among the students. In a later study the same author (1966) showed that among students who are highly involved in their classroom peer group, significant relationships exist between actual liking status on the one hand and utilization of abilities, attitude toward self and attitude toward school on the other.

This seems to lend more credence to the other evidence by indicating that in an empathic school climate, the student

tends to feel liked by others, to have a more positive attitude toward school and himself.

5.) How about cognitive learning? Do students actually LEARN more where these attitudes are present? An interesting study of third graders by Aspy (1965) answers this point. In six third grade classes the teachers tape-recorded two full weeks of their interaction with their students in periods where reading was taught. Short segments of these recordings were selected randomly for rating. Three raters, working individually, rated each segment for degree of genuineness, unconditional positive regard (trust) and empathic understanding. Using the Reading Achievement Tests (Stanford Achievement) as the criterion, the study showed that children in the three classes with the highest degree of the attitudes dealt with here showed a significantly greater gain in reading achievement than those students in the remainder of classes with a lesser degree of these qualities.

6.) Finally, a theory encompassing all the above findings and giving them more purpose and direction is found in the new science of Cybernetics. There is an abundance of scientific evidence which shows that the human brain and nervous system operate purposefully in accordance with the known principles of Cybernetics in order to accomplish goals of the individual (Maltz, 1960, p. X). The direction one's acts take will be related to the "self-image" of the individual in question. In other words, the individual acts according to how he

perceives or thinks of himself.

Thus, the "self-image" becomes the key to human behavior. As this self-image is changed, for better or for worse, not by intellect alone, nor by intellectual knowledge alone, but by EXPERIENCING, the importance of allowing the student in our schools to be his own person becomes evident.

T. F. James stressed in 1959 (Maltz, 1960, p. 1) the importance of this last statement by summarizing the results obtained by various psychologists and doctors as follows:

Understanding the psychology of the self can mean the difference between success and failure, love and hate, bitterness and happiness
On another plane, allowing the self to discover itself means the difference between freedom and the compulsions of conformity.

It would be useful at this point to intentionally go beyond the empirical findings and try to delve into the inner life of the student. Here we find that the most striking learnings of students exposed to a "personalized" pedagogical climate are by no means restricted to greater achievement in the three R's. The significant learnings are the more personal ones: independence, self-initiated and responsible learning, release of creativity and a tendency to become more of a person. Some illustrations:

The drive is no longer the teacher's, but the children's own ... The teacher is at last with the stream of children's inexorable creativeness.
(Ashton-Warner, 1963, p. 93)

This course is proving to be a vital and profound experience for me. This unique learning environment is giving me a whole new conception of just what learning is ... I am experiencing a real

growth in this atmosphere of constructive freedom. (Bull, 1966)

I feel that I am learning self ability. I am learning not only school work but I am learning that you can learn on your own as well as someone can teach you. (Shiel, 1966)

Each child is the only person on this earth who knows what's best for himself, and no one has the right to act as his boss, for that will inevitably harm rather than help the child's emotional development. More and more people are coming to realize this as the truth. But unfortunately, the power is held by those who think differently, and undoubtedly a great many years will pass before a complete change is made to a natural and humane form of education. (Popenoe, 1970, p. 111)

Quotations such as the last one can be taken dubiously as they obviously represent the extreme end of the continuum in favor of an affective-type education. However, if one remembers that Mr. Popenoe was but fifteen years old at the time he made the above quote, and that he had just spent a considerable length of time at Summerhill, then one should realize that he represents, at least to a certain extent, the high school student's present desire for a more personalized learning environment.

It can thus be concluded with a certain degree of assurance that the attitudes of genuineness, trust, and empathy are not only effective in facilitating a deeper learning and understanding of self, but also help the student learn what is traditionally expected of him. These characteristics are to be found permeating the pedagogical climate of the school which is evolving a truly "personalized" atmosphere. Such an educational institution not only will have brought some "feel-

ing" into the learning process but will have also helped the student acquire more academic knowledge at the same time.

Conclusion

Evidence in several fields indicate that the truly personalized pedagogical environment should have three essential characteristics permeating the general atmosphere: 1.) genuineness, 2.) trust, and 3.) empathy. This suggests that when these characteristics are to be found in the overall ambience of the learning situation, pupils will develop a greater feeling of belongingness and the impersonality, as found in so many of today's educational institutions, will be on the decrease.

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CHAPTER III

THE CHANGE AGENT

One of the greatest pains to human nature is the pain of a new idea. It is, as common people say, so "upsetting"; it makes you think that after all, your favorite notions may be wrong, your firmest beliefs ill-founded... Naturally, therefore, common men hate a new idea, and are disposed more or less to ill-treat the original man who brings it. (Bagehot, 1873, p. 169)

The change agent cannot afford to enjoy the intellectual luxury of the historian or archaeologist who focuses upon understanding and delineating changes that are manifest only in the relics of completed events. Nor can he be satisfied with the stance of the detached observer who interprets changes while they are going on, from some calculated vantage point of noninvolvement. Ideally, the change agent should combine in some measure the wisdom and sense of perspective of the historian and the penetrating acumen of the scientific observer, while putting into practice the skills and arts of appropriate and resolute action.

The change agent must be as fully aware as possible of the consequences of attempting change. The road is not straight and smooth, but rough and tortuous, and at times, seemingly impassible. Thus, he must be armed against the perils ahead by being provided with a mature understanding of the reasons for the adversity. He must also be equipped with tools to successfully counter the attacks of the recalcitrant. Without this, he will be both surprised and dis-

mayed at the negative reactions encountered. Either of these feelings could be cause for eventual failure of his project.

The Position

Building principals are key figures in the process of change. Where they are both aware of and sympathetic to an innovation, it tends to prosper. Where they are ignorant of its existence, or apathetic if not hostile, it tends to remain outside the blood stream of the school. (Demeter, 1951, p. 23)

When considering a major change such as the personalizing of our schools one must inevitably ask: "Who will initiate the change?" Although it is quite true that the change agent can be a superintendent, his assistant, a consultant, a vice-principal or a dynamic teacher, it would seem that the principal holds the position which enables him to be the prime motivator of the change process in today's school.

The principal is the one person who is in the best position for overseeing, coordinating and moving the staff in a particular direction.

In reviewing cases of successful, change-oriented schools we are convinced that the presence of a dynamic leader, typically in the person of the school principal, has been the key factor in a vast majority of cases. His commitment and his ability to lead his staff and the community in new directions are vital ingredients. We feel that his tasks are among the most difficult of any management assignment. (Coombs, 1971, p. 83)

Trump also felt that the leadership of principals would be essential in making necessary changes (Trump, 1963, p. 67) and even suggested that the responsibility for seeing that something more than just name-changing took place resided with the principal alone (Trump, 1969, p. 3).

By the same token MacGregor (1960, p. 75) claimed that all organizational systems contain the potential resources for creating their own planned change programs in the persons of their administrators who can and should act as the change agents. Arensberg and Niehoff (1971, p. 136) went further and suggested that an outside change agent (superintendent, assistant superintendent, etc.) does not really have the option of ignoring a local leader (principal), because, if ignored, the leader has the choice of either accepting a position of powerlessness or opposing the outsider. Since few leaders willingly relinquish power, the usual reaction in such circumstances is to oppose the outsider.

On the other hand Lippitt & others (1958, p. 81) feel that the change agent must be exogenous to the system. As they see it, the change agent is a "free" agent from outside the client system; a person brought into the system to help. Empirically speaking this definition has validity for many cases of planned change. In areas other than Education, more often than not, consultants, applied researchers, psychotherapists and trainers are imported from outside the client system. They are supported by such students of human behavior as Michener who claims:

An oyster can live to itself, but without grains
of sand for agitation it cannot produce pearls.
(1968, p. 536)

In a compromise of the above-mentioned two positions Rogers & Shoemaker (1971, p. 227) maintain that the change

agent is set off from his clients and subordinates by the nature of his professional status, rather than whether he works in or out (or even considers himself a member of) a particular organization.

However, through a personal survey of many situations where a serious attempt to personalize the pedagogical atmosphere has taken place, the author has concluded that the first position (that the principal should be the change agent) merits more credibility as far as this particular innovation is concerned.

Educating the young is no doubt a difficult and complex task. So complex, in fact, that many educational administrators spend most of their time in reacting to events or crises rather than acting according to a set policy (the philosophy of the squeaking wheel). A reason for this situation might be found in the fact that, traditionally, education has been administered by educators and the latter have not received the correct training. Instead of being taught in a dogmatic fashion to follow dogmatic rulings emanating from "downtown", the present and future school principal should be aware that the formation of education policy consonant with long range goals such as the development of self-responsibility and the most effective use of educational practices to implement these policies must now be his primary function (Lewis, 1969, pp. 29-30). The principal, therefore, is the one who needs to organize the school he is responsible

for in such a way that he finds himself capable of placing the highest priority where he knows it belongs - on improving teaching and learning. Trump maintains that activities to this end will occupy three quarters of his working time (1969, p. 3).

Because this has not been the focus of his training, the educational administrator, in all too many cases, has failed miserably. Disenchantment of teachers, students and parents along with the poor quality of our graduates serve to illustrate this point. The result of this is that a tragedy might now be in the making: instead of training certified educators for administration, a trend is presently developing whereby administrators of educational systems will be brought in from other fields. (Washington, D. C. recently sought to replace its superintendent by advertising to the Business community for such a person.) This development is taking place because we, in the field of Education, have not bothered to look to other disciplines to help us with our problems. Rather, we have continued steadfastly in our ways, some of which were found to be in error decades ago by others less addicted to the status quo.

The operation of our schools is sometimes compared to the operation of Big Business, but the analogy fails in some ways. Fifty years ago, for example, American industry invested about 75% of its capital dollars in plant and about 25% in tools. At that time American education was doing approximately the same thing. Today industry has almost reversed this allocation of capital while Education has continued its ratio with major emphasis on the building and minor on tools with little change except in unusual cases. (Trump, 1963, p. 12)

Is it surprising then, that already some school boards have been looking to the world of Business to provide superintendents and other administrators? However, if we are to form educational policy consonant with long range social goals and are going to employ the most effective means to implement these policies, we should be looking to the administration to provide the needed leadership. Herein lies the tragedy! Our educational policies should and must come from those who have been trained to this end, not from those who seek smooth-running, glossy monuments to their efficiency.

Apart from improper training today's school principal often is the victim of the sin of self-satisfaction: he believes strongly in the responsibility of others, not in his own!

Many principals wait until someone else tries out a new idea before they will consider it themselves. Tomorrow's principals will encourage and spearhead new ideas and experimentation among their staffs. (Trump, 1963, p. 67)

Principals must, therefore, be doers. They must avoid becoming either puppets of higher administration or tenants of some fictitious ivory tower in their school. Thus, the reason for suggesting the principal as being in the best position to initiate change.

The Person

Before an educational administrator decides to become the driving force for the implementation of any sophisticated educational change, he should first ponder how he as a person

measures up to the requirements a change agent must meet in order to hope for maximum success in his undertaking. The change agent, then, should be aware that it isn't everybody who can perform this role, as the demands are rigorous and the personal rewards sometimes meager in comparison to the energy expended.

But that is only the beginning! And this must be realized by the potential change agent! Biographies of contemporary school systems and retired or demoted educators are strewn with the wreckages of failures. (Of the numerous schools the writer contacted, it was found that fully 50% of those which had attempted a change such as the one we are dealing with in this paper had given up the struggle and gone back to a more impersonal but administratively efficient system. In the wake of these failures lay the demotions, firings and resignations of a multitude of educational administrators.) Most of these failures occurred due to a lack of professional planning on the part of the change agents and/or a lack of stamina to endure the pressures of growing pains which are a "given" in a changing situation.

Consequently, it would seem a wise move on the part of the principal, contemplating spearheading such a change, to consider what seem to be those characteristics most conducive to the successful implementation of a change.

Listed below then, are eight such characteristics. It should be noted by the reader that the author is not im-

plying all of these must be possessed by the innovator. However, enough empirical evidence exists to support the generalization that there is a relatively high correlation between successful change agents and those possessing such characteristics. (Such evidence will be dealt with in the following pages.)

1. Personality. The personality of a change agent plays an important part in promoting or blocking the acceptance of the novelty which he supports. One's personality is a crucial asset or liability for anybody who would influence others on any issue.

Dealing with people is probably the biggest problem you will encounter, whether you are a businessman, housewife, architect, engineer or educator. Research made a few years ago under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teachers uncovered a most important and significant fact - a fact later confirmed by additional studies made at the Carnegie Institute of Technology. These investigations revealed that even in such technical lines as engineering, about 15% of one's financial success is due to one's technical knowledge and about 85% is due to skill in human engineering - to personality and the ability to lead people. (Carnegie, 1936, p. 13)

Thus, a suggestion - any suggestion - made by a person whose manner bearing or attitude creates antagonism is likely to be rejected by most people regardless of the essential merits of the proposal. Advocates whose personal characteristics are unpleasant or offensive create an uncongenial atmosphere whereby the antipathy which they personally inspire defeats the idea which they propose, irrespective of its brilliance, common sense, or suitability. The man and the idea are inter-

mixed, and both become targets of attack by those who feel offended. The latter thus become negativistic to the one just because of the other.

An appealing personality is a major asset in securing the acceptance of an idea, whether new or old. A good half of salesmanship lies not in knowing what you are selling or in selling a desirable thing, nor yet in believing what you are saying, but simply in being an engaging person. Many people buy things that they do not need or want or accept solely because they have been attracted by the personalities of advocates. (Barnett, 1953, p. 321)

An example of this would be the many disenchanted subscribers who complained to the Eugene (Oregon) city authorities that they had been "high-pressured" by fast sales speeches, misrepresentations, and engaging female blandishments of a particular magazine-soliciting crew. The manager answered the charges by frankly stating that a display of "personality" was a recognized part of their business (Eugene Register-Guard, Jan. 17, 1951, p. 1).

In still another field, Stern (1972, p. 58) analysed change processes in Medicine, and noted that personality difficulties have accounted for more opposition to new ideas than scientists, objective as they are alleged to be, are willing to admit in their own behavior. The most outstanding example of an unfortunate personality would be Louis Pasteur. Even his most sympathetic biographers seem to agree that he struck the majority of his contemporaries as an insufferable egoist. He was deemed to be dogmatic, cocksure, conceited and sensitive to criticism. His personal unpopularity almost cost him

a seat in the Free Association of the Academy of Medicine. He was elected to it by a majority of only one vote, despite the fact he was the first on the list of eligible candidates. It would seem there can be little doubt that his offensive mannerisms inspired antagonism toward his brilliant discoveries.

One of the most successful means used today to bring about attitudes of change is the creation of a group in which the members feel belongingness. In these circumstances the individual has a greater tendency to accept the proposed set of values and beliefs (Brown, 1963, p. 67). The key characteristic of this setting (to be discussed at greater length under Change Strategies) is its informality. Razran (1940, p. 481) conducted research into this hypothesis and concluded that many people are affected by the pleasantness and informality of a situation in which communication is received. For example, the effectiveness of persuasive messages was found to be enhanced if they were expressed at a time when the subjects were eating a snack (Janis and Hovland, 1959, p. 13). An unpublished study by Janis, Kaye and Kirschner arrived at the same conclusion.

As it will be the change agent's responsibility to create the setting, it can be readily seen that one with an abrasive-type personality will find it very difficult to achieve the atmosphere most conducive to increasing the receptivity of the other members in the group.

Thus, the principal contemplating the role of the

change agent should assess his personality and how it is regarded by others so as to see where he would be rated on the popular - unpopular continuum. A rating too far on the negative side would indicate turbulent days ahead for both himself and his proposed change.

2. Dedication to the cause. One of the factors in change agent success is the extent of direct effort he expends in change activities with his clients. The strongest support for this proposition comes from a three-nation comparative investigation of the relative success of planned change programs in sixty-nine Brazilian communities, seventy-one Nigerian villages and one hundred eight Indian towns. After extensive studies such as these the authors all arrived at the same conclusion: the most important predictor of the success of programs of change is the extent of change agent effort. (Whiting & Others, 1968, Hursh & Others, 1969 and Flieger & Others, 1967).

The relationship between adoption of innovations and the extent of change agents' efforts is further evidenced from an investigation by Deutschmann & Fals Borda (1962) in a Colombian peasant community. They found that two farm innovations promoted by an innovator were adopted much more quickly than were two other farm ideas which the change agent had not emphasized as part of his program of directed social change.

The above-mentioned conclusion is by no means limited

to this type of setting. There is confirmatory evidence from a variety of studies both in this country and in others. For example, Hoffer (1944) correlated various promotional activities by Michigan extension agents with the adoption of innovation by farmers. A few years later, Ross (1952) found that the rate of adoption of driver training programs by high schools was much more rapid than for other educational innovations. He attributed this rapid rate of adoption to the promotional efforts of car dealers, insurance companies and other commercial change agents.

In a private conversation, Mr. David E. Majercik, past superintendent of the Windsor (Vt.) school system, described the implementation of several contemporary educational tools into the local high schools as having been traumatic and eventually unsuccessful. His interpretation of this evolutionary pattern lay in the fact that "central office" had cajoled the principal into activating these practices. The latter did as he had been directed to do and proceeded to become quasi-invisible by working alone in his office for days on end. The change agent was thus perceived by the teachers as being undedicated and, as a result, lost interest and drive themselves.

Therefore, it would seem that the principal/change agent should extend a large quantity of effort to the change process he is involved in. By so doing, he will further ensure the success of the project.

3. Compatibility with client's (subordinates) needs.

One of the most important and difficult tasks for a successful change agent is diagnosing the client's needs. This aspect of the change process is often not dealt with and failure sometimes results for this reason alone. As change agents are more innovation-minded than they are client-oriented they consequently "scratch where their clients do not itch" (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971, p. 236).

Much evidence supports this generalization. For example, Rogers & Herzog (1966) reported on one extremely traditional community in Colombia where crop yields were severely depressed by high soil acidity. Local change agents were unsuccessful in motivating farmers to apply lime to the soil to correct the acidity because the peasants were ignorant of the principles of soil chemistry. However, when a severe outbreak of insects occurred on their crops, the farmers were easily convinced by the change agents to apply lime. The farmers felt a need to control the insects which they could see, whereas they had not seen or understood the problems of soil acidity. In the same vein, attempts to eradicate the habitat of the tsetse fly in northern Nigeria, in hopes of reducing the incidence of sleeping sickness were largely unsuccessful because villagers did not believe there was a relationship between the insect and the illness. Likewise an irrigation engineer from an Asian country, convinced of the value of wells for irrigation purposes, constructed over one hundred such wells. Unfortunately, it soon became evident they were not

being used as the villagers regarded the irrigation water from wells as "artificial". Since they feared it would harm their crops they refused to use well-water.

Thus, many change programs fail because they seek to swim against the tide of the community's cultural values while forgetting the people's perceived needs. Mead (1955, p. 258) stated:

Experience has taught us that change can best be introduced not through centralized planning but after a study of local needs.

Although the above examples do not seem to relate to the field of Education, the same principle nevertheless applies. A thorough study of the ethos of the educational institution in question might reveal that there is no compatibility between the feelings of the teachers to be involved and those of the change agent. This situation will have to be rectified if success is to be achieved untraumatically. The significance of ethos for academic change has been illustrated by Dwight Ladd's (1970, p. 200) recent findings regarding the result of self-studies at fourteen American colleges and universities during the past decade. He concludes that unless a faculty is already convinced that some change is desirable even before the self-study begins, there is little hope that the study will be anything more than busy-work in terms of fundamental change.

As Institutional Ethos is defined as the sum of individual attitudes (Walker, 1972, p. 11), it can be concluded

that the individual attitudes will have to be changed before the faculty introspects. Unfortunately, in the past the most common technique of altering a learning environment has been to allow the inevitable process of faculty resignation, retirement, and death to take its toll and then to appoint new personnel to introduce the new ideas. However, this method is time consuming and results in situations such as found in Beloit College. When it failed to implement its self-study in 1951 it simply waited until the most resistant opponents had retired and then implemented the changes in 1962 (Walker, 1972, p. 11).

A second method one can use to change the ethos of an institution would be to change the attitudes of influential members (opinion leaders) by pointing out unmet opportunities, potential rewards and the fact that all is not well. By so doing one will be planting the seeds of discontent which will raise the possibility of the faculty arriving at conclusions more compatible with those of the change agent.

Diagnosing, however, is not an easy step in the change process. It thus becomes obvious that some subordinates will require "help" in recognizing, articulating or even admitting their "problems". Sometimes the major help of a change agent is directed toward this recognition stage (Bennis & Others, 1962, p. 17).

This diagnosis of needs is facilitated by subordinate participation in planning change programs. This strategy also

(1) increases client commitment to decisions which are made as a result of their participation in the decision-making process, and (2) helps to legitimize collective innovation-making decisions, because the system's power holders are thus involved in the planning process (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 237).

In choosing those who will participate directly in the planning phase, one should select those who seem the most energetic. There is some reason to believe that change agents are more authoritarian in their dealings with the more lag-gardly and less formally educated persons (Rogers with Svenning, 1969, p. 181). Hence, there is less participation in the change programs, which in turn, makes these less likely to be adopted.

An important element in the diagnosing process is the investigation of the reasons for people's perceived needs and values, especially if these are drastically different from what would be most conducive to the success of the contemplated change. It must be realized that culture creates unconscious blinders for all and, as such, people do not act and react "naturally" when faced with an unusual (to them) value system (Arensberg & Niehoff, 1964, p. 208). Thus, the change agent must look analytically, not only at those who differ in opinion from him, but also at his own assumptions and values. He should have some idea what influences his decisions and actions in introducing new ideas, why they are different from others', and what his reactions will be to difficulties among

those with whom he will be working. Translated into an educational milieu, such a situation would be where the community perceives the "nose to the grindstone" philosophy as being the correct one for an educational institution. If the change agent differs in opinion on this score, and proceeds to change the school environment according to his own ideology with little or no communication with the community, a conflict situation would almost certainly develop.

Evidence, thus, indicates that change agent success is positively related to the degree to which his programs are compatible with the clients' needs. As such, before starting the change process, one should examine which are the prevalent cultural and social values and why they exist. Having accomplished this one will proceed to create a need for the contemplated change before going any further. This need should be translated and explained in terms understood by the ethno-religious-socio-economic groups one is dealing with.

4. Empathy. The ability of change agents to empathize with their clients seems to have a positive effect on the degree of success the former will enjoy. Unfortunately, there is little empirical evidence to support such a belief (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 239). Although the empathic ability of the client has been studied in relationship to his innovativeness and change agent contact, no studies have focused on the empathic ability of the change agent (Zaltman, Kotler & Kaufman, 1972, p. 204).

One of the main reasons leading most students of the

change process to feel strongly about the necessity of empathy is found in the belief that a certain degree of reciprocity exists in most successful change agent-client relationships, whether the innovator is a village level worker in an Indian village, a school teacher in rural Colombia or an extension worker in the U. S. Unfortunately, we again find there has been little scientific inquiry to date on the exact nature of the reciprocal give-and-take between clients and change agents (Zaltman, Kotler & Kaufman, 1972, p. 202). The fact remains, however, that if reciprocity is to occur, a certain degree of empathy should exist between the innovator and his client.

Although this statement holds for most situations it is possible that an exception occurs when the change agent is so empathic that he completely takes the role of his clients and does not wish to change them. Such overempathy probably rarely occurs, but it is possible:

Perhaps there is an ideal level of change agent empathy with clients. Most change agents do not have enough empathy, but it is possible that a change agent could become so empathic with his clients that he could no longer wish to change them. (Although such an instance is probably rare, one is reminded of the anthropological observer among the Pueblo Indians who joined the tribe.) (Katz, 1963, p. 25)

A literary example is provided by the film Never on Sunday in which a well-meaning American tourist attempts to teach a Greek prostitute to appreciate art, fine music, etc. In the process of the conversion, however, the tourist comes

to see that the happy prostitute has an enviable life.

If the change agent's ability to empathize with his clients is as important a factor in his effectiveness as is presumed here, how can one develop a situation which maximizes the chances of empathy being present? It seems that one of the better ways is the selecting of a change agent who has actually been in the client's role in the recent past (Zaltman, Kotler & Kaufman, 1972, p. 204). Such a person is better equipped to feel what the client's situation really is, while at the same time, adding to his credibility in the eyes of the latter. Thus, a high school principal/change agent who has never been in the role of teacher, was in it only a brief period, or hasn't been in it for a long time, might experience more difficulty in persuading his client toward change than if he had only recently been in the role of instructor. The change agent faced with this dilemma might find the remedial procedure to be his taking on the assignment of teaching one course.

5. Homophily. "Homophily" is the degree to which pairs of individuals who interact are similar in certain personal characteristics, and "heterophily" is the degree to which they differ, (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 240).

If empathy is to be present, homophily should be evident. A homophilous dyad share common meanings and interests and thus are better able to empathize with each other. Once homophily can be easily detected, meaningful communication will be established, (Zaltman, Kotler & Kaufman, 1971, p. 202). An

illustration of a change agent's difficulties in communicating effectively with heterophilous clients is provided by an experienced change agent:

The people that I work with seemed very eager for help and guidance, but their responses to my suggestions were sullen and sometimes even resentful ... The people and I seemed to be living on two different levels of thinking ... We spoke the same language, but we didn't communicate. (Weller, 1965, p. 1)

Similar evidence about the necessity of homophily for change agent success comes from a study by the Allahabad Agricultural Institute (1957) and is also reported by Rahundkar (1960).

Thus, the principal contemplating a major change in his institution would be wise to inspect the degree of homophily he is exhibiting with his teachers: How does he dress? Speak? What car does he drive? What type of neighborhood does he live in? Does he have similar problems to the staff members (health, family, mortgage, etc.)?

In addition to seeking to be homophilous with his staff, the principal could attempt to raise the technical competence level of the individuals who will be instrumental in making the change a successful one. (This will be further developed under the title "Teacher Preparation" in the chapter dealing with the fundamentals of this program). In effect this will decrease change agent-client heterophily and, in turn, will facilitate more effective communication.

Unless such endeavors to bridge the communication gap

are practised, heterophily will be established which will result in the two parties perceiving the change agent's role quite differently. For example, the principal might see himself as primarily a disseminator of technical and professional expertise. Unfortunately, this self-image may contrast with the teachers' perceptions as they may see him in terms of his ethnic background, age, education, marital status as well as his professional ability. Gans' study (1962) showed how easily social workers and their welfare clients can fail to "read" correctly each other's roles.

Thus, it becomes relatively apparent that the manner in which the client perceives the change agent matters considerably in explaining the latter's success or failure in communicating with the former.

6. Opinion Leadership.

Opinion leadership is the degree to which an individual is able to influence informally others' attitudes or behavior in a desired way with relative frequency. (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 243)

The hypothesis of the importance of the use of opinion leaders in the affective and effective diffusion of information has been studied by several sources. The earliest such investigation seems to be that conducted by Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet (1948). Since then several other studies have been carried out to test the two-stage flow notion. The studies cover a wide range of topics and audiences. Merton (1949) studied communication and personnel influence patterns in Revere, N.-J. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) studied the ways in which decisions were made in marketing, fashion, movie-going and public af-

fairs in Decatur, Ill. Berelson, Lazarsfeld and McPhee (1954) carried out a study in Elmira, N. Y. regarding voting habits. Coleman, Katz and Menzel (1969) reported on the diffusion of a new drug among doctors, while Troldahl and Van Dam (1965-66) studied the information-seeking behavior of people in Detroit. In all of the above-mentioned studies the central hypothesis has been confirmed.

Change agent success then appears to be positively related to the extent that he works through opinion leaders, (Akers-Montalva, 1957, p. 16; Bliss, 1952, p. 30, and Niehoff, 1964, p. 5). Thus, the principal in question here should proceed to identify and mobilize those who are the opinion leaders among the teachers and the community. By enlisting such aid the change agent provides the aegis of institutional sponsorship and sanction for his ideas. Directed change through opinion leaders takes the guise of spontaneous change (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971, p. 244). Working through leaders will also improve the credibility of the innovation, thereby, increasing its probability of adoption.

Perhaps a reason why most change agents concentrate their efforts on opinion leaders is to halve the social distance between themselves and the majority of their clients, as well as to gain credibility for their innovations through gaining tacit endorsement of the leaders. However, if the opinion leaders are too much more innovative than their fellow clients, the heterophily gap to effective communication that formerly existed between the change agent and his clients now exists between the opinion leaders and their peers. Many change agents make the strategic mistake of selecting opinion leaders who are too much like change agents and not enough like their average client. (Zaltman, Kotler, & Kaufman, 1971, p. 203)

Another important reason for the use of opinion leaders is the economy of time. Time and energy are not plentiful commodities for anybody, especially agents of change. By focusing much of the communication activities upon the opinion leaders in his school the change agent may increase the rate of diffusion (Dahl, 1961, p. 96). After all, even such charismatic and dedicated leaders as Christ and Lenin used disciples to increase and rally their followers to new ideologies.

7. Credibility. "Credibility" in the frame of reference we are concerned with here could be defined as the degree to which a communication source is perceived as trustworthy and competent by the receiver. The change agent, just as the social scientist, must win some degree of acceptance by the community or group where he hopes to institute change. He must gain the confidence of the people he is to be involved with, at least to the extent that they will talk with him freely and sincerely. Such rapport is a must before any work which requires the voluntary cooperation of individuals on any change project can begin (Arensberg & Niehoff, 1964, pp. 237-238).

It can be concluded, then, that if a client perceives a change agent as possessing a relatively high credibility rating, he will be more receptive to ideas sponsored by that change agent and/or the opinion leaders. Thus, although there is little evidence from empirical diffusion studies (Alers-Montalvo,

1957, p. 6 being the only one the author was able to find), it nevertheless seems logical to suggest that change agent success is positively related to his credibility in the eyes of his clients.

8. Physical health. Here again we find a dearth of research dealing with this characteristic of the change agent. Although there have been agents of major changes in many walks of life, each of whom probably differed from the other vis a vis his physical health, from what this author has perceived in situations with which he has been involved and in others he has had the opportunity to study, it would seem that the principal, contemplating being the initiator of change, should take a good honest look at his health to determine whether he is fit enough to assume this role. A person suffering from energy-sapping difficulties such as heart and ulcer diseases should possibly let another take on the burden of leading the way to more personalized educational institutions.

Focus on change also requires focus on courage.
(Trump & Baynham, 1963, p. 130)

Admittedly, not only healthy people are courageous, but situations demanding courage often exact a physical toll on those most involved.

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Finally, a word about how the change agent will be perceived by others. It seems that in many cases the innovator is likely to be viewed as a deviant by his peers and by himself (Rogers, 1965, p. 59). Research studies show that per-

sons who innovate are perceived as deviants from the norms of the social system. An Ohio study asked farmers what their neighbors thought of their innovative farming methods:

Sometimes they shake their heads. Fifty percent think I am crazy, the other 50% are sure I am.
(Rogers, 1961, p. 57)

Thus, the principal considering becoming the focal point of change should look at himself and at how important he considers other people's opinions of him to be. If he is the type who is easily hurt by derogatory or snide remarks thrown his way, he may wish to reconsider his goals, or at least arm himself psychologically against these, at times, vicious attacks.

Conclusion

The change agent must have fortitude, belief in himself, conviction in what he is attempting, and unrelenting strength to counter all opposition with logical and factual refutation. He should hold the most appropriate position (principalship) for coordinating the process of change and should pay particular attention to those characteristics deemed most helpful in the person responsible for change. Failing to possess these qualities the administrator contemplating the activation of so complex an educational tool as the personalization of the pedagogical atmosphere would do well, both for himself and his institution, to either cast dreams of this type of implementation aside or let a more suitable educator/change agent carry the load. This is not to say that failure is im-

possible to escape should these suggested prerequisites not be met, but additional problems can be expected if one proceeds disregarding all or many of the aforementioned guidelines.

As such, the best advice the author finds himself capable of giving the individual thinking of implementing a "radical" innovation is contained in Rudyard Kipling's "If":

If you can keep your head when all about you
Are losing theirs and blaming it on you,
If you can trust yourself when all men doubt you,
But make allowance for their doubting too.
If you can dream - and not make dreams your master.
If you can think - and not make thoughts your aim.
If you can meet with Triumph and Disaster
And treat those two imposters just the same.
If you can bear to hear the truth you've spoken
Twisted by knaves to make a trap for fools.
If you can force your heart and nerve and sinew
To serve your turn long after they are gone,
And so hold on when there is nothing left in you
Save the will which says to them: "Hold on!"
If neither foes nor loving friends can hurt you,
If all men count with you, but none too much

Yours is the joy of initiating and all its rewards
And - which is more - you'll be a Change Agent!

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C H A P T E R I V

THE PHILOSOPHY

The tragedy of ideological crises is that so many of them need never have occurred, if only the disputants had not regarded polar values, which ought to compliment one another, as if they were mutually exclusive. (Arensberg and Niehoff, 1971, p. 437)

The Need of an Appropriate Philosophy

The decision of a school administrator to change the educational environment he is associated with from the traditional to that of a more personalized atmosphere is, to say the least, a major decision. Seeking the evolution of an educational institution towards this goal implies a relatively drastic change in the educational rationale which the school community believes in. However, one must not only express a belief in a particular philosophy but must act accordingly.

Should one implement various educational procedures (to be discussed under "Fundamentals") without changing one's frame of mind, one would inevitably find himself in the perplexing situation of attempting to fit the proverbial round peg into the square hole.

To phrase the dilemma more aptly perhaps, as our feet tread the earth of a new world, our heads continue to dwell in a world that is gone. (Bennis, Bene & Chin, 1962, p. 21)

All too often this author has had the opportunity of visiting schools professing to have altered their mode of instruction but finding that, in fact, the learning environment

was similar to that found in the so-called traditional set-up. Obviously some component or other necessary for the successful activation of the new venture was missing and probably had been lacking from the start. Either the faculty had no clear idea of what they were to accomplish or they had failed to prepare themselves mentally for the new atmosphere they should have been creating.

Consequently, before a group of educators embarks on this potentially adventurous and stimulating trip, using, as their vehicle, relatively complex and sophisticated tools, it should thoroughly investigate its philosophy to see if it corresponds to that which the change agent is advocating (compatibility in needs between change agent and clients). We are learning today, to our sorrow, that physical changes, when not accompanied by profound reconstruction in the realm of underlying values, attitudes and loyalties can bring trouble and disaster (Bennis, Bane, and Chin, 1962, pp. 22-23).

This self-analysis on the part of the teachers is an absolute necessity for, without it, the perceived needs of the "client" will not be in keeping with the behavior asked of them. Change agents have often been faced with a high incidence of the discontinuance or failure of innovations following their adoption. Research into this aspect of the implementation process has discovered that as many as 40% of those who discontinued cited forced adoption as their main reason for looking with disfavor on the advocated changes (Zaltman, Kot-

ler & Kaufman, 1972, p. 196). Even as idealistic an educator as A. S. Neil understood the need to have at least a segment of the people he came in contact with understand the philosophical reasons for his type of institution.

Although I write and say what I think of society, if I tried to reform it solely by action, society would kill me as a public danger. (Neil, 1960, p. 23)

The same author later became even more forceful when he claimed that the whole personalization movement in education is often marred and despised because so many advocates have not got their feet on the ground vis a vis the "Why's" for their actions (Neil, 1960, p. 106). Hechinger (Hart, 1970, p. 42) is in agreement with the above when he claims that the history of reforms is strewn with wreckages caused by kindly emotions defeated by lack of intellectual rigor.

Empirical evidence and the personal experiences of several knowledgeable change agents thus seem to bear out the need for the teaching and administrative staffs to comprehend why they are altering the technical outlook of the learning environment they are associated with. Without this, much difficulty will be experienced in having people participate positively in the situation found after the implementation process has taken place.

Regardless whether the decision reached is positive or negative regarding the implementation of a more humane learning environment in his school, it behooves the secondary school administrator to seriously study and investigate the various ramifications before arriving at his decision. In fact, it is the common belief of --- consultants who work daily with those schools having a flexible mentality

that the successful ones have one commonality among them, - a very high commitment to the educational program in question. (Hansen, 1968, p. 1)

Thus, the principal/change agent must first firmly establish an understanding of and a belief in the philosophy of the personalized educational institution on the part of the teaching and administrative staffs. The participants must be in the right frame of mind for the activation of the program.

Past and Contemporary Practices

Changes have been introduced both in how those of us inhabiting this continent in the latter half of this century work and how long we labor to accomplish that work. Education must keep pace with these developments (Hight, 1950, p. 3). It is an oft-stated fact that mental work has replaced physical activity in many occupations. Thus, the technological society we suddenly find ourselves in requires precise thinking and careful consideration of narrowly intricate fields of inquiry. As such, the content of the curriculum presented to our pupils must prepare them adequately to participate actively and positively in our society. To a certain extent, through myriad curriculum changes during the past generation, this goal has been met (Maritain, 1943, p. 22).

A democracy demands of its education both quantity and quality. The challenge of "quantity" has largely been met. (Trump, 1959, p. 5)

The parents of those children presently in our schools can be said to know, in general terms, what they expect the

schools to do for their sons and daughters (Saltzberg, 1949, p. 1). Most of these fathers and mothers are not intellectuals, but they are people of average intelligence who possess an average faculty of understanding. Many of them never went to college but are definitely desirous that their children have every advantage education can offer. They constitute the majority of people whose children attend the public schools and whose taxes support them. These parents are practically unanimous in expecting the school to teach today's adolescents how to earn a living, and they usually put that requirement first.

Because of this very evident fact educators of both yesteryear and today concentrated on producing graduates who met certain norms on the retaining of information. Very little else has been attempted and so cognitive growth on the part of the students became and has remained, for the most part, the "Be all and end all" of our educational institutions.

The New Component Schools Must Relate To

The school, as described above, has failed to realize that, either subconsciously or very consciously, the aforementioned parents, in fact also desire their children to be capable of handling life's problems better than they did themselves (Highet, 1950, p. 228). They want their children to be happy, to meet people, to be good citizens and to be respected. In a word, they wish the educational institution to help develop the virtue of wisdom in their offspring.

The purpose of elementary and higher education is not to make of the youth a truly wise person but to equip his mind with an ordered knowledge which will enable him to advance toward wisdom in his manhood. (Maritain, 1943, p. 48)

Wisdom is not a virtue attained only in learning the contents of the curriculum one is introduced to. Rather, it is the power or faculty of forming the fittest and best judgment in any matter presented for consideration. To achieve this quality a school must not only present the student with a type of curriculum involving students in quest activities but must also seek to present him with an educational atmosphere where this opportunity for self-discovery and search for the meaning of life permeates his institution during the entire school day.

Thus, there is (or should be) another aspect of human development besides academic growth which should be dealt with, which, if not more important than the aforementioned, is at least as much a reason for the existence of our schools. Our educational institutions, then, must learn to deal with pupils affectively. In this way the school will illustrate that it fully comprehends the fact that more societal adjustments are required of the individuals as we evolve further and further into the age of technology (Manlove & Beggs, 1965, p. 10). Whether one agrees or not with the saneness of continuing this headlong plunge into this technological era is irrelevant. The fact must be recognized that we are going in that direction. Consequently, the educator of today has the professional re-

sponsibility of adequately preparing his pupils to as great a degree as possible so that they will be able to acclimatize themselves to their society.

Thus, the prime goal of education is the conquest of internal and spiritual freedom to be achieved by the individual person. (Maritain, 1943, p. 11)

The Future and its Effect on Today's School

As today's student will live in the society of tomorrow the educator must make a sincere attempt to visualize as correctly as possible what the world of the next few decades will present as living conditions. This attempt at forecasting is more difficult today than it has ever been. For those educators of past generations the aforementioned task was non-existent as the age of "Quasi-permanence" was still a fact to behold. One has only to study the evolutionary process of mankind over the past two millenia to conclude that change was a very slow process. This is not so anymore and probably never will be again. By inspecting the quickening pace of change since the termination of the Second World War one can only become frightened when he thinks of those students now being educated as having aged chronologically to no further than the prime of life when the next century becomes an actuality. If the pace of change has brought such a tremendous alteration to our lifestyles over the past generation, what new changes can today's adolescent expect to be faced with during the next two or three decades?

As it can be guessed, but not precisely pinpointed,

the future holds numerous obstacles to those who will not have been emotionally prepared for what will come to pass.

Many of us have a vague "feeling" that things are moving faster. Doctors and executives alike complain that they cannot keep pace with the latest developments in their fields. Hardly a meeting or conference takes place today without some ritualistic oratory about "the challenge of change". Among many there is an uneasy mood - a suspicion that change is out of control.

Not everyone, however, shares this anxiety. Millions sleepwalk their way through their lives as if nothing has changed since the 1930's, and as if nothing ever will. Living in what is certainly one of the most exciting periods in human history, they attempt to withdraw from it, to block it out, as if it were possible to make it go away by ignoring it. They seek a "separate peace", a diplomatic immunity from change. (Tofler, 1971, p. 19)

On a less scientific but more "feeling" plane Kahlil Gibran (1923, p. 17) states:

You may give them (your children) your love
 but not your thoughts
 For they have their own thoughts.
 You may house their bodies but not their souls
 For their souls dwell in the house of tomorrow, which
 you cannot visit, not even in your dreams.
 You may strive to be like them, but seek not to make
 them like you,
 For life goes not backward nor tarries with yesterday.

To reiterate, then, one must prepare the child for the future. As it cannot be too certainly predicted because of the quickening pace of change, one must therefore acquaint the youngsters of today with the atmosphere of change. This goal cannot be accomplished through textbooks but rather via the establishment throughout the school building of a general atmosphere lending itself to the dealing with students in an affective manner. In this way, the pedagogues will be better able to communicate with the student in a way whereby the lat-

ter can be forced to think about Life other than in a textbook memorization manner. A faculty may be said to deal with students affectively when it considers (and acts according to its beliefs) the keeping and developing of personal contact with the pupil as of such great import, not only as a better technique for making study more attractive and stimulating, but also, above all, to give that mysterious identity of the child's soul the comforting assurance of being in some way recognized by a human personal means of communication (Maritain, 1943, p. 41). In a study conducted to show the importance of special training for school administrators Stockton (1970, p. 71) concluded:

Schools should be designed so that they offer each individual child those individual and group learning situations that will enable him to discover those concepts and develop those skills that are necessary, useful, and relevant to him for survival in and appreciation of the world in which he will live.

By paying attention to the above conclusions and recommendations we will better prepare today's adolescent to be able to acclimatize himself to the social and work environments in which he will find himself in the near future.

The "Global" Philosophy

The "affective" school then, is the one which seeks not at producing the type, but at liberating the human person. As such it would be the author's suggestion that an appropriate philosophy for a school contemplating the personalization of its pedagogical atmosphere be akin to, though not necessarily

identical with, the following:

The educational institution of today must seek to deal with its student body affectively as well as cognitively. The importance of the academic growth notwithstanding, the emotional and sociological development of the student is deemed to be as important a goal for the educational profession as the time-honored cognitive aspect.

North American education thus seems to be at the crossroads. Many well-versed educators are convinced that if it frees itself from the background of an instrumentalist and pragmatist philosophy, which is but a hindrance to its inspiration, then a profoundly personalist and humanist educational venture will push forward with renewed vigor (Maritain, 1943, p. 118). This goal becomes all the more meaningful when we realize that certain studies have shown that, in any profession, college grades have had no correlation with life achievement (Hoyt, 1965, p. 48). This has led people such as Heath to feel that holding to academic excellence as the only or principle goal of the school is destructive to the growth and maturity of this generation. He explains that youngsters grow primarily as the result of relationships with each other and their elders (Heath, 1970, p. 8).

The teacher thus has the responsibility to present to his students those activities where learning about life can take place. This can be accomplished to a relatively great degree in the classroom or in the various learning experiences to be found in the school. But that is only the beginning! The administrator must, at the same time, endeavor to develop

in his school an all-encompassing atmosphere of conviviality where the student feels the freedom to search and conclude according to his developing attitudes. Few people with any awareness of the core values of this continent, or of knowledge about how individuals learn, will defend the way most North American schools are organized (Bishop, 1970, p. 1). For example, the United States was born out of a revolutionary commitment to individual freedom, and its history can be interpreted as a continuous refinement of this vague, but nonetheless compelling, principle. The aforementioned nation's social, political and economic institutions are based on the individual's right of free choice. Yet most schools maintain organizational patterns in which opportunities for learning how to make choices are consistently stifled.

The personalized school presents to its students, through its organizational patterns, an atmosphere more conducive to the development of the whole man. This becomes so, as the increased communication allows each component of the school to become more aware and concerned about the other's situation. Also, as we shall see in a subsequent chapter, the flexible environment allows the teachers, the departments and the teacher-learner groups to discern what time, space and population (teachers and/or students) parameters best fit their needs.

Unfortunately, such an educational atmosphere is so foreign to those accustomed to the more traditional setting

that it often presents a picture of utter chaos. In fact, today's student who lives in the total media environment, and is exposed almost without protection to the full barrage of the complete electronic surroundings, views the more conservative school setting much more critically and impatiently. Thus, what is presently happening is that we are confining these fast-moving, overstimulated youngsters in schools, the slowest moving institutions within our culture. It is this combination which makes for explosion and chaos, and these explosions will continue to escalate until these schools realize that they must begin with the students and not the curriculum, or the teachers, or the administrators or the testing system or any of the non-student elements of the educational environment (Hart, 1970, p. 29).

Nevertheless, because the more traditionally-minded elements in our society will seek to force the personalized school to adopt a more rigorous code of ethics (in a survey conducted by the author fully 50% of schools having implemented a personalized program were forced to pull back because of an irate community), it is an absolute necessity for the survival of such a program that there exist a pre-planned, well thought-out philosophy committing the staff to the development of the emotional, sociological aspect of the student as well as that of the intellectual.

The Underlying Assumptions

The formation of a "global" philosophy represents only

half of the task to be accomplished in this phase of preparation. Such a philosophy is too broad in concept to enable the reader to perceive exactly what the acceptance of such an ideal means as far as his behavior, while operating within the framework of such a school, is concerned.

One unconsciously realizes, when scanning a skyscraper, that the edifice is, in fact, a marrying of numerous stories into the perceived whole. So too, the "global" philosophy, whether the one being scrutinized here, or any other, represents a conglomeration of basic assumptions which should be discovered, recognized for what they are, and discussed at great length in order to fully comprehend the implications involved in the accepting of the stated philosophy in its totality.

Most of us have attended many educators' conferences and conventions where stimulating and sometimes electrifying speeches, especially the keynote address, have been given by very articulate orators. The majority of the audience is left, at the conclusion of the "performance", quasi-breathless and feeling thoroughly rejuvenated in viewing the goals of pedagogues. Unfortunately, this invigorating feeling lasts, in its apex form, as long as one takes to journey to the next presentation (all too often to be conducted in the nearest alcohol-dispensing establishment). By the time the enthralled members of the school system return to their assignments, one or more days hence, little of the original enthusiasm is retained

and only fragments of the content is remembered, let alone discussed. Why is it that well-enunciated high ideals leave so little mark on the everyday performance of the professionals?

There are probably several reasons for this depressing aftermath. Partly, the conventions themselves do not provide the follow-up sessions to explore more deeply what has been presented and inertia seems to prevail among the temporarily-attentive members of the respective schools involved so that no formal, well-organized exploration emanates naturally. It can also be validly argued that these thoughts are offered in an atmosphere which is more social than professional, and in a fashion designed to capture the audience's attention rather than to probe intellectually the various components of the monologue. Thus, the mechanics needed to prod people into action are non-existent and the result is very understandable in light of human frailties.

However much the above-mentioned explanations of the problem might be valid, it is the writer's belief that a third reason is the real underlying cause for the failure to implement programs designed to bring the believed-in goals to fruition. As has been stated previously, it is the author's contention that these grandiose schemes for the betterment of our educational institutions present too formidable a task when viewed as finished products. At the same time, it leaves, in the mind of the beholder, an unclear picture as to what is

really expected of him in the performance of those duties tied to the crystallizing of the new program.

It is the author's suggestion, then, that subsequent to establishing the "global" philosophy, one must endeavor to research the underlying assumptions which, together, make up the aggregate.

Consequently, listed below are the eight basic assumptions, which are believed to be the building stones upon which the suggested philosophy rests. The author does not maintain that only these components are involved, but he does contend that those mentioned in this paper are indispensable to the full understanding of the goal in question.

Upon glancing at these various assumptions one might feel miffed at being pointed out simple and seemingly obvious details. The author does not wish to belittle the reader and neither does he believe he is knocking at straw men. Rather, it is felt that in life the simple items sometimes go unnoticed and therefore are not adhered to because, by their very nature, they appear to be unimportant.

In his attempt to bridge the ever-existent void between theory and practice the author has tried to reduce the general philosophy to its most basic elements. In this way it is hoped a clearer understanding of what will be required of the educators involved in this program will ensue.

Assumption #1. "There is no one way to learn."

The author has yet to encounter any sizable group of teachers and/or administrators who did not readily agree with

the above statement. However, although the great majority nod their heads in agreement when faced with this remark, very few delve much deeper to discover what that means as far as their attitudes in the classroom are concerned. One need posit this opinion only briefly before the corollary becomes evident: - "If there are many ways to learn and each of these is practised by at least one segment of the student population, it therefore should be concluded that more than one way of teaching should be evident in any school."

Unfortunately, all too often, the very faculty members who approve the above assumption with no hesitancy can be observed to employ only one method of instruction: the lecture. Thus, the dilemma facing the administrator is great and seemingly insurmountable, for the ideal role of the teacher cannot be legislated, cannot be adequately defined and perhaps cannot be completely achieved. However, every teacher has the responsibility to consider his professional duty. Should any pedagogue feel that he has nothing to offer the student more than minimum legislated time; nothing to offer other than a one-way communication through the lecture; nothing of himself to offer other than a factual presentation - then he does not belong in any school - he is not a teacher! (Mr. F. Higgins, Principal, Marymount H. S., in a memo addressed to his teachers, Spring, 1972)

Assumption #2. "Begin where the learner is."

Closely aligned with the first assumption is the se-

cond which recognizes as a fact of life the principle of individual differences. As it rarely, if ever, happens that an averaged-sized group of pupils is comprised of individuals having progressed exactly the same amount in their academic undertakings, it can be easily ascertained that the teacher must devise a method enabling him to help each pupil advance at a comfortable rate while not hindering the progress of his peers.

No matter how good our educational system may become, everyone is not going to be the same. The biological law of variability is a proven fact, as is the behavioral science evidence of different personality types or temperaments. (Dr. E. Zigler, Head of HEW's Office of Child Development, Reported in Barnett, 1953, p. 386)

Unfortunately, the educational institution often presents a learning environment not in keeping with the facts of life.

Most of a student's school life is spent in self-contained classrooms with other students, all of them doing much the same things, in virtually the same way, for almost the same length of time. School goals, too, have become increasingly uniform, with all students taking the same standardized or teacher-made tests, and all graduating at about the same age. (Trump & Baynham, 1963, p. 45)

It would seem that within the context of the process of learning, it is at the level of inquiry that individual differences should be allowed greater freedom of action. Thus, the educators should be committed to expose members of their student body to as many varied and worthwhile living experiences as possible. One might pay heed to psychologists such

as Stern (1900, p. 84):

The individual is not partly body and partly mind, but a person with the capacity for experience. He is a portion of the world that, although bounded on the outside, nevertheless continually exchanges substance and function with all other portions of the world; this is his corporeality. And he also has the capacity to reflect himself and the world inwardly; this is his mentality. The life of the person includes both; accordingly, there is no experience and no capacity for experience that is not bound up with the physical aspect of life and bodily functions.

The experiences which will be most meaningful to the teenager are those he will be able to associate with reality. Making these experiences available to the students would be in keeping with the characteristic of "genuineness" we earlier discussed as being essential to the true personalized pedagogical atmosphere. Unfortunately, the traditional school presents too many impediments to self-discovery to enable the pupil to discover this reality in a manner which is both meaningful and comfortable to him.

Few would disagree that the end of all education should be a curious, imaginative and intelligent human being. All the reverence afforded the term "individual differences" must be evidence of the universality of that goal. In the conception of traditional education, the means and ends of education are somehow confused and individual differences as they relate to total human development are largely ignored. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 52)

A more personalized surrounding would allow those with a sound understanding of the environment the child needs to develop more fully as a person, and the dedication necessary to present the latter with this opportunity, to experiment to a much greater degree in order to develop the needed social and

academic atmosphere while paying attention to individual differences.

Assumption #3. "Alternatives should be tried."

Again and again as this author has discussed the feasibility of attempting one or more innovations with various groups of educators he has discerned a hesitancy on their part to implement anything unless it could be proven beyond a shadow of a doubt that no negative effects would be felt by those involved, especially the students. The thinking here seemed to be that should any one pupil find himself adversely affected by the projected innovation, a great disservice would have been done to the community. This concern is usually voiced as: "Don't change for the sake of change!" However, neither should one retain tradition for the sake of being traditional. It is an unalterable fact that whatever the school system uses as its mode of instruction, at least a few of the students will not be able to adjust to their surroundings, and these, being adversely affected, will become academic, emotional and/or social drop-outs. It is the writer's contention that a more personalized pedagogical environment would provide more opportunities for the awakened faculty to vary their means of communication with the individual students and so minimize the number of mal-adjusted young men and women exiting from their institution.

In general, a humanistic evaluation of man's role in nature which views him as participating in nature's evolutionary advance, rather than as an automaton, subject to blind mechanical forces,

stimulates human creative effort and thereby produces the factual, cultural evidence which validates this vision. (Bindley, 1953, p. 22)

If one further accepts as a "given" the impossibility of proving a creative act before it has been created, one, then, armed with a worthwhile objective and having a precise plan of action logically related to that objective, needs no other reason to attempt the implementation of any alternative pedagogical structure.

Assumption #4. "Students change behavior more readily than adults."

Indifference to custom is more marked among children than in the advanced age group but it's not confined to them. Indeed, there are, generally speaking, gradations of it from one extreme at infancy to the other at senility, and, again speaking generally, the younger a person is, the more flexible and receptive to change he is. The age levels vary with the kind of novelty, but the fact of an age differential in acceptance remains. (Barnett, 1953, p. 386)

An attempt at proving the above was carried out by Stefansson (1920, 11:541). He took notice of this in connection with his efforts to break the food prejudices of his sled dogs in the arctic. The animals had been raised on seal, caribou and fish. On one occasion he withheld all these foods and instead offered the meat from a wolf he had killed. There were dogs of different ages and none of them ate the meat for the first three days. Slowly they began accepting it in order of their ages, the youngest one relinquishing his prejudices first. The oldest dog refused wolf meat for two weeks,

and finally it became necessary to secure caribou meat for him. The conclusion reached by Stefansson was that animals, similar to Man, exhibit the same progressive commitment to habit with advanced age.

Consequently, most people, by the time they have reached their late twenties or early thirties, have found a comfortable niche in their society which provides them with employment, social contacts and a relatively acceptable way of life (Watenberg, 1955, p. 7). This niche provides security, a possession jealously and frantically safeguarded and defended at all times. With the approach of middle age this niche, to many, becomes a rut, turning its occupants into prisoners of intellectual parameters all too narrow in scope.

In the field of Education Crandall (1970, p. 74 & 77) found statistical support for two hypotheses: 1.) Faculty who are younger will be more innovative, and 2.) Faculty who have taught fewer years in total will be more innovative. These findings were reinforced when the author found in a personal survey that 48.4% of the teachers in a previously very conservative school recently altered to that of a flexibly modularized institution agreed that "Students appear to be adapting favorably to Modular Scheduling", while only half that number disagreed with the statement.

Adolescents, it would thus seem, have not had the opportunity to find a comfortable rut in which to stagnate.

The growing-up of a child poses threats to the positions of many adults. Parents may be forced to realize that middle age has caught up with them. Customs that bring security to men and women in authority are challenged. Rules of conduct that protect adults from uncertainties seem to be shattered with alarming impunity. The pretences which shield grown-ups from the realization that they fail to live up to their own ideals become indecently thin under the questioning of iconoclastic youth. (Wattenberg, 1955, pp. 7-8)

Though the above may ruffle our egos, we in the older age brackets should nevertheless keep this in mind when expounding on our fears of the damaging effects this search for alternative modes of instruction might have on our youngsters. We really have no right to voice our trepidations of various educational innovations by pointing out the difficulties which will burden the pupils. Though, not wholly non-existent, they are qualitatively and quantitatively minimal to the point where the objection is invalid.

Assumption #5. "Excitement breeds excitement, interest breeds interest, creativity breeds creativity."

An excited teacher breeds excitement on the part of his pupils. A high interest in his discipline will awaken a similar interest in his students. And both of these characteristics will result in the teacher searching for ways to elicit creativity from his charges.

One of the greatest rewards of the teacher is the happiness of making something. When the pupils come to you, their minds are only half-formed, full of blank spaces and vague notions and over-simplifications. You do not merely insert a lot of facts, if you teach them properly. It is not like injecting 500 cc. of serum, or administering a year's dose of vitamins. You take the living mind, and mold it. It resists

sometimes. It may lie passive and apparently refuse to accept any imprint. Sometimes it takes to the mold too easily, and then seems to melt again and become featureless. But often it comes into firmer shape as you work, and gives you the incomparable happiness of helping to create a human being. To teach a boy the difference between truth and lies in print, to start him thinking about the meaning of poetry and patriotism, to hear him hammering back at you with the facts and arguments you have helped him to find, sharpened by himself and fitted to his own powers gives the sort of satisfaction that an artist has when he makes a picture out of blank canvas and chemical colorings, or a doctor when he hears a sick pulse pick up and carry the energies of new life under his hands. (Hightet, 1950, p. 10)

Several years ago, while studying at a small New England college, the author inadvertently found himself saddled with a Saturday morning course. Not at all pleased with the prospect of curtailing his Friday evening activities and awakening at an unseemly hour the next morning for a whole semester, he, along with the other unfortunate souls, decided to make the best of a bad situation and get the most out of the sessions as possible. What was not realized at the time was that the professor also had been unwilling to teach at that time but had been the victim of the sadistic scheduler. However, he had decided long before the beginning of the term that nothing would be allowed to interfere with his weekend pleasures. Thus it was, that, as we filed into the classroom on the first and subsequent mornings, we were greeted by bloodshot eyes peering grudgingly at its tormentors, the owner guzzling black coffee by the jug in a futile attempt to rid the corners of his mind of the thick jungles of cobwebs

impeding the thinking process which, presumably, was meant to be working at full capacity during those times.

Needless to say, clockwatching set in as a favorite pasttime in our attempted escape from boredom. Seconds became minutes, minutes became hours, and hours seemed interminably long. All of us accomplished our primary goal - that of adding three credits to our growing accumulation. But little else was achieved as direction was not forthcoming, and assignments proved to be tedious and relatively worthless, tempting us to the hilt towards the folly of plagiarism.

Though the above may be an extreme example of lack of care on the part of a teacher towards his students, it nevertheless illustrates the positive or negative effect which emanates from the instructor which, in turn, will show a high correlation to his own feelings about the over-all teacher-learner group.

The moral to all of this is that the teacher must practise as an individual what pedagogues, collectively, have been preaching for a long time: "Treat the child as an individual and arouse his thirst for discovery by making his environment more conducive to the realization of this goal."

In a personal survey this author found that a majority of teachers (65%) agreed with the statement: "In general students at ____ are concerned about their school work." This finding was further substantiated when 83.8% of the educators

agreed that "Most students want to learn." However, when asked to respond to: "Most students at _____ exert a great deal of effort in their course", only 14% felt they could agree. Thus, the teaching faculty was saying that the students would like to learn the subject matter presented to them but found too little attraction in the learning situation to be prodded to do the work required to meet the goal. What was the missing link? Conjecture plus knowledge of this particular educational institution along with interviews of several students has led the author to conclude that the unimaginative, austere setting confronting the pupils was enough to "turn them off".

However, the personalized school will allow and should stimulate the teacher to develop creativity, both on his part, and in turn, in his pupils. The latter should thus have much greater freedom to decide and implement those activities which he believes will better prepare the student for initiative.

Assumption #6. "Time is not a primary criterion for learning."

As will be discussed in the next chapter, one of the fundamentals of a true personalization program is the reduction of formal class time and the consequent production of unscheduled time. It is the firm belief of those who espouse the values of this philosophy, that too much concern is shown to the number of minutes or periods a student spends in the .

classroom while following one course or another. It is further believed that a reduction of formal class time for each discipline taught would be very advantageous as it would free the teacher-learner group to participate in "different" activities during the unscheduled time to better comprehend the subject matter in question.

Schools need to provide individual pupils with opportunities to study and work apart from the mass. Not only do students need to develop responsibility for their own learning, each according to his own interests and competencies, but also to encounter challenges that bring forth higher levels of intellectual inquiry and creativity. The conventional school schedules most of a student's time in group activities in classes, study halls, laboratories and other work-rooms. Group assignments that result in conventional homework deny the individual students the best opportunities for independent study and investigation.
(Trump, p. 2)

January, 1967, found Montrealers bracing themselves against what had been forecast to be the culmination of a long and bitter struggle on the part of the teachers to obtain substantial wage increases: a prolonged strike. The predictions turned out to be disturbingly accurate. A five and half week work stoppage ensued, causing mothers unwarranted headaches, a rash of petty vandalism, and a paid holiday for school administrators. However, the most worrisome problem, according to the protagonists, was the curtailing of the learning process which would inevitably lead to a mass of academic failures at the conclusion of the school year.

To everyone's surprise, when the final marks were assembled in late June, the rate of achievement on the part of the seniors in high school was almost identical to that ac-

completed in previous years. The more surprising element was the fact that the matriculation examinations had not been watered-down versions, as they had been prepared prior to the interruption.

What, of course, had transpired was simply a greater concentration on the material to be covered once the school doors were re-opened. To my knowledge, make-up classes after dismissal or on week-ends were the exception rather than the rule. To the consternation of many, as much had been learned in eight months as had been in nine and a half months in the past.

It can be logically concluded then, that much time is wasted in our classes today. If we allotted sufficient time to the garnering of academic knowledge, might we not be wise in allocating the excess to the purpose of presenting to our students a pedagogical climate more conducive to the experimenting of learning situations helpful in the social and emotional maturation process?

Assumption #7. "There is no irreplaceable content".

It is the hope of those who are concerned with the progress of this movement that individuals involved in a more personalized institution will learn to "do their own thing".

The key to this program is characterized by the attainment of freedom from constant supervision, constant restraints from adults or peer groups. The student is allowed some choice about his school activities during school hours. He may read, write, discuss, contemplate,

listen to records and tapes, memorize, practice, experiment, analyze, investigate or converse, interact with other students formally or informally or on certain occasions just relax... an opportunity seldom afforded the student in the conventional helter-skelter school day. Independent study, for example, emphasizes the individual's role in learning. It implies that students who react favorably to this environment possess potentialities for self-instruction, self-discipline and self-evaluation. (Bishop, 1970, p. 1)

It would seem quite fruitful to allow a relatively large amount of leeway to the teacher-learner group to discern what would be most interesting to study. The administrator - change agent may find it advisable to establish guidelines limiting the "freedom" of this group to that generally included in the discipline involved. Nevertheless, it may be found that the material to be covered is not as valid to the deep comprehension of the subject as other aspects toward which the members show an inclination.

At Marshall High we are not abandoning or disparaging the academic disciplines. Their lasting importance is recognized by all, but we are trying to correct the confusion of means and ends of education that is so apparent in much of the academic world. We are trying to use what is new in our school to alter the academic system, to make it more productive of curiosity, imagination and intelligence than it has been in the past. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 52)

As a result of this mentality the teachers at Marshall High have generally become more flexible in their regard for subject matter while students, because of an increased involvement in their own learning, have shown greater interest in their school work (Petrequin, 1968, pp. 64-67).

This exploration and deviating from the planned norm can be achieved to a certain extent in the traditional school.

But, as it may well be decided that certain activities requiring unorthodox lengths of time or locations, would be doubly advantageous, it may be quite difficult to develop one's insight to its fullest potential in the more conservative environment.

Assumption #8. "Students are basically mature, responsible, interested and good."

Though it was not intended as such, this final assumption has proved to be the most controversial. Whenever the author has made this point to an audience of professional educators he has invariably been confronted by a scatter of guffaws interspersed in a milieu of relative acceptance. Though the dissenters have always been in the minority, the very existence of such groups leads one to understand why today's schools are not dealing with their students in an affective manner.

A teaching staff composed of educators disassociating themselves from this credo is unconsciously maintaining and widening the generation gap. For, by not accepting this principle, one exhibits in no uncertain terms his/her fears and/or lack of respect for today's adolescent. As one delves deeper into the meaning of this lack of understanding one conjures up a very dismal picture of the educator's motivating forces.

For example, let us take the adjective "good". If we put "good" on a continuum with "bad", one concludes that those

not on the "good" side must necessarily be on the opposite half. To make matters worse the pedagogue is saying not only that the young man or woman is "bad" but that he, the professional educator is going to help reverse that situation. One wonders how a group of parents, upon being informed of this feeling shared by several of their children's teachers, would react! It can be suspected that the pedagogues look upon the pupil from a more negative point of view than the latter deserves because of the multitude of disciplinary problems emanating from the student. However, we in the educational profession may have unwittingly been more the cause of such misbehavior than the alleged culprit. Modern society insists on ignoring the individual. It only takes account of humanity. It believes in the reality of universals and treats men as necessary evils. This confusion of the concepts of "individual" and "human being" has led industrialized civilization to a fundamental error; the standardization of men (Carrell, 1939, p. 269). As schools, more often than not, mirror society rather than offer good examples of alternative modes of behavior, this standardization is often found within their walls. However, as has been discussed earlier in this chapter, each person has his own personality. He cannot be treated like a symbol. Children should not be placed in schools where they are educated wholesale.

The secondary school will make the teacher more a consultant and less a taskmaster. The teacher will spend less time and energy in telling students what they must do and more in raising issues and pointing

the direction to possible materials and solutions.
(Trump, 1959, p. 19)

Is it not possible then to alleviate some of the disciplinary problems by introducing the student to a more understanding and positively-oriented learning environment?

A teacher must believe in the value and interest of his subject as a doctor believes in health. The neglect of this principal is one of the chief reasons for the bad teaching that makes pupils hate schools and universities and turn away from valuable fields of knowledge. (Hight, 1950, p. 14)

Our legal system maintains the innocence of a person until guilt is proven. Could our educational institutions not think along the same lines? Rather than this, too many schools carry on the tradition of keeping the child down, keeping him quiet, respectful, castrated. Moreover, the school does excellent work in treating only the head of the child.

It restrains his emotional life, his creative urge. It trains him to be obedient to all dictators and bosses of life. (Neil, 1960, p. 328)

The truly understanding teacher maintains a firm faith in the goodness of the child! He believes that the average child is not born a cripple, a coward or a souless automaton, but has full potentialities to love life and to be interested in life. (Fromm, 1960, p. XII)

The message here is that our students are basically good. As "basically" is to be interpreted both quantitatively and qualitatively, one thus recognizes the minority who seem to be on the negative side and the fact that in each of us there is a certain degree of naughtiness which, after all, only makes us human. But it does posit the natural charac-

teristics of the child to be on the positive side.

Summary

The principal/change agent must instill in the teaching and administrative staffs a complete understanding of why they would be implementing a change in the general structure of the pedagogical environment. To successfully accomplish this change the persons involved will have to introspect both individually and collectively to see where they stand vis a vis the philosophy of the personalized school. The truly personalized pedagogical environment is very complex and needs dedicated, understanding and sophisticated professionals to develop and maintain it. Its technical implementation will necessarily produce a very foreign milieu to those who have grown accustomed to the more traditional setting. Thus, before activating such a program, the professional staff must develop an insight into the type of philosophy which goes hand in hand with the "new" atmosphere. The staffs concerned, having ascertained that they buy into this rationale, may consider the first phase of the implementation process to be terminated. However, should one skip this step one might, in fact, not be totally committed to the program. Lack of commitment on the part of too many individuals will soon lead to the demise of this attempt at humanizing the educational institution. For example, Pelham High (Pelham, N. Y.) was introduced to this concept around the middle of the last decade. Within a few short years it had returned to a more traditional

learning situation. Mr. Roger H. York, then Director of Guidance at Pelham High explains in personal correspondence with the author:

In retrospect, I would venture that one of the key factors in the failure of our program was the lack of commitment by the entire staff. Our principal, I believe, made the mistake of not providing time for in-service workshops aimed at implementing the concept. In the final analysis, the teachers make the program work, as their enthusiasm generates enthusiasm on the part of the students.

However, the administrator/change agent should realize that general agreement on an educational philosophy does not by itself produce practices in keeping with the affirmed beliefs. This is mostly because past and present practices in our schools lead to the growth of academic knowledge only. The new component today's schools must relate to is the affective characteristics of the child. This is so because as today's children will be living in tomorrow's society, we, as professional pedagogues, must attempt to prepare those entrusted to our care for that future. As we find ourselves in an ever-increasing era of change and find it more and more difficult to forecast the exact evolutionary direction this continent will follow, we should be striving to develop young men and women who can think for themselves, act on their own and be generally responsible for themselves. This can be accomplished only if we stop dealing with our proteges through the textbook medium and start relating to them as human beings.

Realization and understanding of the aforementioned will induce the professional staff to develop a general philosophy by which its institution will operate. However, it is suggested that one go a step further and examine the underlying assumptions of the "Global" philosophy to understand fully the implications an acceptance of that rationale will have on each individual's behavior while operating in the milieu in question.

The development of said philosophy will serve as the foundation for the previously-mentioned skyscraper. Failure to have thought seriously about this aspect will result in the edifice being erected on sand. Crumbling will result within a very short period following the construction.

In conclusion, it would seem appropriate to quote the words sung by Sammy Davis jr. in the Broadway play "Golden Rainbow":

Whether I'm Right.
 Whether I'm wrong.
 Whether I find a place in this world.
 Or never belong.
I gotta be me!
I gotta be me!
 What else can I be
 But what I am?
 I want to live,
 Not merely survive.
 And I won't give up this dream
 Of life that keeps me alive.
 This dream I see
 Makes me what I am.
 I can't be right for somebody else
If I'm not right for me.
 I gotta be free.
 I just gotta be free.
 I gotta be me.

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C H A P T E R V

THE FUNDAMENTALS

If instruction is to improve, the improvement must be based on more than organizational change, there must be a substantial change in the instructional treatment. (DeLay, p.1)

Putting the Philosophy into Practice

As was indicated in the last chapter the administrator contemplating the personalization of the pedagogical environment should first make sure that both he and his staff are in tune with the appropriate philosophy. The investigation and acceptance of the suggested rationale will necessitate some introspection on the part of the educators involved. This deliberation, if done earnestly, can be time consuming and quite difficult. However, the difficulty encountered in this initial phase of the total implementation process will be minimal compared to that of actually putting the philosophy into practice. A void exists in knowing how to get from theory to reality in implementing some of these noble designs (Hansen, 1968, p. 1). It is one thing to talk about dealing with students in an affective manner, it is quite something else to do justice to that goal in our everyday activities.

Since time immemorial there has always existed a conflict between what educators knew to be the best way to teach children and the methods actually used. Over half a century ago John Dewey recognized this dichotomy when he wrote in

Democracy in Education:

Thus we have the spectacle of professional educators decrying appeal to interest while they uphold with great dignity the need of reliance upon examinations, marks, promotions, and emotions, prizes, and the time-honored paraphernalia of rewards and punishment. (1963, p. 137)

Dewey not only pointed out the discrepancy between theory and practice but also clearly indicated why this chasm existed:

A reorganization of education so that learning takes place in connection with the intelligent carrying forward of purposeful activities is a slow work. It can only be accomplished piecemeal, a step at a time. But this is not a reason for nominally accepting one educational philosophy and accommodating ourselves in practice to another. It is a challenge to undertake the task of reorganization courageously and to keep it persistently. (1963, p. 137)

The change agent should realize from the outset that the acceptance by all or most of the philosophical reasons for personalizing the learning environment does not, by itself, ensure any real change in their behavior.

The behavioral culture often differs from the verbal one. Anthropology distinguishes between the real and ideal of culture. And the fact is that people tend to pay lip service to their moral code (the ideal), often with complete faith, long after they have ceased conforming to it. What this means to the change agent is that he cannot rely completely on what people say, even when they are trying to be sincere. The way he corrects this deficiency is to also observe what they do. (Arensberg & Niehoff, 1971, p. 238)

One must, therefore, prod the educators into action. This, it is suggested, can be accomplished by activating several innovative teaching tools which will become integral

parts of the program. These practices may be called "Fundamentals" and will be dealt with subsequently. Suffice it to say, for the moment, that these fundamentals are necessary to bring about a change in the general pedagogical environment. Without all or a good number of them being activated one runs the risk of having deliberated the why's and wherefor's of the educational institution without having accomplished much in the world of reality. The result, all too often, is the teacher-learner group having high purposes but unclear priorities.

The Fundamentals

The secondary school of the future will not have standard classes of 25 to 35 students meeting five days a week on inflexible schedules. Both the size of the groups and the length of the classes will vary from day to day. Methods of teaching, student groupings, and teacher and student activities will adjust to the purposes and content of instruction. (Trump, 1959, p. 7)

The fundamentals of the program in question are those innovative practices deemed either necessary or, at least, very helpful in producing the quality of education discussed in the last chapter. As reams of literature can be found dealing with any one of these fundamentals, it will not be the purpose of the author to define, give the pros and cons or produce a general overview of them. Rather, the author hopes to show how these educational tools relate to the philosophy and its assumptions. They should be viewed, then, as aids to the bringing of the aforementioned educational ra-

tionale into reality.

To further help the administrator the fundamentals have been divided into three categories:

1. Those of primary importance: it is felt by the author that these are of utmost importance to the healthy functioning of the personalized environment. As such the change agent should not consider attempting to change the learning atmosphere without first ascertaining the staff's capabilities vis a vis the activation of these practices.

2. Those of secondary importance: these are considered to be less important for the success of the program as they do not relate directly to the philosophical attitude of the professional staff. Instead, they serve to strengthen the quality of the educational process to be attained while practising the fundamentals of primary importance. It will not be necessary to implement all of these. However, the staff would be well advised to activate as large a number of these as possible.

3. Those of tertiary importance: finally, the author has listed those practices which serve as facilitators to the whole implementation process. None of these need be found in the activating of the program, but their presence will greatly help those involved in acclimatizing to the new ambience.

The suggesting of these fundamentals does not have, as its goal, the establishing of a final plan of action for the successful school. Rather, it is meant to be a basic

guideline and help to stimulate the imagination of the change agent and his clients. There is complete awareness that unforeseen developments could invalidate certain suggestions dealt with below, or cause to add still others.

The Fundamentals of Primary Importance

1. Small group instruction. In order that they learn to function effectively and efficiently in society, students should learn to become better group members. Trump (1959, p. 10) sees the opportunity to develop this skill within the small group setting:

Small groups of 12 or 15 students and a teacher will pit mind against mind to sharpen understanding. They will examine terms and concepts, solve problems, and reach areas of agreement and disagreement. At the same time they will learn about getting along together. This is primarily a student activity with the teacher sitting in as counsellor, consultant and evaluator.

In keeping with Trump's statement White (1972, p. 3) recommends that teacher-oriented or dominated discussions be minimized and student participation and leadership in discussion be sought instead. Similarly, Petrequin (1968, P. 175) sees the main purpose of the small group as the encouragement of discussion and interaction.

The traditional class of thirty students is often too large for effective study since freedom of movement, independent creative activity and development of student responsibility for learning are difficult in a group of that size. Research into group processes indicates that a group cannot be larger

than 12 to 15 if there is to be participation of all its members (Trump, 1959, p. 11).

The small group is essential if the pupils are to be closely involved in the free exchange of ideas. The smallness of the group provides the setting where teachers can analyze students' reactions to course content and assess their knowledge of it. One can better observe the ability of students to deal with the discipline in question. Furthermore, as students stimulate and motivate each other into active participation, they not only learn to respect others' opinions, but are also given the opportunity to develop better personal relations.

The small classes represent essential education for citizenship in a democracy. Students need to learn to discuss controversial matters to communicate effectively, to respect the opinion of others, and to deal with people whose background differ from their own. The discussions they hold reinforce and use the knowledge the students have learned in large groups and in their own independent study. They crystallize values and form attitudes in much the same way as these goals are accomplished in life outside the school. (Davis, 1963, p. 9)

Involvement, then, in the typical small group can be much greater than in the traditional classroom. However, one should be forewarned that the activation of small groups does not, by itself, insure greater participation, but only creates the milieu where this can occur. The teacher of the small group must be adequately trained in the use of the small group as a learning environment so as to encourage interaction. On the other hand it is possible for the skillful teacher in the traditional classroom to engage a third of the students in a

discussion. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 175), but this is a poor substitute for the small group. Trump (1968, p. 28) refers to these side-group discussions as "buzz" sessions.

Small group classes should, therefore, combine four purposes:

1. Provide opportunities for teachers to ascertain the individual pupil's growth and development and to try a variety of teaching techniques which will be suited to the student's needs.
2. Offer the therapy of the group process, whereby participants are urged to examine previously-held concepts and ideas.
3. Permit all students more freedom to discover the significance of the subject matter involved and to discuss its potential uses, rather than just receive it passively.
4. Provide students with opportunities to know their teacher on a personal individual basis.

The small group, consequently, becomes one of the more important educational innovations to be implemented in the process of personalizing the pedagogical environment.

2. Large group instruction.

Any activity in which the learner is involved in which he is quasi-active - listening to a lecture, filling in a learning program, viewing a film, or taking a test - can go in a large assembly group, as well as in other size. While these groups are referred to as large groups, it is not their size so much as their function which is significant. It may be more appropriate to refer to these as assembly groups rather than large groups. (Manlove and Beggs, 1965, p. 23)

If a large number (equal to or greater than two normal groupings) of students is either: 1.) interested in, 2.) must learn, or 3.) require common exposure to the same body of learning material and the mode of presentation is not crucial to the comprehending of the subject matter (since it is to be followed by small group discussions), then large groups provide efficient use of student time and room utilization as well as some economy of teacher time and energy (Swenson and Key, 1966, p. 48), outside community consultants and building space. It is designed to accomplish an efficient presentation of material that would otherwise be endlessly repeated and less excitingly communicated in the conventional classroom (Petrequin, 1968, p. 16).

The large group provides students with the best teaching that the school can muster for the given phase of the subject. In addition, resources outside the school, such as films, tape recordings, television and guest speakers are utilized when these resources can supplement the teacher's presentation or when they do the job better. (Davis, 1963, p. 1)

The large group, then, serves to stimulate, review, test, etc. What is heard or seen in the large group should become the subject of discussions with other persons, usually in groups of smaller size where a fuller understanding might emanate from the sharing of several people's feelings.

Unfortunately, the experience many schools have had with the large group has been an unfortunate one. White (1972, p. 3) concluded, after surveying many such situations, that the opinion of most was of general dissatisfaction. How-

ever, this was mainly due to lack of variety in teaching presentations from one time to the next. This would suggest that the lack of familiarity with large group procedures on the part of the pedagogues was mostly to blame. This problem led Trump (1959, p. 7) to suggest that large group instruction should include a number of activities. He further stressed that instruction in this type of setting should be conducted by teachers who are particularly competent, who have adequate time to prepare and who can and will utilize the best possible instructional aids.

After experimenting for several years in Marshall High School Petrequin (1968, p. 133) concluded that the large group should meet only once a week (or cycle) and not more often. Each meeting should also not exceed forty-five minutes (Petrequin, 1968, pp. 21 and 135; Swenson and Key 1966, p. 49). This seems to be the ideal length of time to include most activities of a large group and still be within the attention span of most students.

Thus, the large group, if used efficiently and properly, can provide an opportunity for the teacher to establish a frame of reference for other instructional modes in the course, as well as to summarize and bring closure to various topics and units.

It should be pointed out here that the implementing of large group instruction necessitates that the same rate of progress be followed by large numbers of students. For

this reason the fully individualized school might choose not to use this practice. However, individualization of instruction can still be achieved, should large group instruction be activated, by paying attention to the individual differences of the pupils during the other types of instruction practised.

3. Independent study.

What a person does on his own with a high degree of independence determines his unique personality. This is good mental hygiene for an individual, it can also result in maximum contributions of the individual to the general welfare. Unless a human being has these opportunities and responsibilities, he loses his identity as he is swallowed up in a mass of group activities and assigned responsibilities.

Schools also need to provide individual pupils with opportunities to study and work apart from the mass. Not only do students need to develop responsibilities toward their own learning, each according to his interests and competencies, but also to encounter challenges that bring forth higher levels of intellectual inquiry and creativity. The conventional schools schedule most of a student's time in group activities in classes, study halls, laboratories, and other workrooms. Group assignments that result in conventional homework deny individual students the best opportunities for independent study and investigation and bore them with needless repetitiveness. (Davis, 1963, pp. 15-16)

What matters most in the profession of education is a perpetual appeal to intelligence and free will in the young, (Maritain, 1943, pp. 9-10). If a teaching faculty accepts as a fact of life the principle of individual differences (assumption #2), it would seem that a very good educational tool which could be used, whereby more than lip service is paid to the individuality of the student and the appeal to his intelligence and free will, is independent study.

Despite the varying abilities and motivations of students, the fact still remains that all students learn many things outside the school with a minimum of adult supervision. Although there is much lost motion and inefficiency in this independent learning outside of school, the results are often quite effective (Davis, 1963, p. 3). It would seem then, that the same type of learning should be provided within the school program in order to best present experiences of discovery to the student body. Independent study allocated properly as to time and place, can provide pupils with the opportunities to learn essential knowledge and skills. Trump (1965, p. 19) supported this last point and claimed:

Certainly fundamental characteristics of an educated person are the capacities to solve problems, continue to learn, and evaluate results on his own. Consequently, students will do more independent work in libraries, resource centers, workshops, and laboratories, where assigned and selected projects will be supervised mainly by instructional assistants. The amount of time the students spend and the nature of the projects will vary with the maturity and needs of the individual.

The same author continues to exhort (1959, p. 10) that students should engage in study activities as individuals or in groups of two or three, with a minimum of constant supervision while teachers serve more as consultants than task masters.

If we have accepted that our students are basically mature and responsible (assumption #8) the independent study program should require students to engage in activities where they progressively take more responsibility for self-direction.

The amount of time should, however, vary according to subject and student maturity. Many schools today allow as much as 40% of student time to be spent on independent study. In a personal survey the author found that over 80% of the students like the independent study aspect of their program because they were allowed to do "something different". Thus, Trump's statement (NASSP, p. 1) that it is good mental hygiene for the student to act with a high degree of independence because he otherwise loses his feeling of identity as he is swallowed up in a mass of group activities and assigned responsibilities, seems to be vindicated.

The plan for this phase of the personalization process calls for the student to undertake special projects which he has either selected himself or which the teacher has suggested. These projects should serve to clarify, add to, or enrich the subject matter presented in the large group and further discussed in the small group setting.

It has been reported (Trump & Baynham, 1961, p. 27) that certain schools which experimented with independent study have found it difficult to stimulate even the most able students to do truly creative work. Judging by the success other institutions have enjoyed one can only conclude that the former had developed pupils so accustomed to doing only what the teacher assigned and little more that true creativity was not easily practised once more latitude was permitted in the work projects. Teachers' assignments, in all probability, had left

little room in many cases for the exercise of initiative.

This interpretation is supported by Petrequin (1968, p. 51) who writes:

Instead of viewing individual differences as something to be overcome on the way to education, we are (Marshall H. S.) trying to find ways of making the development of individuality the most important part of the educational experience. To this end we have instituted as an integral part of our established curriculum another dimension called "independent study".

The same author continues to state that the implementation of this dimension has necessitated some important changes in teacher and student attitudes toward the curriculum in particular and education in general (1968, p. 53). He further explains that not only must a teacher relinquish his old ideas about subject matter isolation, but must also discard many of his old methods of motivating since the teacher-student relationship under such conditions is much different from the conventional classroom relationship (1968, p. 54).

In a more empirically-oriented study Lodato (1968, p. 1.) showed that independent study by high school juniors and seniors resulted in greater gains in school satisfaction, study habits and library skills.

The school, then, needs to see independent study as the culmination of its efforts, as the goal should be to develop students who demonstrate personal responsibility for their own learning, intellectual inquiry as revealed by their constant search for knowledge and creativity by seeking new

ideas. Teachers and administrators should expect students to grow in self-correction, self-analysis and self-direction. Student failures along these lines could then be viewed as a challenge rather than an excuse to return to the teacher-domination setting.

4. Unstructured time.

It would be a hard government that should tax its people one-tenth part of their time to be employed in the service, but idleness taxes many of us much more. (Benjamin Franklin)

All through the ages, the greatest thinkers and writers have declared without reservation that the most precious thing any of us can possess is time, and they have been shocked by the careless, indifferent, reckless way in which we have always spent it. It would be interesting to hear the trepidations voiced by these scholars vis a vis the present group of youngsters currently in our educational institutions.

Whereas leisure time has always been wasted, relatively little of it was available before the Second World War. However, a trend has set in whereby the six-day work week was first reduced to five and a half days then to five and now is expected to be further decreased to less than thirty-two hours by the middle of the next decade (Enzer, Little and Lazar, 1972, p. 10).

Leisure or "free" time will thus be greatly increased in the near future. How will people generally adapt themselves to this change? If the past is to be an indicator, time will be frittered away uselessly. Why? Surely a possi-

ble explanation would be the unpreparedness, through lack of training, of those suddenly finding themselves with loads of time on their hands, in dealing with it.

If we are to adequately prepare youngsters for their society, we must present them with as much knowledge of what they will face as we possibly can. Leisure time is on the increase and will continue to augment. Thus, we should help today's youngsters learn how to deal with this component of life. Nobody is too young to learn how to husband time (Lebhar, 1958, p. 47). Today's educational institutions thus have the responsibility of meeting this challenge.

Toward this end unstructured time can, in varying degrees, be given to members of the student body. With as much as 40% of their time unscheduled, there is the possibility and probability that there will be a decrease in academic output, at least initially. There are three basic choices students can select from in dealing with unstructured time: 1.) do nothing, except socialize, 2.) seek help in courses, and 3.) pursue interests. Many solutions meant to deal with the first choice and centering around time restrictions may be attempted. Much more fundamental, however, are changes in the way teachers work with pupils and in the way students feel about responsibility. Studies of schools allocating unstructured time show that when students perceive their teachers making every effort to insure the pupil's success, student attitudes change and greater respon-

sibility is exercised by the latter (Gould, Hertsche and Shutes, 1965, p. 51). If we remember that responsibility has to be learned and that it is not taught by fiat or threat, then mistakes, violations and the like will not be viewed with too much alarm.

The key seems to be that each student must feel that the school staff cares about him as an individual, that there are many people concerned about his growth and success, and not just a lot of unfamiliar authority figures trying to protect a system.

Unstructured time thus can be a valuable weapon in the pedagogue's arsenal aimed at better preparing today's youth for tomorrow's world.

5. Resource centers.

It is, of course, imperative to have both facilities and learning materials available for students if unstructured time is to become a part of the program, and these facilities and materials must be adequate for a large part of the student body at any given time. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 80)

If independent study is to be a truly important pedagogical tool to be used in the personalizing of our institutions, the students must be given access to the setting most conducive to their being able to study on their own. The resource centers the school makes available to its pupils thus becomes all-important since without them, abuse of independent study and unstructured time will be manifest.

White. (1972, p. 3) concluded after completing his

study that lack of building facilities and adequate counseling for use of independent study resulted in the opinion that students generally used this time to complete their homework rather than studying related school topics in depth. Davis (1963, p. 19) concurred with this point of view and thus suggested that resource centers in all the subject areas are needed.

The size of the building will necessarily influence the number of such centers which can be put at the disposal of the student body. Large schools will have separate workshops for each of the subject areas while smaller ones may be forced to combine the disciplines into fewer workrooms. However, it would be folly to describe the conventional library as a true resource center as the librarian, typically, is not trained adequately to serve students in all the different disciplines, nor does she have the time to do so.

From his personal observations of resource centers in numerous schools it is the author's suggestion that these require a variety of materials and supervision. Some of the programmed instructional aids are needed in these workrooms along with specialized programmed materials for remedial work and to provide instruction more advanced than that needed by the average student.

So as to best assure themselves of proper use of these areas the teaching personnel should schedule students into them as independent study activities are assigned. Ap-

appropriate records should be maintained so the school and parents know what individual students are doing (Davis, 1963, p. 20).

Teachers are the key to student use of the resource centers. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 83)

The atmosphere of the resource center needs to be relaxed, yet businesslike. Conferences with other students are permitted with the understanding this is a privilege to be removed if abused. In this way the student on independent study will be able to use his time constructively while those on unstructured time will be enticed to use these rooms for further work.

6. Individualized learning.

The restive Medieval man suffered because his social framework left insufficient opportunity for individuation; in contrast, the restive modern man suffers because his society demands individuation, imposes identification, and gives him inadequate support for developing either. (Ruitenbeek, 1964, p. 31)

Speaking at a 1959 conference on secondary education, held annually at Syracuse University, Dr. William M. Alexander, of Peabody College for Teachers, described the characteristics of a balanced school program. An optimum condition of balance exists, he claims, when each youth is able to participate effectively in such learning experiences as will promote his maximum development as an individual (Trump, & Baynham, 1963, p. 6).

Conventional educational programs are inadequate when we consider the diversity of skills, conceptual development,

attitudes and values, and capabilities required and rightfully demanded by students for survival in our complex technological society. If we combine this point with the aforementioned belief in the principle of individual differences, it becomes apparent that a further pedagogical tool is needed to better serve the school clientele. This has been dubbed "Individualized instruction" by educators of the past two decades.

No concept has had as great an impact upon contemporary public education than that of individualized instruction (Bishop, 1971, p. IX). However, this aspect of education is one of the most talked about and least understood, resulting in school administrators being faced with a substantial gap in curriculum between expectations and achievements (Hartley, 1971, p. VII).

The difficulties encountered in the implementation of a truly individualized instruction program can best be understood in light of the historical fact, as pointed out by the above quotation, that individuation (the act of individuating) has never been a part of our society. As such the development and organization of educational programs in school systems have been geared traditionally toward groups of students as illustrated by the typical self-contained classroom. Children leave home as individuals - yet, from the moment they enter a school bus or a school door, they are organized as a group and thus subjected to all aspects

of group life, group norms and general group conditions. In turn, teaching methodology has been the response of schools required to deal with these faceless groups of children. As a result too many school programs neglect to too great an extent individuality and individual recognition.

An urgent and justifiable demand for schools to become more personalized has led to the developing of individualized learning techniques in our elementary and high schools. The need to develop creative and imaginative techniques for recognizing the individual within conventional organizational structures seems particularly germane when one considers a culture such as ours which is experiencing extreme technological advances and prophetic overtones of the "big brother" society.

To combat the encroaching limitations on our individuality, let us consider the following propositions:

1. That learning takes place individually; therefore, curriculum and methodology should be organized around the individual child. The quest for individualized learning is the most important force influencing the development of present day educational systems.
2. That students must come to contact with different levels of learning and have the opportunity to work together to discover the relationships of various disciplines as aspects of one world.
3. That there are no time limits or space limits on when or where a student can learn - with or without the teacher and the formal classroom.
4. That the educational program must be dynamic and in constant state of evolution and change in order to survive. It must be adaptable, flexible and capable of meeting the demands of a complex, technological and changing culture. (Caudill, Rowlett & Scott, 1968, p. 20)

The preceding premises evoke dynamic educational pro-

cedures and contain definite implications for any community and its school system desiring to provide the best possible education for its children.

In an operational sense, each individual pupil is on his own "track" and has a personalized course of instruction designed for him. Consequently, he should then progress at his own rate - a rate governed by his background, interest and ability. He thus competes primarily with himself and only generally vis a vis his group. This type of program allows him to not only work in group situations but also provides him with opportunities to work alone doing research, reading, or studying, frequently with the aid of various teaching aids and often without the presence of the teacher. Most importantly, the teaching of facts and the drudgery of rote memorization is replaced by procedural discovery and conceptualization (Bishop, 1971, p. 3).

In concluding this section, it would seem wise to reiterate the foregoing in the words of Keuscher (1970, p. 7) why instruction should be individualized:

1. Philosophically, it is consistent with the principles upon which our form of government is based.
2. The very nature of our democratic system and the way it functions demands knowledgeable, thinking participants.
3. As society grows increasingly complex there is a greater demand for a diversity of talents and skills.
4. It is probably the most efficient way to educate if one focuses on the product rather than the process.

7. Teacher-counsellor units. Since most of the pre-

viously-described fundamentals serve to give the student wide latitude in terms of his behavior and educational progress, one of the perils continually hampering the efforts of schoolmen attempting to personalize the learning environment is the "lost" student. This is the pupil who, because of his shyness, general feelings of insecurity, or mistrust of his elders, becomes practically invisible as he answers only when addressed, submits work for examination only when asked and initiates only when prodded.

No personalized pedagogical program could be successful if provision was not made to recognize this type of individual and deal with him effectively.

The teacher-counsellor unit, it is suggested, might be the tool used to offset the danger cited above. This consists of each teacher being allotted a certain number of students (usually in the same proportion as the school is allotted teachers to students.) who become his responsibility to seek out and converse with concerning the youngster's progress or lack thereof.

The teacher could meet with his group as a whole once a month, have a small-group meeting as often, and meet with each individual pupil as often as is deemed preferable. In this way the "lone-wolf" will not disappear after registration only to surface again on graduation day. Potential drop-outs might be saved by the interest shown by at least one member of the teaching faculty and discipline might be

enhanced through informal communication between student and teacher.

8. Effective method of building the master schedule.

It would be interesting to know how many worthy ideas and innovations have foundered on the simple reality, "It can't be scheduled". (Allen and DeLay, 1966, p. 1)

As the teacher-learner groups become more sophisticated and more and more fundamentals of the program are practised, the scheduling will become increasingly more complex. Certain groups of students will be broken into smaller units on some days while being joined on others with other classes for large group instruction, some teachers will want to team-teach, and a portion of teachers will be insistent on the type of room to which they wish to be assigned. The change agent should make sure that either the technical expertise to build such a schedule is present in his school or the funds are available to hire outside help in building the master schedule.

All too often the writer has witnessed well-intentioned educational innovations compromised to the point where they became useless because they couldn't be scheduled or having been scheduled, so disrupted other aspects of the school that the over-all educational program was severely hampered in its operation. By the same token, on many occasions the schedule builder, through inexperience, has allowed too wide a latitude to all teacher-learner groups with the result that a mathematical impossibility was created and numerous pupil

scheduling conflicts resulted. This alone has caused parents in certain school systems to demand the return to the "good old days".

In conclusion, if the teacher keeps in view, above all, the inner center of vitality at work in the preconscious depths of the intelligence, he may center the acquisition of knowledge and solid formation of the individual on the freeing of the child's and/or the youth's intuitive power. He will accomplish this by moving along the paths of spontaneous interest and natural curiosity, by grounding the exercise of rote-memory, and primarily by giving courage, by listening a great deal and by causing the youth to trust and give expression to those poetic and noetic impulses of his own. Too often these appear fragile and bizarre to the child as they are not assured by any social sanction. The conscientious pedagogue will keep in mind that any awkward gesture, rebuff or untimely advice on his part could crush such timid sproutings and push them back into the shell of the unconscious.

The Fundamentals of Secondary Importance

9. Interdisciplinary approach.

Almost all subjects are conceptually related.
(Petrequin, 1968, p. 54)

If a school is to become more personalized in its approach to education, communication between members of the three main components of the institution (administrators,

teachers and students) must be increased. However, just as important is the increase in communication among peers. All too often the author has visited schools where members of one department hardly ever met, let alone know, members of another. Spare periods, recesses and lunch periods were spent in the teachers' room assigned to members of a particular discipline. Such isolationism is not conducive to greatly ameliorating the over-all ambience of an educational institution.

One method which may be used to break the staff of such a habit would be the interdisciplinary or topical approach to teaching. Instead of a grade 8 student being taught English, History, Art and Music by four different pedagogues, each being unaware of what the other is doing, it would be sensible for them to confer with each other, establish a theme to be dealt with and each teaching his/her discipline within the framework of that topic. For example, the English Industrial Revolution could be dealt with not only by the History teacher, but also by the English in assigning compositions and reading materials dealing with that era. The same could be achieved by the Music and Art departments.

Such a practice could serve as the catalyst for increased communication as well as bringing more meaning to the disciplines dealt with.

10. Team teaching.

The teacher meeting with the small group has the responsibility to observe matters that need

to be presented more effectively in large-group instruction and to help appraise the quality of it. Also, the teacher can help to stimulate independent study through small-group discussions by scheduling occasional brief reports from students engaging in exciting independent projects and by suggesting extended study activities that grow out of a discussion or a large-group presentation. Thus, the teacher insures planned relationships among all three basic phases of the instructional system. (Davis, 1963, p. 15)

If the fundamentals listed above are to be activated and used to maximum efficiency, team-teaching will have to take place. Through communicating with peers in his and other departments the teacher can better understand how to proceed with his charges. By dealing with those areas he is most competent in and having his confreres handle others they, in turn, feel more comfortable with, the student will be the recipient of more efficient teaching.

Unfortunately, today's self-contained classrooms limit the educational opportunities of students to the competencies of their particular classroom teacher. The traditional approach also perpetuates the concept that one teacher should do everything (including sub-professional tasks). In contrast, good staff utilization would permit teachers to work in teams, each teaching in the area of his interests and abilities (Davis, 1963, p. 1).

11. Full teacher participation.

The success to be experienced cannot be attributed to new mechanics or systems but to a staff not afraid to use them. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 53)

If the change agent has allowed enough time for the

teaching personnel to introspect and arrive at the conclusion that the personalization of the learning environment is something desirable, a relatively large segment of the staff will thus want to participate in the program. Unfortunately, especially in a large faculty, recalcitrants will surface and threaten the harmonious cooperation advocated under "Team teaching". Such negativism can be injurious to the cause and seriously handicap the proponents of the program in achieving a successful change.

Thus, the principal should first ensure that as great a number as possible among his staff feels positive toward the suggested change. Those, who feel the proposed change is undesirable, could be enticed to change schools. Through the latter leaving the institution and their being replaced by educators who profess a belief in the objectives previously discussed, teacher participation, to as great an extent as possible, can then be expected. The greater the teacher participation, the greater the success of the change situation can be expected as the personalization of the school requires those present to become involved.

12. Reduction of formal class-time.

To gain leeway for courses to be scheduled in varying patterns, the amount of scheduled time must be diminished in most subjects. (Gould, Shutes, and Hertsche, 1965, p. 44)

In fact, if we are to pay heed to all, or most, that has been propagated thus far, the reduction of formal class time becomes a near necessity. By reducing this component,

greater flexibility in scheduling will be made available, time for independent study will be created and alterations to the learning environment as decided by teacher-learner groups will be facilitated.

The amount of reduction will be close to the amount of unstructured time the institution wishes to give its students. Thus, if the pupils are to have 30% unstructured time, a subject usually having been given 250 minutes per week (5 periods of 50 minutes each) will be reduced to approximately 175 minutes.

If a staff has subscribed to the assumption that "Time is not a major criteria for learning" the change here will be all the less traumatic and more easily explainable and defended.

13. In-service training of staff.

Not only is it important for each staff member to be thoroughly trained in the area of his assigned tasks, but that he also take a broader view of the school's total program and how his specific work fits into the overall pattern. (Arnett, 1967, p. 27)

Considering the complexity of the decisions to be made and the preparation and interpretation of input knowledge, it is obvious that a great deal of time must be spent in preparing a staff to develop and operate the proposed program successfully. To abandon the familiar is hard enough, if only because of the mind-sets it has generated, but to accept the unfamiliar can be threatening as well as several shades of inconvenient.

Broader staff sophistication increases useful manpower for task achievement, problem solving and intra-school communication. (Gould, Shutes and Hertsche, 1965, p. 44)

The change from the traditional teacher-dominated form of instruction to that of a more personalized learning environment is radical enough to most that little doubt is left that teachers need help in using the new methodology and in adopting the new roles (Speckhard, 1966, p. 1). Two years after writing to this effect the same author, in a follow-up study of a high school, complained that students and teachers still did not fully use or understand some of the opportunities offered for improving the educational program (Speckhard and Brecht, 1968, p. 33).

In many cases of change little heed was given to this need of teacher training with the result being negative in nature. For example, Trump and Baynham (1965, p. 25), after conducting research for the National Association of Secondary School Principals commission, reported that achievement of the purposes of small group instruction was far from that desired or anticipated. They point out that teachers and students both tended to act in much the same manner they customarily did in classes of 25 to 35. They cite instances where teachers remained standing by a portable blackboard giving directions, asking questions and writing answers during most of the period. They further found that as many as half of the students never contributed an idea during the entire session and that most of the time was spent by the teacher in asking

questions, each answered by one student without discussion among students.

Davis (1963, p. 14) found some evidence of lack of preparation on the part of teachers. He points out, for example, that working with small-group discussion challenges very high professional competencies on the part of teachers, and proposes that a study of group dynamics can help in the development of these areas of expertise along with acquaintance with the principles of sociometry and behavioral psychology being essential.

In an evaluation of Summerhill, British educational experts reported:

It is true that the children work with a will and an interest that is most refreshing, but their achievements are rather meager. This is not, in the inspectors' opinion, an inevitable result of the system, but rather of the system working badly. Among its causes appears to be the lack of a good teacher of juniors who can supervise and integrate their work and activities. (Neil, 1960, p. 80)

Consequently, the success of the school in accomplishing its objectives depends to a significant degree on the selection, assignment, coordination and in-service training of staff members (Trump and Baynham, 1963, p. 66). Unfortunately, as the attracting of highly qualified teachers is a formidable problem (Trump, 1959, p. 5), the accent must necessarily be on training present staff members through in-service offerings.

The proper in-service training should prepare some of the professional educators as specialists in large-group

instruction, others in small-group teaching, still others in organizing and maintaining resource centers, etc. All will have to be capable in their assignments. The school, by so doing, will recognize individual differences in teachers and utilize them accordingly (Trump, 1959, p. 23).

When the educational institution will have successfully implemented such an in-service training program the fetish of uniformity that seems to be dooming the teaching profession to attaining less than it sets out to accomplish will have been discarded.

14. Discipline.

The essence of education does not consist in adapting a potential citizen to the conditions and interactions of social life, but first in making a man, and by this very fact in preparing a citizen. Not only is it nonsense to oppose education for the person and education for the commonwealth, but the latter supposes the former as a prerequisite, and in return the former is impossible without the latter for one does not make a man except in the bosom of social ties where there is an awakening of civic understanding and civic virtues. (Maritain, 1943, p. 15)

An education which consists only in making the child responsible for acquiring information and only contemplates a blossoming forth of the child's instincts and, in so doing, renders the teacher a tractable attendant, is but a bankruptcy of education and of the responsibility of the adults toward the child. The right of the youngster to be educated requires that the educator have moral authority over him, and this authority is the duty of the adult to the freedom

of the youth.

But freedom is not license; (Fromm, 1960, p. XIII)! This very important principle is too often forgotten by contemporary educators enthralled with the idea of freeing the child from the traditional classroom setting. The respect for the individual must be mutual. Freedom means doing what one likes, so long as one doesn't interfere with the freedom of others. The result is self-discipline (Neil, 1960, p. 114).

Individuality is doubtless real. But it is much less definite than we believe. And the independence of each individual from the others and from the common is an illusion. (Carroll, 1936, p. 226)

Conceptually this granting of freedom means that a teacher does not use force against a child, but the reverse is also true. The child may not intrude upon an adult or a peer just because he is a child, nor may he use pressure in the many ways in which a child can.

What the writer is criticizing here, is that false form of appreciation of the individual person which, while looking at individuality forgets about personality. Such education reduces the progress of man to the mere freeing of the material ego. Such educators mistakenly believe they are providing Man with the freedom of expansion and autonomy to which personality aspires while at the same time deny the value of all discipline and ascetism, as well as the necessity of striving toward self-perfection.

It is this distinction between freedom and license

that many adults in general and educators in particular cannot grasp. In the disciplined school or home the children have no rights. In the spoiled one, they have all the rights. The proper environment is one in which children and adults have equal rights (Neil, 1960, p. 107).

Discipline, dogmatically imposed, and punishment create fear; and fear creates hostility. The extensive disciplining of children is harmful and thwarts sound psychic development (Fromm, 1960, p. 101). A study of the literature on the subject of discipline shows that much has been written about the dangers of harsh, oppressive, unloving discipline; these warnings are valid and should be heeded. However, too often have the consequences of excessive punishment been cited as justification for the elimination of discipline.

There are times when a stiff-necked youngster will clench his fists and dare his parent or teacher to accept his challenge; he is not motivated by frustration or inner hostility as is often supposed. He merely wants to know where the boundaries lie and who's available to enforce them (Dobson, 1970, p. 13). The establishment of logical and justifiable authority is a comfort to the child, though he may not admit it at the time. As a consequence, for example, Davis (1963, p. 20) recommends that students who cannot work under conditions of increased freedom (independent study, or unstructured time) should be removed to strictly supervised and disciplined conventional study rooms until said student

shows more maturity. He further points out (1963, p. 21) that school personnel need to become more sophisticated in selecting students for various types of independent study, recognizing the individual pupil's past records, potential talents and intellectual readiness. Failure to place proper emphasis on any one of these foregoing aspects will limit the success of the program.

However, even those at first incapable of accepting greater self-responsibility, will need, as habits of intellectual inquiry are developed, less faculty supervision (Davis, 1963, p. 3).

J. Lloyd Trump was quite clear when he described his stand on discipline. While advocating that, as the school develops its personalization program, the teacher should spend less time and energy in telling students what they must do and more in raising issues and pointing the direction to possible materials and solutions, he hastened to point out that this did not mean that the teacher should abdicate leadership or that schools should be controlled by the students (1959, p. 19).

Thus, the problem of correct emphasis on discipline is an important one and should be dealt with in depth.

15. Varying period and course lengths.

First, we have assumed that the rate of learning is the same for all students; that students should participate in each course for an equal amount of time everyday of the week. Have we considered basic objectives of each course when we structure courses in this manner? Should a course that has as one of its

basic objectives the development of special skills be allocated the same amount of time as a course that is attempting to develop insights and understandings? Are all courses in the curriculum of equal importance to all children in their general high school education as far as allocation of time is concerned, or could some subjects be taught in a shorter length of time and others given additional time? These are major considerations that have concerned educators for many years, but because of the convenience of the lock-step method of organizing the school day, very little has been done until recently to implement change. (Petrequin, 1968, p. 132)

An important point which should not be forgotten in attempting to pay attention to the varied educational needs of the students is the varying of class lengths.

After an extensive study of the needs of the teacher-learner groups at Brockhurst Junior High School in Anaheim, California, Arnett (1965, p. 5) concluded:

1. All subjects do not take the same total amount of time for mastery.
2. The same amount of time daily devoted to each of the subject areas (i.e., 50 minutes per day) is not necessarily an efficient utilization of time.
3. Being able to have a longer than usual amount of time periodically set aside for the laboratory work and/or independent study is a definite need.
4. Each subject area needs to be able to set up a relatively independent schedule sufficiently flexible to accommodate whatever methods are to be employed.

Added to the above reasons for the varying of class lengths is the empirically-proven fact that variety in length of periods stimulates the student and is considered by them as extremely desirable. (See Appendix "A", Student Questionnaire, Question #'s 7 and 11). If "variety is the spice of life" then variable period and course lengths is a stimulant

within the educational institution which should not be omitted.

16. Public relations.

The public schools have become a target of mounting criticism in recent years. Millions of written and spoken words are brought to citizens through every media of mass communication casting doubt upon and spreading discontent about, the quality of instruction received by children. In fact, this avalanche of criticism is so great that it has taken on the characteristics of a national campaign. (Kindred, 1960, p.4)

Why are our schools, especially those implementing changes meant to better the student's life, criticized to such an extent? There are probably many reasons for such condemnation but a major one seems to be the lack of knowledge parents have of what is going on in the school, why it is happening and how the changes will benefit the pupils. For example, in the Michigan Communications Study (Administrators' Notebook, 1956, pp. 1-2) a seven per cent random sampling of citizens was interviewed in five separate communities. Those interviewed were asked ten simple questions about schools located in their milieu. Out of the replies from a typical one hundred persons, only one could answer all the questions correctly while the average number of correct responses was only approximately five.

Public understanding lies at the heart of public support. The public has to understand why these changes are made. (Trump and Baynham, 1963, p.60)

In general, it appears that malicious rumors occur when something is happening in a community which the residents view as threatening and about which there

is little information. (Arensberg & Niehoff, 1971, p. 58)

Progress in public education depends to a great extent upon the consent of parents and other citizens. While it can be argued that schools have been forced to adjust programs and provide new services to meet the personal and social needs of a growing pupil population, it is equally true that the basic pattern of education has remained fairly constant (Kindred, 1960, p. 6). This pattern is deeply rooted in the past and it has the support of the taxpayers. They have resisted consistently many excellent ideas and proposals for change because these departed from traditional beliefs and opinions.

Anthropologists have long been aware of this problem and have learned how to deal with it (Linton, 1945, p. 144). Most textbooks dealing with change emphasize the importance of a good public relation program and explain the reason for advocating this:

Efforts to induce change are by nature in basic conflict with existing ideas and customs.... By completely discounting the traditional, by defining it as irrational and superstitious the change agent merely creates distrust between himself and the people he is trying to influence, making them less willing to try anything new If the new practice is presented to them along with a demand to immediately abandon the old practice for that life problem, the local people may well refuse to observe enough to find out its advantages. (Arensberg and Niehoff, 1971, p. 131-132).

Thus, no matter however poor the local educational standard may be in the change agent's point of view, it is

nevertheless a successful adaptation to the local environment which has enabled people to get by for decades. Because of the ethnocentric bias built into all cultures, the new generally has no attraction simply because it is new. To overcome this handicap, the establishing of rapport and an acceptable level of interpersonal trust between the change agency and the tax-supporting clientele is a prerequisite to successful efforts at change (Zaltman, Kotler, and Kaufman, 1972, p. 196). Even so radical a changer of the learning environment as Neil cautioned others by pointing out that one cannot advance in practice too much ahead of public opinion (Neil, 1960, p. 215).

Unfortunately, regardless of how important the establishing of a good public relations program is, contemporary school administrators do not know how to conduct such a campaign. Stockton, (1970, p. 59) concluded after terminating his study on several hundred assistant principals:

The data recorded indicates that the assistant principals have great need for study and development of the concept of personal relations.

An extensive study of the Ruffwood Comprehensive School, operating in the town of Kirby in North-east England pointed out that in a society which is moving in the direction of educational change for all, it is the teachers who realize the clash of values in all its fullness. It is the teachers who understand that schools have to effect a successful compromise between the values of the neighborhood

and their educational aims if they are to achieve their intentions and ambitions. The administration, it would seem, is so oblivious of the probable repercussions of the change recommended that it is incapable of dealing with the problem effectively (Mays, Quine and Pickett, 1968, p. 70).

Thus, the change agency must set about telling the school story to the public. The author suggests the following objectives should be met in the public relations program:

1. People should understand the purposes of education in a democracy such as ours.
2. People should be given a deeper and broader understanding of the instructional program.
3. It seems important that explanations be made of the financial cost of the change in question and that justification for any expenditure be given.
4. Citizens should be acquainted with problems facing the school system.
5. Popular confidence in the worth and value of the educational institution should be increased.
6. Greater understanding of the duties and responsibilities of those who direct and carry on the work of the school be secured.
7. Parents should be induced to assume greater responsibility for the quality of education provided by the local district.

8. Finally, one should strive to establish a strong partnership between the schools and the community.

How does one set up such a program? First, it should be remembered that the degree of homophily between change agent and client is extremely important in establishing communication links between these two components of the change process.

Communication is less effective when a low degree of homophily is present, unless the source has a high degree of empathy with the receiver. (Zaltman, Kotler, and Kaufman, 1972, p. 204)

Second, it should be realized that schools are news; in fact, that have become page one news. Newspapers realize this, as is obvious from the increased amount of space given to stories on public education. In the space of two years the San Bernardino Sun increased the total number of column inches in school news from 16,591 to 23,728 while a readership survey of the 64,000 subscribers showed that 30,000 people had an interest in reading about schools. A similar readership survey of the Sunday News Tribune of Duluth, Minnesota, with approximately 70,000 circulation, found that about 25,000 persons read the education page, (Kindred, 1960, p. 23).

Time was when the only school news hitting the newspapers with nods of approval from seasoned editors was on the occasion of a rampant board of education session, a superintendent absconding with the system's funds or teachers wailing for higher pay.

Today some newspapers and school systems in California are learning together that well-written, honest and interpretive news stories on school curriculum and activities and problems of the district

can fall in the "news" story classification instead of "publicity". (Taylor, 1957, p. 9)

Third, for the same reasons as above efforts should be made to secure air time on radio and television programs. The electronic media offers a tremendous advantage - they reach many people who otherwise would not be reached.

Fourth, a continuing program of keeping parents correctly informed while stimulating and utilizing parental interests and talents should be developed. Some of the techniques which can be used toward this end are:

1. School committees made up of the principal, teachers and parents, to study the educational plans of the school.
2. Home visits when possible.
3. Inviting mothers and fathers for informal gatherings during the school day.
4. Telephone calls.
5. Personal letters to parents.
6. Parent newsletters.
7. Report card comments.
8. Parent-teacher conferences.
9. Parent-teacher workshops.
10. Getting mothers and fathers into the school to help the teachers, paraprofessionals, administrators, etc. carry out their duties.

Fundamentals of Tertiary Importance

17. Student participation and orientation.

One couple read some of my books and were conscience-stricken when they thought of the harm they had done in bringing up their children. They summoned the family to a conference and said: "We have brought you up all wrong. From now on, you are free to do what you like." I forget how much they said the breakage bill came to, but I can recall that they had to summon a second conference and rescind the previous motion. (Neil, 1960, p. 109)

The students involved in this change process have often spent years in educational institutions which dominated them to a great degree. As such, it should be noted and realized that letting such a child "loose" in a school allowing unstructured time, handing out independent study activities and giving the student a greater say in the course content, is similar to lifting the cover off a pressure cooker. A quasi-explosive atmosphere is likely to be created, at least, initially. Vandalism, skipping, unruliness are very real dangers, all the more dangerous as the sudden emergence of these problems are liable to convince the community that the school should give up on its program.

To overcome, to as great an extent as possible, this danger the school authorities should seek to involve the students in the planning phase. The pupils should be made thoroughly familiar with the new climate which is to be created and the reasons for the change.

Students, especially low achievers need help in understanding and accepting their responsibilities under a more flexible schedule. (Speckhard, 1966, p. 1)

Finally, special programs, such as visits to feeder schools and more numerous teacher-counsellor unit meetings

should be held to help the youngsters acclimatize to the new environment as quickly as possible.

Self-actualization is necessary for maximum performance. This results when the individual possesses a sense of belonging. One method of encouraging and developing this quality is by establishing procedures that encourage participation and involvement. This means that one should be involved in the making of decisions that affect them. (Stockton, 1970, p. 35)

Following this same line of reasoning the administrative and teaching staffs at Marshall High School permitted students to make certain decisions, but made sure that they followed through so as to experience the natural consequences of their decisions. This, they felt, gave students a feeling of real involvement and has been, in part, responsible for the development of a higher degree of accountability, (Petrequin, 1968, p. 38).

The results of such a practice are listed as:

1. Students have developed a sense of responsibility for their own learning. They are more able to make plans and evaluate outcomes.
2. Students have learned to think independently of the teachers. More and more, they have come to accept the teacher in her varied roles and less seek to parrot what teachers expect.
3. Students have become more confident in the validity of their own ideas and in themselves as individuals. (Petrequin, 1968, pp. 47 & 48)

18. Efficient implementation plan

The school described here cannot be achieved immediately in most situations. But it will never be attained unless vigorous action is taken.

Undertake as many projects as possible. Because the steps are related, the more that are

taken the more successful the results are likely to be. (Trump, 1959, p. 42)

There are two basic attacks one can use to change the school as suggested in this paper: 1.) the "Great leap forward", and 2.) the slower "step-by-step" method.

For reasons that are clearly given in the above quotation, and from the experiences encountered, the writer favors the former. One should not, for example, institute large-group instruction without also implementing small-group meetings. Independent study or unstructured time without the existence of resource centers seems naive at best.

Thus, the author would suggest that the change agent incorporate all the fundamentals of primary importance at the inception of the program along with the implementation of as many secondary and tertiary fundamentals as possible.

Once a start is made and variations and additions become apparent, staff and students will see opportunities for experimentation. Ingenuity will provide solutions to various unforeseen problems. However, all can be confident that evaluation will, in most cases, show students achieving equal and in many cases better results (Trump, 1959, p. 44, Congreve, 1972, p. 36).

19. Evaluation

It is entirely possible that most public school evaluations are meaningless because they reflect the confusion of administrators over educational programs that are equally meaningless. It is also possible that most evaluators don't know their business. No doubt there is a relationship between the weakness of educational programs, eval-

uation methodology and the training institutions that spawn both. (Provers, 1971, p. 7)

To many school administrators the word "evaluation" conjurs up some unpleasant experiences: a report that took too long to prepare and overlooked the obvious while concentrating on the trite; a university consultant who proved unintelligible and eventually hostile or an investigator that got in people's way and never seemed able to draw a definite conclusion.

However unpleasant the evaluation of one's institution may be, the change agent should nevertheless proceed to validate his educational program in terms of the objectives set out (philosophy). Comparison of the results of one program against another even if the goals are quite similar is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, under the existing limitations of measuring instruments, considering the number of variables which affect the results (Petrequin, 1968, p. 167).

Thus, the type of evaluation we are dealing with here is one based on the principle that a school should be evaluated in terms of what it is striving to accomplish (its philosophy and objectives) and according to the extent to which it is meeting the needs of the students enrolled and the community it serves. This method of evaluation is entirely professional and has been accepted by the National Study of Secondary School Evaluation (1969, p. 4).

The evaluating instrument (see appendix "A" for an

example) should seek to ascertain the feelings members of the various components of the community have concerning the changes that have taken place. In this way the change agent will have the type of feedback needed to ameliorate irritating new ideas and fend off criticism unjustly thrown his way.

As will be pointed out later, attitudinal evaluation should not be the only type exercised. One could also seek to ascertain whether or not there has been improvement in areas such as attendance, vandalism, academic growth, etc.

From his experiences, the author would suggest that such evaluation take place midway through the second year of implementation and every second or third year thereafter.

SummaryThe Fundamentals

1. Small group instruction.
2. Large group instruction.
3. Independent study.
4. Unstructured time.
5. Resource centers. Primary importance
6. Individualized learning.
7. Teacher-counsellor units.
8. Effective method of building the master schedule.
9. Interdisciplinary approach.
10. Team teaching.
11. Full teacher participation.
12. Reduction of formal class time. Secondary importance
13. In-service training of staff.
14. Discipline!
15. Varying period and course lengths.
16. Public Relations Program.
17. Student participation and orientation.
18. Efficient implementation plan. Tertiary importance
19. Evaluation.

Please see Appendix C for cross-reference tables relating the fundamentals to the assumptions of previous chapter.

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CHAPTER VI

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The specific characteristics of the school provide an important element in the operationalizing of various philosophies or assumptions. Hoy's research project begins with a statement of three hypotheses (1971, pp. 11-12) which are later validated: the more open the organizational climate the less custodial the general orientation of the school; the more custodial, the greater the total alienation of students; and lastly, the more open the climate, the less the total alienation of students will be. Hoy thus equates humane or personalized atmosphere (accepting, trustful, responsible, confident in self-discipline) with an open organizational setting, and equates a custodial environment with a closed climate and alienated students. As we are dealing here with the attempting to personalize (and therefore reduce alienation in) the school setting, it becomes evident that a conceptual framework is needed which will allow the institution, as a whole, to develop an open or flexible-type ambience in order to alleviate the dangers of isolationism while permitting teachers and students the greatest degree of freedom to experiment for the purpose of ameliorating the learning environment.

The Flexible-Modular Schedule

Several project experiences showed that flexible scheduling and schedule modification are indispen-

sible factors in a school program whose goal it is to develop the talents of individual students by using the best skills of individual teachers. (Trump and Baynham, 1961, p. 90)

The flexible modular schedule seems to be the best pedagogical tool presently available to help the principal/change agent accomplish his goals of personalizing the pedagogical environment. It affords the administrative and teaching staffs the degree of freedom needed to implement various innovations designed to alleviate the alienation of students. It also allows for increased pupil-teacher communications on all levels.

Beggs (1964, pp. 22-24) cites seven basic points making up the learning theory underlying modular scheduling:

- Belief one: Students learn when they see purpose to learning. The role of the teacher is to develop understandings of purpose.
- Belief two: Learning is an active process. Students may hear ideas, be exposed to facts, or see skills demonstrated; but before there is understanding, acquisition of knowledge, or development of abilities, the students must use the facts, the ideas or skills. Rather than drill, youngsters must ponder, rearrange and use information and skills before possession becomes reality.
- Belief three: Change in behavior is the central goal of instruction. If students do not grow, adapt, create and change in their behavior as a result of self-realization and understanding, then instruction is ineffectual.
- Belief four: Students learn at different rates and on various levels of comprehension in different content areas. The school's organization for instruction must compensate for the differences among and in pupils.
- Belief five: Students learn best as a result of the appeal to the senses: seeing, hearing, touching and smelling. Effective in-

struction employs as many of the senses as possible on each idea presented.

Belief six: The environment for learning, psychological and physical, are contributing to successful outcomes.

Belief seven: Learning is affected by the student's concept of himself and his attitude toward others. Care must be taken to insulate adolescents against the adverse effects of unflattering comparison with others.

Complementing Beggs, Maxey (1968, p. 2) lists the following behavioral objectives that the flexible schedule is designed to meet: 1.) to improve instruction, 2.) to use teaching talent more effectively, 3.) to provide students with an opportunity to study independently, 4.) to provide a practical means of individualizing instruction, 5.) to conserve teacher time, 6.) to provide better sized learning groups and 7.) to provide better use of facilities.

Similarly, Polos (1969, p. 4), who administered one of the original pilot studies on modular scheduling, sees the primary purpose of this tool as one which will provide a large and diverse curriculum, including large group instruction, small group instruction, tutorials, better use of teachers' time and independent study time for students.

Finally, Trump and Miller (1968, p. 9) view the modular schedule and its associated components (fundamentals) as presenting a design for the improvement of instruction through improved utilization of the teaching staff and its resources plus the addition of a means to challenge students to increase the use of their own skills.

It therefore seems to be the opinion of many educators that if one is to implement all or most of previously-enumerated fundamentals of a true personalized learning environment, one needs a conceptual framework which allows for great freedom for the diverse activities needed to bring the ideals to fruition. The flexible modular schedule provides such leeway and is thus suggested by the writer as the organizational framework which should embody the institution.

The flexible modular schedule has been attempted in many schools during the past decade with varying degrees of success. However, the author is not aware of any failures among institutions having planned strenuously for the advent of this sophisticated tool. Most failures, as indicated by a personal survey conducted by this writer, seem to have resulted because of the implementation of the flexible schedule while activating few or none of the fundamentals.

The early results of those first schools adopting the flexible modular schedule were very good:

Schools that have begun to implement the ideas set forth in the new design and that are using computers to generate their schedules have also begun to adopt a variety of educational practices which they had not previously considered. New curricular alternatives have become possible, causing a definite break with traditional organization and teaching. One need only walk into one of those schools to observe that something different is happening. Here are the fruits of technology being harvested. The general academic pace has been quickened. Teachers have more time for teaching. Pupils have more time for learning. In each of the schools 30% of their students' time has been programmed for independent study. Libraries are full of students. Circulation of books, especially non-fiction, is sharply up.

Discipline problems are down. Class size varies from 5 to 350. Period length varies from fifteen to 180 minutes. The individualization of instruction is different in these schools. Achievement rather than time spent in a class becomes the criterion for successful completion of a course in these schools. (Bush and Allen, 1964, pp. 186-187)

Manlove and Beggs, (1965, p. 55) also arrived at the same conclusions and maintained that as a result of the implementation of the flexible modular schedule the enthusiasm of student acceptance, the lack of boredom, the emphasis on action, and the observed facts that the learner now read, discussed, wrote, initiated and was highly involved in the learning process was at a degree not customarily found in the traditional class organization.

As the first attempts at modularizing the master schedule were only made at the beginning of the last decade, such laudatory remarks as the above may be considered to be presumptuous. However, later evidence seems to also indicate an amelioration in the learning environment. Swenson and Keys (1966, p. 63) concluded, after studying the results of the implementation of the flexible modular schedule at the Brockhurst Junior High School in Anaheim, California, that attendance and self-discipline improved in direct relationship with the amount of increased freedom given to pupils along with drastically decreasing "dropouts". Congreve and Rinehart (1972, p. 73) report that in the Hood River Valley High School an amelioration in student-teacher relationships, more exciting offerings and a great increase in opportunities for students to explore with-

out serious danger to normal progress are now in evidence after the introduction of a modularized schedule. Mr. Stanley Sondeno, Vice Principal of Ceres High School, Ceres, California, comments in personal correspondence with the author (fall, 1971) that after five years on the modular schedule, although many problems still exist, the staff would not go back to a traditional schedule.

Speckhard, in a study planned to aid school administrators, listed among his major conclusions (1966, p. 6):

1. Modular scheduling can be adopted without adversely affecting the attitudes of students and teachers.
2. Modular scheduling practices contribute to improved student ability in critical thinking.
3. Modular scheduling leads to at least equal academic achievement as found in much more traditionally-scheduled schools, and to greater achievement in some areas.
4. Modular scheduling leads to more individualization of instruction than does a traditional schedule.

Two years later in a follow-up study the same author discovered that even low-ability students reported their problems to be of a lesser degree than at the time of the earlier assessment (Speckhard, 1968, p. 33).

Cawelti (1968, pp. 60-63), in a study conducted on twenty-two high schools concluded:

Teachers in experimental schools felt more involved in decision-making and more listened-to by administrators than did those in control schools.

Also 47% of the controlled students described their schools as highly regimented whereas only 7.4% of the experimental students reported this feeling.

Thus, the flexible modular schedule, if implemented properly, can meet the needs of the institution intent on personalizing its learning environment to a great degree, probably to a greater extent than any other contemporary conceptual framework.

The Complexity of the Flexible Modular Schedule

Because of the developmental nature of the implementation of a flexible modular schedule it is not possible to anticipate all problems to be encountered. (Gould, Shutes and Hertsche, 1965, p. 44)

Any school which is genuinely committed to the concept of personalization and willing to live, if necessary, with a certain amount of inconvenience, can install a flexible schedule that is educationally defensible. The overall educational advantages seem to outweigh the disadvantages, and if a school can weather the initial confusion, most of those advantages begin to be realized during the first year (Gould, Shutes and Hertsche, 1965, p. 57).

The flexible modular schedule with its many fundamentals will demand much sophistication on the part of the staff, participation on the part of many people and will be directly responsible for dramatic changes in the school environment. As such the growing pains which will initially accompany the change will seem overpowering and, if the educators involved have not mentally prepared themselves enough, will appear insurmountable.

However, administrators/change agents may take courage

from studies such as Speckhard's when he found very few problems were of a greater degree in 1968 than in the original study three years previously, and a number of problems were reported to be of a lesser degree.

The Flexible Modular Schedule is not a Panacea

The first misconception (of education) is a lack or disregard of ends. If means are liked and cultivated for the sake of their own perfection, and not as means alone, to that very extent they cease to lead to the end, and art loses its practicality; its vital efficiency is replaced by a process of infinite multiplication, each means developing and spreading for its own sake. This supremacy of means over end and the consequent collapse of all sure purpose and real efficiency seem to be the main reproach to contemporary education. (Maritain, 1943, p. 3)

It is probably a very common human characteristic to search for perfect solutions to life's dilemmas. Similarly, educators have searched for the "El Dorado" of teaching and organizational practices which would solve the myriad of problems confronting our schools today. The flexible modular schedule is not this panacea. It is simply a means to an end, not an end by itself. It facilitates the improvisation of teaching techniques as deemed fit. It is not the perfect solution.

About Modular Scheduling and what it is not:

1. It permits substantial timetable changes so that teachers can change themselves; it is not a guarantee that teachers will change.
2. It is not an automatic resolution of all thorny subjects.
3. It is not a pre-wrapped educational package. The shape of the package should be determined by principal and staff decisions. (Cavanagh, Gray, 1970, p. 1)

Certainly modular programming cannot be considered a

panacea for the education of all students, but in the minds of many educators it has provided a vehicle to satisfy more clearly the needs of each individual in their schools (Petrequin, 1968, p. 14).

At its worst, modular scheduling can be an organizational exercise that has little or no effect on classroom practices of teachers. At its best, if teachers are involved in the planning and subject departments develop new objectives and courses and instructional modes, the school program can be greatly improved. (Cavanagh, 1970, p. 1)

In summation; the flexible modular schedule will help us only as much as we are willing to help ourselves.

The Cost

It is axiomatic that the design of a school building usually reflects the school's educational plan. It is also axiomatic that the building design must support the educational plan. (Trump & Baynham, 1963, p. 35)

Just as the implementation of the flexible modular schedule is extremely complex and sophisticated, the building housing an educational program such as being described in this paper must also be a sophisticated entity. Independent study, resource centers and the like demand special-type rooms and facilities. However, it would be folly and erroneous to believe that great sums of money need necessarily be spent to accommodate such ambitions. Should the community be willing and able to spend several million dollars to build new facilities or be in the fortunate position of already possessing them, a great hurdle would have been surmounted. For this reason innovative educational programs have become quasi-synonymous

with suburban schools. But a little ingenuity and imagination of the change agency will go a long way toward overcoming any financial disadvantages a particular community might be operating under.

For example, a regular classroom meant to house thirty to thirty-five students can relatively easily have installed a wooden or cloth partition down the middle of the room and thus have two rooms created for the purpose of small-group instruction. If there is a suitable amount of reduction of formal class-time enough space will be provided for at least a minimal number of resource centers. Large-group instruction, in turn, will liberate some classrooms for small group instruction. The reduction of formal class-time will liberate teachers and students for teacher-counsellor unit meetings. By the same token most other fundamentals of the proposed program can be initiated through the use of existing facilities to the optimal degree.

When Marymount High School (to be described later) decided to adopt the modular-flexible schedule, the change agents were faced with a building which had been built with a very traditional "tracking" system in mind. Very few of the amenities necessary for the successful conversion to a personalized pedagogical learning ambience were to be found. However, the change was initiated and, as will be shown in Chapter 9, with time the change became a successful one. No extra money was spent on the building itself, a very slight amount on teacher

in-service training and a similar amount on obtaining the services of a computer-generated master schedule. By the same token, the Gilbert Stuart Middle School in Providence, Rhode Island initiated a quite sophisticated individualized learning program within the framework of a flexible schedule while having the use of a very old plant, very few facilities conducive to the changes being anticipated and seemingly little money to carry out any major renovations.

Admittedly, some schools have reported an increase in cost once the flexible modular schedule was adopted. For example, it cost the Brockhurst Junior High School approximately \$20,000.00 more per year (Swensen & Keys, 1966, p. 14) to operate on a flexible schedule than on a traditional one. However, considering there are 1,200 students in this institution, the per pupil cost has increased by only \$16.66 or about 1.5%, taking the total cost per pupil per year as being about \$1,100.00.

Thus, what seems more important to the successful conversion to the flexible modular schedule than money is the imagination, ingenuity and determination of the professional staff involved in the change situation.

WHERE THERE'S A WILL, THERE'S A WAY!

Conclusion

If the change agent is seeking to personalize the educational atmosphere in his institution he will aim at the eventual situation where the components of the school in question will be able to "do their own thing". As such he should at-

tempt to apply basic principles within the framework of flexibility and so allow indigenous patterns to emerge. The flexible modular scheduling system seems to be the contemporary educational tool most conducive to the accomplishment of this goal and attitude.

The change agent should be aware that the flexible modular schedule is a very sophisticated tool and consequently will bring growing pains with its inception. However, it should be a comforting thought that the problems created by the adoption of the flexible modular schedule are different from, but not necessarily greater than, problems found in more traditional schools (Speckhard, 1966, p. 1).

Note Bene

While reading this paper the writer may have unintentionally given the impression that the flexible modular schedule is a tool to be used only at the high school level. Such is not the case as was illustrated by Reveille, Principal of the first elementary school on the North American Continent to adopt the concept of the flexible schedule, when he stated (1973, p. 2):

Flexible scheduling, which offers a new means of organizing curricular, scheduling, materials, facilities, time, methods and personnel, is one extremely promising means by which schools can begin to develop desirable and profitable learning environments.

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CHAPTER VI

THE CHANGE STRATEGY1. Introduction.

Cultural values tend to be conservative, probably because their validity is very difficult to prove or disprove. (Arensberg & Niehoff, 1971, p. 58)

Regardless of the degree of preparedness the change agent brings to the actual change process, growing pains along with unforeseen problems will hinder the smooth operation of the institution initially. As no two school districts have the same problems, types of individuals, political - economical ills, etc., it is impossible to suggest a precise change strategy which will be accommodating to every educational institution. However, there are several aspects of such a plan of action which the implementer should be aware of. Each of these aspects, if known and understood, can have a profound influence on the strategy adopted.

Admittedly, the academic study of the diffusion of innovations is not enough to provide tomorrow's change agent with all necessary knowledge. But, when placed in the context of educational change (Miles, 1964; Lin, 1966, 1968; and McClelland, 1968) the real potential of such a study becomes apparent. For if we know how and why an innovation spreads from its introduction to its adoption or rejection, it becomes possible to understand which decisions and strategies one should employ to best assure success.

2. The setting. As was pointed out in the section

dealing with the personality of the change agent, the informal setting is more conducive to increasing the receptivity of the subordinates toward the suggested change, than is the formal one. A very good reason for this is that it has been shown empirically that the impact of a persuasive appeal is enhanced by requiring active rather than passive participation by the listener (Watts, 1967; Elms, 1966; Janis and Mann, 1965; Hereford, 1963; Lewin, 1967; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939; Zimbardo, 1965). Active participation is almost impossible to achieve in the formal environment. These findings are further corroborated by the hypothesis: "Information by itself almost never changes attitudes." This was demonstrated by Haskins (1966) and Klapper (1960), although the latter did concede that one-directional types of communication (television, newspapers, radio and speakers) do strengthen viewpoints the audience already holds.

Unfortunately, many change agents are leery of using anything less than the formal environment in order to conduct their information-giving or in-service training programs because of the many distractions which might occur during any of the sessions. Such anxieties, however, might be unfounded. Festinger and Macoby (1964) conducted a study on two groups of fraternity men, where they were both exposed to the same anti-fraternity speech. It was found that the distracted group was more persuaded. Subsequent studies (Janis, Kaye and Kirschner, 1965; Zimbardo, Ebbenson and Fraser, 1968;

Dobbs and Janis, 1965) have used distractions which dealt with the sense of smell (food), taste (food and drink), sight (color slides) and hearing (music and irrelevant taped speech).

The conclusion:

Generally, persuasive appeals become more powerful when presented in conjunction with moderately distracting stimuli which positively reinforce the individual. (Karlins and Abelson, 1970, p. 6)

Although there are, at present, no hard and fast rules vis a vis the degree of distraction the client should be submitted to insure maximum effectiveness, Haaland and Venkatesan (1965) concluded that too distracting a stimulus might completely divert the subject from the message. This point of view was also supported by McGuire (1966). One can nevertheless conclude that pleasant forms of distractions can often increase the effectiveness of the persuasive appeal.

Thus, flexibility and informality in the setting where the influential or persuasive appeals will be conducted appear to be important characteristics. These help to produce a positive response and are valuable even when there might be a homophily or empathy barrier separating the change agent from the adopters (Arensberg and Niehoff, 1971, p. 168).

3. The professional staff. Though it seems that the amount of time required for an innovation to be adopted has been shortened considerably (Carlson, 1965) from the fifty year lag cited in the Mort Studies (1964), there seems to be little evidence that this speeding-up is the result of any systematic, comprehensive examination of the human element

directly involved in the diffusion of innovations (Crandall, 1971, p. 1). Rather, the phenomenon is usually attributed to the crisis engendered by the arrival of Sputnik and the resultant deployment of talent and money coupled with a much improved communications process.

In an effort to help the principal/change agent bridge this gap, the author will present seemingly important aspects of two inescapable characteristics of the professional staff he (the change agent) will have to deal with.

a.) Age. Age of staff is a factor which may be uncontrollable due to tenure regulations. Thus, because of its relative invulnerability to manipulation, age of the staff should be assessed for its importance in the change process.

In conversing with many educators from several institutions the author has concluded that many believe the general age of the staff is an important element to consider before attempting change. The older the teacher the less inclined to any change he is thought to be. However, several studies have concluded otherwise: Lin (1968), in fact, found that teachers in one of his innovative schools were older than the average, Chesler (1966) found no difference in age between groups accepting or rejecting a particular innovation, while Rogers (1962) has mixed findings and concludes that the relationship of this factor to innovativeness varies from one situation to another. In a study of six innovative schools

Crandall (1971) found no difference in age other than sampling error as far as his innovation, team-teaching, was concerned.

Thus, the change agent considering altering the environment in his school to that dealt with in his paper need not be upset if his staff is on the older side. In fact, the author found that the older teachers tended to be more understanding of youngsters and less inclined to an authoritarian-type of school setting for them (see Appendix "A", Teacher Questionnaire, Nos. 5, 8 and 11). As these are two very important points of view to examine if one wishes to personalize the school, one's fears of the "oldness" of the staff can thus be further assuaged.

b.) Sex. There is an intriguing paradox in the literature comparing males and females in cooperation-conflict situations. On the one hand females are portrayed as more benign (Bond and Vanacke, 1961; Uesugi and Vinacke, 1963; Vinacke, 1959). Female strategy is described as accommodative, oriented toward equity and fairness and avoidant of ruthless competition. On the other hand masculine strategy is seen as exploitive, calculated to achieve victory over another and distinctly oriented toward maximizing self-interest. However, other studies have found women to be less cooperative than men. Thus, Bixentine and O'Reilly observed that: "There is now a strong suggestion that women have a greater tendency to respond suspiciously, resentfully, conservatively and thus, com-

petitively more than do men" (1966, p. 263).

Such apparent incongruities present problems in our attempt to suggest certain personality constellations which enhance the spirit of cooperativeness. However, a further perusal of the literature on the comparison of females and males vis a vis "cooperation" reveals that in most cases differences are, in fact, found. Such a review has led the author to the following summary of different tendencies between the sexes:

1.) Women are generally less cooperative in situations where they are pitted against another, where there is some personal challenge involved, where strategic coping is deemed necessary. In such an environment they seem to become involved in mutually punishing conflict deadlocks and are less repentent for their disruptive behavior (Bixentine and O'Reilly, 1966; Lumsden, 1967; Oskamp and Perlman, 1966; Rapoport and Chamamah, 1965; Sermat, 1967; Steel and Tedeschi, 1967).

2.) When placed in a vulnerable position (or seemingly vulnerable), women react with greater retaliation and apparent vindictiveness than do men (Bixentine, Chambers and Wilson, 1964; Bixentine and O'Reilly, 1966; Rapoport and Chamamah, 1965).

3.) Women tend to be more cooperative if involved in a cooperative situation from the beginning, but once crossed, they are less responsive to cooperative gestures (Bixentine

and Wilson, 1963; Komonta, 1965; Rapoport and Chammah, 1965).

4.) Females have difficulty in comprehending strategic situations, often failing to recognize the "optimal" or "rational" strategy. They cannot, for example, understand that threats can be used as signals for establishing and coordinating cooperation (Bixentine and O'Reilly, 1966; Kanouse and Wrest, 1967; Shomer, Davis and Kelley, 1966).

The results found in the studies on sex differences in persuasibility thus indicate that it is necessary to consider separately the male and female subsamples when studying the correlations between personality and persuasibility (Janis and Hovland, 1959, p. 59). The implications here are that the staff with a relatively large female component must be approached more gingerly and with clearer explanations of intent than the predominantly male faculty. However, as cooperation will be such an important element in the personalized pedagogical environment, a majority of females in the teaching component of the school would seem to be desirable.

4. The hierarchy of human needs.

Projects are frequently handled by technicians who tend to emphasize the technical aspect of their jobs over the human factor. Too often this has resulted in installations of great efficiency which have never been fully accepted or understood by the expected users. (Arensberg and Niehoff, 1971, p. 161)

As we are dealing with an attempt at making our schools more humane places to operate in, one must first probe the humanness of these institutions. A search into what we have been doing as opposed to what we should be exercising will il-

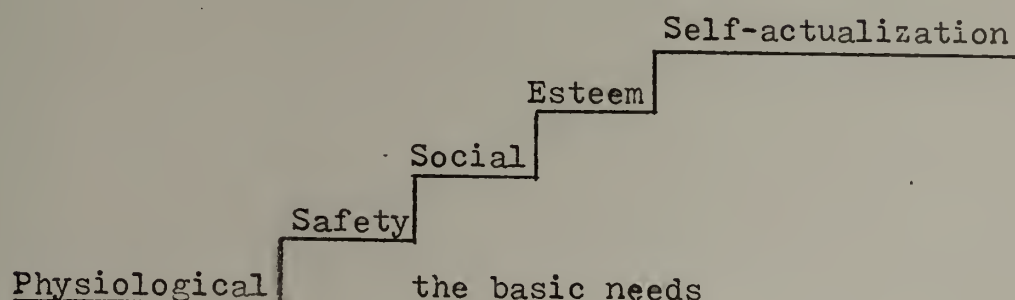
illustrate where our major problem lies in the developing of responsibility and initiative in our teachers and students.

No change agent, desirous of altering the atmosphere in a school from that of semi-regimentation to that of "trust", can hope to be successful if the teaching staff is not treated "properly". In the conservative institution the teacher has a definite place to be in at a certain time and a specific set of materials to use in disseminating a legislated amount of knowledge to his proteges. In the flexibly scheduled school, this same teacher is expected to act in a manner best suited to the emotional, sociological and academic needs of the students. This requires that the administrator loosen the reins of supervision of his subordinates to allow them to carry out their duties in a more personalized manner.

As the teaching staff is one of the most important components in the successful culmination of this change process, the administrator should attempt, first, to understand why the teacher is not as imaginative and energetic as he could be. Finding the answer, one can then see what could be done to ameliorate the situation.

In order to see more clearly why individuals behave the way they do, it must be comprehended which needs are most commonly important to people (Maslow, 1959, p. VIII). An interesting framework that helps explain the strength of certain needs was developed by Abraham Maslow. According to this theoretician there seems to be a hierarchy of needs required

by humans in order to function creatively. As the more primitive needs are satisfied, then, and only then, can one afford to ponder the feasibility of operating on a higher intellectual sphere (Margeneau, 1959, p. 38). Below is a diagram illustrating this hierarchy:



Blanchard and Hersey (1972, p. 23) define the above needs as follows:

The basic human needs are those necessary to sustain life itself - food, clothing and shelter. Until these are satisfied to a degree needed for the operation of the body, the majority of a person's activity will probably be at this level, and the other levels will provide him with little motivation.

Once the physiological needs become gratified the safety needs become predominant. In other words there is a need for self-preservation.

Once these two are satisfied fairly well the social needs will emerge. Since man is a social being, he has a need to belong and to be accepted by various groups. When social needs become dominant a person will strive for meaningful relations with others.

After an individual begins to satisfy his need to belong, he generally wants to be more than just a member of his group. He then feels the need for esteem - both self-esteem and recognition from others.

Once the esteem needs begin to be adequately satisfied, the self-actualization needs become more prepotent. This is the need to maximize one's potential, whatever it may be.

Motivation thus becomes the key in propelling human beings toward the higher echelons of the needs ladder. One cur-

sory look at our teacher contracts shows that we have been using the wrong type of motivator for the past several decades. The contractual agreements, in fact, really only deal with the attempted satisfying of man's basic needs. Wages, working conditions, job security and various policies have been motivating forces employed in our attempt at making teachers happier in their work. The results have been very disappointing, for the teachers have not indicated satisfaction with their chosen profession. For example, Montreal teachers have a salary ceiling of approximately \$19,000.00 per annum. Depending on qualifications and seniority an individual's remuneration might be significantly lower, but the point remains, he has an attractive plateau to aim at. Coupled with the aforementioned are working conditions second to very few: 180 school days plus 20 pedagogical days when pupils are not to be found in the building. This results in a two-month summer vacation, two and a half weeks off at Christmas, all the statutory holidays and several term "breaks". As most teachers are free to go home at three in the afternoon and as early dismissal is usually requested and granted for departmental and/or staff meetings, the teacher is amazingly well treated. If we accept a 260-day workyear for the blue or white collar worker and a seven and one-half hour workday for these people, we see that most workers in our society put in 1,950 hours of labor per year. As most teachers begin at 8:30 in the morning and are finished by 3:00 P.M. we can re-

liably conclude that they spend approximately six hours a day at their work if a one hour lunch period and two fifteen minute recesses are honored. Thus, not taking into consideration that many non-teaching work periods are actually wasted, today's secondary school pedagogue enjoys a workyear of 1,200 hours, some 38% less than their counterparts in other fields. Add to these two advantages that of extremely secure employment once tenure has been reached and one may experience consternation when trying to determine the cause for the discontent.

The teacher has a very peculiar job. It is easy in some ways, and it is difficult in others. The easiest part about it is the spacious routine. There are not many teachers who, like business-men and professional people, are on duty forty-eight or fifty weeks a year every year, and there are still fewer who teach from nine to five every day, five or six days a week. Most schools and colleges run for only nine months in the year altogether, and there is seldom any necessity for a teacher to be on call every hour of the working day. (Hight, 1950, p. 8)

Our contractual agreements seem to be placing the professional staff on a higher level of importance than the students. Any educational system which considers the teacher as the principal agent in education is really perverting the very nature of the educational task (Maritain, 1943, p. 32). If they are being so well cared for, why then, are teachers throughout this continent so dissatisfied?

As the author has studied the theory of the hierarchy of human needs, he concluded that the problem probably centers around our failure to meet those higher intellectual

needs teachers, as normal human beings, must satisfy. These needs (esteem and self-actualization) are abstract to the point where they cannot be legislated. How does a union leader hold out for 15% more opportunity of self-actualizing?

Empirical studies have shown that the social environment of the infant, the child, the adolescent and the adult shapes and influences behavior (Fredenburgh, 1971, p.15). It is the modifying forces of the environment which has caused so many changes in human behavior over the centuries of man's history. Therefore, it becomes our responsibility, as educational administrators, to provide the environment where the previously-mentioned needs have a greater probability of meeting with success.

The change agent, however, should realize that teachers are accustomed to thinking of working load in terms of the total number of students for whom they are responsible though this is thought of in the context of a fixed number of class periods. Getting general acceptance of the wide variation in numbers of students and time modules for which different teachers are to be assigned will require a good deal of discussion and some kind of agreed-on basis to establish load equivalence (Gould, Shutes and Hertsche, 1965, p. 46).

THE MOTIVATORS

1.) More opportunity for self-achievement. The flexible modular schedule gives the opportunity needed for more responsible activity. Conceptualizing the curriculum as a

function of space and time instead of just the latter, should help to open the door to new imaginative course structures, which, in turn, should serve to entice the teacher-learner groups to more stimulating learning experiences.

2.) More responsibility. A major impediment to more initiative being demonstrated lies in our dictatorial approach to administering (managing?) our schools. Up to very recently, orders for changing any given situation had to be awaited from "above". Fortunately, a more relaxed and democratic approach to decision-making has evolved in some areas. Nevertheless, because of the impact of tradition, true responsibility for one's actions has not really surfaced yet in the great majority of our institutions. In the creating of a much more dynamic school environment, the administrator has assigned more responsibility to his teachers. In doing so, he has added a new invigorating dimension to the teacher's activities. Sensing the autonomy to reach decisions on his own, the high school teacher will unlock the door to his imagination and thus help create the desired environment.

3.) Recognition.

We nourish the bodies of our children and friends and employees, but how seldom do we nourish their self-esteem. We provide them with roast beef and potatoes to build energy, but we neglect to give them kind words of appreciation that would sing in their memories for years like the music of the morning stars. (Carnegie, 1936, p. 36)

The successful change agent should realize that there is one longing and deep desire in all of us, almost as impor-

tant as food and sleep, but which is seldom gratified. Freud called it: "The desire to be great" while Dewey termed it: "The desire to be important". This "desire" is the urge to be or feel recognized (Carnegie, 1936, p. 30). Lincoln once began a letter by writing: "Everybody likes a compliment" and William James said: "The deepest principle in human nature is the craving to be appreciated " (Carnegie, 1936, p. 36). It is the desire which makes us wear the latest fashions, drive the latest model car, and talk about our brilliant exploits. The showing of sincere appreciation will thus help the teacher elevate his activity beyond the level of the basic needs and onto that of obtaining "esteem".

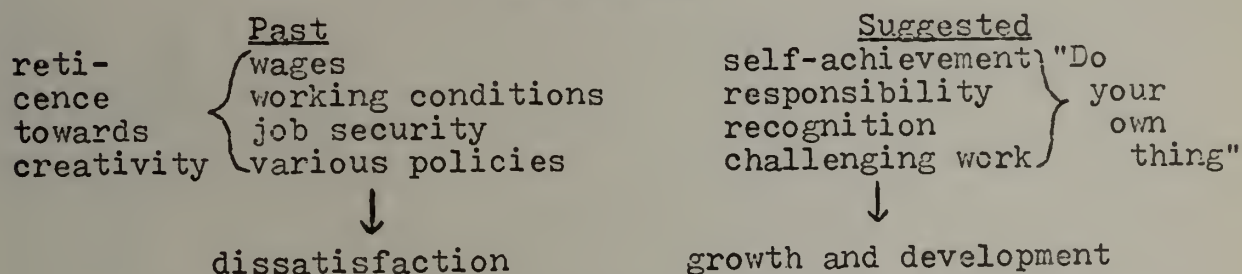
This search for recognition on the part of teachers is partially satisfied by the laudatory remarks of peers, students and the latter's parents. But the yearning for full recognition is never adequately satisfied until the principal (assuming the change agent is in this position) shows a pleased reaction to what has been accomplished. With time, as the educator becomes more mature in his work, he will not seek praise. However, at least initially, every attempt should be made by the administrator to show recognition of and pleasure with those acts demonstrating originality on the part of any of his teachers.

4.) Challenging work. Having released the teacher from his rigors of meeting definite restricting demands, and presenting only a general framework of accomplishment, the

administrator will have created a situation unsettling to some but attractive to many. There is little doubt that the challenge of taking an active, spontaneous role in the developing of a pleasant learning environment will be looked upon as a chore to those few incapable of individuality. However, to most, it will be interpreted as a wonderful opportunity to practice one's profession to the fullest extent.

The use of these four motivators will help produce the growth and development on the part of the teaching staff so necessary to the success of the program in question. The establishing of an atmosphere allowing and inviting opportunities for self-achievement, self-responsibility, and giving recognition and challenging work will propel the teacher out of the rut of worrying about his basic needs and into the invigorating climate of satisfying his social, esteem and self-actualizing needs.

Motivators



An example of the conceptualizing of the above recommendations can, today, be found in a medium-sized business establishment in Oakland, California. For the past five years owner Arthur Friedman has believed in the maturity of his employees and therefore has let them set their own salaries, days

off, holidays, vacations and just about everything else. Mr. Friedman maintains he allows his twelve employees to choose the customers they wait on, borrow company trucks and take any kind of leave they think they ought to have and asserts he has never been "ripped off". However, he qualifies his exuberance by pointing out that when he brought up the do-it-yourself system his workers initially reacted immaturely. However, within a month they began cooperating with each other and the system. What does the union think of his manner of operating?

They just shake their heads. They'd go out of business if everybody operated my way. (The Montreal Star, March 8, 1974, p. 4)

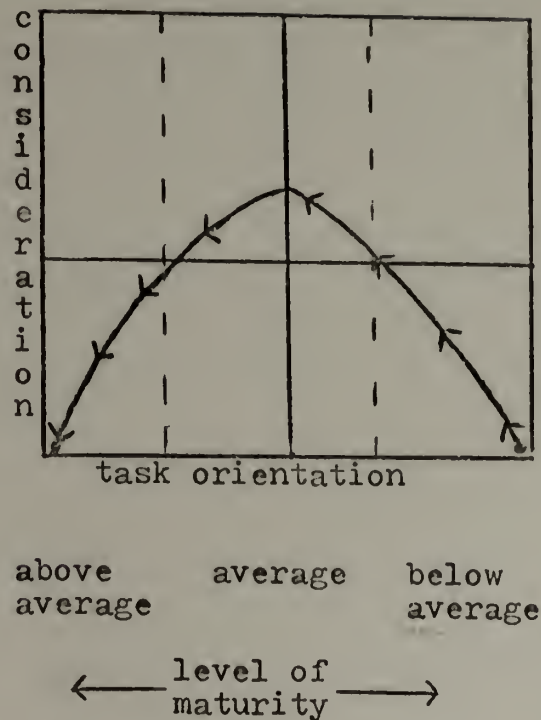
Several years ago, while visiting a modular-scheduled school in Toronto with a group of highly-placed educational administrators, a certain party, upon noticing teachers and students going about their activities in a seemingly very mature manner, commented: "Our teachers certainly are not ready for this type of education!" Because of the nature of our traditional philosophy of education (dealing mainly with the cognitive domain) there are few, if any, teaching groups emotionally equipped for this suggested educational environment. However, as the above story illustrates, the potential is there, dormant. One must show trust toward the subordinates before the latter will respond in like manner.

5. The managerial grid. Having assessed those components of the day-to-day running of the school lacking for the

development of the teaching staff into a unit capable of maximizing the potential opportunities offered by the flexible modular schedule, the administrator, thinking of effecting this implementation should next consider his own relationship to his teachers to see if he is heading in the right direction for the attainment of the desired goal. There are two dimensions in this relationship which must be observed and developed: consideration and task orientation. Blanchard and Hersey (1972, p. 74) define "consideration" as that situation where the leader finds time to listen to group members, is willing to make changes and is friendly and approachable. On the other hand the same authors contend that "task orientation" takes place when the leader assigns group members to particular tasks, asks them to follow standard rules and regulations and lets them know what is expected of them.

Thus, the first deals with the human relationship existing between the superior and his subordinates. Does the former relate socially, amicably, interestingly to the latter or is there a cold chasm between the two? The second refers to the degree of concern for production the administrator has. On the Managerial Grid illustrated below, production becomes more important to the leader as his rating advances horizontally from left to right. Thus, for example, one is highly concerned about production and pays little attention to personal relationships if his leadership style is plotted at the

bottom right-hand corner.



The serious administrator should assess himself, or better still, be assessed by a group of peers and subordinates, using a questionnaire such as the one shown in Appendix "D". Upon determining as accurately as possible where one stands in relation to these two dimensions, one gets a better idea of the shortcomings of his leadership style, and so can set out to improve or eliminate those flaws conducive to the maintaining of a lethargic school staff.

Unfortunately, most leadership styles in our educational institutions, both past and present, if assessed honestly, will be found in the lower right-hand quadrant. The retaining, mentally and/or physically, of this methodology will not be in keeping with that necessitated by the personalized pedagogical environment.

As the diagram illustrates, the leadership styles should evolve toward increasing consideration (thereby improving relationship and hopefully, morale) and, at the same time, toward decreasing the administrator's dominance and supervision of most pedagogical decisions reached (Blanchard, and Hersey, 1972, p. 135). Eventually, as the teaching staff begins taking advantage of the autonomy offered, less personal relationship from the leader will be required. The ultimate situation, as indicated by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, the developers of the Managerial Grid, is to be found in the extreme lower left-hand quadrant. Presumably, at this point, the staff has evolved to such a sophisticated level that authority is no longer needed.

However, the writer believes this position (Low consideration-low task orientation) to be rather utopian and rather impractical. This belief is fortified when a further study of the aforementioned developers' (of the Managerial Grid) philosophy clearly shows their search for an inflexible and simplistic answer to all managerial problems. As the illustration on the next page (Blake, Mouton and Shepard, 1964, p. 13) indicates, the authors not only posit the perfect administrator-subordinate relationships (or lack thereof) but also indicate that the optimum situation when a problem arises ("Although there is a conflict-agreement is possible") is one where, when the stakes are high and the participants very active, the latter will jell together into a problem-

solving group. This author believes that different situations require different solutions. For example, as will be demonstrated later in this chapter, the recalcitrant might not be enticed into the problem-solving group. As such, the dealing with him in a win-lose power struggle might be the best answer. On the other hand, allowing him to withdraw to reflect what is going on or being proposed might be an equally effective strategy.

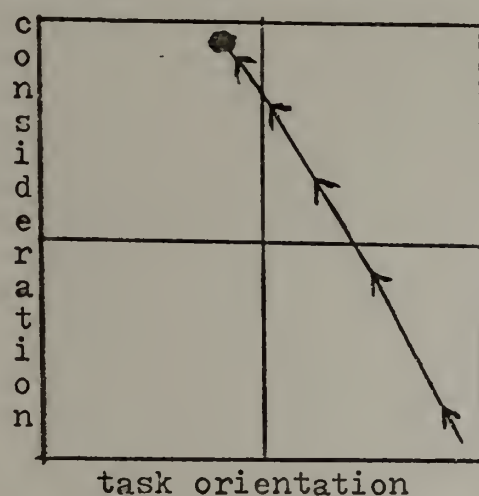
Consequently, it is suggested that inflexible, absolute answers to the varied problems of today's school administrator is an unwise position to hold. For this reason the "low-low" position on the managerial grid is not deemed to be the best as the danger sensed here is that once the novelty of the experience has worn off, and the usual turn-over of staff occurs with the exiting of some very excited persons and the intrusion of less-adequately prepared teachers, one will find a tendency on the part of a few to become lackadaisical in their work. As these few might be contagious to the rest, the situation is in jeopardy of deteriorating to the point where more harm than good is being done to the pupils. Such a degeneration would then produce a backlash among the community which would force a swift return to a more autocratic form of administration.

To avoid such an unfortunate development it is suggested that the administrator in question determine a different evolution to his leadership style from the one dis-

MANGING INTERGROUP CONFLICT MODEL

CONFLICT INEVITABLE, AGREEMENT IMPOSSIBLE	CONFLICT NOT INEVITABLE, YET AGREEMENT NOT POSSIBLE	ALTHOUGH THERE IS CONFLICT, AGREEMENT IS POSSIBLE	(1)	(6)	(9)	HIGH STAKES
ACTIVE	WIN-LOSE POWER STRUGGLE	WITHDRAWAL	PROBLEM-SOLVING	HIGH STAKES		
PARTICIPANTS	(2)	(5)	(8)	SPLITTING THE DIFFERENCE (COMPROMISE, BARGAINING, ETC.) MEDIATION	MODERATE STAKES	
	THIRD-PARTY JUDGEMENT	ISOLATION	(3)	(4)	(7)	LOW STAKES
PASSIVE	FATE	INDIFFERENCE OR IGNORANCE	PEACEFUL COEXISTENCE ("SMOOTHING OVER")	LOW STAKES	THREE BASIC ASSUMPTIONS TOWARDS INTERGROUP DISAGREEMENTS AND NINE ALTERNATIVE METHODS FOR MANAGING CONFLICT RESOLUTION	

cussed above. As the whole program is designed to help students solve their emotional and sociological problems over and above helping them achieve academically, an increase in communication on everybody's part seems mandatory. As such, as has been indicated below, it would seem more advantageous to aim toward a decrease in task-orientation but an increase to the maximum level of communication.



In this way it will be possible for the administrator to keep tabs on the various members of his staff in order to discern a negative shift in enthusiasm while ensuring the need for recognition of the individual teachers to as great a degree as possible.

It should also be realized that this suggested low-task- high-relationship style be the aim of the administrator only insofar as his relationship to the staff as a whole is concerned. The mature person will, no doubt, realize that he will have to alter his approach from one individual to the other as the latter's personalities vary.

Over and above suggesting a leadership style on the part of the administrator, the plotted final position on the Grid should be indicative of the general atmosphere permeating the entire school. In order for the program to be successful each human component of the institution, and each individual within each component, must actively participate in an environment where constant communication is something exercised by all. Too often, one finds a large school consists of a multitude of entities each paying little heed to the other. The Biology teacher doesn't talk "shop" with the Social Studies teacher, the latter rarely sees anybody belonging to the Mathematics Department and the administration isolates itself from the staff. In such an environment the pupils usually find few lines of communication with the faculty open. This situation must be avoided or remedied at all costs.

As his consideration increases the principal will find that he is meeting the demands of one of the motivators previously discussed: recognition. This recognition, in turn, will facilitate his lessening the task-orientation aspect of his leadership style.

6. The force-field analysis. Before proceeding any further the change agent should conduct a thorough investigation of the restrictive and driving forces which are present in his situation. This technique was labeled "Force-field analysis" by Kurt Lewin (1946, pp. 5-41) and can be valuable in looking at the variables involved in determining success

or failure.

The "driving forces" are those forces which "push" the situation in a particular direction and thus tend to initiate the change and keep it going. The "restrictive" forces serve the opposite purpose (Blanchard and Hersey, 1969, p. 100).

Should the weight of the restrictive forces be deemed to be greater than the driving ones, the change agent should, before proceeding any further, either neutralize some of the negative elements or, even better, convert these to the positive side. The reader can study an example of a force field analysis in the chapter titled: "Two Case Studies".

7. Change cycle. Having decided the general direction his leadership style will follow, the administrator/change agent should then decide which change cycle he finds favor with and thus try to initiate. There are two well-known change cycles which seem to be currently in vogue. To discuss these, or any others, one should first understand which aspects play an important part in any such cycle (Blanchard and Hersey, 1969, p. 66):

1.) Knowledge: In order for a change cycle to be completed knowledge of the end result or that intended, why it is being sought, etc. must be known and understood by all involved in the group.

2.) Attitude: As one evolved from one situation to another it becomes necessary for the acclimatization of the individual that he develop the proper attitude.

3.) Individual behavior: The behavior of every or most individuals involved in the change process must eventually be in keeping with the hoped-for change. If the persons involved do not act in a way beneficial to the ideal sought little possibility exists that the innovator will be successful in bringing about the desired end.

4.) Group behavior: The behavior of the group as a whole will eventually play a dominant role in the determination of successful or unsuccessful change. At one point or another the group as a whole must act in unison and in the manner prescribed by the implementer.

Closely aligned to Blanchard and Hersey are Hovland and Janis, (1959, pp. 1-28) who suggest that persuasive effects can be looked at as stemming from attitude change which in turn leads eventually to action (behavior) changes. Bettinghaus views attitude change as a conceptualization underlying any of the observable kinds of change (1968, p. 17).

Thus, although there seems to be general agreement on the components of the change cycle there is, in fact, much disagreement about which of these components come before the others in the successful change process.

The first of the well-adhered cycles is called the "participative" cycle (Blanchard and Hersey, 1969, p. 159). As the name indicates this approach tends to be more democratic. The propagators of the participative approach believe that all manner of knowledge must be disseminated a-

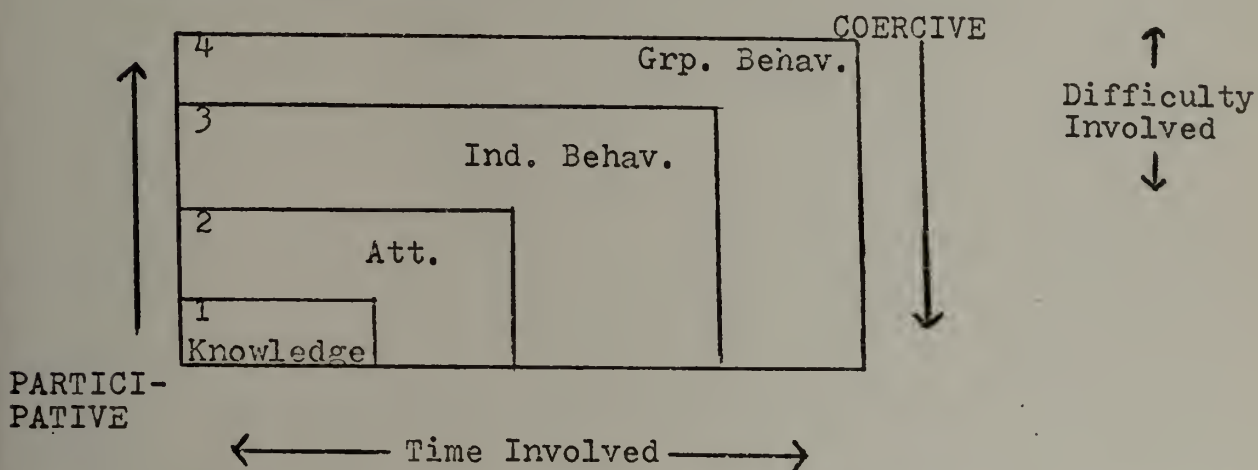
mong the staff members through workshops, discussions, conferences, consultations, reading materials, etc. As knowledge of the goals and the reasons for these are grasped, the attitude, it is believed, will change, presumably in a positive direction. Having attained this plateau the individual will begin changing his behavior so as to help achieve the desired end. This will be contagious to the point where the group, as a whole, will endeavor to act in such a way as to bring the change process to a successful culmination.

Opposed to this concept is the "coercive" cycle (Blanchard and Hersey, 1969, pp. 152-153). The belief here is that upon imposing a changed situation on a group, the latter will be forced to operate in a different manner. As this occurs the individuals in the group will, in turn, have to alter their modus operandi. Eventually, as acclimatization sets in knowledge of the intended ideal is disseminated and all three of the foregoing will then impress a different attitude on the individuals involved. This being accomplished, the change cycle is considered terminated.

Unfortunately there are major drawbacks with both approaches. The participative, if allowed to evolve on the strength of its merit alone, will take so long that the goal has a good chance of becoming outdated before being accomplished. Also inherent in this approach is the danger of compromise being sought so as to appease opposing factions: Compromises, though a part of our society, can in fact, bring

about an end far removed from that originally intended. On the other hand the "coercive" cycle, depending on the mentality of the staff involved, will create the danger of a full-scale rebellion. If what is being attempted is a more cooperative pedagogical structure, it is easy to see that this approach is not the one which would be the most conducive to success.

Following is an illustration of these two cycles (Blanchard and Hersey, 1973, p. 66):



Rather than suggesting either of these to the change agent the author would prefer to outline a third approach which shall be called the "semi-autocratic" approach. Following the numerical system shown above, this method would consist of proceeding from No. 1 to 2 (partially) to 4 to 3 (partially) to 1 to 2 to 3.

It remains very advisable to facilitate the growth in knowledge on the part of the teachers of the innovation being considered. This can be accomplished by use of any of the previously-mentioned methods or any other thought of.

This phase of the change strategy should last almost an entire school year or, preferably, closer to a year and a half.

At least a year's lead time is recommended, during which the entire staff participates in defining course structure and working out compromises and a solid cadre of people can be organized who are very knowledgeable about the processes of schedule building. (Gould, Shutes and Hertsche, 1965, p. 44)

Thus, if a staff begins discussing and studying about the proposed change in January of a particular calendar year it should aim at the implementation taking effect in only eighteen months hence. About halfway through this phase one should begin to sense a positive change in attitude on the part of a relatively large segment of the teaching staff. Sensing this to be happening, the administrator need not wait for full agreement on the part of the faculty before proceeding with the actual implementation. Unanimity in as polarized a society as ours is a very rare occurrence! What is important is that all members of the faculty have been exposed to the various pros and cons of the new program and that a sizable portion of these now view the anticipated change in a favorable light. It is then fairly safe for the change agent to activate the mechanics necessary to bring the innovation to actuality for the beginning of the next academic year. In this semi-autocratic method group behavior will be changed, but only after the attitude of a certain portion has been altered. In turn the individuals, at first those originally viewing the change as desirable and slowly the more


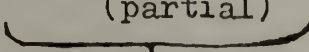

dubious ones, will alter their own behavior.

At this point it would be wise to reinforce the accumulated knowledge through a further series of workshops, guest speakers, etc. This will serve to clarify, in the minds of many, certain fuzzy concepts which would have surfaced during the first months following the implementation. This would also present to those who have very valid objections an opportunity to voice their concerns and have these discussed. The air should then be cleared of a lot of static caused by the normal growing pains of change plus any unforeseen difficulties. A direct result of this would then be an amelioration in the attitudes of the faculty members.

During the last semester in the second academic year after implementation the principal should conduct an assessment of teachers', pupils' and parents' opinions re the program to find out if the attitude is positive or negative. Should the feeling on the part of most be on the minus side a reduction of the more radical measures may be warranted. A positive response would indicate a continuation of the evolutionary process to be desirable.

The "jelling" process, that is, the last step comprised of all or the great majority of the people involved altering their behavior to become productive components of the new system, is probably the longest and hardest to accomplish. People's modes of operation are not easily changed and some real effort will have to be exercised on the part of

many to effect a total acclimatization to the proposed environment. Whereas the preparatory steps should be dealt with over a period of approximately a year and a half, and the initial period of adjustment culminating in the general attitude becoming favorable taking a similar length of time, the final phase could take as long as three years.

Preparatory Phase	Initial Acclimati- zation Phase	Jelling Phase
Knowledge---Attitude---Grp. (partial)	Beh.---Indiv.Beh.---Attit.---Ind.Beh. Knowledge (partial)	
 $1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	 $1\frac{1}{2}$ yrs.	 3 yrs.

8. Change process. Having determined why educators are reticent about being accommodating to the situation being suggested in this paper, how one might motivate them to greater heights of self-achievement, which leadership style to select to accomplish this goal, and how the pattern of change will evolve, the administrator/change agent now should become aware of the actual change process taking place within the human being in order to be fully aware of the scope of his undertaking.

In examining change Lewin (1947, pp. 5-41) identified three phases of the change process:

1.) Unfreezing: This is the breaking down of the old ways, mores, regulations, etc. which lock people into behavior patterns. Although these are restrictive to the less inhibited, they offer solace, comfort and security to the majority. To undertake the task advocated here via the

"coercive" method is to invite trouble as people will refuse to be moved from their accustomed conduct. As tradition has provided this comfortable pew, any change situation will be viewed as foreign, less inviting and therefore something to be avoided if at all possible. As such the "participative" approach to effecting the change seems to be highly frustrating as recalcitrants will hinder the progress of the program continually.

It would seem to the author, then, that the "unfreezing" phase would be better accomplished via the combination of educating and relatively forceful prodding. It seems paradoxical but is nevertheless true that a somewhat authoritarian style must be used in order to give people more freedom. (This point will be discussed further in the section dealing with "recalcitrants"). This is because of the traumatic nature of this "unfreezing" phase. Depending on the degree of conservatism to be found within a particular group of educators the change agent may have to use subtle, gentle pushing, or much stronger measures in order to direct the said group.

2.) Changing. The actual proceeding from that of the old to that of the new can be accomplished by two methods:

a.) Identification: This occurs when the change agent shows a model of the changed situation via a multitude of means, to all who will become involved, and waits for the latter to identify with the new environment. This was

illustrated in the "participative" change cycle.

b.) Internalization: This occurs when the persons involved in the change process find themselves in a situation where the new behavior on their part is demanded because of the actualization of the change. This is found both in the "coercive" and the "semi-autocratic" method cycles.

As has been previously discussed, it is my feeling the "internalization" via the semi-autocratic method is the better one.

3.) Consolidation: Once the first two phases have been accomplished it becomes necessary to ascertain a positive and willing identification on the part of the staff toward the changed environment. Reinforcement would be the tool used to accomplish this. There are two types of reinforcement: a.) continuous and b.) intermittent. Of these the author leans to the latter. A continuous stream of propaganda, cajoling and correcting might serve to alienate those to be converted. It would seem to be a better approach to reinforce only intermittently (already illustrated in describing the "semi-autocratic" cycle). "Breathing" periods between each stage of reinforcement should help avoiding fatigue on the part of those involved.

9. Groupthink.

A major characteristic of conflict situations that make them highly susceptible to idiosyncratic influences of the participants is the fact that the

intention underlying a particular act is seldom obvious. An ostensibly cooperative move may be either a genuinely cooperative act or an attempt to lure another into a vulnerable position. (Swingle, 1970, p. 198)

Most of us have heard of "mob rule". This is an attempt at explaining why individuals, normally placid and understanding in nature, suddenly become unreasonable, volatile and super-emotionally charged beings while partaking in certain group activities. It has been theorized that the sheer momentum created by the presence of many individuals toward a particular person or event is such that the person, finding himself in this milieu, is incapable of extracting himself from the emotion generated by the group as a whole. In this same vein lies the theory of "Groupthink" which posits that the mode of thinking persons engage in, while they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, is not necessarily representative of their more normal frame of reference. This is apparently true all the more if the members of the group are close friends and tend to respect each other to a great extent.

The more amiability and esprit de corps among the members of a policy-making in-group, the greater is the danger that independent critical thinking will be replaced by "groupthink", which is likely to result in irrational and demanding actions directed against out-groups. (Janis, 1972, p. 13)

A further refinement of the above position was given by Brown who maintained that the study of "crowd psychology" has shown that, although people do many things while in a crowd, they might not do otherwise, these "new" attitudes

spring nevertheless from one or more individuals in the crowd and not from the mysterious entity described as the "crowd mind" (1963, p. 68). Thus, the mentality of groupthink is seeded by an individual or a small group and eventually permeates the entire group. At this point "groupthink" is achieved.

Should "groupthink" be allowed to materialize the following six serious defects often develop (Janis, 1972, p.88):

a.) The discussions are limited to only a few alternatives.

b.) There is failure to examine the course of action preferred by the majority from the standpoint of non-obvious risks.

c.) There is failure to re-examine the course of action initially judged as unsatisfactory.

d.) There is little attempt to gain information from experts in that field.

e.) There is usually a selective bias to be found within such a group which is dependent on the method of presentation of factual information. Such a situation usually comes about because of the failure of the group to separate the issue from the circumstances of presentation.

f.) There is all too often no deliberation about how the chosen policy might be hindered by inertia, sabotage or common accidents.

Thus, the administrator/change agent should be aware of the dangers of "groupthink" and make sure that the decision-making group, involved with the decision to implement a more personalized atmosphere, is reaching a decision based on sound thinking on their part and not just voicing hollow thoughts. Should the decision to implement the flexible modular schedule and several of its fundamentals be the result of such a thought process a tragedy would, in the writer's opinion, be in the offing. This would be so since the decision would not be indicative of the true feelings of the individuals involved toward the underlying reasons for the activating of this program. As such, once the innovation became an actuality and positive action on the part of many became imperative for the success of the program, reticence on the part of some would be undermining the success of the program.

10. The Recalcitrants.

An examination of the sociological and social psychological literature on planned or deliberately instituted change reveals that the most common explanation of why innovations introduced into organizations do or do not have their intended effects places primary emphasis on the ability of a change agent to overcome the initial resistance of organizational members to change. (Gross, Giacuinta, and Bernstein, 1971, p. 1)

Regardless of the planning and forethought the change agent takes with him to the change situation he is to be involved in, recalcitrants in varying degrees of quantity will, in most cases, hinder the progress of his programs. The rea-

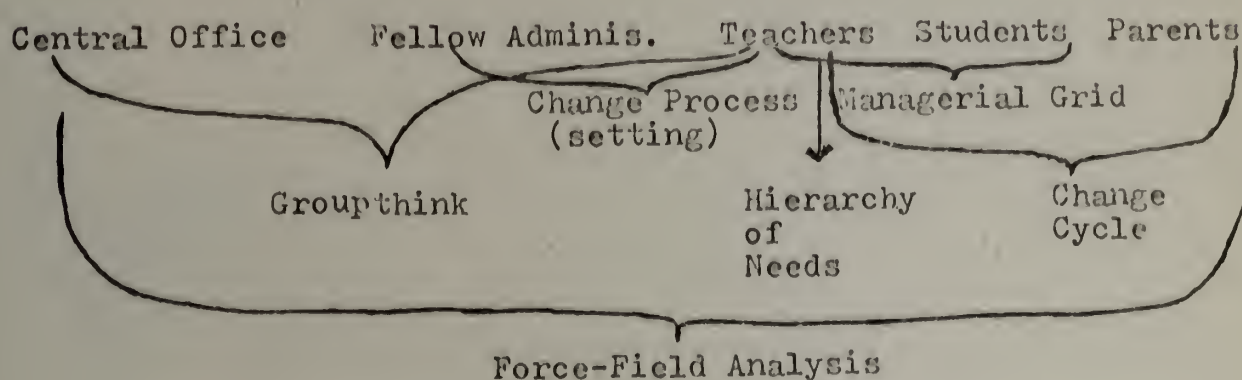
sons for the presence of recalcitrants have been dealt with at length in other sections of this document. The question now remains: "What is to be done with the negative-feeling person in such a situation?" Because the recalcitrant poses a danger to the advocated change, he must not be allowed to influence others who might otherwise be receptive to the ideas being espoused by the change agent.

For this reason students of "change" contend that a client-system must build into its own structures a vigorous change agent function in order for it to adapt to a continually changing environment (Bennis, Bene, and Chin, 1962, p. 16). Similarly, Whitehead, (1960, p. 13) states that the relationship between the change agent and the subordinate cannot be permissive or totally democratic. He further maintains that a kind of coercion must be present, a coercion hopefully in the service of liberation. The same author points out that methodological coercion is qualitatively different from content coercion. It is, he says, the difference between forcing someone to believe in "X" and forcing someone to develop ways of discovery which include, among other things to be discovered, belief in "X".

The point is here that an element of coercion does exist in installing an unfamiliar methodology. The change agent should not be afraid to use a certain amount of coercion and for this reason the author has suggested a semi-autocratic change cycle.

On dealing with the recalcitrant the change agent should not be afraid of confronting the former (not necessarily in a conflict-type situation) and delving into the reasons for the hesitancy toward the proposed change. Should conversion not be possible, a strong suggestion that the recalcitrant request a transfer to another institution or that he extricate himself from the situation in one way or another would be suggested by the author.

Thus far the author has expounded on numerous components of the change strategy. It would seem advisable, at this point, to make clear that not each component is necessarily involved with all the constituents of a school district. Consequently, the diagram below is an illustration of what is considered to be the interrelatedness of each of these components.



11. The effective versus the successful change agent:

The goal for any change agent is to develop self-renewal behavior on the part of his clients. The change agent should seek to put himself "Out of business" by enabling his clients to be their own change agents. The change agent must seek to shift

the client from a position of reliance on the change agent to reliance on himself. (Zaltman, Kotler and Kaufman, 1972, p. 197)

Finally, the change agent should realize the discrepancy existing between a successful and an effective innovator. The first indicates that the implementer has accomplished his initial task, that of bringing about a pre-planned change. However, all too often, one finds a situation where the person supplying the driving force in the change process or cycle leaves the scene for any of a number of valid reasons before anybody else has been trained to take over as the leader or before the rest of the educators involved in the program are sufficiently acclimatized. Continuation of the change process and the necessary practices often cease with the leader's departure.

Continuity and stability are important and these depend upon key members of the teaching staff, remaining at their posts for a fair number of years to "see the job through". (Rontledge and Kegan, 1965, p. 60)

The effective change agent is the one who makes sure that he does not leave before he, as the driving force, becomes unnecessary due to the acclimatization of the staff to the new environment. Thus, the change agent thinking of activating a program such as the one suggested here, should realize that, unless there is another administrator of equal caliber waiting to take over, he will not be able to depart before the "jelling" process is at least one year into the making. Thus, he should be ready to remain at this institu-

tion at least four years (as calculated in the section titled: Change Cycle).

Should the change agent begin the project and then fail to follow through, his project is not only likely to become a failure but he is also building a negative attitude in the people he is trying to influence. Any successor will find an apathy and lack of confidence that will be hard to counteract (Arensberg and Niehoff, 1971, p. 171).

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CHAPTER VIII

THE PROBLEM AREAS

The first several sections of this paper have been positive in tone and may have lead the reader to conclude that problems would be small quantitatively and qualitatively should one follow the guidelines set down in this paper. However, the author has not intended to hide the fact that there have been and still are major problems with the implementation of this program.

While the abandonment rate on the part of those who have adopted a program of personalization is quite low (_____, 1967, p. 2) there have been, in various parts of this continent, some spectacular failures (_____, 1970, p. 12). Some of these failures have been the predictable result of inadequate planning, lack of involvement on the part of many or inadequate consultant and technical assistance. However, the author believes that a certain portion of these problems might have been avoided if the change agents involved had been aware of some of the more common pitfalls one can encounter while attempting this change. Others cannot be avoided entirely, but the awareness of their prevalency can help, it is hoped, those who will have to contend with them. Following are some of those problems the writer believes the change agent should be forewarned of:

1. Fatigue. Tom Lancaster, a member of the research team for the Center for Advanced Study for Educational Admin-

istration suggests in his paper reporting the implementation of differentiated staffing in "Columbia" High School, and delivered before the American Educational Research Association, that multiple implementation (that is, the implementation of several pedagogical tools at one time) results in fatigue on the part of the teaching staff. This fatigue occurs at two points in the implementation process: a.) during the preparatory phase when the teachers are overwhelmed by in-service training in several new educational practices, and b.) during the initial year or so after the implementation when the work required on the part of the educators so as to adequately prepare themselves for small group instruction, large group instruction, team teaching, etc. seems never-ending.

To partially avoid this problem the author suggests that only a few members of the teaching staff familiarize themselves with any one fundamental during the planning phase. These, in turn, through their involvement in team-teaching can help other members of their group acclimatize themselves to these new practices by sharing their expertise through the more informal group setting.

2. Competition. In our society competition is looked upon as being helpful in the building of our country. Competition within the educational institution can also be healthy but it can progress to the point where it becomes unhealthy. The above-mentioned source warns of competition between innovations and departments. The author's personal experiences in-

dicating this warning is valid.

Rather than complementing each other, departments often vie against their peers in attempting to outdo their opponents (?) in ameliorating the pedagogical environment. By the same token, members of the teaching staff involved in one particular innovation sometimes compete with others attempting to implement another new practice. Should this occur, the esprit de corps so necessary to the personalization of the learning atmosphere (as illustrated earlier) will be missing. What would be healthier would be an increase in interdepartmental cooperation and understanding along with a meshing of the various fundamentals into a whole. The competition between the various components of the program can produce disunity - something to be avoided.

3. Quality staff. As expounded on earlier, the procuring of quality teachers (as opposed to "qualified") is a very difficult task. Those who have already implemented this program have found that the staff had not achieved full competence in handling the many and varied expetencies placed on them (Hicken, 1968, p. 13). The author suggests that a thorough in-service training program (initially given to only a few as far as each component of the whole program is concerned) might offset some of the initial inadequacies of the educators to be involved. However, a problem remains: when a school takes the existing staff, building, students and budget and attempts to do a complete face-lifting, pedagogically speaking,

the great teachers become really great, the middle improve to a good degree but the weaker teachers often settle further toward the bottom (Congreve and Rinehart, 1972, p. 51). Thus, the dismissal or transfer of the weaker teachers might enhance the chances for eventual success.

4. The community. Very often, a small but very vocal portion of the community feels it has lost control of "its" school. This group makes its feelings known through calls to the central office and negative comments at parents-teachers meetings. Because those with more positive feelings usually remain quiet, one often gets the impression that the community in its entirety wishes the program to be discontinued. To offset the damage the complaining group might be successful in bringing about, the change agent should, through a good public relations program, convert a similar size and vocal group to his way of thinking. The eventual administering of opinionnaires, as dealt with in this document, would further fortify the change agent against his detractors as well as giving him useful information of the way the community as a whole feels about various components of the program.

5. Skipping. In most schools the author has come in contact with, skipping of classes by students (and by teachers in some cases) has augmented greatly immediately following the implementation of the program. Lack of student preparation and participation seems to be the cause for this problem along with the sudden release of the pressure and confinement im-

posed by the traditional system. Filene and Kief (1966, p. 7) concluded that one of the outstanding reasons for this outcome was the lack of introduction to the student body of the various resource centers or their contents, thereby resulting in the students not being really cognizant of the advantages to be enjoyed in this type of educational institution. They suggest that time will help the amelioration of the situation through the acclimatization to the new setting. The author's personal experiences allow him to concur with this suggestion. The success of this program depends, to a large extent, on the assumption that most involved in the program will exhibit a large degree of self-responsibility soon after its inception.

6. Fragmentation of the program. If one is to evolve a program which allows individuals more autonomy and self-responsibility, there is the danger that, because of the decentralization of leadership, several enclaves of ideology and participants might be created with each going its own way and gradually becoming unaware of other aspects of the institution. Such was the conclusion reached by the Center for Advanced Study for Educational Administration in its study of Columbia High School.

The change agent should, therefore, believe that large organizations, such as comprehensive high schools, can be managed not by a single brain but through coordinated decisions made by many. Thus, the important questions become not whether to decentralize or not, but just how decisions are to be

delegated and how the resulting actions are to be coordinated.

It seems clear that since information-handling and decision-making capacities of the chief executive are finite, the organization must eventually grow beyond the point where he becomes a limiting factor bringing about diminishing returns. (Morris, 1968, p. 3)

In the political sphere, there seems to be some agreement that neither complete centralization nor complete decentralization in the form of anarchy can long survive as viable organizational forms (Sadek, 1972, p. 1). Similarly, economic systems that rely to a high degree on central planning as well as those which are characterized by a high degree of "laissez-faire" tend to evolve toward more moderate forms (McDonough, 1969, p. 2). Thus, the problem becomes one of seeking the right degree of centralization or decentralization.

The above becomes an extremely difficult task as throughout our history the centralizing style of organization has been pushed so far as to become ineffective, economically wasteful, humanly stultifying and ruinous to democracy (Goodman, 1963, p. 3). In objection to this, there have been brief instances where the black flag of the anarchist has been raised.

As the illustration of the managerial grid shows, it is the belief of the author that the principal/change agent retain a certain amount of task orientation but, at the same time, develop a high degree of relationship with his professional staff. This latter characteristic of his leadership style will enable him to keep in touch with the various fac-

tions of his staff and thus enable him to re-direct those who are, inadvertently or otherwise, "missing the boat" vis a vis their relating to the program as a whole.

7. Demoralization. Fatigue may lead to certain teachers feeling demoralized. But another contributing factor may be the feeling on the part of some that a certain number of their peers are not doing their share of the work. With the degree of decentralization suggested above it may become quite easy for the less dedicated pedagogues to "goof off". The degree of relationship the change agent maintains with his staff will enable him to ascertain whether this is happening, to what degree and how the situation should be handled. As was indicated under Change Strategy the recalcitrant must be dealt with. He must be recognized and converted (or dismissed) before his actions or frame of mind contaminate the more excited and actively participating teachers.

8. Pupils wasting time. Depending on the philosophy of the school authorities this may or may not be a problem. For example, we at Marymount were not dismayed when students were seen lounging on the floor outside the music department or crossing the streets to snack in a nearby restaurant. We had arrived at the conclusion that the socializing skills being learned along with the struggling with the problem of what to do with the abundance of leisure time were two very worthwhile lessons to be learned. The solving of these dilemmas at age thirteen was deemed to be better than the attempting

to alter one's ways two decades hence.

However, many members of the community will look at students on unstructured time as a problem. The parents' unwillingness to accept this aspect of the personalization program has caused numerous change agents many headaches. For example, Mr. D. L. Badger, principal of Roy W. Martin Junior High School, wrote in his personal correspondence to the author:

I believe community negativism was primarily the result of added free student time.

By the same token James C. Ketcherside, District Superintendent of Julian, San Diego County, California stated that the negative community reaction led to change in board membership and the termination of the Principal/Superintendent. This, in turn, led to the abolishing of the program started several years earlier.

Thus, the community must understand why pupils are allowed to have free time and a certain portion of the parents must be willing to actively support this characteristic of the new school setting.

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C H A P T E R I X

TWO CASE STUDIES1.) Marymount High School:

Location: West-end Montreal, Canada.

A comprehensive high school with a student population of 2,200, teachers allotted on a 17/1 ratio, situated in a middle socio-economic class district in a mixed urban-suburban geographical area.

Marymount High opened its doors in 1960. Approximately 1,200 students were accepted initially. This number almost doubled over the next seven years creating a situation where over 1,000 students were housed in annexes situated within a three or four mile radius.

The institution itself was divided into two autonomous sections: Marymount Boys and Marymount Girls. Each section was located on either side of the building, separated by a wall, the door in which was opened only infrequently. All administrative and teaching staff members for either division were of the same sex as the students. The girls were administered by nuns (the Congregation of Notre Dame) and members of this order filled a large number of the teaching slots initially. The boys were administered and taught by lay personnel.

It is necessary at this point to emphasize the fact that although Marymount was a Catholic school it was a public institution. Montreal public schools are divided into

Catholic and non-Catholic institutions, both supported by the taxpayer.

The pedagogical atmosphere found in Marymount during the first seven years of its existence was traditional: a class-promotion system, pupils assigned to a particular seat in a certain row in a definite room for the entire day with the exception of lunch and occasional visits to specialized areas such as typing and science labs, very strict discipline including marching to and from classes in ranks (male teachers wore the black robe to accentuate their professional role) and relatively little guidance given to students other than toward their achieving as high marks as possible in their subjects.

Very few innovative teaching techniques were being tried, let alone implemented. There was no guidance department, final marks were those obtained on June examinations with little consideration given to the year's work. Communication between teacher and student was minimal outside the formal classroom setting, seemed strained between teaching and administrative members and was non-existent between males and females.

In July, 1967 the principal on the boys' side retired and was replaced by Francis Higgins, a fortyish ex-Scot, who had many seemingly radical educational ideas and much criticism for the present system. At this same time the writer was transferred to Marymount to set up the Gui-

dance department for the boys. (A guidance counsellor had been assigned to the girls the previous year.)

Within weeks a close professional bond was established between the two new members as both shared similar ideas as to the unsuitability of the system then in existence and to the philosophy of education which should govern the school. It was felt by both that any change would be for the better. By November, 1967, plans were already being seriously discussed about changes for the next academic year. It was decided to go on a four-day cycle (each subject being taught three times per cycle, with the exception of the core disciplines which were allocated double that amount of time) and to initiate the subject promotion system. Whereas, under the class-promotion system a student was required to pass all or most of his subjects in order to be promoted, under subject promotion the student would be advanced or kept back in each subject, depending on how he did in it. Thus, instead of lumping thirty or so pupils into one group, obliging each individual (?) to take exactly the same subjects and stream in each as his classmates, it now became possible to program each student into the course of his desire (with parental permission) and into the correct stream according to his demonstrated aptitude and attitude. As so many sections were now required it soon became apparent that at least a partial mixing of the sexes would be required to operate efficiently. Thus, if fifteen boys and fourteen girls has

been assigned into French 4, third stream, a class of twenty-nine was opened. To accomplish this two prerequisites had to be met: 1.) permission from Sister G. Dorais, principal of the girls, to allow mixing, and 2.) the building of the master schedules for both sides by one individual as opposed to both being developed by two persons communicating little with each other.

From the beginning the greatest degree of cooperation was given by Sister Dorais and the author took it upon himself to build both schedules manually.

When the school doors opened in September, 1968 many cries of surprise, disappointment and anguish were heard from all corners. Students were both elated and concerned with finding members of the opposite sex in some of their classes, female teachers refused to teach boys (two male teachers professed similar consternation at finding girls under their tutelage), and central office administrators were more than a little upset at finding that such a change had been introduced without their consent. Technically, things were supposed to be functioning smoothly as there were very few scheduling problems (only one student had a conflict in his schedule). However, there had been little communication held with those to be involved in the change. This resulted in more problems than should have been the case.

However, both principals and the author, along with a handful of other educators who reacted positively to the

change were unperturbed by the sounds of discontent and by mid-October were actively engaged in planning more changes for the next school year. Without asking for a vote from the faculty, it was decided to adopt the five-day cycle (more flexibility in determining number of periods per course), institute interest courses and completely integrate the sexes. Teachers were told they should teach at least one interest course, were asked to submit a topic of interest to them and which they felt they could communicate to a group of pupils. The latter were then asked to enroll themselves into the forty or so advertised courses.

Rumblings from the teachers, central office and parents were noticeably louder in the fall of 1969. Mr. Higgins, however, stuck to his guns, fended all attacks and with as much help as the author and others could give him, gave the green light for the implementation of a flexible-modular schedule for the following year. Teachers were made aware of the "new" type of schedule being planned and department heads were asked to give the scheduler not only the list of courses to be offered in each discipline but also the number of periods each section was to be given and the number of minutes in each period. During this time an extension to the school building was being constructed which would make Marymount a comprehensive educational institution and also enable it to house all students under one roof. It was also decided to merge both sections of Marymount under one principal: Fran-

cis Higgins. Only one meeting with teachers and parents explaining the technicalities of flexible modular scheduling was held. The rationale behind the need of this tool was given as the need for greater flexibility in number and length of periods from one course to another.

Because of an inferior computer scheduling product bought at considerable expense along with the inexperience of the writer in the building of such a complex schedule, numerous student conflicts were encountered. The problem was compounded by the inability of the building contractor to deliver the extension on time, resulting in Marymount students being housed in four separate buildings spread over a five-mile radius. Thus, when the entire student body was assembled in its new quarters for the first time, it was early November. Scheduling problems were thus magnified by the lateness in the school year.

It had been the hope of those most responsible for the establishment of the modular schedule that the teaching staff would take advantage of the flexibility offered and begin innovating on their own. Such was not to be the case!

Students, because of their unpreparedness for this type of environment reacted predictably and let loose with a lot of pent-up energy. The noise level rose tremendously, skipping of classes was rampant, vandalism increased markedly, absences multiplied multifold and formal academic achievement decreased initially. Teachers felt very uncomfortable with

students milling around at all times. They were very unhappy with the decrease in discipline and academic achievement and voiced strong objections over the lack of say they had had prior to the implementation of these measures.

Central office was quite upset over the commotion but the new superintendent was willing to allow the school much autonomy. The assistant superintendent was very receptive to the stated goals of attempting to give more responsibility to students.

Parental reactions were mixed but the louder outcries came from non-supportive elements in the community.

In spite of the very strong protests and increasingly volatile discontent shown by numerous elements in all components of the school community, plans for further developing the program were being prepared, now with representation from the staff and parents. Initial student vandalism decreased to an acceptable level by mid-year and acclimatization on the part of some teachers started taking hold.

One of the main bones of contention on the part of the teachers had been the lengthening of the school day by one and a quarter hours. As formal class time had not been decreased, this extra time was deemed necessary for the implementation of the flexible modular schedule along with the assigning of a certain amount of unstructured time to pupils. In preparation for the 1971-72 school year the teachers insisted that the home room, which had been abolished the pre-

vious year, be reinstated and that this be accomplished with no further lengthening of the school day. By the end of April (1971) teachers were tired of the upheavals of the past eight months, were bitter about their continued lack of power in deciding the pedagogical policies in Marymount (Teachers were represented on the steering committee, but felt powerless to override an administrative proposal) and were puzzled by the supposed opportunities being offered as they had not been trained to take advantage of these.

A special meeting was held on April 21 to decide on the adoption of the homeroom and its repercussions on the length of the schoolday. No administrators were invited although it was not stated that none could attend. The author, with the principal's permission, decided to see what would ensue. The atmosphere was thick with the participants' unhappiness with the entire situation. The debate was very heated and became more so when the key teacher (union representative) proclaimed loudly: "I don't want flexible modular scheduling next year!", although such a decision had been reached months previously by the steering committee. The emotions were heightened by another teacher shouting: "There is no flexibility in the flexible modular scheduling!" and by the author retorting "The only inflexibility in this type of schedule is the inflexibility of certain people operating within the framework of the schedule.

Much controversy resulted from this last statement

and tempers were on edge for the next several days. The principal decided to call a general meeting, during which the writer gave the speech as found in Appendix "B", Section I. The obvious result was a tremendous outcry and the resultant petition (Appendix "B", Section II) signed by approximately half the faculty. For the several weeks that followed the atmosphere was very tense and explosive in nature. Eventually, the emotions decreased and it was decided to send the petition with a covering letter (Appendix "B", Section III) to the superintendent. As the writer had offered an explanation for his actions (Appendix "B", Section IV) and neither a copy of the speech nor of the explanation had been forwarded along with the petition and covering letter, he felt compelled to request a special hearing (Appendix "B", Section V) to explain his side of the situation. The meeting was held in mid-June with the result that central office suggested to the teaching representatives to request the withdrawal of the petition.

This whole episode did serve, it is believed, to clear the air and cause many to look at the troubled waters from a different perspective. The following September (the author had, by then, been promoted to central office in the role of Coordinator of Scheduling and Subject Promotion) the school opened with much less openly-displayed dissatisfaction than had been anticipated although there were again numerous student scheduling conflicts.

During the summer of 1971 the superintendent retired and the assistant superintendent resigned to take a more attractive position elsewhere. Both replacements tended to be more conservative than their predecessors and opposed the program begun at Marymount. However, by a general vote at mid-year (1971-1972) the faculty overwhelmingly (over 80%) voted to not only retain the flexible scheduling but to seek ways to ameliorate the learning environment by implementing various fundamentals. The author was able to secure a computer-generated master schedule for Marymount which greatly reduced scheduling conflicts and enabled various departments to request and obtain large and small group instructional units, team-teaching, etc.

Thus, although pressure from central office was brought to bear on the Marymount administration, the program was allowed to continue.

Finally, in May, 1973 (the second year of flexible modular scheduling) opinionnaires were given to teachers, students and parents and tabulation of answers were compiled through the ensuing summer months. (Please see Appendix "A" for actual results. The analysis will be given in the chapter entitled Evaluation.)

In June, 1973, Mr. Higgins was promoted to an assistant superintendency. The incoming principal and the staff have indicated, as of this writing, that the program will continue and will, in fact, be expanded to an even greater degree.

2. Due to conditions beyond the author's control, the following case study has been camouflaged as to locale and individuals involved. The evolutionary process described is authentic.

The Smith High School

Location:

A high school with a student population of approximately 1800, teachers allotted on a 17/1 ratio, situated in a middle socio-economic class district and in a geographical area which could be classified as suburban.

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The Superintendent:

Quasi-invisible, has given his assistant complete autonomy for the evolution of Smith High. Will step in only if absolutely necessary. (Though he is not playing a dominant role here, he is nevertheless a capable leader who is aware of what is going on.)

The Assistant Superintendent:

When certain individuals connected with Smith High expressed a desire for certain changes, he was receptive of their ideas and supportive of their attempts to initiate the changes. He has continued to do his best in helping the school on the professional as well as the administrative levels.

The Principal:

Several years ago, while also principal, he was seem-

ingly obliged to leave for medical reasons. A near nervous breakdown seems to be the best diagnosis readily available. He came back to work one year after his departure and assumed the principalship of this high school. He is completely invisible within the building from a physical point of view. A typical comment from one of his subordinates: "I haven't seen _____ for a couple of weeks. I think I've said 'Hello' to him and vice versa once or twice only since the beginning of the year." This remark was uttered in February. However, the principal is very visible from a control point of view. Very few teachers, let alone students, feel they have much leeway in deciding what they may do.

Realizing that the building of the master schedule would prove to be a major headache as more changes were requested, he hired a consultant from a nearby university to train a member of the Smith professional staff in this area.

The Vice Principals:

Among these individuals, there seems to be much unwillingness to expend energy at a level other than what is contractually expected of them.

The Consultant:

A very capable individual in the technology of schedule-building and quite experienced in the interpersonal relationships resulting from situations of change. However, because of the low fee he is being paid, doesn't feel he can spend too much time on site. As such his visits average out

to about one-half day per week, though he has been extremely generous in conversing with members of the school over the telephone, along with advising them where to procure more expertise in those areas where improvement is obvious.

The Program Assistant:

When the decision was made to allow Smith High to evolve toward the flexible schedule, the principal appointed as assistant of the program of change to be instituted a young man (about 30 years old) who was a department head. So far, the latter has shown little leadership ability and less willingness to develop such. His main preoccupation seems to be the safe-guarding of his staff position. As problems concerned with the change process mount up, he is giving the impression he believes the whole program will be dropped and doesn't seem too interested to help in its survival.

History of the Change Process:

After the decision was made by the assistant superintendent to change to variable scheduling (initially supported by the principal) the above-mentioned consultant was hired and given the responsibility of helping deliver an efficient and as conflict-free a schedule as possible. At the same time the Language Department head was appointed as assistant for the whole change program.

A few outside speakers were invited to address the staff on various aspects of variable scheduling. A steering committee was set up to discuss with the consultant what was

desired and what should be implemented. No students (with the exception of one meek and mild-mannered girl during the first few months) were asked to participate in any of the preparatory activities and little or no orientation was given to them for the new learning environment they were to be faced with in the fall.

When school opened in September the master schedule had been built and individual student schedules were delivered with fewer than 5 percent having any conflicts. Student density was lowered to approximately 75 percent and resource centers were manned by teachers.

Immediately after the opening of school, troubles began and seemed to augment with time: student vandalism increased alarmingly in the view of the administration and some teachers, skipping of classes was rampant, teacher discontent with the schedule was being voiced daily and with increasing volatility and academic achievement was deemed to be decreasing in quality. Teachers objected to the chore of supervising resource centers, study halls, etc. Arbitration was sought by the latter to decrease the working hours. The settlement was in their favor. At the moment the ruling theoretically forbids any teacher from even answering a pupil's question outside any formal teaching period.

The assistant has reacted to these problems by becoming very low-profile and showing his willingness to "chuck the whole thing." The consultant sees the situation as a

"no-win" situation for him and would happily cease advising the institution in question at the end of this school year, if no future educational progress seems to be in the offing. The principal has reacted predictably and publicly stated at a board meeting that the school is going back to traditional scheduling next year. He has closed his ears to argument from the "other side" and is unwilling to converse with the consultant. The assistant superintendent seems to be buckling under the pressure but has made a last-gasp attempt at saving the program by asking the consultant to prod the director and one or two young men showing promise of leadership qualities. This was attempted with relatively little noticeable effect on the forcefulness of the "pro" side.

Finally, the author was asked to evaluate what has transpired thus far. It was decided to not deal with the cognitive aspect of the learning environment but simply to assess the feelings of the three major components of the school system as far as the changes created thus far are concerned, along with trying to discover the major causes for the afore-mentioned problems and suggesting possible remedies.

At this writing, in spite of the evaluator's report and recommendations (as found in chapter 10), there is a high probability of the entire program being aborted.

Probable Causes for Problems Experienced

Why did both schools encounter so many problems soon

after the implementation of the flexible modular schedule? Although the Marymount situation could be classified as a successful and effective change, numerous headaches and growing pains developed. Were they all necessary?

In an attempt to answer the above question the writer will present an analysis of the evolutionary change period in both schools in relation to the guidelines suggested in this paper:

1. Change Agent:

a.) The position. In Marymount the change agent was the principal. As such he was able to keep a close eye on the change process and attempt re-direction when such was deemed necessary. In Smith High the change agent was not a member of the school staff but an official from central office who didn't even have his office in the school building. The principal, though agreeable to the change initially, was in fact, never really "sold" on the idea and turned against it as soon as problems arose.

b.) The person. The Marymount principal was a generally well-accepted individual by his professional and social acquaintances. He exhibited many characteristics of a pleasing personality: showed interest in others' problems, would seek to help them even when the situation was not connected with the educational profession, did not complain about his problems and his criticism was justified when it did occur. In addition the same individual possessed a high

degree of homophily: he came from a socio-economic background similar to many of his subordinates and lived a middle-class life, was of the same religion as most of those he associated with, belonged to the same race and culturally identified with same. As he had experienced most of the problems encountered by his teachers he was able to empathize. His opinion leadership was relatively weak, as he did not seek, initially, to convert anyone among the teachers to his ideas and, as such, his changes were not compatible with his clients' perceived needs. His credibility was strengthened by the degree of pleasing personality, homophily and empathy he exhibited but was weakened by his lack of opinion leadership and his seeking changes not compatible to his district's perceived needs. Thus, his credibility rating was relatively high but much lower than the optimum. He was, however, blessed with the health and stamina necessary to withstand the pressures and problems of five years of radical change.

In contrast, the Smith High principal's personality was interpreted by many as being relatively displeasing. From the personal contact the author has had with him, he would have to conclude that such a perception was erroneous. However, his lack of physical visibility along with his very high control of all aspects of the institution probably lent to a more negative view than should have been necessary.

Because of his physically isolating himself from stu-

dents, teachers and parents, homophily and empathy were not exhibited which, in turn, brought his credibility rating to a very low point. No opinion leadership was exercised and his health was such that the prolonged rigors of change would probably have seriously affected him.

The assistant superintendent (the change agent) showed little homophily, empathy or credibility because of his general lack of visibility. His personality could not be assessed for the same reason. He practised some opinion leadership by appointing a department head as assistant of the program, but because of the relative lack of introspection on the part of the staff, there was little compatibility between his suggested changes and the community's perceived needs. He did seem to have the physical health recommended.

2. The Philosophy. Very little introspection, if any, occurred at Marymount inasmuch as the changes were forced into existence by the change agent. The teachers and parents (and the students to a lesser extent) could therefore not understand why these changes were being made and became all the more perplexed as the problems arose.

The Smith staff did spend some time developing a philosophy but not to the extent of understanding the basic underlying assumptions of their conclusions. Thus, they, too, were "lost" when trying to comprehend why the changes had taken place.

3. The Fundamentals. Marymount activated very few of the fundamentals deemed necessary for the personalization of the pedagogical atmosphere. Initially, no large or small group instruction were introduced along with no implementation of independent study, resource centers, individualized learning, interdisciplinary approach, team teaching, full teacher participation, reduction of formal class time, public relations program, student participation and orientation of efficient implementation plan.

On the plus side, however, could be found unstructured time, teacher-counsellor units, in-service training of staff (post facto), a retention of a disciplinary code, varying period and course lengths, a relatively efficient method of building the master schedule and an evaluative study carried out during the second year of change.

Smith High also produced a low score on this aspect of the implementation program as there was no activation of large and small group instruction, individualized learning, teacher-counsellor units, interdisciplinary approach, team teaching, full teacher participation, reduction of formal class time, public relations program, student participation and orientation or efficient implementation plan. In addition, there was little independent study, in-service training of staff and a feeling of a decrease in student discipline.

On the positive side one did find instructed time, resource centers, an effective method of building the master

schedule and an evaluation of the situation mid-way through the first year of change.

4. The Conceptual Framework. Marymount implemented the flexible modular schedule and both the administration and the type of schedule permitted much of the flexibility necessary for the implementation of any practice desired by the staff.

The Smith principal, by his strong control, did not give the impression of allowing much flexibility and the schedule was not conducive to great variety in course, period or teacher-learner group formation.

5. The Change Strategy.

a.) Both schools tended to use a formal setting, such as addresses by the administration or official workshops to convey the message desired. Both institutions had more females on their faculties but neither sought to include them in the planning of change from the inception of the idea.

b.) Both staffs had been and still were worried about various contractual clauses being negotiated or adhered to. As such they were operating on the basic needs level and were far from that of self-actualization. Some attention was paid to social and esteem needs in Marymount and this did result in certain individuals progressing to the ultimate step of self-actualization. Little attention to steps three and four of the Maslow hierarchy was paid at

Smith and this resulted in little initiation on the part of teachers being exhibited.

c.) As the illustration of the managerial grid in the chapter dealing with Evaluation indicates, neither school had the type of leadership in particular or situation in general to proceed to the desired learning environment. However, Marymount was closer to this objective and was thus capable of more easily surmounting the obstacles.

d.) In both cases the change cycle followed was the coercive one. The results vis a vis teacher rebellion were thus predictable.

e.) As the coercive cycle evolved, the participants were thrown immediately into the consolidation stage of the change process. The first two steps, having been omitted, the trauma felt by all was accentuated.

f.) As opinion leadership was almost non-existent in either school, groupthink set in among the teachers and greatly impeded, instead of helping, the change agents in question.

g.) No force-field analysis was performed, resulting in both change agents having a relatively fuzzy concept of the road to success to be followed.

Summary

In order to better visualize the advantages and disadvantages present in each change situation studied here, the writer will produce a force-field analysis of both districts.

A cursory look below will identify the major weak links in both cases and should help us to understand why so many traumatic experiences occurred in Marymount and Smith High schools.

Driving

1. The position.
2. Personality.
3. Homophily.
4. Empathy.

Restraining

1. Opinion leadership.
2. Compatibility with clients' needs.
3. Philosophy.
4. Underlying Assumptions.
5. L-grp. instr.
6. Small grp. instr.
7. Independent study

Driving

1. Position.
2. Personality.
3. Homophily.
4. Empathy.

1. Opinion leadership.

5. Credibility.

5. Credibility.

2. Compatibility with clients' needs.

6. Compatibility with clients' needs.

6. Physical health.

2. Physical Health.

3. Philosophy.
4. Underlying Assumptions.

7. Underlying Assumptions.

Intro-
spec-
tion.

5. L-grp. instr.

8. L-grp. instr.

6. Small grp. instr.

9. Small group instr.

Fundamen-
tals:

1. Primary Importance

10. Independent study.

MARYMOUNT HIGH SCHOOL

SMITH HIGH SCHOOL

Driving

Restraining

Driving

Restraining

- 8. Resource Centers
- 9. Individualized learning.

- 11. Individualized learning.

7. Unstructured time.

- 4. Resource centers.
- 5. Unstructured time

8. Teacher-counsellor units.

- 12. Teacher-counsellor units.

9. Effective method of building schedule.

- 6. Effective method of building schedule.

10. Interdisciplinary approach.

- 13. Interdisciplinary approach.

11. Team teaching.

- 14. Team teaching.

12. Teacher participation.

- 15. Teacher participation.

13. Reduction of formal class time.

- 16. Reduction of formal class time.
- 2. Secondary importance

10. In-service

- 17. In-service training.

Driving

Restraining

- 18. Discipline.
- 19. Public Relations program.
- 20. Lack of flexibility in period lengths.

- 14. Public Relations Program.

Driving

- 11. Discipline.

- 12. Varying Period and course lengths.

- 21. Student participation.

- 15. Student participation.

- 16. Student orientation.

- 22. Student orientation.
- 23. Efficient implementation.

- 17. Efficient implementation plan.

- 7. Evaluation study.

- 13. Evaluative study.

- 24. Formal setting.

- 18. Formal setting.

- 25. Large female component but no adherence to latter's needs.

- 19. Large female component on staff but no adherence to latter's needs.

3. Tertiary importance.

Driving

Restraining

20. Leadership styles not conducive to desired end.

Driving

Restraining

26. Leadership styles not conducive to desired end.

14. Principal attended to social and esteem needs of staff.

27. Principal did not attend to social and esteem needs of staff.

The
Change
Strategy.

28. Coercive change cycle.

21. Coercive change cycle.

29. Wrong approach to change process.

22. Wrong approach to change process

23. Groupthink.

30. Groupthink.

24. No force-field analysis.

31. No force-field analysis.

25. Little knowledge of pitfalls to be aware of.

32. Little knowledge of pitfalls to be aware of.

Restraining

- 33. Princi-
pal's in-
flexibil-
ity and
autocratic
leadership
style.
- 34. Lack of use
of flexibil-
ity in mas-
ter sche-
dule.

The
Con-
ceptu-
al
Frame-
work

Driving

Restraining

- 15. Principal's
flexibility and
willingness to
decentralize.
- 16. Flexible modular
schedule.

Driving

C H A P T E R X

EVALUATION

As was mentioned earlier, and for the reasons given then, a full evaluation of the three components of the school district (teachers, pupils and parents) and their feelings toward the change as it has progressed thus far should be taken. This will enable the change agent to better understand the real progress of his program and to better see what flaws are causing the most problems and what to do about these.

To give the reader an idea of what should be discerned and how to go about finding that information the author will present his evaluation of the situation in the two schools being dealt with in this paper. This analysis is the result of the interpreting of those statistics as found in appendix "A".

However, although the evaluating of People's opinions is both necessary and helpful, the author wishes to emphasize, at this point, that other aspects of the school situation should also be dealt with in the over-all evaluation process. Studies dealing with the implementation of a more personalized learning environment confirm the suspicion that considerable effort is needed to develop means to gather sufficient and convincing evidence to determine if the procedures used and the flexibility gained are indeed contributing positively to the educational development of the children involved (Congreve and Rinehart, 1972, p. 17). The important point is not

the assessing of the degree of flexibility achieved, but the determining of the effect of the flexibility achieved on the educational outcomes.

Toward this end one will find that fairly precise normative tools are available in the limited areas of basic skills, knowledge attainment and, to some extent, in the ability of students to use skills and apply knowledge. Similarly, by using "before" and "after" scales one can determine if such important student behaviors as skipping, vandalism and participation in extra-curricular activities have increased or decreased since the change. However, as one seeks to measure and evaluate the less tangible behaviors in the affective domain, the tools become quite scarce. Vis a vis this last point the reader would be well advised to become acquainted with the following publication:

Robinson, John, P. and Phillip R. Shaver, Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, Ann Arbor, Michigan, University of Michigan, 1969.

Evaluation of Opinionnaires

When undertaking large-scale measures such as those attempted in both Smith and Marymount high schools, the first item which must be looked into are the facilities which one will have to work with. Upon studying the opinionnaires it becomes evident that adequate facilities were provided in both cases. Parents, teachers and students all voted overwhelmingly (over 65%) in agreement with the statement: "Study

facilities at Smith/Marymount are good." The findings were corroborated when each component of the school community voted with even greater positiveness when asked if instructional facilities were good. Thus, whatever problems emanated from the changes implemented did not derive from an inferior physical plant.

However, an analysis of the rest of the questionnaires does reveal possible explanations for the present growing pains:

1. Lack of adequate pre-implementation planning would seem to be a cause for difficulties encountered, especially in the case of Smith. Such preparation includes a thorough investigation of the philosophy the schoolmen believe in. A clear and precise understanding here will serve to show the way to practices which should be incorporated in the school program (one must practice what one preaches). It further morally arms the pedagogues against the predictable initial problems by reminding them why they are implementing certain innovations. Such lack of preparedness becomes evident when 67% of both staffs agree that unstructured time is an advantage to the student from an educational point of view but almost 75% of Smith teachers say that students have too much free time - a clear inconsistency. This point is made clearer when one sees that only 35% of the Marymount educators agreed to the same statement although the student density is lower in the latter institution. Interestingly, only 52% of

parents thought there was too much "free" time in Smith.

Further lack of mental preparedness seems to be indicated when all teachers at Marymount and 95% at Smith agreed that "teachers should be available to help students individually whenever the student needs and requests such help within the limits of the 'teacher's available time'", but Smith educators sought and won arbitration to ensure a reduction of the time they would be exposed to the students. Discrepancy in defining "teacher's available time" is not a valid objection as the majority agreed with the definition: "Any time within the student's school day other than formal class teaching assignments plus lunch."

2. Lack of trust on the part of the teaching staff toward the students seems to be indicated by the findings. When variable/modular scheduling is established and unstructured time liberates students to a greater extent than before, one must trust in the student's maturity and sense of responsibility or at least his potentiality toward these two characteristics. However, when asked to comment on "High school students generally are mature enough to adapt favorably to variable/modular scheduling", only 65% of Marymount teachers saw fit to agree. Although a plurality, the portion of staff in agreement seems less high than would seem optimal. However, Smith teachers, by voting 68% in disagreement show that a tremendous lack of confidence for the student body exists on their part.

3. Lack of a stimulating learning environment is almost certainly causing certain problems. The great majority of teachers (96% in Marymount and 86% in Smith) agreed that students want to learn. When asked if "In general students are concerned about their school work", 81% in Marymount and 56% in Smith answered to the affirmative. (The lower rating at Smith further illustrates the aforementioned lack of confidence in the student). However, to a question asked much later in the questionnaire, only approximately 16% of both staffs agreed that "students exert a great deal of effort in their course work." If students want to learn, and are concerned about their schoolwork, why are they not exerting more effort toward that which interests and concerns them? The author would suggest a lack of an imaginative and stimulating learning environment as a possible cause. This point is somewhat supported by the students in Smith. Only 48% thought their classes were exciting, while only 38% felt their assignments were meaningful.

4. Lack of communication between school and parents further accounts for the disenchantment in the educational program at Smith, as the two components are obviously viewing several aspects of the school from different perspectives. As stated above, only 56% of Smith teachers agreed that students are concerned about their schoolwork, but 90% of parents thought in the affirmative. (The discrepancy in Marymount was much less: 16%). Only 26% of Smith teachers thought the

scheduling of students had been satisfactory, but 77% of parents were satisfied. (Were the teachers looking at the schedule from the pupil's point of view or egocentrically?). Again the Marymount community seems to be more united in thought. (parents: 75%, teachers: 66%). A total "lack of agreement vis a vis "Students exert a great deal of pressure in their course work." was encountered in both districts: in Smith 15% of teachers agreed with the statement while 80% of parents said yes. In Marymount, though not as elevated, a difference of 50% in opinion was nevertheless noted.

Only 9% of Smith teachers thought school spirit was high while 62% of parents voted affirmatively. Marymount exhibited a 45%-25% difference of opinion here.

When asked if students were assuming greater responsibility for their own learning 24% of Smith teachers agreed, but 90% of the parents felt affirmatively. Marymount also exhibited a high discrepancy of feeling here, recording 79% for the parents and only 38% for teachers.

5. A teacher-pupil communication gap is also clearly evident. Only 5% of Smith's professional staff felt that school was the source of a teen-ager's problems, but 45% of students felt the same way.

74% of teachers thought there was too much unstructured time for the students but only 17% of pupils thought so. Marymount High showed an incredible degree of unison here,

teachers and pupils voting 34% and 39% respectively for the positive side.

Closely aligned and seemingly supporting this premise is the fact that only 58% of Smith students thought they could now meet with teachers on a less formal basis to engage in educational programs while 55% felt they would be allowed to visit classes or attend special activities during unstructured time. These, among other points, probably account for the fact that only approximately half (51%) of the pupils said their attitude toward Smith High could best be described as enthusiastic. Further attesting to this communication gap is that only 31% of the students (Smith) felt they could get personal attention in their school.

6. Certain fundamentals of a sound educational program associated with the philosophy of flexible/variable scheduling have not been implemented at Smith and are therefore contributing to the confusion found in the general pedagogical ambience. The same is also true at Marymount though to a lesser extent. Some of these fundamentals are: large and small group instruction, team teaching, individualized learning, independent study and teacher-counsellor units. To the author's knowledge none of these have been implemented at Smith. One, therefore, has been given the use of a valuable pedagogical tool: flexible scheduling, but has failed to take advantage of the opportunities thus made available.

At its worst, modular scheduling can be an organizational exercise that has little or no effect on

classroom practices of teachers. At its best, if teachers are involved in the planning and subject departments and develop new objectives and courses and instructional modes, the school program can be greatly improved. (Cavanagh, 1970, p. 1)

An interesting highlight here is that teachers in both communities agreed (87% in Smith, 78% in Marymount) that team-teaching is generally beneficial to students in their senior high school years. But where is the team-teaching at Smith?

7. Variable/flexible is supposed to free both teachers and students to do more work within an informal atmosphere (as opposed to the formal environment of the traditional classroom). The reduction of formal class time for most disciplines is the fundamental usually employed to accomplish this end. Obviously this has not happened at Smith as only 35% of teachers agreed that more time had been provided to prepare instructional materials and select learning opportunities. In contrast 89% of Marymount teachers felt they had been given this opportunity. In the same vein 89% in Marymount felt they had been assigned tasks and duties which utilize their special strengths and interests, while barely half (53%) in Smith saw their situation in the same light. Thus, a further cause for the problems being encountered would be the dissatisfaction of teachers in Smith vis a vis their working conditions.

8. Lack of communication between departments is not conducive to the establishing of a more pleasant general learn-

ing environment. Although 64% in Smith (79% in Marymount) thought that the new type of schedule helped to increase cooperation among teachers within their department, only 28% in the American institution felt an increase in cooperation among members of the faculty in general had resulted. The Montreal teachers voted 61% in favor here. Supporting this finding was the evidence that only 14% in Smith (47% in Marymount) thought interdepartmental understanding and cooperation had been increased.

9. A lack of faith in the professional educators at Smith, especially the administration, on the part of the parents is probably lending to dissension within the community, whereas 67% of the parents felt teachers were concerned about their children's educational progress (Lower than should be the case optimally), only 33% expressed the same confidence in the administrators involved.

Suggested Remedies

1. A thorough introspection on the part of the administration and teaching faculty vis a vis their philosophy, underlying assumptions and institutional objectives would be in order. As variable scheduling is meant to accommodate the school community believing in the affective as well as the cognitive domain, it would be well worthwhile to discover how deeply the educators involved truly believe in the former characteristic of the pedagogical environment.

2. Increase student participation in the planning

of any major change which will affect them directly. The incorporation of student council members into the steering committee might be a first step in this direction.

3. Teachers must develop expertise in the aforementioned fundamentals of their educational program plus any others deemed justifiable. In-service training would seem to be warranted here.

4. The implementation of said fundamentals would lend credence to the educators' professed ideals and would serve to augment the stimulation deemed to be lacking by the evidence obtained thus far.

5. Establish a vigorous and well-thought-out public relations program so that the community at large and the professional staff are more in unison as far as knowledge of actual goings-on in the institution are concerned.

6. Attempt to increase teacher satisfaction by giving them freer rein in the experimenting with various pedagogical tools. Also pay heed to some of their stated desires: 72% thought the snack privilege/student center concept has value in a variable schedule, while 81% expressed a desire for help in carrying out their duties and tasks in the school (paraprofessional? mother/father volunteers?). It should be noted here, however, that whereas Marymount has had access to parent volunteers and paraprofessionals for two years, only 24% of the teachers felt these had been helpful to them in their work. Thus, the procuring of this type of help per

se is not enough. These people must be given some training in their new role and made to be visible once they assume their duties. The assigning of tasks and duties to teachers which the latter feel are in keeping with their professional training would be more conducive to higher morale.

7. Teacher workrooms where many seemingly hide from students could be abolished. Instead teachers could be given work space in the various resource centers. In this way communication with students could be increased, resource centers (a necessity in variable scheduling) would be manned automatically and increased cooperation between faculty members might be increased.

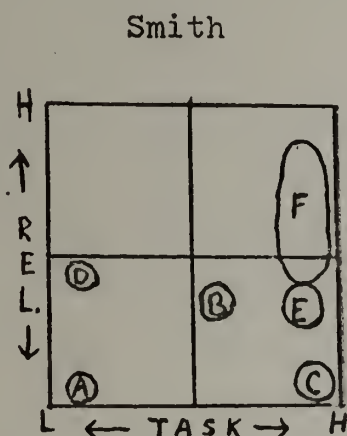
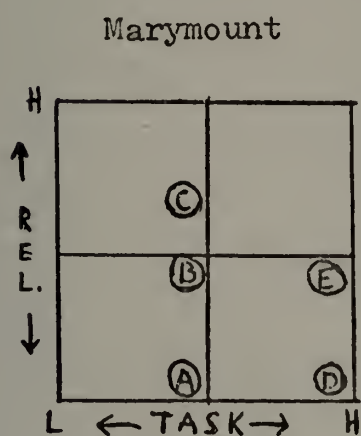
8. Implement, where possible, an interdisciplinary (topical or thematic) approach to instruction. An increase in interdepartmental cooperation would necessarily follow, team-teaching would be facilitated and the isolationism between departments would be greatly diminished.

9. A leader in Smith is needed to define high priority tasks. Because the superintendent has been so invisible thus far he would seem to be the obvious choice to assume this role.

10. The change agent must become aware of the incompatibility of leadership styles demonstrated thus far in relation to the over-all ambience the educational institution should be striving towards. In a flexible-type scheduled school, the optimal environment is one where several pedago-

gical tools, such as those mentioned previously, should be implemented. It is also hoped that the maturity level of both teachers and students can be elevated to the point where individuals would take advantage of opportunities presented to them to "do their own thing". For such an atmosphere to be created, a high relationship-low to medium task orientation environment seems to be the ultimate objective.

However, as is illustrated below, the leadership styles in both situations are not conducive to the obtaining of this goal; though Marymount's is closer:



Legend:

- a. Superintendent
- b. Asst. Super.
- c. Principal
- d. Director
- e. Teachers (collectively)
- f. Consultant

(A description of the various above-mentioned individuals may be found in the chapter dealing with the two case studies.)

The change agent, must therefore, not only change his own leadership style (this is especially true in Smith) but must help others in changing theirs.

11. Finally, before proceeding further the change

agent should also assess the present driving and restraining forces so as to better understand his situation:

<u>MARYMOUNT</u>		<u>SMITH</u>	
<u>Driving forces</u>	<u>Restraining forces</u>	<u>Driving forces</u>	<u>Restraining forces</u>
1. Principal.	1. Superintendent	1. Consultant	1. Principal
2. Assistant Principals	2. Assistant superintendent	2. Assistant superintendent	2. Teachers
3. Flexible teachers' union	3. A portion of the community	3. Evaluative study	3. Teachers' union.
4. Momentum built up by initial change agent	4. Certain recalcitrant teachers.		4. Arbitration decision.
5. A portion of the community	5. Lack of implementation of many fundamentals		5. Assistant
6. Evaluative study			6. A portion of the community
			7. Past history of legal confrontation between teachers and central office.
			8. Incompatibility of leadership styles
			9. Lack of implementation of many fundamentals.

When the restricting forces heavily outweigh the driving ones, it is folly to proceed with the change process until

some of the negative forces can be converted or at least neutralized. Thus, Marymount seems to be in a much better position for eventual success. The change agent in Smith will now have to decide how he is to overcome the discrepancy and incompatibility of the various leadership styles toward the objective along with defusing the many restrictive forces.

Conclusion

Although many problems are currently being encountered in Smith (to a lesser extent in Marymount) these are due to: 1.) growing pains which occur naturally with any change situation, and 2.) the several causes previously mentioned.

As the program (i.e., flexible/variable scheduling) has succeeded in many institutions throughout this continent, there is no evidence that eventual success is unattainable.

A retrenchment to the traditional learning environment is clearly not in order as THERE IS ABSOLUTELY NO MANDATE TO ABOLISH WHAT HAS BEEN INITIATED THUS FAR. This feeling on the part of the writer is borne out by the following statistics:

1.) 85% of the parents and 71% of the teachers in Smith (74% and 79% respectively in Marymount) said they were enthusiastic about the potential of variable scheduling.

2.) 69% of the teachers in Smith and 93% in Montreal said they were happy to be teaching at Smith/Marymount in spite of the trials and tribulations of the past year.

3. 60% of the parents and 85% of the students at Smith (90% of students at Marymount) thought variable scheduling should be continued next year.

4. 85% of the Smith teachers (89% in Marymount) thought that variable/modular scheduling can be successful if some adjustments are made to the present structures.

5. 54% of the Smith teachers went so far as to say they would like the present structures to evolve toward full implementation of the flexible modular schedule.

Thus, a cessation of the present evolutionary trend in both schools would obviously be an abrogation of parents', teachers' and students' rights and a complete disregard for their wishes.

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C H A P T E R X I

SUMMARY

As much rhetoric can presently be found about the dehumanization of our schools, the change agent should, before embarking on changing the pedagogical atmosphere in his institution, make sure that both he and his subordinates understand what is meant by the term: "the personalized pedagogical environment". The author suggests that such an environment would possess three characteristics among others: 1.) genuineness, 2.) trust and 3.) empathy.

Next, the change agent should be aware that the important position to hold in order to be best assured of success in this change is that of the school principal. Should the potential change agent not be in this position, he should at least ascertain the principal's feelings about such a change. The latter should be actively involved in this change and be very visible and show positive feelings for what is being attempted.

The potential change agent should then introspect to determine which, if any, characteristics of the seemingly successful change agent he possesses. Should he not own too many of these, his chances of success will be lessened. The suggested characteristics are: 1.) pleasant personality (as viewed by others), 2.) dedication to the cause, 3.) compatibility with the client's needs, 4.) empathy (with the teachers and students), 5.) homophily, 6.) opinion leadership,

7.) credibility, and 8.) good physical health.

Next, introspection on the part of the teaching and administrative faculties is deemed imperative. These two components of the school should understand what lies under the rhetoric and what the adoption of the philosophy means in terms of their behavior and mentality in the educational institution in question. The suggested over-all philosophy for the school really interested in personalizing the pedagogical environment is the belief that the school should seek to deal with students' affective as well as cognitive needs. In order to better understand this philosophy the author further suggests the scrutinizing of several underlying assumptions to this "global" philosophy: 1.) There is no one way to learn, 2.) Begin where the learner is, 3.) Alternatives should be tried, 4.) Students change behavior more readily than adults, 5.) Excitement breeds excitement, interest breeds interest and creativity breeds creativity, 6.) Time is not a primary criterion for learning, 7.) There is no irreplaceable content, 8.) Students are basically mature, interested, responsible and good.

In order to implement this philosophy and its underlying assumptions the author suggests the implementation of certain fundamentals which will lend credence to the espoused philosophy along with enabling the professional staff to practice what they preached. The author further suggests that the fundamentals of primary importance be implemented

at the inception of the program as well as many of the secondary and tertiary fundamentals as possible.

The fundamentals of primary importance are: 1.) small group instruction, 2.) large group instruction, 3.) independent study, 4.) unstructured time, 5.) resource centers, 6.) individualized learning, 7.) teacher-counsellor units and 8.) an effective method of building the master schedule. Those of secondary importance were presented as: 9.) interdisciplinary approach, 10.) team teaching, 11.) full teacher participation, 12.) reduction of formal class time, 13.) in-service training of staff, 14.) retention of discipline, 15.) varying period and course lengths, 16.) public relations program. Those of tertiary importance: 17.) student participation and orientation, 18.) efficient implementation plan and 19.) full evaluation of the school after the change has taken place.

In order to be able to implement as many of these fundamentals as possible and as efficiently as possible the change agent should devise an over-all framework allowing for the flexibility needed to carry out the envisaged plan. The author suggests that the flexible modular schedule provides the flexibility needed and thus considers it as the conceptual framework one needs for this program.

Although the academic study of the diffusion of innovations is not enough to provide tomorrow's change agent with all necessary knowledge, there are, nevertheless, sev-

eral aspects of the strategy for change which, if known and understood, can have a considerable influence on the innovator's success and effectiveness. These are:

1. The setting: The change agent should be aware that flexibility and informality appear to be important characteristics of the setting where the influential and persuasive appeals will be conducted. Thus, formal meetings and conferences should be used to a minimal extent in deference to the more informal atmosphere to be found in the countless different approaches one can use to make the client at ease.

2. The staff: One need not be concerned about the age of the staff but should females make up almost half or more of this group a gentler, very honest approach incorporating the teachers' help from the outset of the planning phase is to be recommended.

3. The hierarchy of human needs: As self-actualization is the goal in the personalized school, the change agent should seek to help the teaching staff toward this end by paying attention to their social and esteem needs. (The union will take care of the basic needs.)

4. The Managerial grid: The change agent should seek to lead his school (teachers and students alike) toward an overall ambience where one finds relatively low task orientation but very high consideration. The developing of his own leadership style as well as that of his administrative

assistants to a degree compatible with the desired end is deemed necessary.

5. The Force-field analysis: Before proceeding any further the change agent should conduct a thorough investigation of the restrictive and driving forces which are present in his situation. Should the weight of the restrictive forces be found to be greater than the driving ones one should either neutralize some of the negative elements or convert these to the positive side.

6. The change cycle: Because of disadvantages in both the participative and coerced change cycles it is recommended that the innovator follow a compromise between these two and use what has been termed the semi-autocratic method.

7. The change process: Because there is sufficient evidence which supports the theory that the human being proceeds through the change process in three phases: the unfreezing, the changing and the consolidating, it is recommended that the change agent allow his clients the time required for this process to take place rather than throw them into a foreign situation immediately where the unfreezing and changing aspects are not given a chance in the evolution of the individual.

8. Groupthink: A danger against the success of the program is the swerving of potentially-agreeable individuals (to the proposed change) by a minority who are capable of in-

fluencing the rest through a process known as "groupthink". To avoid this the change agent must keep in constant touch with his teachers (high consideration or relationship) and defend against this danger whenever it seems to begin.

9. The recalcitrants: Because the recalcitrant poses a danger to the proposed change, the change agent must not allow his leadership style to become totally democratic or permissive. Unfortunately, a coercion must be present where the recalcitrant is dealt with effectively so as to ensure his not being able to harm the hoped-for success of the advocated change.

10. The effective change agent: The change agent should be willing to remain in his environment until the change he has espoused has been intellectually adopted by his clients. To leave before this has occurred is a disservice to his clients and to the program in question.

The change agent should also be aware of the major problem areas which have plagued past attempts at personalizing the educational institution: 1.) fatigue, 2.) competition, 3.) quality staff (lack of), 4.) the community, 5.) skipping, 6.) fragmentation of the program, 7.) demoralization and 8.) pupils wasting time.

Finally, the change agent should evaluate his school after approximately one and a half years have gone by since the implementation of the change. He should assess the feelings of the three major elements of the school: 1.) teachers,

2.) students and 3.) parents, vis a vis the situation, as it has developed during the past eighteen months. He should also evaluate the effect the change has had on the cognitive growth of the students as well as on the affective domain.

The reader should be aware that as circumstances differ from one school district to another, additional steps in the implementation procedures may be dictated. The suggested plan, as dealt with in this study, is but the embryo of the full implementation scheme.

APPENDIX "A"

Statistical results of a survey
carried out in the Marymount and
Smith High school districts.

In studying the following statistical tables the reader will notice that the percentages of respondents in each category collectively add up to more than 100 percent. The author has chosen to report the number of respondents selecting the neutral answer and to classify all others separately. Consequently, the percentages inscribed in the columns "strongly agree", "agree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree" together add up to 100 percent. The author chose this method of reporting as it was thought that it would be more helpful if the reader were aware of the number of respondents feeling positively or negatively about a certain point and these being considered separately from those feeling neutrally.

It should also be pointed out that statistics for all sub-groups (boys, girls, young teachers, etc.) are derived from Marymount statistics only.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 1: Too much free time is available during school hours.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	8.7%	30.4%	37.0%	44.0%	16.8%
	39.1%			60.9%	
Smith H.S.	4.4%	13.2%	26.1%	51.5%	30.9%
	17.6%			82.4%	
Girls	4.8%	28.6%	37.3%	50.0%	16.7%
	33.4%			66.7%	
Boys	12.0%	32.0%	36.7%	39.0%	17.0%
	44.0%			56.0%	
Juniors	5.3%	20.0%	41.1%	54.7%	20.0%
	25.3%			74.7%	
Seniors	12.4%	41.6%	31.0%	32.6%	13.5%
	53.9%			46.1%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 2: Study facilities at school this year have been good.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	14.9%	59.6%	19.5%	15.7%	9.8%
		74.5%			25.3%
Smith H.S.	6.6%	53.7%	24.4%	20.9%	11.0%
		60.3%			31.9%
Girls	14.4%	63.2%	20.9%	14.4%	8.0%
		77.6%			22.4%
Boys	15.5%	55.5%	17.1%	17.3%	11.8%
		70.9%			29.1%
Juniors	17.2%	61.2%	17.8%	16.4%	5.2%
		78.4%			21.6%
Seniors	11.9%	57.4%	21.7%	14.9%	15.8%
		69.3%			30.7%

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 3: School facilities (drama, music, athletics, etc.) are available to most of the students.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	22.5%	60.7%	10.3%	9.2%	7.6%
	83.2%			16.8%	
Smith H.S.	18.2%	58.8%	20.6%	21.7%	1.4%
	77.0%			23.0%	
Girls	23.2%	61.6%	4.4%	11.3%	4.0%
	84.8%			15.3%	
Boys	21.6%	59.5%	17.1%	6.3%	12.6%
	81.4%			18.6%	
Juniors	27.8%	61.6%	7.4%	3.3%	7.3%
	89.4%			10.6%	
Seniors	15.3%	59.5%	14.0%	17.1%	8.1%
	74.8%			25.2%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 4: During this school year I would rate my efforts in my school work as good.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	15.2%	60.3%	23.3%	21.0%	3.6%
		75.4%			24.6%
Smith H.S.	16.4%	56.4%	22.2%	20.0%	9.2%
		70.8%			29.2%
Girls	16.2%	66.7%	25.9%	15.4%	1.7%
		82.9%			17.1%
Boys	14.0%	53.3%	20.1%	27.1%	5.6%
		67.3%			32.7%
Juniors	15.1%	66.7%	22.7%	15.9%	2.4%
		81.7%			18.3%
Seniors	15.3%	52.0%	24.0%	27.6%	5.0%
		67.3%			32.7%

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 5: I like the present timetable because there are short periods.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	24.3%	51.7%	18.2%	15.9%	8.4%
	75.7%			24.3%	
Smith H.S.	25.5%	45.3%	23.8%	19.0%	9.5%
	70.8%			28.5%	
Girls	19.7%	54.5%	16.5%	14.4%	11.4%
	74.2%			25.8%	
Boys	32.1%	50.7%	17.8%	14.9%	2.2%
	82.8%			17.2%	
Juniors	29.9%	47.7%	20.1%	17.8%	4.7%
	77.6%			22.5%	
Seniors	14.3%	52.4%	18.6%	17.1%	15.2%
	66.7%			33.3%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 6: I find my timetable too confusing.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	1.8%	1.1%	4.8%	44.2%	52.5%
		2.9%			96.8%
Smith H.S.	10.9%	6.0%	16.1%	50.3%	32.4%
		16.9%			82.7%
Girls	2.0%	0.0%	5.7%	49.0%	48.3%
		2.0%			97.3%
Boys	1.6%	2.3%	3.7%	38.8%	57.4%
		3.9%			96.1%
Juniors	1.9%	1.3%	3.1%	41.1%	55.7%
		3.2%			96.8%
Seniors	1.7%	0.8%	7.0%	48.3%	48.3%
		2.5%			96.7%

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 7: I like the timetable because every day is different.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	33.5%	37.5%	15.1%	18.1%	10.9%
	71.0%			29.0%	
Smith H.S.	44.0%	36.0%	16.7%	12.7%	6.7%
	76.0%			19.4%	
Girls	28.8%	43.2%	14.6%	17.6%	10.4%
	72.0%			28.0%	
Boys	38.2%	31.7%	8.2%	18.7%	11.4%
	69.9%			30.1%	
Juniors	37.3%	36.6%	12.9%	15.5%	10.6%
	73.9%			26.1%	
Seniors	28.3%	38.7%	17.8%	21.7%	11.3%
	67.0%			33.0%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 8: I don't like the timetable because I don't get a good independent study activity started.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	9.5%	11.3%	24.3%	57.5%	21.7%
	20.8%			79.2%	
Smith H.S.	5.6%	12.1%	31.1%	48.4%	33.1%
	17.8%			81.5%	
Girls	11.1%	8.1%	26.1%	59.6%	21.2%
	19.2%			80.8%	
Boys	8.2%	13.9%	22.9%	55.7%	22.1%
	22.1%			77.9%	
Juniors	6.9%	4.6%	20.2%	64.6%	23.8%
	11.5%			88.5%	
Seniors	13.2%	20.9%	29.5%	47.3%	18.7%
	34.1%			65.9%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 9: Regular periods increase interest in learning.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	8.7%	42.5%	29.1%	35.7%	13.0%
	51.2%			48.7%	
Smith H.S.	Question not asked.				
Girls	12.6%	39.6%	29.7%	39.6%	8.1%
	52.3%			47.7%	
Boys	4.2%	45.8%	28.4%	31.3%	18.8%
	50.0%			50.0%	
Juniors	4.2%	47.5%	27.6%	32.2%	16.1%
	51.7%			48.3%	
Seniors	14.6%	36.0%	23.3%	40.4%	9.0%
	50.6%			49.4%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 10: Smith/Marymount High should continue flexible scheduling next year.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	63.5%	26.6%	9.9%	4.9%	4.9%
	90.1%				9.9%
Smith H.S.	56.1%	28.4%	13.9%	3.2%	11.0%
	84.5%				14.2%
Girls	56.0%	31.2%	10.8%	7.1%	5.7%
	87.2%				12.8%
Boys	72.1%	21.3%	9.0%	2.5%	4.1%
	93.4%				6.6%
Juniors	75.5%	21.9%	4.9%	1.3%	1.3%
	97.4%				2.6%
Seniors	46.3%	33.3%	16.3%	10.2%	10.2%
	79.6%				20.4%

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 11: I like the arrangement of classes because I can do something different every period when I have an independent study session (unscheduled time).

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	25.7%	59.1%	21.2%	12.6%	2.6%
	84.8%			15.2%	
Smith H.S.	30.9%	41.6%	17.2%	18.8%	6.0%
	72.5%			24.8%	
Girls	21.9%	59.4%	19.0%	15.6%	3.1%
	81.3%			18.8%	
Boys	30.4%	58.8%	23.9%	8.8%	2.0%
	89.2%			10.8%	
Juniors	28.4%	63.4%	17.8%	7.5%	0.7%
	91.8%			8.2%	
Seniors	21.9%	53.1%	25.6%	19.8%	5.2%
	75.0%			25.0%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 12: Do you feel the facilities in your regular classes are satisfactory?

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	9.6%	60.1%	25.3%	23.4%	6.9%
	69.7%			30.3%	
Smith H.S.	Question not asked.				
Girls	7.4%	63.6%	17.1%	20.7%	8.3%
	71.1%			28.9%	
Boys	12.4%	55.7%	27.6%	26.8%	5.2%
	68.0%			32.0%	
Juniors	9.7%	60.2%	30.7%	24.8%	5.3%
	69.9%			31.1%	
Seniors	9.5%	60.0%	18.6%	21.9%	8.6%
	69.5%			30.5%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 13: Far too much free time is available to the average student.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	11.2%	19.6%	26.7%	41.1%	28.0%
	30.8%			69.2%	
Smith H.S.	5.5%	15.1%	18.9%	34.9%	41.8%
	20.6%			76.7%	
Girls	14.3%	18.5%	24.7%	39.5%	27.7%
	32.8%			67.2%	
Boys	7.4%	21.1%	29.1%	43.2%	28.4%
	28.5%			71.5%	
Juniors	5.6%	8.8%	23.3%	46.4%	39.2%
	14.4%			85.6%	
Seniors	19.1%	34.8%	23.3%	33.7%	12.4%
	53.9%			46.1%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions were asked in Smith H.S. only.

Question # 14: Teachers are generally available to help or assist most of the time.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
7.5%	55.6%	26.1%	29.3%	7.5%
63.1%			36.8%	

Question # 15: School activities (drama, music, athletics, etc.) are important.

39.7%	39.7%	18.9%	11.6%	8.2%
79.4%			19.8%	

Question # 16: Teacher assignments are valuable.

4.9%	33.0%	42.8%	40.8%	20.4%
37.9%			61.2%	

Question # 17: Most students are concerned about their school work.

6.0%	37.7%	35.0%	38.5%	16.2%
43.7%			54.7%	

Question # 18: Most of the classes this year are exciting.

7.5%	40.3%	25.5%	35.1%	16.4%
47.8%			51.5%	

Question # 19: Most of the teachers at Smith are average.

5.7%	61.8%	31.7%	19.5%	11.4%
67.5%			30.9%	

Question # 20: I like the absence of bells ringing all day.

36.8%	31.0%	13.9%	18.1%	13.5%
67.8%			31.6%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 21: I do not like the arrangement of classes because I have to travel back and forth too much.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
4.0%	10.0%	16.1%	52.0%	33.3%
14.0%			75.3%	

Question # 22: Changes of class without warning bells causes confusion.

11.8%	22.2%	15.0%	41.8%	23.5%
34.0%			65.3%	

Question # 23: Enough unstructured time is available during the school day to complete teacher assignments.

9.2%	37.6%	21.7%	31.9%	20.6%
46.8%			52.5%	

Question # 24: This year teachers can be met on a less formal basis to engage in educational programs.

13.6%	44.7%	42.8%	32.0%	8.7%
58.3%			40.7%	

Question # 25: Work space is usually available in the resource centers when needed.

19.0%	58.5%	18.3%	13.6%	8.2%
77.5%			21.8%	

Question # 26: Work space is usually available in the labs when needed.

22.8%	56.7%	29.4%	12.6%	6.3%
79.5%			18.9%	

Question # 27: I dislike the present timetable because the periods are too short.

7.1%	8.4%	13.9%	38.1%	45.8%
15.5%			83.9%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 28: It is possible to visit classes or attend special activities during unstructured time.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
14.8%	40.7%	25.0%	23.7%	20.0%
55.5%			43.7%	

Question # 29: My parents think I am a good student.

18.5%	68.5%	27.8%	4.6%	7.7%
87.0%			12.3%	

question # 30: Under the present type of schedule I have the opportunity to learn to the maximum of my ability.

14.7%	50.9%	35.6%	21.6%	12.8%
65.6%			34.4%	

Question # 31: Instructional facilities are satisfactory.

10.1%	64.7%	33.9%	18.5%	5.0%
74.8%			23.5%	

Question # 32: I like the arrangement of classes because I have longer periods in shops, gym and/or art and music.

30.9%	41.7%	17.2%	18.8%	6.0%
72.6%			24.8%	

Question # 33: I like the arrangement of classes because I get a chance to move around the building more.

26.5%	39.0%	24.4%	16.2%	18.3%
65.5%			34.5%	

Question # 34: My parents are happy with the type of work I am doing at Smith.

16.3%	55.0%	28.3%	17.1%	7.8%
71.3%			24.9%	

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 35: Most of the students at Smith are friendly.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
16.4%	59.4%	28.9%	14.8%	5.5%
75.8%			20.3%	

Question # 36: At this time my attitude toward high school at Penney could best be described as enthusiastic.

16.9%	34.7%	31.1%	30.6%	17.8%
51.6%			48.4%	

Question # 37: Most school assignments have been reasonably easy.

7.2%	42.4%	30.6%	34.4%	13.3%
49.6%			47.7%	

Question # 38: School causes most of my problems.

16.3%	28.4%	21.7%	37.6%	14.9%
44.7%			52.5%	

Question # 39: I have good study habits.

6.1%	40.4%	45.0%	33.3%	20.0%
46.7%			53.3%	

Question # 40: I feel that, in Smith High School, I get personal attention.

7.6%	23.5%	33.9%	42.0%	26.9%
31.1%			68.9%	

Question # 41: Since attending high school I have read more books not directly concerned with subjects currently studied.

8.3%	30.6%	32.7%	42.1%	19.0%
38.9%			61.1%	

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 1: The scheduling of my child this year has been satisfactory.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	0.0%	75.0%	20.0%	25.0%	0.0%
	75.0%			25.0%	
Smith H.S.	9.1%	68.2%	8.3%	18.2%	4.5%
	77.3%			22.7%	

Question # 2: My child has too much unstructured (free) time).

Marymount H.S.	2.8%	58.2%	10.0%	36.1%	2.8%
	61.1%			38.9%	
Smith H.S.	21.1%	31.6%	20.8%	26.3%	21.1%
	52.7%			47.4%	

Question # 3: Study facilities at Smith/Marymount are excellent.

Marymount H.S.	30.8%	50.0%	35.0%	15.4%	3.8%
	80.8%			19.2%	
Smith H.S.	15.8%	52.6%	20.8%	21.1%	10.5%
	68.4%			31.6%	

Question # 4: Unstructured time is an advantage to my child from an educational point of view.

Marymount H.S.	11.8%	44.1%	15.0%	41.2%	2.9%
	55.9%			44.1%	
Smith H.S.	23.4%	23.5%	29.2%	29.4%	23.5%
	47.0%			52.9%	

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 5: Student involvement in co-curricular activities (e.g.- clubs, sports, etc.) is an important part of the school program.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	45.9%	48.6%	7.5%	5.4%	0.0%
	94.6%			5.4%	
Smith H.S.	45.8%	45.8%	0.0%	8.3%	0.0%
	91.6%			8.3%	

Question # 6: In general my child is concerned about his school work.

Marymount H.S.	16.2%	64.9%	7.5%	16.2%	2.7%
	81.1%			18.9%	
Smith H.S.	38.1%	52.4%	12.5%	4.8%	4.8%
	90.5%			9.6%	

Question # 7: My child exerts a great deal of effort in his school work.

Marymount H.S.	10.0%	56.7%	25.0%	30.0%	3.3%
	66.7%			33.3%	
Smith H.S.	30.0%	50.0%	16.7%	15.0%	5.0%
	80.0%			20.0%	

Question # 8: My child is assuming increasing responsibility for his own learning.

Marymount H.S.	21.2%	57.8%	17.5%	21.2%	0.0%
	78.8%			21.2%	
Smith H.S.	21.1%	68.4%	20.8%	0.0%	10.5%
	89.5%			10.5%	

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 9: From my observations, school spirit at Smith/Marymount is very high.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	0.0%	45.2%	22.5%	32.3%	22.6%
		45.2%			54.8%
Smith H.S.	15.4%	46.2%	45.8%	30.8%	7.7%
		61.6%			38.5%

Question # 10: School is the source of most of a teenager's problems.

Marymount H.S.	2.9%	23.5%	15.0%	64.7%	8.8%
		26.5%			73.5%
Smith H.S.	5.5%	16.7%	25.0%	66.6%	11.1%
		22.2%			77.7%

Question # 11: I am enthusiastic about the potential of variable/modular scheduling for increasing student learning.

Marymount H.S.	14.8%	59.2%	32.5%	25.9%	0.0%
		74.1%			25.9%
Smith H.S.	28.6%	57.1%	41.7%	0.0%	14.3%
		85.7%			14.3%

Question # 12: Instructional facilities at Smith/Marymount are good.

Marymount H.S.	12.5%	71.9%	20.0%	12.5%	3.1%
		84.4%			15.6%
Smith H.S.	26.3%	57.9%	20.8%	10.5%	5.3%
		84.2%			15.8%

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 13: I think Smith High should retain variable scheduling next year.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	Question not asked.				
Smith H.S.	26.7%	33.3%	37.5%	33.3%	6.7%
	60.0%			40.0%	

Question # 14: Teachers at Smith are concerned about my child's educational progress.

Marymount H.S.	Question not asked.				
Smith H.S.	0.0%	66.7%	25.0%	27.8%	5.6%
	66.7%			33.3%	

Question # 15: I am satisfied with the variety of subjects offered at Smith High.

Marymount H.S.	Question not asked.				
Smith H.S.	18.9%	68.2%	8.3%	9.1%	4.5%
	87.1%			13.6%	

Question # 16: The administration is sympathetic with the concerns of my child for his educational progress.

Marymount H.S.	Question not asked.				
Smith H.S.	5.6%	27.8%	25.0%	55.6%	11.1%
	33.3%			66.7%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 1: The scheduling of students this year has been satisfactory.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	3.4%	62.1%	6.5%	27.6%	6.9%
	65.5%			34.5%	
Smith H. S.	4.2%	21.9%	18.6%	55.2%	18.8%
	26.1%			74.0%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	5.8%	52.9%	5.6%	29.4%	11.8%
	58.8%			41.2%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	75.0%	7.7%	25.0%	0.0%
	75.0%			25.0%	

Question # 2: Students have too much unstructured time.

Marymount H.S.	3.8%	30.8%	16.1%	50.0%	15.4%
	34.6%			65.4%	
Smith H. S.	42.2%	32.1%	7.6%	22.9%	2.8%
	74.3%			25.7%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	5.8%	29.4%	5.6%	47.1%	17.6%
	35.3%			64.7%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	33.3%	40.8%	55.6%	11.1%
	33.3%			66.7%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 3: Study facilities at Smith (Marymount) are excellent.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	7.1%	60.7%	9.7%	21.4%	10.7%
	67.9%			32.1%	
Smith H. S.	27.6%	45.9%	16.9%	19.4%	7.1%
	73.5%			26.4%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	11.8%	52.9%	5.6%	23.5%	11.8%
	64.7%			35.3%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	72.7%	15.4%	18.2%	9.1%
	72.7%			27.3%	

Question # 4: The snack privilege/student center concept has value in a variable/modular schedule.

Marymount H.S.	34.5%	55.2%	6.5%	6.9%	3.4%
	89.7%			10.3%	
Smith H. S.	15.1%	57.0%	21.9%	20.4%	7.5%
	72.1%			27.9%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	33.3%	55.6%	0.0%	5.6%	5.6%
	88.9%			11.1%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	36.4%	54.5%	15.4%	9.1%	0.0%
	90.9%			9.1%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 5: Unstructured time is an advantage to the student from an educational point of view.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	23.3%	43.3%	3.2%	23.3%	10.0%
	66.7%			33.3%	
Smith H. S.	27.4%	41.2%	19.5%	16.8%	14.7%
	67.6%			32.5%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	27.8%	33.3%	0.0%	27.8%	11.1%
	61.1%			38.9%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	16.7%	58.3%	7.7%	16.7%	8.3%
	75.0%			25.0%	

Question # 6: Teachers should be available to help students individually whenever the student needs and requests such help within the limits of the "teacher's available time."

Marymount H.S.	66.7%	33.3%	3.2%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	
Smith H. S.	52.7%	42.0%	5.1%	3.6%	1.8%
	94.7%			5.4%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	64.7%	35.3%	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	69.2%	30.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 7: "Teacher's available time" should be any time within the student's school day other than formal class teaching assignments plus lunch.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE NEUTRAL DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

Marymount H.S.

Question not asked.

Smith H. S.	25.0%	35.6%	14.4%	21.2%	18.3%
	60.6%			39.5%	

1-9 yrs.
seniority

10-plus yrs.
seniority

Question # 8: In general students use resource centers wisely.

Marymount H.S.	42.2%	16.7%	38.7%	50.0%	29.2%
	20.8%			79.2%	

Smith H. S.	5.5%	33.0%	22.3%	38.5%	23.1%
	38.5%			61.6%	

1-9 yrs. seniority	0.0%	12.5%	11.1%	62.5%	25.0%
	12.5%			87.5%	

10-plus yrs. seniority	12.5%	25.0%	38.5%	25.0%	37.5%
	37.5%			62.5%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question # 9: Student involvement in co-curricular activities is an important part of our school programs.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	26.7%	53.3%	3.2%	13.3%	6.7%
	80.0%			20.0%	
Smith H. S.	32.7%	52.7%	14.4%	13.9%	1.0%
	85.4%			14.9%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	29.4%	47.1%	5.6%	6.4%	5.9%
	76.5%			23.5%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	23.1%	61.5%	0.0%	7.7%	7.7%
	84.6%			15.4%	

Question #10: Most students want to learn.

Marymount H.S.	18.5%	77.8%	12.9%	0.0%	3.7%
	96.3%			3.7%	
Smith H. S.	16.2%	69.7%	16.1%	12.1%	2.0%
	85.9%			14.1%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	20.0%	73.3%	16.7%	0.0%	6.7%
	93.3%			6.7%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	16.7%	83.3%	7.7%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #11: In general, students at Smith/Marymount are concerned about their school work.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	7.7%	57.7%	16.1%	23.1%	11.5%
	65.4%			34.6%	
Smith H. S.	4.2%	51.6%	19.5%	37.9%	6.3%
	55.8%			44.2%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	14.3%	28.6%	22.2%	35.7%	21.4%
	42.9%			57.1%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	91.7%	7.7%	8.3%	0.0%
	91.7%			8.3%	

Question #12: Most students at Smith/Marymount exert a great deal of effort in their course work.

Marymount H.S.	0.0%	14.8%	12.9%	59.3%	25.9%
	14.8%			85.2%	
Smith H. S.	0.0%	16.8%	14.4%	61.4%	21.8%
	16.8%			83.2%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	0.0%	16.7%	0.0%	44.4%	38.9%
	16.7%			83.3%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	11.1%	30.8%	88.9%	0.0%
	11.1%			88.9%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #13: Under variable/modular scheduling, discipline appears to be less of a problem for me.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	8.7%	39.1%	25.8%	43.5%	8.7%
	47.8%			52.2%	
Smith H. S.	6.3%	22.8%	33.1%	30.4%	40.5%
	29.1%			70.9%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	14.3%	28.6%	22.2%	52.8%	14.3%
	42.9%			57.1%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	55.6%	30.8%	44.4%	0.0%
	55.6%			44.4%	

Question #14: School spirit among the students at Smith/Marymount is very high.

Marymount H.S.	4.7%	20.8%	22.6%	45.8%	29.2%
	25.5%			75.0%	
Smith H. S.	0.0%	9.3%	17.8%	50.5%	40.2%
	9.3%			90.7%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	5.9%	5.9%	16.7%	41.2%	35.3%
	13.3%			86.7%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	44.4%	30.8%	44.4%	11.2%
	44.4%			55.6%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #15: School is the source of most of a teenager's problems.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	0.0%	7.4%	12.9%	77.8%	14.8%
	7.4%			92.6%	
Smith H. S.	1.0%	4.0%	12.7%	66.0%	29.1%
	5.0%			95.0%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	0.0%	13.3%	16.7%	66.7%	20.0%
	13.3%			86.7%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%	91.7%	8.3%
	0.0%			100.0%	

Question #16: I am enthusiastic about the potential of variable/modular scheduling for increased student learning.

Marymount H.S.	20.8%	58.3%	22.6%	20.8%	0.0%
	79.2%			20.8%	
Smith H. S.	32.6%	37.9%	19.5%	14.7%	14.7%
	70.5%			29.4%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	35.7%	50.0%	22.2%	14.3%	0.0%
	85.7%			14.3%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	70.0%	23.1%	30.0%	0.0%
	70.0%			30.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #17: Instructional facilities at Smith/Marymount are good.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	28.6%	57.2%	9.7%	14.3%	0.0%
	85.8%			14.3%	
Smith H. S.	48.2%	45.5%	5.1%	3.6%	2.7%
	93.7%			6.3%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	25.0%	56.3%	11.1%	18.8%	0.0%
	81.3%			18.8%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	33.3%	58.3%	7.7%	8.3%	0.0%
	91.7%			8.3%	

Question #18: Variable/modular scheduling has helped to increase co-operation among members of the faculty.

Marymount H.S.	8.7%	52.2%	25.8%	34.8%	4.4%
	60.9%			39.2%	
Smith H. S.	3.8%	24.1%	33.1%	51.9%	20.3%
	27.9%			72.2%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	7.7%	53.8%	27.8%	30.8%	7.7%
	61.5%			38.5%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	10.0%	50.0%	23.1%	40.0%	0.0%
	60.0%			40.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #19: Variable/modular scheduling has helped to increase interdepartmental understanding.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	10.5%	36.8%	38.7%	47.4%	5.2%
	47.4%			52.6%	
Smith H. S.	2.6%	12.8%	33.9%	64.1%	20.5%
	14.4%			84.6%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	18.2%	36.4%	38.9%	45.5%	0.0%
	54.5%			45.5%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	37.5%	38.5%	50.0%	12.5%
	37.5%			62.5%	

Question #20: In spite of the trials and tribulations, I am happy to be a teacher at Smith/Marymount this year.

Marymount H.S.	50.0%	43.7%	3.2%	3.3%	3.3%
	93.3%			6.7%	
Smith H. S.	31.9%	37.2%	20.3%	19.1%	11.7%
	69.1%			30.8%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	44.4%	44.4%	0.0%	5.6%	5.6%
	88.9%			11.1%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	58.3%	41.7%	7.7%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question 21: Under variable/modular scheduling more time has been provided for me to prepare instructional materials and select learning opportunities.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	46.2%	42.3%	16.1%	11.5%	0.0%
	88.5%			11.5%	
Smith H. S.	9.8%	25.5%	13.4%	30.4%	34.3%
	35.3%			64.7%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	50.0%	50.0%	11.1%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	40.0%	30.0%	23.1%	30.0%	0.0%
	70.0%			30.0%	

Question #22: In general, I have been assigned tasks and duties which utilize my special strengths and interests.

Marymount H.S.	40.7%	48.1%	12.9%	7.4%	3.7%
	88.9%			11.1%	
Smith H. S.	17.6%	35.3%	12.7%	20.6%	27.2%
	52.9%			47.8%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	37.5%	43.8%	11.1%	12.5%	6.2%
	81.3%			18.8%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	45.5%	54.5%	15.4%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #24: A problem exists of student identification with peers as a result of Smith's/Marymount's being a large comprehensive high school.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	29.6%	44.4%	12.9%	22.2%	3.7%
	74.1%			25.9%	
Smith H. S.	22.5%	47.2%	26.3%	25.8%	2.2%
	72.0%			28.0%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	47.1%	29.4%	5.6%	17.6%	5.9%
	76.5%			23.5%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	70.0%	23.1%	30.0%	0.0%
	70.0%			30.0%	

Question #25: Team teaching is generally beneficial to students in their Senior High School years.

Marymount H.S.	30.4%	47.8%	25.8%	21.7%	0.0%
	78.3%			21.7%	
Smith H. S.	18.6%	68.6%	27.1%	9.3%	3.5%
	87.2%			12.8%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	7.1%	71.0%	22.2%	21.4%	0.0%
	78.6%			21.4%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	66.7%	11.1%	30.8%	22.2%	0.0%
	77.8%			22.2%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #26: Team teaching is generally beneficial to students in their junior high school years.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	20.0%	20.0%	35.5%	30.0%	30.0%
	40.0%			60.0%	
Smith H. S.	Question not asked.				
1-9 yrs. seniority	8.3%	25.0%	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%
	33.3%			66.7%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	37.5%	12.5%	38.5%	25.0%	25.0%
	50.0%			50.0%	

Question #27: High School students generally are mature enough to adapt favorably to variable/modular scheduling.

Marymount H.S.	4.3%	60.9%	25.8%	30.5%	4.3%
	65.2%			34.8%	
Smith H. S.	4.3%	28.0%	21.2%	37.6%	30.1%
	32.3%			67.7%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	7.7%	53.8%	27.8%	30.8%	7.7%
	61.5%			38.5%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	70.0%	23.1%	30.0%	0.0%
	70.0%			30.0%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #28: The counselling program is an integral part of the educational process.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	46.2%	50.0%	16.1%	3.8%	0.0%
	96.2%			3.8%	
Smith H. S.	51.4%	45.0%	7.6%	2.8%	0.9%
	96.3%			3.7%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	53.3%	46.7%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%			0.0%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	36.4%	54.6%	15.4%	9.1%	0.0%
	90.9%			9.1%	

Question #29: Most students at Smith are able to assume increasing responsibility for their own learning.

Marymount H.S.	4.2%	33.3%	22.6%	42.2%	16.6%
	37.5%			62.5%	
Smith H. S.	1.1%	23.1%	22.9%	46.2%	29.8%
	24.0%			76.0%	
1-9 yrs. seniority	6.7%	33.3%	16.7%	33.3%	26.7%
	40.0%			60.0%	
10-plus yrs. seniority	0.0%	33.3%	30.8%	66.7%	0.0%
	33.3%			66.7%	

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #30: Variable/modular scheduling can be successful if some adjustments are made to the present structures.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Marymount H.S.	39.3%	50.0%	9.7%	7.1%	3.6%
	89.3%				10.7%
Smith H. S.	31.6%	53.1%	16.9%	6.1%	9.2%
	84.7%				15.3%
1-9 yrs. seniority	52.3%	35.3%	11.1%	0.0%	5.9%
	94.1%				5.9%
10-plus yrs. seniority	16.7%	66.6%	7.7%	16.7%	0.0%
	83.3%				16.7%

Question #31: Variable/Modular scheduling has helped to increase cooperation among teachers within the department.

Marymount H.S.	20.8%	58.3%	22.6%	20.8%	0.0%
	79.2%				20.8%
Smith H. S.	13.8%	51.3%	32.2%	26.3%	8.8%
	64.1%				35.1%
1-9 yrs. seniority	21.4%	64.6%	22.2%	14.3%	0.0%
	85.7%				14.3%
10-plus yrs. seniority	20.0%	50.0%	23.1%	30.0%	0.0%
	70.0%				30.0%

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #32: There should be a student lounge.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE NEUTRAL DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

Marymount H.S.

Question not asked.

Smith H. S.	26.3%	57.6%	16.1%	11.1%	5.1%
	93.9%			16.2%	

1-9 yrs.
seniority

10-plus yrs.
seniority

Question #33: I would like the present structures to evolve toward the full implementation of the Flexible Modular Schedule.

Marymount H.S.

Question not asked.

Smith H. S.	25.8%	28.0%	21.2%	26.9%	19.4%
	53.8%			46.3%	

1-9 yrs.
seniority

10-plus yrs.
seniority

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Question #34: "X" blocks is a valuable pedagogical tool.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE NEUTRAL DISAGREE STRONGLY
AGREE

Marymount H.S.

Question not asked.

Smith H. S.	33.3%	45.8%	18.6%	13.5%	7.3%
	79.1%			20.8%	

1-9 yrs.
seniority

10-plus yrs.
seniority

Question #35: My students have been given more work to be done outside of class this year as opposed to previous years.

Marymount H.S.

Question not asked.

Smith H. S.	10.8%	47.0%	29.7%	32.5%	9.3%
	57.8%			41.8%	

1-9 yrs.
seniority

10-plus yrs.
seniority

COMPARISONS

Question: Smith/Marymount High should retain variable/modular scheduling next year.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	26.7%	33.3%	37.5%	33.3%	6.7%
	60.0%			40.0%	
Teachers	See below. *				
Students	56.1%	28.4%	13.9%	3.2%	11.0%
	84.5%			14.2%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	Not asked.				
Teachers	Not asked.				
Students	63.5%	26.6%	9.9%	4.9%	4.9%
	90.1%			9.9%	

* In the same vein teachers at Smith were asked: "I would like the present structures to evolve toward the full implementation of the Flexible Modular Schedule." The results were:

	25.8%	28.0%	21.2%	26.9%	19.4%
	53.8%			46.3%	

COMPARISONS

Question: I am enthusiastic about the potential of variable/modular scheduling for student learning.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	28.6%	57.1%	41.7%	0.0%	14.3%
	85.7%			14.3%	
Teachers	32.6%	37.9%	19.5%	14.7%	14.7%
	70.5%			29.4%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	14.8%	59.2%	32.5%	25.9%	0.0%
	74.1%			25.9%	
Teachers	20.8%	58.3%	22.6%	20.8%	0.0%
	79.2%			20.8%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: Most students are assuming greater responsibility for their own learning.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	21.1%	68.4%	20.8%	0.0%	10.5%
	89.5%			10.5%	
Teachers	1.1%	23.1%	22.9%	46.2%	29.8%
	24.0%			76.0%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	21.2%	57.8%	17.5%	21.2%	0.0%
	78.8%			21.2%	
Teachers	4.2%	33.3%	22.6%	42.2%	16.6%
	37.5%			62.5%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: School spirit at Smith/Marymount is high.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	15.4%	46.2%	45.8%	30.8%	7.7%
	61.6%			38.5%	
Teachers	0.0%	9.3%	17.8%	50.5%	40.2%
	9.3%			90.7%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	0.0%	45.2%	22.5%	32.3%	22.6%
	45.2%			54.8%	
Teachers	4.7%	20.8%	22.6%	45.8%	29.2%
	25.0%			75.0%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: Instructional facilities at Smith/Marymount are good.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	26.3%	57.9%	20.8%	10.5%	5.3%
	84.2%			15.8%	
Teachers	48.2%	45.5%	5.1%	3.6%	2.7%
	93.7%			6.3%	
Students	10.1%	64.7%	33.9%	18.5%	5.0%
	74.8%			23.5%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	12.5%	71.9%	20.0%	12.5%	3.1%
	84.4%			15.6%	
Teachers	28.6%	57.2%	9.7%	14.3%	0.0%
	85.8%			14.3%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: Students exert a great deal of effort in their course work.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	30.0%	50.0%	16.7%	15.0%	5.0%
	80.0%			20.0%	
Teachers	0.0%	14.8%	12.9%	59.3%	25.9%
	14.8%			85.2%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	10.0%	56.7%	25.0%	30.0%	3.3%
	66.7%			33.3%	
Teachers	0.0%	16.8%	14.4%	61.4%	21.8%
	16.8%			83.2%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: In general students are concerned about their school work.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	38.1%	52.4%	12.5%	4.8%	4.8%
	90.5%			9.6%	
Teachers	4.2%	51.6%	19.5%	37.9%	6.9%
	55.8%			44.2%	
Students	6.0%	37.7%	35.0%	38.5%	16.2%
	43.7%			54.7%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	16.2%	64.9%	7.5%	16.2%	2.7%
	81.1%			18.9%	
Teachers	7.7%	57.7%	16.1%	23.1%	11.5%
	65.4%			34.6%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: Study facilities at Smith/Marymount are good.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	15.8%	52.6%	20.8%	21.1%	10.5%
	68.4%			31.6%	
Teachers	27.6%	45.9%	16.9%	19.4%	7.1%
	73.5%			26.4%	
Students	6.6%	53.7%	24.4%	20.9%	11.0%
	60.3%			31.0%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	30.8%	50.0%	35.0%	15.4%	3.8%
	80.8%			19.2%	
Teachers	7.1%	60.7%	9.7%	21.4%	10.7%
	67.9%			32.1%	
Students	14.9%	59.6%	19.5%	15.7%	9.8%
	74.5%			25.3%	

COMPARISONS

Question: Unstructured time is an advantage to the student from an educational point of view.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	23.4%	23.5%	29.2%	29.4%	23.5%
	47.0%			52.9%	
Teachers	27.4%	41.2%	19.5%	16.2%	14.7%
	67.6%			32.5%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	11.8%	44.0%	15.0%	41.2%	2.9%
	44.9%			44.1%	
Teachers	23.3%	43.3%	3.2%	23.3%	10.0%
	66.7%			33.3%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: There is too much free (unstructured) time for students.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	21.1%	31.6%	20.8%	26.3%	21.1%
	52.7%			47.4%	
Teachers	42.2%	32.1%	7.6%	22.9%	2.8%
	74.3%			25.7%	
Students	4.4%	13.2%	26.1%	51.5%	30.9%
	17.6%			82.4%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	2.8%	58.2%	10.0%	36.1%	2.8%
	61.1%			38.9%	
Teachers	3.8%	30.8%	16.1%	50.0%	15.4%
	34.6%			65.4%	
Students	8.7%	30.4%	37.0%	44.0%	16.8%
	39.1%			60.8%	

COMPARISONS

Question: School is the source of most of a teenager's problems.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	5.5%	16.7%	25.0%	66.6%	11.1%
		22.2%		77.7%	
Teachers	1.0%	4.0%	12.7%	66.0%	29.1%
		5.0%		95.0%	
Students	16.3%	28.4%	21.7%	37.6%	14.9%
		44.7%		52.5%	

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	2.9%	23.5%	15.0%	64.7%	8.8%
		26.5%		73.5%	
Teachers	0.0%	7.4%	12.9%	77.8%	14.8%
		7.4%		92.6%	
Students	Not asked.				

COMPARISONS

Question: The scheduling of students this year has been satisfactory.

SMITH HIGH

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Parents	9.1%	68.2%	8.3%	18.2%	4.5%
	77.3%			22.7%	
Teachers	4.2%	21.9%	18.6%	55.2%	19.8%
	26.1%			74.0%	
Students	Not asked.				

MARYMOUNT HIGH

Parents	0.0%	75.0%	20.0%	25.0%	0.0%
	75.0%			25.0%	
Teachers	3.4%	62.1%	6.5%	27.6%	6.9%
	65.5%			34.5%	
Students	Not asked.				

APPENDIX "B"

A Case Study in Emotional
Expression of Staff Personnel

Section I

May 6, 1971

Last Friday, fortunately or unfortunately, I'm still not sure which, I attended a colloquy on the make-up of next year's Home Room. However, the audience was seemingly adroitly swayed away from its original course and proceeded to talk about a favorite subject of mine, "Modular Scheduling". During the ensuing discussion I was both dismayed and appalled at some of the comments uttered.

First of all, I was dismayed that the teachers present were not apparently aware of the measures we are presently taking in order to greatly improve the make-up of next year's schedule. I was, at first, under the impression that such information had been conveyed to you through the proper channels.

Thus, to set the record straight, I would like to point out what will be done.

Firstly, the school day for grades 8 & 9 will be reduced by one hour. This, along with the obligatory taking of Religion and Physical Education will greatly reduce the amount of free time available to these students. In fact, the result will be that on the average each pupil will have 68 minutes of non-class time per day. Out of these 68 minutes we must take off at least 30, but preferably 45 minutes for lunch, leaving the student with 20 to 40 minutes of free time.

For the grade 10 & 11 students the same, to a certain extent, can be said although admittedly to a lesser degree for final year pupils inasmuch as the latter will not be obliged to take Physical Education.

However, it is anticipated that because of the make-up of the schedule, conflicts between courses will be almost totally eradicated. Furthermore, one's free time should not occur in one big lump but rather in several much shorter intervals.

Free time, however, will remain, in part because it is impossible to operate a modular schedule without it, but to a greater extent because it fits into the philosophy we should be trying to evolve in this institution. I was quite disturbed when one of the reasons I offered for maintaining free time on a student's timetable was received with scorn.

However, it is a fact that an individual's ability to cope with leisure time will be one of the great problems faced by society over the next two decades.

Since it is a fairly widely accepted principle that a high school should not be in existence to teach the 3R's only, but also to prepare people for the society they are very soon emerge in, we at Marymount should endeavor to anticipate future social problems and consequently attempt to prepare the future generation to better cope with the foreseen difficulties. I agree with Mr. Griffin when he says that because we've given pupils free time we have not necessarily shown them how to deal with leisure time. However, because we've failed in this goal this year, it doesn't have to follow that we can't be more successful in the future.

What we have to develop among the student body is a mentality whereby the pupil considers school to be a home away from home. The school building should be the place where, granted, he is taught what is deemed necessary to help equip him in such a way as to better ensure he will be able to contribute positively to society, but it should also be the location where he meets his friends, with whom he has a smoke in the designated area, where he plays table tennis during his leisure time, where he goes to the library to do research for a paper he must present, where he'll learn that favorite adult past-time: bridge, where he'll be given the opportunity to audit or partake in an extra course in order to develop a particular interest of his. School should be a place which is looked upon as imposing a few rules and regulations, which were instituted for his own good, but also as a pleasant environment where all kinds of fun activity can be practised.

If this mentality could be developed we wouldn't hear people complaining that their schoolday should be squished, in order to obliterate the free time and so allow them to leave early.

This may sound like Utopia, but then, a man's reach should exceed his grasp.

I believe that the outlined goal can be better and more easily striven towards in a modular-scheduled school.

Over and above being dismayed, however, I was appalled at the degree of misunderstanding or lack of understanding on the part of many people as to the existence of flexibility in a modular schedule. In fact, it was quite bluntly suggested that we should do away with this type of set-up since it was quite obviously inflexible. My retort to this

caused quite a commotion to say the least. It was evident that one individual in particular, but also the audience in general, took exception to my answer.

At this time then, I would like to take exception to anybody taking exception to the truth. Permit me to explain.

Flexibility in the modular system begins at a very early stage in the planning of a schedule. It starts when the division heads, in conjunction with the teachers of various disciplines determine what shall be the time allotment for the various courses offered. That flexibility is not found in a block schedule.

It continues when the proper authorities decide how this time allotment shall be divided. Shall there be a few long periods, several short ones or a combination of these two choices. That flexibility is not found in a block schedule.

It occurs when the Division Head makes a request that two long periods, not be on successive days; that they not occur in the afternoon; that the 'off' days for subjects not being offered daily, not be on successive days, etc., etc. That flexibility is not found in block scheduling.

With the above information a master schedule is evolved, and on the first school day in September, it is presented in the form of students' and teachers' timetables. But the flexibility of a modular schedule doesn't cease when students and teachers see their work assignment in black and white. On the contrary, for all intents and purposes, it is just beginning. It then becomes much more subtle, for it resides in the initiative, the willingness to expend energy over and above the formal call of duty, and most of all in the imagination of the teaching personnel. It resides in the educator, who looks around him, and instead of finding out all the faults of the schedule, sees the opportunities presented by the system.

It is seen when for example, the French teacher stops John Smith as he is exiting from the class, points out he is rather weak in the conjugating of a particular verb, studies his timetable, finds out when both of them are free at the same time and then sets a meeting time during which some tutoring on a one-to-one basis will take place.

Flexibility is evident when the football coach takes his quarterback to the Palestra and shows him how to arch his arm in order to get more power on his throws.

It is further evident when several teachers of the same discipline have a meeting during the school day to discuss the problems involved in the getting across of a particular topic to their students.

Consequently, the flexibility of a modular schedule resides in the ability of the teachers to do their own thing. And this is a consequence, as I have already pointed out, of initiative, willingness to expend energy and imagination. To say, then, that a modular schedule has no flexibility seems to show a total, indeed incredible lack of knowledge of a type of educational system.

In light of the aforementioned therefore, not only do I refuse to retract my statement, but instead, I insist on repeating it.

And when I do, I would like to ask you a favor. A favor not to myself but to yourselves. I would appreciate it if you did not act, or react in a supra-emotional manner. A reaction which I consider to be quasi-synonymous with irrationality.

Rather, I ask you to think. Think subjectively if you will, but because this is such a large school, think objectively also. Operate on the intellectual sphere. Be a pro.

If you do this, and do it honestly, you will probably end up with this type of conclusion. In Marymount, in relation to flexible modular scheduling there are three types of teachers:

First of all there are those who have seen the opportunities presented in the system. They have used their imagination and done something as a consequence. They have been flexible.

On the other end of the scale are those whom I call the unprofessionals. These are the people who cannot get to school late enough, cannot leave early enough. They, relatively frequently, arrive late for their own classes, dismiss their pupils early, and finding themselves in the midst of a 90 minute period, give a twenty minute break. At no time have they given thought to doing something useful with the abundance of their and their pupils' spares.

Finally, there is a third group comprised of those teachers who are professionals. They are thoroughly dedicated to the goals of education. They do care about their students' academic and social welfares. They are willing to expend energy. Unfortunately though, they have, for any one or sev-

eral of a multitude of reasons, allowed themselves to fall in a rut. A rut which offers cozyness, comfort, and security. In this mental attitude we find nice classrooms, all of the same size, five nice rows of desks in each class, six nice desks in each row. The subjects are very nicely taught once a day. The periods are all of a nice length - 45 minutes, for example. They start at nice times, such as 8:30, 9:15, 10:00. And because of their nice equal lengths terminate also at nice times. A teacher in this group feels very uncomfortable in the surroundings of a modular school, and so fights back by complaining, criticizing, and crabbing constantly. What a shame that this energy is not put to use in taking advantage of the system instead of in attempts to destroy it. This teacher's problem lies in his lack of flexibility.

Those, in the first group described need not be insulted by the statement I made last week. It doesn't apply to them. It did, however, apply to those in the latter two. But it wasn't meant as an insult. It was uttered with the intention of presenting to you a statement of fact. Its purpose was to cause introspection, the result of which would be the ignition of the spark of personal flexibility.

If, on the other hand, there are some who insist on being "personally and directly" insulted, then, I, for one, can only conclude that, for these people, the truth hurts.

I repeat, then, "The only inflexibility in a modular schedule resides in the inflexibility of certain individuals operating within the framework of that system".

Ladies and gentlemen, it cannot be otherwise. Please, this time, think about it!

Section II

May 7, 1971

Dear Mr. Higgins,

The staff of Marymount has been seriously insulted by the behavior and speech of a member of your administration, Mr. G. Bissett, one of the supervisors of students.

We, the undersigned, violently protest Mr. Bissett's condemnations of the staff. With this arrogant, negative attitude of even one member of the administration, harmonious and effective operation of the school ceases to exist.

Events of this nature which adversely affect the morale of the teachers, must of necessity affect the students.

Regretfully yours,

Carbon copies to M.C.S.C. Region A, Attention Mr. J. Scullion
F.E.S.C.T., attention Mr. R. Corbett
Staff of Marymount
Staff Council

Signed By Approximately 80 Teachers

Section III

May 14, 1971

Dear Mr. Higgins:

The enclosed letter bearing the signatures of Marymount teachers is to be interpreted solely as an objection. This is not a request for further action.

Enclosed you will also find a list of additions to and deletions from the original protest letter.

THE TEACHING REPRESENTATIVES
of the Staff Council

for THE TEACHERS OF MARYMOUNT

Copies to M.C.S.C., Region A, Attention Mr. J. Scullion
F.E.S.C.T., Attention Mr. R. Corbett
Mr. Francis P. Higgins, Principal, Marymount
Staff Council

L I S TADDITIONS

A. Cussen
G. Dunn
H. Pachake
G. Illaszericz
L. Fitzgerald
C. McMorrow

Not there. Yet upon
hearing and reading,
felt insulted

J. Moynihan

DELETIONS

S. Azoulay
M. Barretto
M. D. Herba
L. Canan
P. Chung
P. Coonan
F. D'Sousa
P. Griffin
M. Hannan
B. Hartigan
V. Sears
Sr. S. Sullivan
V. Whimbey

Section IV

May 11, 1971

Extreme tension and a high degree of emotional unrest has permeated Marymount since last Thursday afternoon. It is to be hoped that this unsettling situation is to be found only among staff and administrative personnel, but I am led to believe that, in at least a few cases, students have felt the repercussion which is, no doubt, a consequence of my address to you last week.

The exact reason why my speech had a seemingly traumatic effect on so many people is, as yet, unclear to me. In fact, many explanations have been offered:

- 1) the talk in general was an insult to teachers,
- 2) my behaviour has been negative in the extreme,
- 3) it was not my place to give such a dissertation,
- 4) the tone used was offensive,
- 5) it was not necessary for me to reiterate what I had said the week before,
- 6) although I am entitled to my educational philosophy, I have no more right to air it at a public meeting than anybody else.

I must admit to being very surprised at the degree of commotion caused and that, in the general denunciation (80 teachers signed Friday's petition) of what I said to you, not one irrefutable objection to any one item in the speech has been brought to my attention. In reality the latter is what I had hoped to evoke. That, in turn, would have served to increase communication between staff members in general, and between staff and administration in particular. Unfortunately, thus far for the most part, this has not been the case.

Since the consequences have not been what I had hoped for, and since many people seem genuinely hurt by my utterances I would like to attempt to convey my thoughts and feelings to you, using this time, the printed word, rather than the verbal one.

First, I invite you to read my speech and analyse it. Criticize it if you will, and confront me with such criticism either individually or in groups, either in my office or at any location you might choose. It must be admitted that such dialogues have already taken place and that these have been extremely enjoyable. I hope they will continue, not only between others and myself but between or among as great a num-

ber of Marymount educators as possible. Surely, such conversations can only have a positive effect on the evolution in our school of a system of education which is the most beneficial to our students.

For the moment, then, let me divorce myself from the content and deal with the more abstract reasons for the vociferous objections put forward since last Friday morning.

First, many teachers apparently felt that, again, I personally insulted them. If I did, I am sorry it had that effect. I tried to enunciate towards the end of my talk why feelings of insult should not emanate as a result of what I was saying. Unfortunately, I was unsuccessful, in many cases, of quelling this emotion. The speech, either in part, or in its entirety was not meant to be insulting. It was given primarily to evoke thought. I still hope it will, once the flow of adrenalin subsides.

Secondly, certain people have claimed that I have been negative in my outlook and behaviour, in general, in my speech in particular. I'm afraid I cannot accept such criticism. I feel I have done much for this school in the past four years. I think I am continually striving to help build a better school and in so doing I have been very positive.

A very great number of people have voiced the feeling that it wasn't up to me to give that talk. I suppose the answer to that objection must, of necessity, be quite subjective. I respect the opinion of those who believe I wasn't the right party to point out the faults in our institution. In fact, I openly admit that these people have several good points on their side. However, I ask you to see my point of view and then weigh both opinions. First, I felt I had the right to address you on this topic since it was, after all, a personal point of view. Thus, Gerry Bissett was talking to you as Gerry Bissett. As Mr. Higgins pointed out, what I had just enunciated was my opinion, one to which I was entitled, and one which I was entitled to express. Anybody, in fact, who feels as strongly about a point, as I do about modular scheduling, would have been given the opportunity to voice such a feeling. At no time have I pretended that what I was saying was administrative policy, and I am not saying it now.

I also felt I had the right to say what I did because of the manner in which I was talked to and about in the previous meeting. I felt at that time that the audience had not given my defense of modular scheduling a fair hearing and so I decided to reiterate my stand and attempt to clarify at least the statement that had caused such an uproar.

Finally, I was addressing you as the programmer. And as programmer, I have spent countless hours over and above my formal call of duty, to build a schedule designed to better meet the needs of a comprehensive high school. A type of schedule which, I felt, was attacked unjustly at the staff's colloquy the week previous. I honestly felt that many among you had, as yet, not realized where the advantages of such a system lay, and so I felt compelled to point them out.

Consequently, for the aforementioned reasons I believed, and still do, that it was as much my right as anybody else's to address you in such a manner.

Many persons have taken exception, also, to my tone of voice, claiming it was offensive in character. I suppose it is always quite difficult to see ourselves as others see us. Being no exceptional human being I have the same problem. Was my tone offensive? Was it arrogant? Was it cause for emotionally upsetting those present? Judging from the magnitude of the outcry on this point in particular, I must conclude that it must have been. Was I right in addressing a professional audience in such a way then? The answer may lie in the psychological reasons for such behaviour.

Why, then, did I present myself to you in this fashion? Probably for a multitude of reasons. In fact, after a great deal of introspection two emotional feelings in particular seem to account for my speaking in such a manner: frustration and exasperation. I suppose frustration sets in when one is, at times, feverishly attempting to build something out of almost nothing and feeling that many of those who should be helping to actualize this entity are, in fact, hindering it. Is one justified in feeling this way? Probably to a certain extent he is, but possibly not to as great a degree as he concludes. Are those who are attempting to hinder such evolution necessarily wrong? Of course not! But one must accept the fact that in a large group, such as we have here, there will always be people harboring opposite views, and when one encounters somebody on the other side, one feels frustration that seemingly necessary work is being discredited. When attempts to evolve a new system take place over a long period of time, opposition serves to increase the degree of frustration felt.

However, frustration becomes exasperation in particular instances. Exasperation takes a strangle hold when, for example, one, because of a multitude of factors beyond his control, must spend weeks working incessantly to overcome the problems caused by said factors. The result, on the human level, being the bringing home of those problems best left

at place of work. And when, as a possible result of this mental state, one's mate has a miscarriage, exasperation permeates the mind and body.

But exasperation becomes intolerable when the morning after, one goes to work instead of remaining in the hospital until the ordeal is over, and while thinking about the lost son or daughter, a professional educator saunters into the room, yelling that "mod" scheduling is stupid and explaining his reason for the use of his adjectival phrase as being his having to teach one period at 8:30 and subsequently having to wait three hours before working again. Egocentricity seems to rule supreme at such moments.

With time, of course, exasperation decreases, but has a tendency to rise to the surface when one feels an unfair attack has been made.

Thus, possibly the above explains my apparent rudeness, maybe it doesn't, or maybe it is only part of the reason. If it is tied in to the tone I used, did I have the right to let my actions be influenced by my feelings? As a human being, I believe I certainly did. As a professional, in light of apparent continued misunderstanding I, again, believe I did.

Consequently, if my tone was offensive, I can honestly say it wasn't meant that way. I ask you, though, to look at both sides of the coin and arrive at your conclusion on this point.

It has also been pointed out to me that it wasn't necessary to reiterate what I had said the week before. I believe it was, as I felt that many people had not understood my point of view. As such I also felt entitled to explain and illustrate what I meant.

Finally, I agree that I had no more right to air my educational philosophy at a public meeting than anybody else. But I see this as a negative argument. Rather, I believe we should look at the situation from a different angle. I would like to think everybody in this school has as much a right to air his views as I, and I firmly believe that this right is available to anybody wishing to exercise it.

In summation; I make no retractions as it has, as yet, not been shown where faulty logic or non-existent facts were used in the content. I also make no apology as I see no reason to apologize. I simply present to you my explanation of what occurred and why it transpired in that fashion. I acted according to my principles and I shall stand or fall according

to them. If in this process several persons are hurt by my mannerisms or phraseology, then I am sorry the results have been along those lines as opposed to those anticipated.

Gerald Bissett

Section V

6518 Merton Road
Cote St. Luc, Quebec
May 21, 1971

Mr. Walter Murphy
Director, Region "A"
2055 Oxford Avenue
Montreal, Quebec

Dear Mr. Murphy:

It has been brought to my attention that a letter objecting to recent behavior on my part and bearing the signatures of certain teachers on the Marymount Faculty has been forwarded to Mr. J. Scullion. I sincerely believe the letter to hold false accusations.

As I have interpreted the complaint to be a personal condemnation, I believe I should be given the change to defend myself. In light of this, I accepted Mr. Higgins' invitation on the morning of Friday, May 7, 1971 to meet with the Staff Council that afternoon. I have been led to understand that Mr. V. Nichilo, Staff Council President, accepted this invitation also but soon afterwards was seemingly overruled when Mr. V. McNally, Key Teacher, approached Mr. Higgins and informed him that no such meeting would be held. To this day I do not understand why the aforementioned occurred in such manner.

I realize that the covering letter points out that the petition is to be interpreted solely as an objection and is not a request for further action. However, I view this as an attempt on the part of the Teaching Representatives of the Marymount Staff Council to inform my superiors of unprofessional conduct on my part without allowing me to explain my actions.

Consequently, I have decided to forward you a copy of my speech, plus a copy of my explanation to the teachers which was distributed on Thursday, May 13, 1971. I also find myself in the position where requesting a meeting between representatives of the Marymount Staff Council and myself and preferably chaired by a representative of Region "A", M.C.S.C. is essential.

Only in this way do I feel my explanation of the aforementioned behavior will have received a fair hearing.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours truly,

Gerald Bissett

Enclosure

Appendix C

Cross-reference tables relating
fundamentals to assumptions.

CROSS-REFERENCE TABLES

THESE ASSUMPTIONS	RELATE TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THESE FUNDAMENTALS
1. There's no one way to learn.	Large and small groupings, independent study, individualized learning, interdisciplinary approach, team teaching, resource centers and varying period and course lengths.
2. Alternatives should be tried.	Large and small groupings, teacher-counsellor units, individualized learning, varying class lengths, student participation, in-service training and public relations.
3. Students change behavior more readily than adults.	Large and small groupings, independent study, reduction of formal class time, individualized learning, interdisciplinary approach, unstructured time, team teaching and varying class lengths.
4. Excitement breeds excitement, interest breeds interest, creativity breeds creativity.	Individualized learning, resource centers, teacher-counsellor units, full teacher participation, team teaching and interdisciplinary approach.
5. Time is not a primary criterion for learning.	Reduction of formal class time, unstructured time, and independent study activities.
6. There is no irreplaceable content.	Independent study, resource centers, interdisciplinary approach, team teaching and unstructured time.
7. Students are basically mature, responsible, interested, and good.	Unstructured time, independent study, individualized learning and student participation.
8. Begin where the learner is	Independent study, unstructured time, student participation and orientation, individualized learning, resource centers and teacher-counsellor units.

FUNDAMENTALS OF:

PRIMARY IMPORTANCE Fundamental# Relates to Assumption#	SECONDARY IMPORTANCE Fundamental# Relates to Assumption#	TERTIARY IMPORTANCE Fundamental# Relates to Assumption#
1. 1, 2 & 3.	9. 1, 3, 4 & 6.	17. 2, 7 & 8.
2. 1, 2 & 3.	10. 1, 3, 4 & 6.	
3. 1, 3, 5, 6 &7.	11. 4.	18.
4. 3, 5, 6, 7 &8.	12. 3 & 5. 13. 2.	19.
5. 1, 4, 6, &8.	14.	
6. 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 & 8.	15. 1, 2, & 3.	
7. 4 & 8.	16. 2.	

Appendix D

LEADER OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. The reader should study each item carefully and think about how frequently he engages in the behavior described by the item when he is a leader of a work group. Finally, one should decide whether he would be likely to behave in the described way always, often, occasionally, seldom or never. Check the appropriate column to show the answer selected.

Initiating Consideration.

	4	3	2	1	0
16. I do personal favors for subordinates.					
17. I do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.					
18. I am easy to understand.					
19. I find time to listen to subordinates.					
20. I mix with subordinates rather than keeping to myself.					
21. I look out for the personal welfare of the individuals in my group.					
22. I explain my actions to subordinates.					
23. I consult subordinates before action.					
24. I back up subordinates in their action.					
25. I treat all subordinates as equal.					
26. I am willing to make changes.					
27. I am friendly and approachable.					
28. I make subordinates feel at ease when talking with them.					
29. I put suggestions made by my group into action.					
30. I get group approval in important matters before acting.					
TOTAL					

Directions for scoring

Total checks in each column of the previous pages and enter in square below each column. The columns on the first page represent the Task Orientation values. Those on the second page represent Consideration values. Record the column totals in both appropriate boxes below. Multiply each of these totals by the weighting factors indicated. Add these for a grand total representing each value.

TASK ORIENTATION

Always	x 4=
Often	x 3=
Occasionally	x 2=
Seldom	x 1=
Never	x 0= 00

Total =

CONSIDERATION

Always	x 4=
Often	x 3=
Occasionally	x 2=
Seldom	x 1=
Never	x 0= 00

Total =

Locating Yourself on the Managerial Grid

Directions: In order to locate oneself in one of the four quadrants of the Managerial Grid, one should examine his score for Initiating Structure first. If this score is 40 or above one would be considered high on that dimension; if it is below 40 one would be considered low. For Consideration, one would consider his score and locate himself to the left or right of the middle line: to the left if the score is low and to the right if it is high.

