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# Adoption, modification and invention of crisis management analyses as applied to alternative schools.

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ADOPTION, MODIFICATION AND INVENTION OF CRISIS  
MANAGEMENT ANALYSES AS APPLIED TO ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

By

LARRY M. KUBOTA

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial  
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September, 1974

Major Subject: Organizational Development and Educational Change

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ADOPTION, MODIFICATION AND INVENTION OF CRISIS  
MANAGEMENT ANALYSES AS APPLIED TO ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

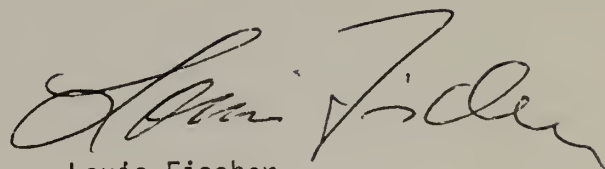
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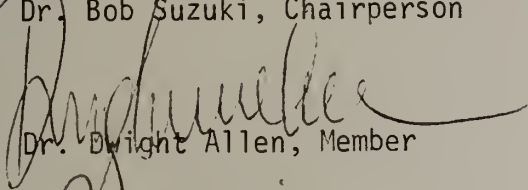


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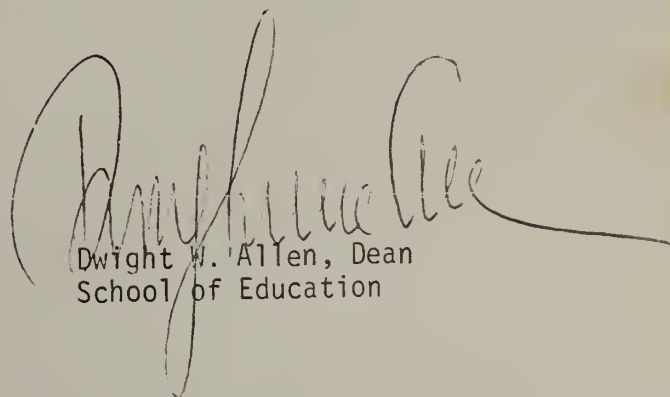
April 28, 1975



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September, 1974

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Among these people, special thanks are due Bob Suzuki whose support and encouragement have helped me to not only pursue a doctorate in education but to broaden my personal and professional experience beyond my earlier expectations as well. His continuing interest in my development and the high ethical standards that he demands of his own life have had a particularly important impact on the values and ethical dimensions of my life. Bob has also aided me through his demand for rigor which he knew, better than I did, would be important to me in the long run. He has contributed significant ideas to this study and, even more importantly, to my knowledge and views about education, social change and Asian Americans. He is in my mind the quintessential dissertation chairman. More than that, however, both Bob and Agnes Suzuki have been a family to me and like a family, they have, without fail, supported me whenever I needed them.

Since becoming more knowledgeable about organizational studies was one of my aspirations, I am extremely grateful that Robert Chin became my mentor in this area. He has a rare talent for sensing one's best ideas and attributes and then encouraging, nurturing and embellishing them to a point of utter amazement and delight. For my specific interests, I can say with complete confidence that I could have not had a better teacher.

There are others who played a substantial role in helping me. Dwight Allen is owed many thanks for creating a school where, for me at least, some of my professional dreams were indeed made possible. I have come to appreciate many things in life beyond the scope of this dissertation as a result of a most incredible human being with whom I was fortunate enough to have become friends with. Pete Cotton should be the roommate of every serious student for at least one year. What a pity that there is only one of him. I could have had no greater support and friendship than that given by Mary Jane Cleare, whose warmth and unyielding encouragement and whose own struggles within the same field made up for all the lonely and seemingly isolated hours of "dissertating". Moreover, Jane's editorial help and conceptual understanding and criticism was significant to the development of this dissertation.

I have reserved my last acknowledgement for my parents whom I have the profoundest respect for. The dignity and humility with which they have lived their lives have been an inspiration to me. In the most insufferable of times, their presence truly made the difference.

Adoption, Modification and Invention of Crisis Management  
Analysis as Applied to Alternative Schools (May 1975)

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Directed by: Dr. Robert Suzuki

ABSTRACT

This study addresses itself to basic areas of ignorance concerning the subject of crisis management analyses as applied to alternative schools. First, although conflicts and crises have become more frequent, there are relatively few individuals who understand or perceive crises as a dialectical process of educational change. Second, there are even fewer individuals who know how to analytically examine a crisis so that its dynamics can be made more comprehensible to managers of educational change programs. Finally, there is extremely limited knowledge regarding effective approaches to altering the variables connected with a crisis so that a desired outcome can be achieved.

Since most practitioners and observers of education have until recently tended to not view educational change from a dialectical perspective, they have been more concerned with the development of methods to maintain social and educational order and stability rather than with the entire process of educational change which inevitably involves disorder

and disharmony and, thus, crises. In contrast to the conventional crisis avoidance approach to educational change, this study was aimed at the development and application of analytical approaches that will help practitioners and researchers better comprehend and deal with crisis as a significant and inevitable aspect of educational change.

In order to accomplish the purpose of this investigation, crisis management analyses were adopted, modified and invented. The adopted and modified approaches were from such diverse disciplines as international relations, labor-management relations, sociology, political science, and organizational development. The invented approaches emerged from empirical problems and data generated in the field, rather than being theoretically formulated in isolation from real conditions. All of the approaches were applied to alternative schools and their directors either in the field or in workshop settings.

The data were obtained from the following sources: (1) directors of alternative schools; (2) all forms of alternative schools; (3) national in scope--including especially information from Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, Minneapolis, New York, and Boston; (4) East Coast alternative school emphasis. The means of data collection included the following: (1) national questionnaire; (2) national interviews of directors; (3) personal interviews with selected East Coast directors; and (4) clinics on crisis management and leadership for directors of alternative schools.

After the data were collected, they were placed into three categories for examination: (1) social system structure theory; (2) social-technical systems theory; and (3) developmental or epigenetic theory. Analysis of these data was then conducted in accordance with principles



of "formulative" research. Empirical data and various appropriate organizational theories were analyzed and at times extended to formulate several propositions on alternative school change and crisis. These propositions should be useful to both practitioners and researchers in the field of educational crisis management since they delineate the salient dynamics of crises and lead to analytical frameworks for viewing such events in a more rational and systematic fashion.

In the concluding chapter, a number of recommendations are forwarded for further research and development in the field of educational crisis management.

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# C H A P T E R     I

## PROBLEM OVERVIEW

### Prologue

During the turbulent period of the 1960's, I was earnestly trying to apply all that I had learned in business school and industry to the challenges of community organizing and race relations in inner city Los Angeles. At that time, I was working with a number of groups and organizations that were involved in issues of social change, education and public service. Through these efforts I had come to realize how immensely difficult it is to organize people around public concerns and, as a result of that experience, I developed a deep respect for those who committed themselves to this arduous and significant task. The task itself began not by applying principles of organizational development as I had learned them so well in business school, but rather by first confronting and testing the conventional system, thereby educating ourselves and the community to the rationale for organizing. This in turn led to my increasing interest in education, which I began to see as a potentially creative and exciting force for social improvement instead of merely a tool to be used for social maintenance.

Eventually, I discovered that the formal learnings I had gained were quite inadequate to the task of developing organizations engaged in social change within an inner city environment. The technology of organizational development was just beginning to emerge. It was primarily

being applied to large industrial bureaucratic organizations and secondarily to small therapeutic encounter groups, which in either case was not sufficiently relevant to my concerns. Through many exhaustive attempts at organizing and training organizers, I concluded that more appropriate organizational theories and practices were required in the area of education and social change (I use education broadly to include both formal and nonformal education). Particularly noticeable to me was the absence of organizational knowledge on conflict and crisis despite its increasing frequency and severity.

In 1970, I resolved to investigate this problem further with the aim of learning more about organizational change with a specific focus on how it is affected by crises. Moreover, I had hopes of contributing in some small way towards building a body of knowledge around these concerns. This study represents the culmination of the first phase of my resolution. The second phase will involve more in-depth investigation and the testing of propositions that have been formulated. I have been extremely fortunate to be able to pursue this multiple interest of organizational change, dynamics of crises, and education through the support of the School of Education, University of Massachusetts and the National Alternative Schools Program.

#### Format of Dissertation

The dissertation begins with a "Problem Overview" that explains the problems of change and crisis in the field of education and in the subfield of alternative schools. Included in this section are statements on the purpose of the study, assumptions and limitations, and definition

of important terms. These items will help clarify at the start, the parameters necessary to the study's further development and explication. Following that is a "Review of Literature" which examines selected research and thinking done in the area of crisis management. This will delineate the existing foundation of knowledge to which this study can contribute. The section on "Design of the Study" is included to indicate the various procedures used to arrive at the final conclusions. The main substance of the study begins with the chapter on "Analytical Tools for Examining Crisis." Here various models that have been abstracted from real experiences of alternative school directors are combined with appropriate theory and then formulated into propositions relevant to crisis management. The last chapter summarizes the findings, essays the meaning of crises, and makes recommendations for future research and action. In the overall, the study begins by building a foundation for exploration, then explores the subject and presents its findings, and finally suggests concrete ways to deal with the problem.

#### Statement of the Problem Background and its Significance

##### Social Condition

The Citizens of America. . . are, from this period, to be considered as the Actors of a most conspicuous Theatre, which seems to be peculiarly designated by Providence for the display of human greatness and felicity; (and) surrounded with every thing which can contribute to the completion of private and domestic enjoyment. . . (with) a fairer opportunity for political happiness than any other Nation has. . . been favored with. . . Treasurer of Knowledge. . . are laid open for our use, and their collected wisdom may be happily applied in the Establishment of our forms of government; the free cultivation of Letters, the unbounded extension of Commerce, the progressive refinement of Manners, the growing liberality of sentiment. . . If our



citizens should not be completely free and happy, the fault will be entirely their own.

--George Washington

So, then, to every man his chance--  
 To every man, regardless of his  
     birth,  
 His shining, golden opportunity--  
 To every man the right to live,  
 To work, to be himself,  
 And to become  
 Whatever thing his manhood and  
     his vision  
 Can combine to make him--  
 This, seeker,  
 Is the promise of America.

--Thomas Wolfe

In communist society. . . each can become accomplished in any branch he wishes, society regulates the general production and thus makes it possible for me to do one thing today and another tomorrow, to hunt in the morning, fish in the afternoon, rear cattle in the evening, criticize after dinner, just as I have a mind, without ever becoming hunter, fisherman, shepherd, or critic.

--Karl Marx

During certain unusual moments in history, the unyielding confidence that pure human will can master and change the social condition has become a salient thrust of that society. Some examples of those rare and preciously creative moments are characterized by Athenian Greece, Renaissance Italy, Elizabethan England, and the founding of America. During these periods, dreams are given vital and potent expression in ways that are aesthetic, political, organizational, and spiritual.

The above quotations have in common those rare qualities of expressing the human capacity to will itself toward a vision--a dream--a utopia. It is the human will to struggle towards the ideal of a more humane society that provides one of the most creative elements for change and also a central theme in the development of history.

It has been stated many times before that to dream, to envision new realities is one of the essential qualities distinguishing human beings from other animals. The fact that mankind does dream is a testament to his creative and imaginative powers. Because of this fact, one would find it difficult if not impossible to locate a society that does not have some dream or vision of what it would like to be. In this sense, we are all, to one degree or another, utopians.

Utopians aspire to transcend their present reality by building toward new forms which represent the world that they wish for. Further, the opportunity for Utopians to challenge a society to new aspirations tends to occur during moments of great historic transition when standard ideas and practices no longer seem to work. At these times of historic transition, the elements of society appear to disconnect--an occurrence which is often precipitated by a crisis or turning point in history. It is interesting to note that the term "crisis" itself comes from the Greek work "krisis" which means "to separate or disconnect." Isaiah Berlin vividly articulates the historical nature of crisis in his essay on Turgenev covering the period preceding the Russian revolution of 1917.

Critical turning points in history tend to occur, we are told, when a form of life and its institutions are increasingly felt to cramp and obstruct the most vigorous productive forces alive in a society--economic or social, artistic or intellectual--and it has not enough strength to resist them. Against such a social order, men and groups of very different tempers and classes and conditions unite. There is an upheaval. . .<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Isaiah Berlin. "Fathers and Children: Turgenev and the Liberal Predicament," The New York Review of Books, Volume XX, Number 18, November 15, 1973, p. 9.

It is my proposition that American society is in such a period of great historic transition, that this transition is characterized by crises and manifested through apparent disconnecting elements and conflicting struggles which, in turn, have impelled utopian thinking, planning and building. This proposition raises the following questions: What are the causes of the current disconnections? If crises are frequent precipitators of disconnections and social change, what do we know about the elements and causes of crises? What meaning does all this have for education? And particularly, what is the meaning of this to alternative schools since they are utopian impulses seeking an ideal educational expression and realization?

Part of the answer to these questions is provided by Erik Trist who has a superbly talented conceptual ability and is one of the founders of the social-technical systems approach to organizational studies. Trist delivered a paper to the UCLA Organizational Frontiers Seminar entitled "Urban North America: The Challenge of the Next Thirty Years." This paper represents possibly the most lucid and concise explanation of the present condition of urban North America. He begins with the premise:

that an irreversible change process is proceeding in the world, at an accelerating rate but with extreme unevenness, both within and between countries, which I shall refer to as a drift toward the post-industrial society--to use the term for which Daniel Bell (1967), Chairman of the American Academy's Commission on the Year 2000, has won widespread recognition. This term, now widely current, stops us from assuming that our present social order will continue indefinitely. Our need is to prepare for a society radically different from the industrial societies which have evolved in the last two hundred years. . . . I have used the word "drift" to indicate that the process is not under control. Unless control is established, critical aspects of our environment and our lives will become unmanageable.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Erik Trist. Urban North America: The Challenge of the Next Thirty Years. Paper presented at the Town Planning Institute of Canada, Minaki, Ontario, June, 1968, p. 1.



In this premise, several points are made that are significant for this study. Trist begins by describing the changes that are taking place as "irreversible," occurring at an "accelerating rate" with "extreme unevenness" and he attributes these to a "drift toward a post-industrial society."<sup>3</sup> The changes that he has described are mainly structural changes or put in economic terms, infra-structural changes which when combined with ideology and culture determines the society's state and rate of development. According to Trist, North America has undergone vast and rapid structural change, especially over the last fifty years. Selected examples of some basic structural changes are: the technology has changed from energy to information; the most influential political establishment has altered from financiers and industrialists to scientists and professionals; economically the composition of the work force has altered from blue collar to white collar; the work learning ratio has altered from work force to learning force; urban areas have altered from single metropolitan areas to inter-metropolitan clusters.

Despite these vast structural changes, Trist maintains that what has not occurred correspondingly are changes in the ideology and cultural values of American society. The ideology still largely reflects traditional values and assumptions of the industrial age such as the belief that independence and individualism is of paramount importance to the well being of our society. In contrast, according to many social scientist and other concerned persons, what is most needed to resolve the current complexity and magnitude of problems is a far greater willingness for people to

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

collaborate. As a result of vast and rapid structural changes and a lagging ideology and culture, a "structural-ideological mismatch" is occurring which endangers the viability of American society.

Some of the prominent aspects of this society are: complexity, interdependence, uncertainty and intermittent turbulence. A way of viewing this is by thinking of society as a social system with subunits, each of which are becoming ever more complex and interdependent in a milieu of rapid social, technological and structural change--a process that is essentially sporadic and unbalanced, and out of which crises and conflict between subunits are bound to emerge. Crises and conflicts, by the way, are interacting processes in which crises result from conflicts but conflicts do not necessarily involve crises. These points will be clarified in a later portion of this study.

### Educational Condition

The educational condition in American society is one that basically reflects the qualities of the society as a whole and, thus, its confusions and ambiguities. As the society is characterized by growing "complexity," "interdependence," "uncertainty," "intermittent turbulence" and "disconnection" referred to as "structural-ideological mismatch," educational systems intrinsically mirror these same characteristics.

The inevitable manifestations of a social-educational system that is disconnected and changing are--like the social condition--conflict and crisis. Some examples of the changes that are sweeping American education along are described by Ronald G. Corwin in his book, Education in Crisis:

Forced to attend schools by law and economic realities, young people spend more years of their lives in educational institutions, and more days each year, than ever before. The proportion of young children between three and five years old attend "preschools" increased from twenty-five to forty percent in the seven-year period from 1964 to 1971, and even more dramatic increases have taken place among older age groups. Whereas in 1910 the average adult had completed only an elementary school education, by 1970 over six of every ten adults aged twenty-five to twenty-nine had graduated from high school. Over the past twenty years alone, the dropout rate from high school has declined by twenty-five percent; seventy-two out of every one hundred persons who were in the fifth grade in 1959 have graduated from high school, and nearly half of those have gone on to college. If present trends continue, it is possible that by 1980 more than sixty percent of all adults in the United States will be high school graduates, more than four times the proportion found in 1910 and nearly half again the proportion in 1960. By that time, too, nearly three out of four high school graduates will be in some kind of higher institution of education.<sup>4</sup>

Changes of this scale take place--especially in a social setting where even grander changes are occurring--with great difficulty and often accompanied by perturbations. The drama of educational change is a testimony to the critical role of education in the larger process of social change. Corwin further contends that: "(education). . . must be understood in terms of the social processes that shape institutions. Two processes are primary: social change and conflict."<sup>5</sup> One only needs to consider the struggles of the 1960's and early 1970's to realize how true Corwin's remarks are, e.g., community control over the schools, student attempts to assert their power, desegregation, teacher militancy, and tensions of class differences.

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<sup>4</sup>Ronald G. Corwin. Education In Crisis. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1974, p. viii.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. ix.

Corroborating the importance of conflict and crisis in the change process is Louis Maguire's work with Research for Better Schools. She arrived at the following observation on the subject after analyzing the literature of change for practicing school administrators:

. . . events occurring in the day-to-day world of the administrator reveal that crisis is one of the main factors prompting change. In fact, the school environment can aptly be described as a crisis environment. Parents, taxpayers, community groups, governmental agencies and students are emphasizing that they will not permit the school to function as it has functioned in the past. . . . The import of this issue is that the crisis environment in education will increase, probably with renewed vigor. How to handle a crisis situation, or better yet how to prevent the constant reoccurrence of crisis, is a question that is shrouded in doubt and mystery.<sup>6</sup>

Educational conflicts and crises of this recent era have highlighted not only the needs and arenas of change but also the manner through which the changes will be forged. As current disconnections evolve into contentions and then percolate into crises, those conflicts between adversary groups will determine, due to the interdependent aspect of our society, the nature and destiny of educational policies that extend far beyond the original conflict. Ronald Corwin adds that:

The future. . . will be the product of conflict between educators and citizens, between the social strata, between those who benefit from the status quo and those who would benefit from a new social order, and between various organizational principles that underlie social institutions.<sup>7</sup>

Educational conflicts, then, are not only critical in terms of identifying major problems but they are useful in providing a view of the future because

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<sup>6</sup>Louis M. Maguire. Observations and Analysis of the Literature on Change. Philadelphia, Pa.: Research for Better Schools, Inc., June, 1970, pp. 4-5.

<sup>7</sup>Corwin, op. cit., p. x.



the wins, loses and compromises that become the outcome of the struggles will determine the direction and rate of change.

There are other factors which help create conflict producing conditions in schools. Mark Chesler and John Lohman offer some assumptions that characterize schools from a power-conflict perspective. Their first premise is that schools are strain-and-conflict-producing systems. This is because within the structure of a school organization different legitimate but competing and sometimes incompatible interests are endemic. Once pluralism is recognized as legitimate, then, conflict inevitably attends it. Secondly, members of a school district--students, teachers and administrators--occupy roles and structures and operate with professional and organizational norms and procedures which keep them separate, and work against formal (and even informal) interaction and the development of cross-cutting ties of common interest, values or feeling. Thirdly, all of the legitimate power, authority and expertise in schools presently resides entirely in the hands of boards, administrators and some teachers in the school.<sup>8</sup> A hierarchy of power that becomes vested in any singular group automatically establishes in a transitional age the confusions for authority challenges and conflict.

From the point of view of educational literature, there is further substantiation of a pervasive sense of crisis and a corresponding desire for reform and revitalization. One need only to recall the writings

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<sup>8</sup> Mark A. Chesler and John E. Lohman. "Changing Schools Through Student Advocacy" in Organizational Development in Schools, edited by Richard A. Schmuck and Matthew B. Miles. Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1971, p. 193.

of Charles Silberman, Jonathan Kozol, Arthur Pearl, and James Herndon, Dwight Allen, Edgar Friedenberg, Ronald Corwin, Ivan Illich, Everett Reimer, Herbert Kohl, to name only a few, in order to gain a sense of the declining confidence in standard American educational structures and practices. The picture that they portray is of schools as grim and joyless places where true learning is subordinated by protocols and structures that have grown less meaningful and more inadequate over the years.

As noted before, one of the primary positive consequences of a crisis is that it can energize a movement toward reform and the development of better, more appropriate practices. John Fisher, writing in Saturday Review, suggests that "what has happened during these ten years (1960-1970) is that pressures of the sort that produce and usually must precede institutional change have accumulated to the point where significant reforms are not only possible but inevitable."<sup>9</sup> Given this view and the preceding analysis of the American social-educational condition, it seems inconceivable that American education can continue to resist the substantial changes that are now in motion.

#### Alternative School Response

When the forces for change are substantial enough to overcome the forces of resistance to change within American education is something that cannot be predicted. In the meantime, however, some sectors of American education have already partially accommodated to the forces of change and to the problems of education through various reform attempts. One reform

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<sup>9</sup>John H. Fisher. "Who Needs Schools?" Saturday Review, September 19, 1970, p. 78.

strategy is the so-called "alternative school" movement; there are five hundred to one thousand alternative schools throughout the country. Although there is no single consensus on the aim of this movement, there seems to be a common feeling that education in the United States is a monopolistic operation that needs to be challenged by new alternatives. Moreover, alternatives may well be in response to a surge of ethnicity and self-actualization movements that have found their way into the realm of education. Alternative schools, as a result, have been trying to provide some other "real choices" to the traditional educational process. A better articulation of the nation of alternatives is a statement by Donald Glines who is one of the most active proponents of alternative schooling:

We can choose between a Ford or a Chevy, Catholic or Protestant, Democrat or Republican. We should be able to choose the kind of school we want to go to. The worst police state in the world is the public school system. To be truly democratic, we need alternatives in education.<sup>10</sup>

Besides simply providing a greater variety of educational choices, alternative schools may well represent a different mode of organization in contrast with other standard schools. In this feature lies their significance as a potentially creative invention--an organizational prototype for future education. This point will be elaborated in the section "Purpose and Hypothesis of the Study."

Although the development of alternative schools was an educational response to the turmoil and crises of the 1960's and despite the fact that they were founded originally to alleviate those problems which were so

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<sup>10</sup>Rationale, Readings, Resources. Amherst, Massachusetts: National Alternative Schools Program, University of Massachusetts, May, 1973, p. 1.

evident, ironically they now have their own crises to face, their own growth and metamorphoses to nurture, as explained further in a later section.

It has been stated that crises are inevitable facets of social change. Often, they are a result of the inability of conventional models, both theoretical and practical, to deal with a given situation. This, then, initiates the need for social retooling. Furthermore, not only are educational crises inevitable, but they have become ever more frequent occurrences shifting focus from one area of education to another with only momentary lulls in-between. One need only consider, as stated earlier, the crises of racial desegregation, community control over schools, teacher militancy, and student activism to realize how very common this feature of contemporary educational life has become.

As an agent of educational change, alternative schools are in a rather peculiar position. For the most part, they are still considered on the fringe or as an illegitimate child of the regular school system. Since they are still relatively new and less organized than the regular system members and are often viewed with suspicion, alternative schools find themselves quite vulnerable to conflict and crisis producing situations. This need not, however, be viewed as entirely negative. In fact, the position taken in the present study is that conflict and crisis are endemic to the democratic process and these dynamics when properly managed through appropriate administrative practices and institutional structures can be a vital aspect of a healthy growing system. However, what is required to make a healthy growing system is an attitude of accepting crises and conflicts as necessary elements of social change. It is much like the concept



of "pluralism": a social system must accept the importance of pluralism in order to realize its benefits.

Within the described social-educational construct, directors of alternative schools are in a unique position. They must keep one eye on the alternative school, the other on the regular system, and then modulate the disparity between the two. A crisis in this setting may initiate an opportunity for positive change and even maturity, but it may also mean imminent danger. With effective management and no small amount of luck, the crisis can become a turning point eventuating in educational advances for the alternative school itself and for the school district at large. On the other hand, a crisis may encourage regressive changes and ultimately disaster if, for instance, it results in the closing of an alternative school or worse, the elimination of the concept of educational pluralism and choice.

### Summary

This discussion has attempted to portray a society that has become extremely complex, very interdependent and, due to rapid structural changes, crisis prone. Much of current crisis is a crisis of ideas--their inadequacies and the assaults upon them--which has unleashed divisive passions. If this society does not destroy itself, it will be because new ideas that are more harmonious with the changing reality will have been effected. The educational sector largely mirrors the social condition and as an increasing part of its reflection there appear to be substantial impelling forces for change and reform. In response, alternative schools were conceived as one strategy of reform by presenting an opportunity to develop greater educational choice and, also of considerable significance, to resurrect the

human instinct and will to pursue its capabilities of embellishing pedagogy and learning with imagination, creativity and poetry of action. If alternative schools do nothing else, by posing the question of alternatives, they ask us to consider the meaning and significance of our educational practices as they relate to our contemporary reality. When individual and historic momentum for change converge, this introspection also ultimately leads to that necessary ingredient of vitality and change: pursuit of the ideal--of the utopia that was mentioned at the start of this paper. Thus, alternative schools are really part of the utopian process of seeding the educational soil with new ideas and dreams and awaiting their fruition. Irving Kristol, in his essay on "Utopianism, Ancient and Modern," summarizes the significance of this point:

But just as it is ideas that alienate us from our world, so it is ideas which can make us at home in the world--which can permit us to envision the world as a "homely" place, where the practice of ordinary virtues can indeed fulfill our potential as human beings. In such a world, dreams complement reality instead of being at war with it.<sup>11</sup>

There are many problems requiring attention in this description of the social-educational-alternative school condition. For my purpose, the problem that I am concerned with is the issue of crisis as an inevitable and essential feature of educational change in a pluralistic democracy, the protocols of crisis management by administrators of alternative schools (which are vehicles for change), and the consequences of the interaction of crisis, management protocols and alternative schools.

Presently, there is little known about conflict and crisis and their role in educational change except that the role is, indeed,

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<sup>11</sup>Irving Kristol. "Utopianism, Ancient and Modern," The Alternatives, Volume 7, Number 9, June-September, 1974, p. 9.

significant. Furthermore, there is limited knowledge of the "management of crises" in educational settings. Decker F. Walker, professor of the Graduate School of Education at Stanford University, describes education's movement as incoherent, reactive and that of a "drunkard's walk." He continues that "over the long run, the fate of each and every promising reform depends upon our working out more direct confrontations among contending interests, more lasting and conclusive resolutions or accommodations, and a more sustained and consistent effort to carry out policies decided upon."<sup>12</sup> Essentially, Walker concludes that the problem with education is that there is no institutional mechanism nor body of knowledge and practice to modulate the shifting balance of power among diverse interests into a reasonably consistent and cumulatively self-corrective policy. At the emergence of each new crisis, an educational decision made at one point is denigrated, neglected or reversed by those who are concerned with the new ills.

Whether one views the macro-educational scene as Walker does or the micro-educational scene--the alternative school director's point of view--it is clear that the processes of conflict and crisis are unknowns and yet fundamental. Although organizational development as a strategy for educational change has been used more recently in schools, this approach has tended to be in the way of the trust-truth model which relies extensively on collaboration in order to resolve conflicts. Richard Schmuck and Matthew Miles, who are both organizational development specialists, feel that "much more research should be done on the effects of deliberately bringing

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<sup>12</sup>Decker F. Walker. "Educational Policy is Flapping In The Wind," Center Report, Volume VII, Number 1, February, 1974, p. 21.

conflict into the open; training groups to fight for their interests. . .; and building new organizational power structures, roles, norms, and procedures through negotiation."<sup>13</sup> In a "Conference on Educational Change Agent Training," Mark Chesler, Arthur Chickering, Per Dalin, Dale Lake, Matthew Miles, Everett Rogers, and Lucille Schaible drafted the following statement:

Recurring crises are now the norm in most U.S. schools. These crises, however, are not being examined, researched or utilized to contribute to the planning and restructuring of the institutions; but are treated as abnormal, aberrant incidents which need to be curtailed quickly so that the status quo may be resumed as expeditiously as possible.<sup>14</sup>

This section has posed the problems of educational change via alternative schools and illustrated the dire lack of knowledge about crisis management by researchers and practitioners alike. The following sections will probe further into these issues providing some insights, paradigms and protocols for fostering research and for use by lay practitioners.

#### Purpose of the Study

This study has a dual purpose: first, to study directors of alternative schools--as one type of educational change effort--in order to gain insight into how they manage crises at various stages of the schools'

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<sup>13</sup>Richard A. Schmuck and Matthew B. Miles. Organizational Development in Schools. Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1971, p. 235.

<sup>14</sup>Mark Chesler et al. "Change Through Crisis Model" in Training for Change Agents, edited by Ronald G. Havelock and Mary C. Havelock. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, The University of Michigan, 1973, p. 151.



development and to learn what the consequences of their management have been; and second, to suggest the use of adopted, modified and invented crisis management practices that can be applied to alternative schools or other similar innovative educational organizations.

Thematically, the study will focus on the interacting dynamics of three elements: leadership, crisis, and stages of development for innovative organizations as they effect educational change. Leadership, crisis and innovation are three basic themes to the literature of social, educational and organizational change. Effective leadership can provide direction, coherence, cohesion, and vision to a group. Crises offer opportunities for reexamination and renewal. Innovation is the substance and process of change. Finally, a delineation of the stages of development will provide a longitudinal conceptual framework for viewing the elements as they influence one another throughout the schools continuing transformation.

Having stated the main purpose, some specific objectives will be: (1) to investigate and describe the conflicts and crises of alternative schools as experienced by administrators; (2) to identify the practices of alternative school administrators in dealing with conflicts and crises and to supplement the practices with strategies borrowed from other fields; (3) to investigate the alternative schools pattern of development and how the management of crises at each stage of development may affect the nature of the school; and (4) to direct the synthesis of the study to what Robert Chin refers to as Type B knowledge, i.e., basic knowledge focussed towards understanding how change occurs, especially looking at changes, their correlates and their consequences. (A more extensive definition is offered in the "Design of the Study" portion of this paper).

In order to further clarify the nature of the inquiry, it is probably useful to formulate a general position statement. Since the study is one that is exploratory in approach and will lead to the recommendation of hypothesis for concentrated investigation, the following statement is simply a point of departure that is expected to evolve into other formulations as the study progresses.

The beginning position for this study, then, is that as alternative schools metamorphose--at least theoretically--through seven stages of development, crises at each stage play a significant role in affecting the school's progression or regression toward becoming a distinctive "real alternative."

This position statement will provide a guide to understanding the factors which administrators of alternative schools can influence that impel desired organizational change during moments of conflict and crisis. For example, we presently do not know what the role of an administrator of innovative organization involved in the dialectics of change is; what makes for survival under stress and for courage under grim conditions; what protocols, tools, strategies are available for crisis management; and what structures and systems can be encouraged for development that would enhance democratic crisis management and produce positive outcomes.

It is expected that the answers to these questions will be instructive to the field of organizational and educational studies not only because crisis management as a technological concept is new, but also because this study is based upon the assumption that alternative schools do represent a different and perhaps new mode of organization from other forms of organization. Although it is rather presumptuous to make generalizations

about schools that are meant to be quite different from one another and of which little is known, I will, nevertheless, offer some comparative assumptions about alternative schools in contrast to regular schools for the purpose of understanding the alternative school as a unique mode of organization and for the sake of advancing this study.

To begin with, in a fairly lengthy analysis of the school as a formal organization, Bidwell (1965: 1012) reviewed the research and literature and concluded that school systems have the following four significant organizational attributes: (1) students enter the school involuntarily; (2) staff members enter the school contractually as licensed professionals; (3) they are bureaucratic and structurally loose; and (4) the nature of a school system government has dual but overlapping responsibilities to a clientele and to a public constituency.

The organizational attributes of alternative schools contrast noticeably with Bidwell's description. Alternative schools will, for instance, often follow a policy of voluntary student admissions instead of the involuntary admissions policy listed as attribute 1. Although staff members are largely admitted in the same fashion as regular schools, attribute 2, alternative schools will tend toward using more non-professional staffs. Because alternative schools are still relatively new, they have yet to fully develop the bureaucratic characteristics of attribute 3, and tend to be considerably looser in structure than regular schools. The alternative school encounters the same problem as attribute 4 of regular schools; but governance is further complicated by an ideology that supports schoolwide dispersal of responsibility instead of locating it with the administrative group.

On the following pages are a list of "Structural Components of Schooling" that was prepared by Carl Weinberg of the University of California at Los Angeles. In the list, he presents a comparative view of conventional schooling and alternative schooling. The list is by no means comprehensive as it neglects some very basic items such as curriculum, pedagogy, operational functions, power and control, climate, and communication. However, it is still quite useful for the purposes of this study in providing a sense of the comparative differences of conventional and alternative schools.

In addition to Weinberg's list of the "Structural Components of Schooling," a supplemental list has been compiled which is illustrated in Table 2 on the pages following Table 1. Table 2 is divided into two columns: the left column represents conventional schools and the right column represents alternative schools. Most of the information on conventional schools was discerned through readings and discussions with Robert Chin. The information on alternative schools, in contrast, was determined by the investigator's own judgement which was based on his personal experiences with and knowledge of alternative schools.

The categorical format for this supplemental listing was selected where they seem to apply from Ralph M. Stogdill's organizational scheme entitled "The Environmental-Organizational Segment." For further information on the scheme, see Item 1 in the Appendix. Stogdill, who is Professor of Business Organization at Ohio State University, has prepared a scheme that is one of the most lucid and comprehensive attempts at building an organizational model based upon prior research. For the purpose of this study, the scheme provides a useful and convenient method of



comparing conventional schools with alternative schools as two distinct types of organizational forms.

Before analyzing Tables 1 and 2, it may be useful to offer another conceptual model in order to help sharpen this comparative analysis. In referring back to Erik Trist's essay on "Urban North America," one may recall his description of urban American society as being in a state of "structural-ideological" mismatch where a cultural lag is occurring. Thereafter, he goes on to suggest that there are, however, new emerging social patterns which he concludes are in the right direction for the requirements of our contemporary society. Table 3 represents Trist's model of the key cultural patterns persisting from industrialism (column one) which he contrasts with a set of recent emergent patterns (column two).<sup>15</sup>

In Table 3, under cultural values, Trist has listed four cornerstones of traditional morality in North America: achievement, self-control, independence, and endurance of distress. Despite the fact that these have been considered the main tenets of development, Trist advises planners to design "habitats" of the future from the other list.

Self-actualization, a value discerned by Abraham Maslow (1954, 1967), is something for which more and more people are demanding some opportunity. As regards self-expression, Friedman and Miller report data obtained by the Stanford Research Institute showing that there are already fifty million Americans participating in amateur art activity. As regards interdependence, my Tavistock colleague Ronald Laing (1963) notes that the word "you" does not occur in Freud, whose "self" had no "other," . . . . The regulation of positive as distinct from negative affects (Tomkins, 1964) will require the formation of new norms. . . . The urban field during the next thirty years is likely to be occupied by increasing numbers of people who are seeking solutions to problems of value.<sup>16</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>Trist, op. cit., p. 20.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid.

Now in comparing Tables 1 and 2 with Table 3, it is fascinating to note the similarities between alternative schools and Trist's description of new emerging patterns that are necessary to bridge the "structural-ideological" mismatch. In the category of cultural values, only "independence" is still strongly reflected among alternative schools. Independence, though, is an extremely problematic facet of our culture because in order for our society to effectively deal with enlarging contemporary challenges, individuals must learn how to collaborate better with one another and forgo some of their individualism. Despite this one glaring disparity, it is very significant that the other items in column two of Table 3 largely resemble alternative school characteristics.

If Trist's analysis of the need for new patterns is correct, then these new values can only attain saliency in our society if life-environmental experiences support them. Therefore, whatever occurs in alternative schools--as they attempt to organizationally sustain what they believe are necessary changes--has particular importance beyond the scope of alternative schools themselves. Its importance lies in its uniqueness as a different type of organizational form and because this new form embodies many of the values and structures that are increasingly required by this society.

Structural Components of Schooling

Carl Weinberg  
University of California at Los Angeles

1. The Attendance Structure -- Regulations and Expectations Governing Attendance of School and Classes

Conventional Schooling - Compulsory attendance. Notes from home required to legitimize absences. In higher education, attendance in classes required for credit and attendance not permitted without registration.

Alternative - Attendance in school and classes voluntary. In higher education, credit by examination and attendance not limited to those who have registered or have not taken the course before.

2. Organizational Structure -- The Pattern of Organization Created to Make Decisions

Conventional Schooling -

a. Formal - Persons relate as behavior controlled by expectations for role performance.

b. Hierarchical - Stratified positions in which authority inheres. The higher the position, the greater the authority.

c. Division of Labor - Different people have different tasks such as administration, supervision, teaching.

Alternative -

a. Informal - Persons relate as individuals. Expectations based upon personal qualities and relationships, e.g., some persons can do or give more than others. A child may teach and a teacher may learn.

b. Equalitarian - Decision made by entire group.

c. Nondivision - Entire staff assumes part of all tasks. Or labor divided by choice on a rotating basis.

d. Merit Labor - Persons who can do the job.

d. Certified Labor - Persons who work in various positions are certified by nature of the possession of a credential.

### 3. Evaluation Structure -- The Process of Assessing Student Performance

#### Conventional Schooling -

a. Universalism - All students are judged against the same standard which is then translated to a letter or number grade.

b. Unidimensionalism - The standard against which all are evaluated is only one, academic achievement. Curiosity, uniqueness, athletic ability are secondary.

a. Particularism - Students are evaluated against different standards, usually person based, and progress described without invidious comparative meaning.

b. Multidimensionalism - Students are given evaluative feedback on their own choice of tasks. Creative, artistic, and personal growth tasks emphasized as much as academic achievement (or more).

### 4. Allocation and Certification Structure -- Sorting, Tracking and Certifying

#### Conventional Schooling -

a. Test and Performance Tracking - Students sorted in secondary curriculum based upon scores on standardized tests and academic achievement.

b. School acts as an agency of certification.

#### Alternative -

a. All Tracks Available - Students attend classes in varied programs. Placement tests are anathema.

b. The school does not award grades, degrees or certificates. The expectation is that other agencies will select based upon ability.



## 5. Adaptive Structure -- Locomoting Students Through the Program

### Conventional Schooling -

- a. Efficiency Based - School Adopts a mass production model, locomoting the most students for the least output.
- b. Product Centered - Schooling concentrates on final or finished products, defined by grades, degrees or certificates.
- c. Occupation Based - School adapts to requirements in outside industrial, adult reality. Achievement and sorting linked to potential occupational status.
- d. Time and Space Based - Management and control of students requires the adoption of time and space limitations, e.g., "Put all art materials away, it's time for math."

### Alternative -

- a. Student Need Based - School operates to make available maximum resources for individual needs. Since not limited to certified help, community and volunteer help recruited.
- b. Process Centered - Focus is upon the experience or activity. Exposure maximized. A product not required.
- c. Awareness Based - Focus is upon the development of capacity for understanding self, needs and capacities, unrelated to occupational interest.
- d. Time and Space Variations - Adaptation to interests of child rather than control needs of system. Classroom time flexible, location of activity flexible.

6. The Socialization Structure -- Refers to the Choice of the Goals for the School. Specifically, what skills, knowledges and values are to be dealt with, and what understandings will be considered worth having?

### Conventional Schooling -

- a. The Society Chooses - Those skills, knowledges and values which the society respects and to be implanted in children.

### Alternative -

- a. The Community of Learners Choose - The worth of skills, knowledges and values are to be constantly inspected as a condition of undertaking the development of them.



- b. Cognitive Skills Emphasized - Training in the basic and advanced academic skills is the primary concern of the school.
- c. Compliance with Preset Rules - Children are expected to comply with rules (often unquestioningly) established by convention of school administration. Sanctions for violations are preset.
- b. Cognitive Skills Balanced with Affective Skills - The school is concerned with the emotional and interpersonal state of the learner.
- c. Rules Evolve Out of Community Life - As part of working together rules which guide interpersonal relations are established. Sanctions are also established by the group.

7. The Integration Structure -- The Rules and Patterns Relating to Bringing Persons of Varied Characteristics Together or Keeping Them Apart.

Conventional Schooling -

- a. Age Segregation
- b. Sex Segregation - In specific activities --bathroom, PE, lunch lines and spaces, and some curricular activities like shop or homemaking.
- c. Racial Segregation - Based on community characteristics as well as curricular allocation (related to tracking).
- d. Economic Segregation - Also based upon community and tracking patterns.
- e. Private - Conventional schools relate most activities to private records basing the reward system on individual rather than collective performance.

Alternative -

- a. Age Integration
- b. Sex Integration - In most activities, particularly those that work against sexist socialization to work or play activities (e.g., integrated football).
- c. Racial Integration - As much as possible, often on a scholarship basis.
- d. Economic Integration - Both in terms of physical integration as well as exploration of differences in lifestyle.
- e. Communal - The emphasis is on the welfare of the group. A shift in student consciousness from what can I say to make the teacher think I'm smart, to what can I contribute to the understanding of others.

TABLE 2

CONVENTIONAL SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

Larry Kubota

Conventional Schools

I. Exchange With Environment -- variables in the organization which provide avenues of exchange between the school and the larger social order.

A. Structure - purpose, positions, roles, communication nets, norms and other items that provide form interrelatedness of parts to the school.

1. Goals - diverse and ambiguous.
2. Role structure - low interdependent system in which roles are minimally differentiated from each other, barely integrated, and carried out "invisibly," i.e., outside the range of colleague support and sanction.
3. Teacher's role - isolated and individuated which encourages an "accolaborative" stance.
4. Organizational complexity - very low with two or three hierarchical levels.
5. Staff characteristic - tend to hire and retrain people with dependent, submissive attitudes who have a difficult time in situations requiring the exercise of influence, collaborative decision-making and open, frank problem-solving.

Alternative Schools

1. Even more so.

2. Even more so.

3. Even more so.

4. Organizational design tends to be simple and organic with a pretense of no hierarchy.

5. Tend to hire people who, because they are independent and counterdependent, have a difficult time submitting to authority.

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## Conventional Schools

B. Interpersonnel - variables that define aspects of relationships between the members of an organization, e.g., interaction, intercommunication, interexpectation, interpersonal effect, and intersocial comparisons.

1. Interactive staff characteristics - low level of autonomy and weak knowledge base (quasi-professionalistic) promotes status insecurity, ritualistic use of procedures, and scanty communication.
2. Conflict and change - schools as social organizations are strain-and-conflict producing systems; that is, legitimate but competing and sometimes incompatible interests are endemic.

C. Inputs - variables that generate the total system when they are operated upon in various combinations.

1. Motivation - driven by a quest for academic prestige and influence.

D. Relationships - variables that involve the exchange of social values with the school district, community, and other institutions.

1. Environmental vulnerability - very vulnerable to short-run demands from the environment.

## Alternative Schools

1. A very high level of autonomy and low level knowledge base in earlier years promotes erratic performance, individualism and great difficulty in developing organizational coherence.

2. More so because it is allowed to surface. This adds a quality of vitality and excitement as well as greater frustration and agony.

C. Inputs - variables that generate the total system when they are operated upon in various combinations.

1. Driven by a quest for educational relevance, adventure, social concerns, and individualistic autonomy intertwined with a need for prestige and influence.

D. Relationships - variables that involve the exchange of social values with the school district, community, and other institutions.

1. Much more so!

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## Conventional Schools

II. Survival Mechanisms -- variables that help the school cope with internal and environmental change.

A. Adaptive - variables that are responsible for the initiation of action designed to cope with change.

1. Adaptivity to environment - tends to under-invest in research and development; and respond non-adaptively to long-run changes in their cultural, social and intellectual environments.

B. Influence - variables that affect desired changes in the behavior of a social system.

1. Compliance derivative - normative for the staff and coercive for the students.

III. External Constraints -- variables in the environment that restrain the school and often determine the purpose and form of the organization.

A. Governmental and legal regulations - restraints imposed on organizations.

1. Legal accountability - centered on the principal.

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## Alternative Schools

A. Adaptive - variables that are responsible for the initiation of action designed to cope with change.

1. Greater investment in research and development and better responsiveness for long-run changes in environment.

B. Influence - variables that affect desired changes in the behavior of a social system.

1. Normative for both staff and students.

TABLE 3  
 Changes in Emphasis of Social Patterns  
 in the Transition to Post-Industrialism  
 Erik Trist

TYPE	FROM	TOWARD
Cultural Values	achievement self-control independence endurance of distress	self-actualization self-expression inter-dependence capacity for joy
Organizational Philosophies	mechanistic forms competitive relations separate objectives own resources regarded as owned absolutely	organic forms collaborative relations linked objectives own resources regarded also as society's
Ecological Strategies	responsive to crisis specific measures requiring consent short planning horizon damping conflict detailed central control small local government units standardized administration separate services	anticipative of crisis comprehensive measures requiring participation long planning horizon confronting conflict generalized central control enlarged local government units innovative administration co-ordinated services



## Assumptions and Limitations

This formulative study on the nature of crises and its management within alternative schools is based on the following assumptions:

1. That crises are critical turning points of change which initiate opportunities for advancement as well as reactionary responses that may lead to regressive changes.
2. That knowledge and skills in the field of crisis management used ethically will considerably enhance the administrator's ability to fulfill the intent of the change effort.
3. That crisis management will allow for the school to sustain its vitality longer, to pursue renewal more vigorously, and to help it realize its aims in becoming a "real alternative."
4. That crises are inevitable and are becoming more frequent due to improved communications and public awareness and to the changing nature of our society--social, technological, structural, and revolutionary changes.
5. That alternative schools attract crises and at the same time are more vulnerable to them because these schools tend to be "spear-points" of change and yet are often unorganized enough to deal with the problems they may precipitate.
6. That alternative schools represent not only a different aim in educational practices but a different mode of educational organization as well.

The following are some limitations to the study:

1. The fields of crises having to do with non-directors will not be covered, e.g., students, staff, community, parents, superintendents,

and disenfranchised groups.

2. The general study of conflict will not be investigated; rather, crises as a subtopic of conflict will be the focus.
3. Alternative schools in rural areas will not be included, since the study will be limited to alternative schools in major urban and middle urban environments.
4. Geographically, the emphasis will be on East Coast alternative schools.
5. The study is based upon a general survey of 360 schools, six alternative school directors personally interviewed; two hundred alternative school directors, staff, central staff, students, and parents interviewed; two training workshops with approximately sixty administrators; a one year training-intervention attempt on an alternative school; and one preliminary three-day training-intervention attempt on representatives from four alternative schools. Each of these items did not provide conclusive evidence but did provide some significant insights.

#### Definition of Important Terms

In order to insure clarity for the remainder of this dissertation, some of the more important terms to be used will be defined. Each of the following terms are central to the study of crisis management and administrative practices in educational change programs.

#### Alternative Schools

Public schools which, in the eyes of its members, differ from the

regular schools in its district. Hence, alternative schools are mainly alternative because members see the school as an "alternative" and refer to it as such. Generally, alternative schools try to provide an educational format that is unique and is based upon the schools' own set of values rather than that of the larger school district. A more thorough organizational description of alternative schools is given in the "Purpose of the Study" section.

### Crisis Management

The problem of defining "crisis" and "crisis management" is a particularly important one because, as will be made evident, "crisis" can be defined in several ways. For instance, there are definitions which are psychological, sociological, administrative, political, and others that come from the physical sciences. Unless the definition of "crisis" is clear to all concerned, when and how to respond to and act on it--to manage it, in effect--is unclear.

The term "crisis" comes from the Greek work "krisis" which originally meant to separate and is akin to the Latin word "cernere" meaning to sift, discern, understand and decide.<sup>17</sup> A crisis is a period of time in which all of these elements predominate: there is often a separation of ideas, interests, parties, etc. which requires discernment, understanding and then a decision. According to its Greek derivation, "crisis" essentially means a decision point or turning point.<sup>18</sup> The Chinese character

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<sup>17</sup> Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 1966.

<sup>18</sup> Carol Bell. The Conventions of Crisis. New York: Oxford University Press, 1971, p. 61.

for "crisis" has two ideographs: one signifying danger and the other signifying opportunity. Together the ideographs illustrate a duality in its meaning--the danger of the problem and the opportunity for change. Both Greek and Chinese definitions of crises suggest that they are events which challenge the mind to think beyond its normal pattern--perhaps even in new ways--much like a puzzle might.

Looking at crisis from a psychological perspective, the following are some definitions of "crisis" delineated by James H. Loue for a seminar at the Laboratory of Community Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School:

- No set of circumstances, however unusual, is a crisis unless it is defined as such by persons involved in the system.
- A crisis may be a threat, a challenge, a strain on the attention, a call to new action.
- A crisis is a situation in which the affected individuals face the necessity of making appropriate choices of action to avoid or minimize severe punishment.
- A crisis occurs when a system's resources prove incapable of coping with, managing or solving a pressing problem.
- A crisis occurs when the internal balance of forces (or equilibrium) of the system is upset.

Harold Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan, who are political scientist and philosopher, respectively, define "crisis" from a political vantage point: "A crisis is a conflict situation of extreme intensity (high expectations of violence)."<sup>19</sup> In extending their definition, they go on

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<sup>19</sup>Harold Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan. Power and Society. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950, p. 242.



to say that "crisis is precipitated, therefore, not merely by conflict but by the failure of available practices of conflict."<sup>20</sup>

Taking into account these various definitions, "crisis" as I shall use the term involves some specific conditions: (1) It is an incident that involves two or more parties in conflict; (2) it is a recognition by at least one of the parties of an intolerable situation; (3) it is an action precipitated by a party that can no longer tolerate a situation which causes perturbation and stress in a system's equilibrium state; and (4) it is in total a turning point event that may transform the relationship of the parties involved.<sup>21</sup>

In this study, crises are examined as a subfield of the study of conflicts. Crises usually emerge from conflicts, but the study of conflicts is an exceedingly large domain to comprehend in a short time span. Imagine, for example, studying the nature of racial conflicts--the historical, political, sociological, psychological breadth of such a study would be overwhelming. Crises are smaller, more definable, more isolated and manageable; therefore, they provide useful foci for studying the change process in education.

### Administrator

"Administrator" is a term that will be used interchangeably with "director" and "leader". These terms could have quite different meanings: administrator usually refers to the management of the affairs of some

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<sup>20</sup> Ibid., p. 243.

<sup>21</sup> This definition was derived from a conversation with Dr. Robert Chin in the summer of 1973.



organization--a term with a passive connotation; and leader usually refers to one who is in front of others; a guide--a term with an active connotation. The use of the term administrator or director rather than that of leader was based on the uncommon usage of that latter term in alternative school settings. This may be due to a feeling of antipathy toward elites in such settings.

"Administrator" comes from the Latin "administrare" which means to attend, manage, to serve.<sup>22</sup> Administration, then, involves "the principles', practices and rationalized techniques employed in achieving the objectives or aims of an organization."<sup>23</sup> The administrator in an alternative school is most commonly known as director or coordinator. Since most alternative schools are still at a fairly young and formulative stage, there is a tendency to rely quite heavily on the leadership of an administrator.

Abraham Zaleznik, an organizational behavioralist, describes leadership as ". . . mainly the process of influence--the capacity of men to alter the thoughts and actions of one another in the direction of some useful work. In this sense, the artist, the scientist, and other men of ideas rate consideration as leaders as well as executives and political figures."<sup>24</sup>

It is interesting to note that Zaleznik's description of leadership is similar to its definition in the realm of power and politics:

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<sup>22</sup>Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 1966.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid.

<sup>24</sup>Abraham Zaleznik. Human Dilemmas of Leadership. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1966, p. 2.

That is, the dynamics of the capacity to influence or change some elements in a desired fashion. Therefore, administrators of alternative schools use selective management protocols for the purposes of leading their schools toward changing some desired educational state.

### Change

It is used here in a general sense as "the action of making something different in form, quality or state."<sup>25</sup> Anything that is perceived as being different is considered a change. Innovations usually fall into this definition of change.

### Changingness

This is a concept described by Robert Chin as changing change. He defines it as "altering or building the cultural values and norms governing the institutionalization or the norms and procedures which regulate the change process in key factors of the social system and its environment."<sup>26</sup>

### Power

"Power" is the ability to affect change. It involves influence but goes beyond it. According to Harold Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan, "power" in terms of decision-making includes "the production of intended

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<sup>25</sup> Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 1966.

<sup>26</sup> Robert Chin and Loren Downey. "Changing Change: Innovating A Discipline" in Handbook of Research on Teaching, edited by Robert Travers, 1973.

effects on other persons--namely, the availability of sanctions when the intended effects are not forthcoming. It is the threat of sanctions which differentiates power from influence; it is the process of affecting policies of others with the help of (actual or threatened) severe deprivations for nonconformity with the policies intended."<sup>27</sup>

### Dialectics

"Dialectics" is a method of viewing the change process as involving a triadic movement from a thesis to its antithesis which in turn may form a synthesis which in turn gives way to another synthesis. This is an endless process.

### Conflict

It is the engagement between opposing or incompatible forces or qualities (as ideas, interests, wills). The type of conflict this study will focus on is the conflict of organizations and groups rather than interpersonal conflict between individuals.

### Innovation

It is the idea or item which is new to a particular individual or group, and the change which results from the adoption of the idea or object.<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>Lasswell and Kaplan, op. cit., p. 76.

<sup>28</sup>Richard Evans. Resistance to Innovation in Higher Education. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1968, p. 16.

## Stages of Development

The concept of stages of development will refer to the life cycle of alternative schools as they transform from one set of characteristics to another. The concept does not necessarily pertain to the schools' growth according to some time scale, but rather to the continuum of characteristics that describe its maturation. A school can be very new in time but mature in behavior or conversely, it can be old in time and yet quite youthful in its activities and outlook.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Crisis management practices as applied in alternative schools are a field of study having no real direct research. Therefore, an indirect survey of literature pertaining to the subject matter is necessary. Two topics have been surveyed from which selected readings are described for their possible relationship to the subject of study. The two topics are: Social and Educational Change Resulting From Conflict and Crisis and Administrative Behavior Under Conditions of Conflict and Crisis.

#### Social and Educational Change Determinants and Results of Conflict and Crisis

Social change became a topic of interest to those who were in the realms of history and philosophy. Goodwin Watson (1966) described some of the earlier ancient theories (which were never really abandoned in some societies) that change is unpredictable and uncontrollable, and is willed by fate or the gods. Eventually, however, some classical theories of change began to emerge. In the nineteenth century, Herbert Spencer (1892) and Auguste Comte (1877) saw the development of society as a "linear ascent." In this optimistic view, Spencer saw society assuming an evolution to a better world order which would increasingly protect the rights of the individuals, decrease emphasis on government, abolish wars and establish a global community. An opposing theory was proposed by Oswald Spengler (1926) who saw human existence as an endless series of ups and downs. Spengler's



theory was basically "cyclical" as he saw each culture as having a cycle of life or stages of development. Arnold Toynbee (1946) discusses the formation of civilizations as occurring through a series of phases wherein it grows with each successful response to a challenge which provokes further challenges that are met with successful responses. "Creative minorities" are responsible, in Toynbee's model, for working out the responses that help civilizations grow. At this point, one can begin to draw analogous contemporary theories to Toynbee's, such as in the case of describing the course of educational innovations where certain creative leaders have been attributed as being the major impelling force for the change.

A somewhat different theory of change became known as the "dialectical" theory of social change. Hegel first used the term as a way of understanding social change and development. Henry Aiken (1956:74) explicates Hegel's theory in his book The Age of Ideology:

. . . all valid thinking about reality thus involves a triadic movement from a thesis A, to its antithesis, not A, which in turn gives way to a synthesis which can be removed only by a still higher synthesis. Then the dialectic breaks out once more.

Karl Marx (1904, 1932) adopted this idea and advanced the theory that progress towards a classless society proceeds through dialectical conflicts. He differs from other cyclical theorists in that these dialectical cycles are neither endless nor meaningless. Marx saw the dialectical process near the brink of victory. This Marxist view of social change differs from the linear theory in its acceptance of conflict as an integral part of the process of change. Using this construct one might envision the interplay between alternative schools and regular schools as an educational example of dialectics: regular schools representing the thesis position

and alternative schools representing the antithesis position; meanwhile synthesis is in the process of forming. It is interesting, however, to note that although Marx's interpretation of dialectics has been one of the dominant theories of social change throughout the world, one hardly ever encounters Marx or Hegel in educational change literature.

Max Weber (1947, 1958) approached the study of social change in a two-pronged manner: he combined a cyclical theory of social development with a linear theory of cultural development. According to his dual approach, social structure never really catches up with cultural development during charismatic periods, if the legitimacy of an old historical structure is diminishing and a charismatic leader outside the structure emerges and gives it its coup de grace. One of Weber's major influences on theories of social change was his point that a variety of factors exert influence on societal change and therefore one should reject all theories that are predicated upon any one determining factor.

In more recent times, Talcott Parsons (1961) asserted according to Amitai Etzioni (1964:76) that "change is not just a sort of disequilibrium, or as something that maintains equilibrium, but also a process that can decisively change the state of equilibrium itself." Earlier conceptions of change assumed that the basic framework of society never changed. Parson's model of social change by studying the differentiation of structure and that of the integration process provided a way to examine the reformation of social structure. As regarding Parson's (1949) general orientation to conflict, he appears to view it as dysfunctional and deviant and to disregard its positive functions. Lewis Coser (1956:23) says of him that:

Although he has made significant contributions to the theory of social control and to an understanding of the stresses and strains peculiar to various social systems, he was unable, given his initial orientation, to advance the theory of social conflict or even to see its general theoretical importance.

In reaction to Parson's structural-functional theory of change, Ralf Dahrendorf (1958) in turn felt that Parson's approach dealt with the factors that hold society together but did not adequately deal with the forces of disruption and change. Thus, Dahrendorf proposed a dynamic theory of change--a theory of conflict and change.

Within the developing spheres of study called psychology and education, Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin began a subfield of study often referred to as "group dynamics." Elton Mayo's (1933) orientation was that of industrial psychology and, thus, to him, management embodied the central function of society. From this perspective, Mayo could not understand conflict and he approached change from the standpoint of promoting collaboration and equilibrium. Kurt Lewin (1958) was particularly interested in the dynamics of small groups. He demonstrated that changing individuals in groups could be made easier if the entire group changed. This was significant in illuminating the relative flexibility of individuals to change.

On a larger scale, Robert Park (1950) studied ethnic relations and the aspect of social conflict. Park formulated a historical model of ethnic relations in which ethnic groups proceed through stages of relationship from contact to assimilation. The interactive forces in his model between groups which operate at each stage and eventually move the groups towards increasing harmony is a fascinating theory in explaining the development of ethnic relations. By identifying salient forces operating between two groups, one could use Park's model to understand the stage at which the

groups are and, perhaps, even predict the consequences of the interacting forces, e.g., integration and conflict. Beyond the scope of ethnic relations, Park's theoretical work contributed to the enlargement of conflict (as it was one of his central concepts) as a force having positive functions.

A classical work on conflict and social change was Georg Simmel's Conflict (1955). A central thesis of his is that conflict is a form of socialization which means that group formation occurs as a result of disharmony as well as harmony. Everett Hughs (1955:9), in the "Foreward" of Conflict, says that: "Simmel is the Freud of the study of society. Instead of seeing change as disturbance of a naturally stable thing called society, he sees stability itself as some temporary. . . balance among forces in interaction."

One rather simple but useful way of viewing social change is as a process which has a beginning, a middle and an end. Often the beginning of a change process will result from the tensions caused by social disorganization. Kurt Lewin (1958), from his studies on group dynamics, theorized that the beginning process of change was "unfreezing" followed by "movement to a new level" and concluded by "refreezing." In response to a state of unfreezing or social disorganization, dissatisfied groups will emerge and pursue what James March and Herbert Simmon (1958) refer to as "search behavior." As dissatisfaction grows, search behavior may lead to social movements that attempt to make change. Eventually, this process ends. Lewis Coser (1961), studying social conflict, pointed out that a process may cease because it has exhausted itself or because the point of termination is institutionalized as part of the process itself. In other



words, termination need not be final but can also serve as an initiation point for another process. Morton Kaplan's (1957) studies link the initiation process with the termination process. Kaplan conceptualized a series of rules on the process of transformation in which he presented a theory about the formation of new emerging structures as responses to social disorganization.

The formation of new structures--that is, change--involves new patterns of perception, attitudes, technology, and behavior and these are often referred to as innovation. The effect of crisis on innovation has received some attention. Goodwin Watson (1966) points out that innovation is resisted when things are going well, whereas A. P. Rowe (1964) speculates that war may advance the implementation of scientific ideas by highlighting needs. Donald Michael (1965) proposed that since social disaster often facilitates innovation, one possible approach to the problem is to create a stockpile of innovations which have little attraction under normal conditions but which might be accepted under conditions following disasters.

Further corroborating the theory that crisis plays a significant role in change are the views of John Gardner (1964) and Donald Michael (1965) who assert that under the conditions of crisis, a great deal of innovation and change is possible. Eric Lindeman (1965) reported on the effects of a breakdown in social cohesion of a working class community following urban renewal relocation and on the acceptance of a mental health clinic. The author noted that under normal conditions, such a clinic could not have gained acceptance. During the relocation upheaval, the cohesive forces of the neighborhood loyalty were threatened which allowed the clinic



to work with people to resolve some of the problems caused by the change. Wilkening (1952:13) investigated the effect of a climate crisis on the adoption of grass silage by Wisconsin farmers. Adoption of the innovation went from sixteen percent in 1950 to forty-eight percent in 1951 when rain and cool weather made culling of the hay through normal procedures difficult. Mulford (1959) concluded that an economic crisis speeded the rate of adoption of industrial development commissions by Iowa communities. Sutherland (1959) showed that a cotton spinning innovation was adopted more quickly by English firms because of the labor shortage in World War II. Bertrand (1951) found that the crisis of unionized farm laborers and wartime labor shortage aided the rate of adoption of farm mechanization in Louisiana.

From a philosophy of science point of view, Thomas Kuhn (1970) examined the history and nature of major scientific advances and from this study he concluded that crises (which he defines as anomaly) are necessary preconditions for the emergence of novel theories which he refers to as paradigm changes. He says:

Confronted with anomaly or with crisis, scientists take a different attitude toward existing paradigms, and the nature of their research changes accordingly. The proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the recourse to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals, all these are symptoms of a transition from normal to extraordinary research (1970:91).

From an organizational perspective, crisis can stimulate assistance and greater information flow into an organization from the outside. One example of an organizational crisis is the changing of a leader. Amitai Etzioni (1964:55) states:

the departure or death of the non-bureaucratic head of an organization. . . involves a major organization crisis. . . . the succession crisis should not be viewed as a mere loss of organizational effectiveness, a crisis from which the organization has to recover. Actually, the succession period is often the stage at which needed innovations are introduced to counter-act earlier deterioration of the organization. . .

Greinier (1967) discusses the role of historical forces in assisting organizational change in a paper entitled "Antecedents of Planned Organizational Change." His study examined a petro-chemical plant in which an innovative training program was introduced. From analyzing the data, the author stated: "that future researchers and change agents need to give greater weight to historical determinants of change, with special emphasis being attached to the developing relationship between an organization and its environment." (1967:52) Moreover, when Greinier (1967) surveyed a number of organizational change studies, he found that four of the eight cases he classified as successful were preceded by the increase of outside pressure and internal tension.

Bennis (1970) and Kelly (1970) are among those who believe that conflict and crisis can become positive forces for organizational change especially if the organization approaches those tensions with an attitude of challenge and improvement. In extending this idea, Coser (1956) argues that it is not conflict itself that is alarming, but rather its mismanagement.

From the literature of educational change, Giacquinta (1972:184) detected two broad strategies. First, the strategy stressing knowledge and understanding maintains that organizational change in school is a function of the extent to which their personnel gain awareness and understanding of innovations (Eidell & Kitchel, 1968). Some examples of change

modes reflecting this conception are: demonstration projects, in-service workshops, change agents, linking roles, and knowledge utilization.

Second, there is the strategy emphasizing commitment which maintains that the greater the commitment or desire on the part of school personnel to making change, the greater the change to be expected. Strategies of this latter type Giacquinta refers to as "lock arms, forward together" approaches because the tactics that are often used involve gaining deep commitment from the participants of the change effort through group problem-solving, intraorganizational feedback, and sensitivity training. It is interesting to note that although crises are fundamental change inducing elements, the literature on educational change strategies does not reflect much thinking or work along these lines.

But despite the absence of crisis management in educational change literature, Schon (1967:127) further strengthens the argument for the relevance of crisis for innovations. He states that:

Only the strongest incentives can lead an organization to effective deliberate change. Something like a state of crisis must arise. The organization must come to feel that its survival. . . is threatened. . . . Once it perceives the threat, the organization must immediately interpret it as requiring a shift toward innovation.

Other organizational specialists such as Edgar Schein and Warren Bennis (1965) and Ronald Lippitt (1958), have concurred that the organization must feel some discomfort and strain before an innovation will be sought or used. Matthew Miles (1964) concluded that the increasing influx of innovations in schools lately has been in part promoted by the struggle for national survival started by Sputnik. An illustration of this was Brikell's (1961:27) study which noted that the rate of instructional

innovation in New York State public schools more than doubled within fifteen months of Sputnik I.

Ronald Havelock (1974:90) conducted a study on school district superintendents to determine the variables that were essential for successful innovation. From this study, one of his confusions was that "teacher, community and student-provoked crises are related to innovativeness." Shirley McCune (1974:185), in reviewing Havelock's study, suggests that "the focus of any innovation (when the school has been encountering a crisis) should be on ways of increasing the stability of the system and the basic interpersonal competencies of persons operating in the system. . . . The skills to be emphasized in any innovation at this level would be those of crisis identification and crisis management."

#### Administrative Leadership Under Conditions of Conflict and Crisis

Although there has been in development an increasing array of educational literature on change, conflict and administration, unfortunately most of this literature has little applicability for practicing school administrators who are engaged in the problems of change. The literature has tended to emphasize the change process from an observers standpoint and neglect what it may mean to practitioners. According to Louis Maguire (1970:1), "The practicing school administrator. . . does not have the luxury of viewing change as a novel event. He is daily involved in crisis decision-making. . ." It is in this latter area where there is great need and little knowledge.



Administrative leaders\* in education are an important source of affecting behavior in an organization (Likert, 1961; Bowers & Seashore, 1966) and for that reason are a significant aspect of educational change. The intention here is not to review the massive amount of literature on administration and leadership. Such reviews have been done by Havelock (1973), Cartwright (1965), Gibb (1954), Tannenbaum (1958), and Stodgill (1948). Instead, a brief selected review will be presented of administrative leaders under the conditions of conflict and crisis and its effects on change.

To begin with, there have been a number of studies on the essential role of an organizational leader in either promoting or inhibiting change. According to Griffiths (1964), "the number of innovations is inversely proportional to the tenure of the chief administrator." When there is new leadership, they bring with them new ideas, behaviors and commitment to a different way of doing things. Because of the potential impact of a new leader on the organization, this period of changing leadership is often regarded as an organizational crisis in itself as was reviewed earlier (Etzioni, 1964:56). Schein and Bennis (1965) further substantiate this point:

Where effective leadership exists. . . it is possible to influence more people more successfully. An effective leader in a well-organized system is related to all other members through overlapping group memberships which allow influence to be shared and to flow downward and upward easily. If the leader in such a system is made aware of new and useful knowledge, he can become an inside change agent or catalyst.

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\*This term is used overlappingly to denote the combination of a professional administrator who is also a leader actively producing incentives for change and not a typical administrator merely acting in a maintenance capacity.



More specifically in support of the importance of leaders in education and society, Gregg (1969) makes the following point:

Today. . . [education]. . . ranks as one of the largest activities of society and is considered by many people as the most important one. The future development of any significant aspect of society depends upon the availability of intelligent manpower development through education. The more essential education becomes to society, the more important is its administration.

Miles (1973) similarly concluded from reviewing Atwood, Watson, Carlson, Griffiths, and Brickell (all of whom are included in his book) that it is clear that educational administrators, as authority figures, are crucial in introducing innovations, particularly those which involve structural change. Thomas Woods (1971) adds to this point by asserting that dynamic growing schools have far sighted, energetic principals who provide the impetus for change. He cites the Task Force of the National Council of the Teachers of English (1965) as additional proof. The Task Force visited 190 new programs for the educationally disadvantaged, both rural and urban, and in 116 districts and agencies in sixty-four cities and towns throughout the United States. One of their conclusions was that without a strong, competent, cooperative principal, programs were doomed from the start.

In the matter of selecting a leader for the purposes of change, the literature appears to largely correspond with Griffiths on the issue of internal vs. external leadership. Griffiths (1964:117) proposes that leaders who initiate change internally differ from leaders of an external origin. He feels that changes initiated by insiders tend to concern clarification of rules whereas outsiders will tend to initiate new rules and procedures.

One of the more problematic issues of leadership in educational change is the confusion regarding their essential role in the change process. The role of school administrators is debated in the literature. Gallaher (1965:50-51) argues that although it is impossible for the administrator to avoid issues of change, he cannot adequately serve as an advocate of change. Horvat (1967:27) on the other hand feels that there are two roles for the school administrator in causing change to occur: (1) the active change agent role where the administrator attempts to be an active leader in bringing about change; or (2) the passive change agent role where he administers the school more or less as usual and does not spend a great deal of time actually practicing change agency. Horvat (1967:28) concludes that passive change agency is the role which most administrators assume.

Looking at some of the factors which may be producing high administrative tension could help to illuminate the causes of passive change agency. Kahn and French (1971) concluded from their work on status and conflict that supervisory responsibility emerges as a major organizational determinant of role conflict. They go on to say that:

There is a systematic relationship also between rank and role conflict, as there is between rank and tension. The often heard assertion that the lowest levels of supervision are subjected to the greatest conflict is not borne out by these data. Rather, there is a curvilinear relationship in which the maximum of conflict and conflict experience occurs at what might be called the upper middle levels of management.

Within the educational sector, the upper middle levels of management would include principals of schools and directors of many innovative programs.

In the area of innovations, role conflict becomes an even graver problem. Kahn and French (1970), in studying this problem, conclude that

"roles which demand creative problem solving are associated with high role conflict and with tension." The occupants of such roles appear to become engaged in conflict primarily with older, and often more powerful, individuals in the organization who want to maintain the status quo. Augmenting this conclusion with Levitt's (1963) study, the latter evidence suggests that proponents of a particular innovation are not likely to perceive fully the difficulties that stand in the way of successful innovation. The combination of the two theories, if correct, provide the circumstances for inevitable conflict and crisis.

In the actual presence of a crisis, there are a variety of roles in which a leader may participate in the school, e.g., as the leader of the school, as a member of the school district organization, as a member of a primary group, or as a member of a community. When demands are placed upon a leader in more than one role, then serious problems arise. This is the problem of role conflict in which Killian (1952) had produced seminal research. In his work on community disasters, Killian found that family roles were given priority. However, in extending Killian's work on role conflict, White (1962) suggested from her study of community crises that people whose jobs are highly structured, with a high degree of routine and close relationships on the job, are more likely to find the certainty they seek in playing their organizational roles than people whose jobs allow them greater discretion or involve less informal relationships. Educational innovation is pursued most frequently in this latter fashion where roles and duties are loosely defined. The development of intensely close relationships do, however, occur which result in high levels of loyalty despite the lack of structure.

The dilemmas of educational leadership at the school level are effectively summarized by Sarason (1971). The following statement was made upon his study of the culture of schools as part of Yale's Psycho-Educational Clinic which examined the role of the principal in educational change.

First, as an initiator or implementer of change the principal is in a crucial role. Second, neither by previous experience nor formal training nor the processes of selection is the principal prepared for the requirements of leadership and the inevitable conflicts and problems that beset a leader. Third, these background factors may not only be inadequate as preparation, they may be antithetical to appropriate performance in the role. Fourth, with increasing frequency, the principal is involved with a variety of special services that are beyond his own areas of knowledge and expertise and, because they are administratively not under his jurisdiction, complicate his problems with leadership, responsibility and power. (Sarason, 1971:131)

Given the enormous difficulties and frequent failures awaiting educational leaders in their quest for change, one wonders what they can do to sustain their commitment to change. A clue to an answer to this question may be provided in Zaleznik's (1967) study in leadership and disappointment. In an extremely provocative article on executive leadership, Zaleznik concluded that individuals who are leaders have devised ways to manage their disappointments and this may in turn actually lead to accelerated growth and perhaps truly outstanding performance. Zaleznik feels that individuals who want power and responsibility or seek creative expression are especially vulnerable to situations where reality does not conform to desire. Rochlin (1965), in reviewing psychological studies of creative people, including leaders, also determined that preoccupation with success may be less important than the role of disappointment in the evolution of a career. Zetzel (1965) similarly suggests from her studies on depression that the key factor in mastering disappointment is the



capacity to experience the emotions connected with the personal career losses.

On an organizational dimension, leaders can exercise their role in bringing about change in a variety of ways. Getzels (1973:23) delineates three types of change in education: (1) enforced change--change that would not occur without the pressures external to it; (2) expedient change--a modification instituted to maintain the system rather than change it on principle; (3) essential change--creative transformation based on commitment and principle. This last form of change is one in which leadership has the most vital role and it is within the situational context of crisis and change that a very potent leader will attempt to manage creative transformations.

During periods of crisis and stress, research has shown that the leader does in fact play a decisive role (Edgerton, 1953; Sells, 1962; and Torrance, 1958). They contribute to group performance by reducing the level of anxiety and by preventing and alleviating stress-produced maladjustment among their members. Finally, they also provide the main thrust for extricating the organization from the stressful situation.

In research studies conducted during and since World War II by Stouffer et al (1949) and Clark (1955), it has been shown that morale of a group depends to a large extent on their relationship with the leader. Brayfield and Crockett (1955) and Sells (1962) also substantiated these findings in their studies.

One approach to the study of leadership under conditions of crisis has been through the conceptual framework of a leader's style. The style of leaders is the behavioral mode in which they approach their functions



and duties. A number of organizational theorists (Blake and Mouton, 1961; Blanchard and Hersey, 1972; and Fiedler, 1967) have examined leadership style by determining the ratio in which administrators combine in their behavior task and interpersonal relationship. This two-dimensional mode of viewing leadership style has produced some interesting insights on leadership in varying situations. For example, according to Fiedler (1967), the task related behavior of a leader becomes especially important in times of emergency. Torrance (1958), in a discussion of survival-training research, concluded that the power exercised by leaders constituted one of the most important forces in maintaining adjustment to the dangers. He states that ". . . when this power was not exercised, panic, disorganization, loss of life, and other unfavorable conditions ensued. . . failure on the part of the official leader to exercise power and organize things results in dangerously long periods of shock or lack in overcompensation and adaptation." Edgerton (1953) reported on personnel factors in polar operations and emphasized the importance of effective leadership. He states:

There is evidence in the literature on leadership in the Arctic regions that psychological adjustment in this region is not governed by the severity of the cold itself, but relates to the success or failure of leadership provided by officers in dispelling effects of isolation which the cold produces. When there is good leadership at a base, even very poor living conditions appear to have no serious effect on the morale of the men.

Summarizing this point, Fiedler (1967) mentions that a number of writers (Bass, 1960; Carp, 1961; Torrance, 1954; and Ziller, 1955) have indicated that groups under stress should perform better under leaders who structure the situation and who are task oriented. In Fiedler's (1967) study of group creativity in Holland, it was discovered that while

relatively tension-free and relaxed group climate appeared to call for a permissive, considerate leader, the more stressful heterogeneous groups, or those under informal leadership structure, called for a task oriented leader.

Fiedler's (1967:219) conclusions on studies of the effects of stress on leader behavior and group performance are:

1. That low stress conditions tend to require relatively managing, controlling leaders, while situations of moderate or interpersonal stress tend to require permissive, considerate leaders, and that task oriented leaders perform better in highly stressful conditions;
2. That leader intelligence correlates with group performance primarily under low stress conditions or under conditions which are free of anxiety for the leader, while group member intelligence contributes to group performance under high-stress conditions and those which are anxiety arousing for the leader;
3. Finally, that group performance does not appear to be strongly affected by the range of stress present in the laboratory studies which were discussed here.

Although leadership style allows for one useful device to inspect the manner in which innovative administrators meet their challenges, another useful perspective is that of leadership function under stress. Hampton, Summer and Weber (1973) saw an administrator as having a variety of roles. These include personal absorption of stress, judicial/bureaucratic resolution, restructuring of the system to prevent conflict, use of confrontation, introduction of transcendent objectives, shifting conflict to a higher level, and facilitating bargaining. In spite of these leadership approaches to conflict, they conclude that there is a desperate need for more effective conflict management because all of our mechanisms face difficulty due to changing patterns of authority and respect,

and emerging groups promoting change, and simply because of the larger volume of conflicts that needs to be managed.

A significant contribution to the field of conflict management has been made through a structural approach by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). Their research showed that "high-performing" organizations have several structural features in common for managing conflicts. First, the high performing organizations had a well-developed structure for managing conflicts. Second, whether or not complex structure for conflict management existed in the organization, each high performing organization had an effective managerial hierarchy that served to coordinate the organization.

Schmuck and Runkel (1972:146), from their work in providing organizational development training, feel that effective school districts must have persons who are skillful in working with conflict. Derr (1971) likewise found in his work that one large school district, which relied on a highly differentiated hierarchy for managing conflicts, had ineffective coordination between subsystems. He further discovered that little direct contact occurred between administrators to handle differences, and that those in positions of authority were perceived as incompetent to handle conflict by a large number of personnel. Derr surmised that the district could certainly benefit from an internal cadre of organizational specialists who could help devise ways to manage conflicts.

Thus far, administrative leadership has been traced through its role in attempting change especially as it often involves crises which in turn frequently result in leadership creating its own role conflict. Also, the analytical frames of style and structure have been briefly examined as they affect the management of change and crisis. From this

survey, the complexity of problems challenging innovative administrators looms unmistakably large and quanderous. In conclusion, it should be noted that supportiveness, eagerness and innovative thinking, though necessary and desirable qualities, are not sufficient in themselves to implement educational change. There are other administrative qualities-- a few of which have been examined--that are required but often neglected in selecting leaders. Atwood (1973) studied small scale administrative change and concluded that inter-institutional power-struggles are probably inevitable in the installation of any substantial innovation and may become more important than the innovation as such, or what research has said about its merits. Therefore, the administrators appear to require those essential skills of diagnosis, mediation, strategy formulation, and crisis intervention in managing the politics of change since these can be critical as to whether the innovation ultimately is adopted.



## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

#### Procedures and Principles Used

There are four broad groupings of research proposals according to Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook in Research Methods in Social Relations.<sup>29</sup> These groupings are:

1. To gain familiarity with a phenomenon or to achieve new insights into it, often in order to formulate a more precise research problem or to develop hypotheses;
2. To portray accurately the characteristics of a particular individual situation, or group (with or without specific hypotheses about the nature of these characteristics);
3. To determine the frequency with which something occurs or with which it is associated with something else (usually, but not always, with a specific initial hypothesis);
4. To test a hypothesis of a causal relationship between variables.

Studies under the first purpose are usually called formulative or exploratory studies because the emphasis is on discovery of ideas and insights. The research design is flexible and encourages the consideration of many different aspects of a phenomenon.

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<sup>29</sup>Claire Selltiz et al. Research Methods in Social Relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1959, p. 50.



Furthermore, studies under the first purpose are for fields of social science where there has been little prior research. The aim, then, is to explore the territory and to work towards some initial formulations that can become specific hypotheses for further research. This stage is a beginning phase of any serious continuous research into an unexplored subject matter.

Accuracy is a major factor in studies having the second and third purposes. Therefore, the design of such studies must maximize reliability of data and they are referred to as descriptive studies. The fourth type of study often involves experimentation. In studies testing causal hypotheses, the opportunity to make inferences about causality are required.

The field of crisis management in education and, more particularly, in educational change, has thus far been a field nearly desolate of theoretical formulations. Crisis management is, in fact, generally a domain that has almost no rigorous investigation except in the field of political science--including international relations and industrial-labor relations. Therefore, this study has been designed to be formulative in purpose and manner in order to identify the salient features of the crisis management terrain of alternative schools as they relate to the director or administrative leader and to assess their effects on educational change.

Because this project is a formulative study, the major emphasis is on discovering ideas, insights, and social technologies. Thus, the research has been structured enough to effectively direct one towards

practical outcomes and yet flexible enough to permit the consideration of many different aspects.

The development of this study has been guided by selected principles of formulative or exploratory study. The investigator approached the task in a role of participant/observer rather than as a tester or researcher or evaluator. As Herbert Blumer who is a noted sociologist advises:

Exploration is by definition a flexible procedure in which the scholar shifts from one to another lens of inquiry, adopts new points of observation as his study progresses, moves in new directions previously unthought of, and changes his recognition of what are relevant data as he acquires more information and better understanding. In these respects, exploratory study stands in contrast to the prescribed and circumscribed procedure demanded by current scientific protocol. The flexibility of exploratory procedure does not mean that there is no direction to the inquiry; it means that the focus is originally broad but becomes progressively sharpened as the inquiry proceeds. The purpose of exploratory investigation is to move toward a closer understanding of how one's problem is to be posed, to learn what are the appropriate data, to develop ideas of what are significant lines of relation, and to evolve one's conceptual tool in the light of what one is learning about.<sup>30</sup>

Another principle adhered to in this study is that of "inspection" as explicated by Herbert Blumer. In studying the properties of crisis management as they relate to alternative school administrators, the effort has been to avoid any single predefining analytical element of crisis management through an artificial means. As an example, intelligence is often defined completely in terms of the intelligence quotient rather than on its own terms within a particular situation.

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<sup>30</sup> Herbert Blumer. Symbolic Interactionism. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969, p. 40.

Blumer's principle of inspection requires an examination of the empirical content of whatever analytical elements are used for the purposes of analyzing crisis management. By analytical elements he refers to "whatever general or categorical items are employed as the key items in the analysis such as integration, social mobility, assimilation, charismatic leadership, bureaucratic relations, . . ." <sup>31</sup> So for the purposes of this study, the key facets of crisis management have been checked empirically with the directors themselves and through a process of collaboration with this participant/observer propositions and conceptual models will be formulated.

Procedurally, the principle of inspection requires examining the key analytical elements by approaching it in a variety of ways, viewing it from different angles, and asking many different questions of it. Crisis management concepts or the analytical elements that result from the collection of data and images will be proposed so that they can be scrutinized in successive studies through a multiplicity of ways including sociological, psychological, management, and systems theory analytical frames.

An important methodological principle of formulative study comes from viewing human interaction as a process by which people, as they encounter each other in different situations, indicate various actions toward one another and interpret the indications made by others. This is the methodological position of a sociological approach identified by Herbert Blumer as "symbolic interactionism." The aim of this principle

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<sup>31</sup> Ibid., pp. 43-44.

is to identify the meaning of an individual's life world and to analyze the meanings as they interact with people and situations. According to Herbert Blumer:

Anyone who observes social interactions with open eyes should readily recognize that human participants, both individually and collectively, meet each other's actions in diverse and varying forms. Sometimes they cooperate, sometimes they conflict with each other, sometimes they engage in a free play of expressive behavior toward one another. To see all human interaction (and accordingly all human society) as organized in the form of some special type of interaction does violence to the variety of forms that one can see if he wants to look.<sup>32</sup>

Symbolic interactionism tries to account for the activity of a group or organization through an explanation in the way its members define, interpret, and meet the situations. Crisis as a situation must be studied according to this principle by deriving the meaning of the crisis as interpreted by its members rather than by artificially imposing in advance a more generalized framework upon it. Essentially, the crisis management study will try to establish some of the prominent meanings behind the crises and describe the structural features as a result of understanding the meanings.

As this formulative study progresses, it is intended to aim toward the discipline of what Robert Chin refers to as Type B knowledge: "Type B is basic knowledge focused towards understanding how change occurs, especially looking at changes, their correlates and their consequences."

In his essay on "Changing Change: Innovating A Discipline," Robert Chin distinguishes Type A knowledge from Type B and Type C. If

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<sup>32</sup>Ibid., p. 54.



Type A knowledge focuses on intervention, Type B knowledge focuses on understanding how change occurs, especially in a development sense and Type C knowledge focuses on how the parts of system fit, a structural view.<sup>33</sup>

This formulative study of crisis management as applied by directors of alternative schools will attempt to identify dynamics of change and conceptions of crises based on empirical studies, and ethical considerations. Although the focus of the effort is in describing the nature of crisis and organizational change, the intention of the study will be to provide a foundation for the building of Type A knowledge.

In its final form, this present effort will have formulated some basic concepts and propositions on the management-analysis of crises by administrators of alternative schools. The emphasis in this design, then, is toward building knowledge that will advance the understanding and technology of social change practices among innovative educational organizations during periods of crises.

#### Sources of Data

The sources of data for this dissertation have been obtained: (1) from urban and middle urban regions; (2) nationally, but with a bias toward the following regions: Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, Minneapolis, Boston, and New York; (3) from all forms of alternative

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<sup>33</sup>Robert Chin and Loren Downey. "Changing Change: Innovating A Discipline," in Handbook of Research on Teaching, edited by Robert Travers, 1973.



schools; (4) by concentrating data collection from the East Coast; and (5) from mostly directors of alternative schools.

Much of the general information on alternative schools is from a survey conducted on approximately 560 schools and programs of which there were 360 responses. More in-depth information came from interviews with directors of: Cambridge Pilot School, Cinnaminson Alternative School, Harlem Prep, CITY; two training workshops with about sixty directors; intervention-training with Odyssey, Kilimanjara, Franklin Alternative School, College Prep; and intensive observation, intervention-training with Pasadena Alternative School.

Item two in the Appendix lists brief descriptions of the schools from which the major amount of data was drawn.

Compilation and analysis of the information collected on alternative schools were accomplished by grouping the information into four categories: interrelationship aspect, sociotechnical systems aspect, developmental aspect and director's role, protocols, and strategies. Each of these categories relate to a major unit and theme of this paper.

Dominant typical crises that currently challenge alternative schools have been examined through those four categorical filters to illuminate answers to the following questions. In the area of subsystem relationship to system, what are the dominant reasons for crises? Or in the area of the internal system, do crises prevent or enhance the creation of new levels of normalcy around significant issues? And finally, what consequences do the crises have on alternative schools? Answers to these and other such questions will suggest a beginning point for formulating plans to improve current practices.

## Methods of Gathering Data

The method of gathering data has been multi-fold: written questionnaire, interview, observation, and training intervention. Each method provides an additional view of the subject of crisis management in alternative schools which when combined provides a closer approximation of the alternative school reality than reliance on any single method. Additionally, the method has aimed to capture the subject in a continuum of forms as it exists conceptually, strategically, and operationally.

Due to the time press placed upon the task of completing a national survey, unfortunately the questions were not developed to provide reliable and truly conclusive responses. For example, although the survey had numerous components, they were not carefully synchronized to allow for any substantial comparative analysis to be made. Indeed, the methodology of this study has been equally limited by its own lack of synchronization. Despite these limitations, though, the multiform methodology used in this study has provided insightful data for the purposes of a "formulative study."

### Description of Data Gathering Instruments

The instruments used in this study involved a questionnaire and interview formats. These are included in the Appendix section of this dissertation under Items 3, 4 and 5.

Item 3 is the "Survey Questionnaire" designed and conducted by the National Alternative Schools Program. The format is multiple choice, short answer having three types of questions: (1) circle the appropriate

answers; (2) specify the appropriate answers; and (3) mark the appropriate cells in the grid with a check. This questionnaire involved eighty-six questions from which the responses were compiled through the use of a computer.

Item 4 are the "Interview Formats": "Director Interview" and "Directors' Interview Outline." The "Director Interview" was a component of NASP's national survey of public alternative schools. It involved a series of twenty-six questions aimed at gaining a director's point of view regarding some of the issues of alternative schooling. The interview was administered to two hundred alternative schools around the nation. For the purpose of this study, only question number 4 was used: "Has the major purpose or the existence of the school ever been in danger? Why? What happened?" The "Director's Interview Outline" was designed and conducted by this writer. Its aims were to gather some general characterizing information on directors and to examine issues of leadership such as personal role, perception of the school, perception of school crises, protocols of crisis management, and ideology. The format was devised in chronological order: pre-directorship data, current data, and future projected data.

Item 5 is the "NASP Questionnaire on Directors." This questionnaire was designed by the investigator to obtain the perceptions of the NASP staff on the directors of alternative schools. There are included two types of questions: multiple choice and short answers. The overall format was devised so that analyses could be made through: (1) size of the city or town; (2) regions of the country; (3) stages of development; (4) administrative experience; and (5) age of the director; etc.

## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ORGANIZED BY ANALYTICAL TOOLS FOR EXAMINING CRISES

In this chapter, data are organized by analytical tools for examining alternative school crises. There are two distinct types of analytical tools included. First are systems models of the alternative school-regular school interrelationship structure. These models are designed to provide a structural map of the significant social and technical interrelationships within that social system and the manner in which it functions. This approach is essentially a static conceptual scheme which captures a social system at one given time period. Secondly, an epigenetic model of alternative schools is offered. This model attempts to understand alternative schools through their stages of development over some time period. As each analytic approach is described and data analysis is offered, "propositions" that suggest tentative and preliminary conclusions will be presented. Once again, these propositions are for the purposes of sharpening the findings and stimulating more specific and concentrated research as well as providing alternative school practitioners with some clearer directions for dealing with a terrain that has been essentially vague and confusing.

System's Models of the  
Alternative School Structure



## Description of Systems Theory

When an alternative school is in the midst of a crisis, an important problem for its members becomes that of analyzing the crisis correctly. Under conditions of stress, there is a tendency for most people to become more narrow and subjective in their perspective and judgement. This seems to be, in part, a necessary reaction to information overload--one of the definitional characteristics of crisis--but by so doing there also occurs a greater possibility for error. Therefore, a crisis is one of those complex instances in which solutions are extremely "counter-intuitive", i.e., solutions to problems will emerge more from a rational process than an intuitive process.

In order to enhance the rational process of examining and understanding alternative schools in crisis, a "systems perspective" is quite useful. This approach attempts to give a clearer picture of the entire organization by abstracting all the significant elements that interact. With such a picture, one can then identify the interrelated consequences of a crisis to the network of relationships involved and anticipate the ramifications of any given strategy.

Schemas that are based on a systems perspective involve much more than simply the interrelatedness of some elements. Systems, be they physical, biological or social, are derived from a set of assumptions that have been combined to form a framework for science called "general systems theory."<sup>34</sup> Kenneth Boulding describes it as "a level

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<sup>34</sup>The name and many of the ideas are to be credited to L. Von Bertalanffy. L. Von Bertalanffy, "General Systems Theory: A New Approach to Unity of Science," Human Biology, Volume 23, (December, 1951), pp. 303-361.



of theoretical model-building which lies somewhere between the highly generalized constructions of pure mathematics and the specific theories of the specialized disciplines."<sup>35</sup> He means by this statement that mathematics attempts to abstract relationships between units into a coherent system which does not have any necessary connection with reality. On the other extreme, disciplines have developed theories which are derived from their own particular empirical world. More recently, through general systems theory, there is in development a body of systematic theoretical constructs that will be transdisciplinary in nature and could be used to describe in a common form the various dimensions of the empirical world.

In this paper, selected aspects of general systems theory will be used as it intersects with organizational theory. Organizational theory relies quite heavily on systems theory but its formulations tend to be much more specific. It is, however, interdisciplinary in nature, its development having resulted from the growth of management, economics, sociology, psychology, engineering, physiology, and cybernetics.

Before looking at the system models that are included in this section, a brief description of the principles of general systems theory seems to be appropriate. To begin with, the concept of boundary is essential to a description of a system because when reference is made to a system such as an alternative school, the boundary delineates that which is internal to the school and that which is external. Litterer defines

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<sup>35</sup> Kenneth E. Boulding. Beyond Economics. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1970, p. 83.

boundaries as "the places where systems deliver output to the environment and where they take from the environment whatever throughout is transformed."<sup>36</sup> Although this is a useful functional definition of boundary, it also involves other considerations such as "association" and "identity". Often the boundary set by an organizational system defines a group's association or relationship behavior. Based on the investigator's observations, progressively-oriented alternative schools, for example, do not encourage their members to associate with conservative members of the regular school system. Thus, the boundary line which influences the members' relationships with each other and the external world becomes also a matter of organizational identity.

One way of making this concept more concrete is suggested by Chin:

It is helpful to visualize a system by drawing a large circle. We place elements, parts, variables, inside the circle as the components, and draw lines among the components. The lines may be thought of as rubber bands or springs, which stretch or contract as the forces increase or decrease. Outside the circle is the environment, where we place all other factors which impinge upon the system.<sup>37</sup>

The lines that Chin describes within this visualization are the relationships that exist between the groups or members of a system. Conceiving these as rubber bands or springs adds the dynamic of tension and elasticity to this model so that if one were to change the placement of one

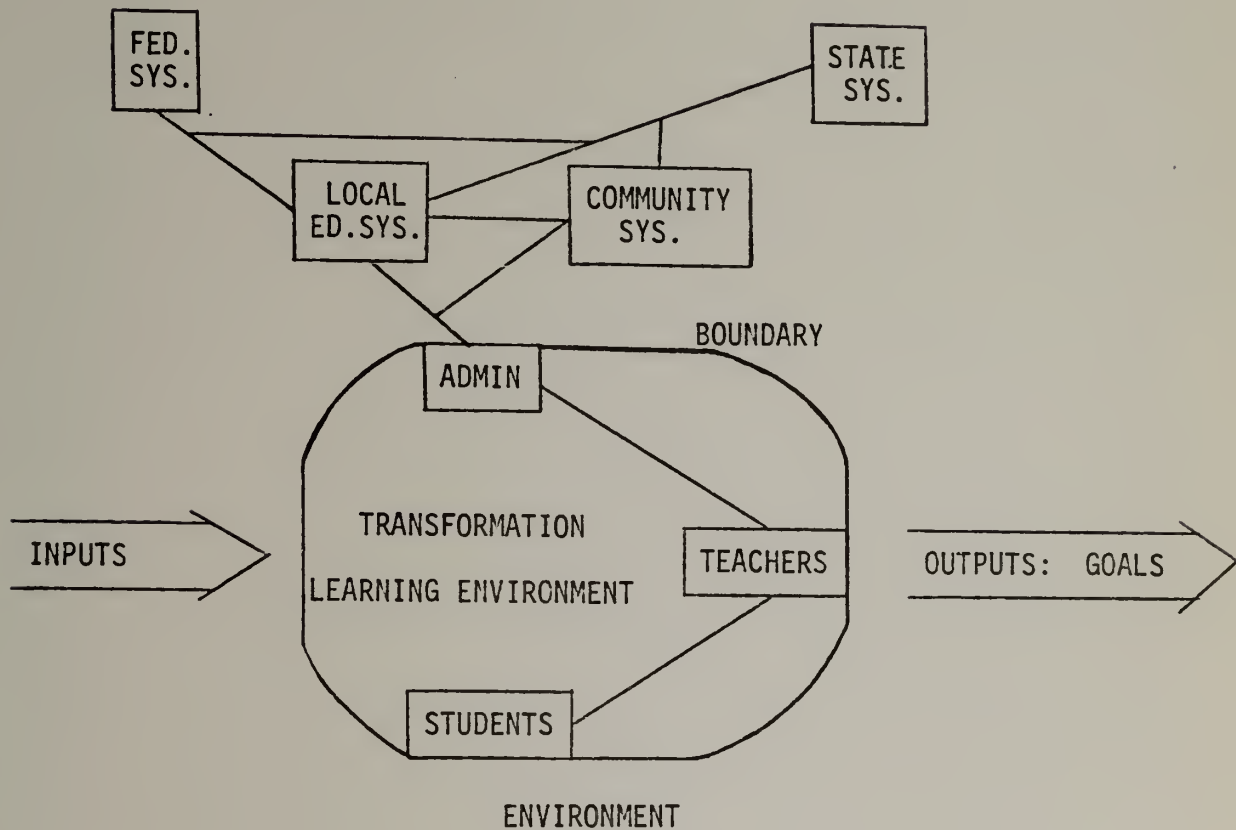
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<sup>36</sup> Joseph A. Litterer. The Analysis of Organizations. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1973, p. 28.

<sup>37</sup> Robert Chin. "The Utility of Systems Models and Developmental Models for Practitioners," in The Planning of Change, edited by Warren Bennis, Kenneth Benne, and Robert Chin. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969, p. 300.

component of the system, invariably the entire system would be affected. The diagram in Figure 1 illustrates this concept.

FIGURE 1  
Systems Model



Returning to Litterer's definition of boundary, there is an input-transformation-output process implied that is also illustrated in Figure 1. This is another characteristic of an organizational system. The system inputs items that it needs in order to fulfill its purpose and then transforms these items in a way that is suitable for output. A school inputs

new students, teachers, ideas, and materials which are organized into a learning environment from which outputs are generated.

When the inputs enter the boundary of a system, they are combined in order to produce a desired transformation. The organized groups within and without a system are known as subsystem parts, and these subsystems relate in various changing ways that either assist or impede the transformation process. When there are changes in the relationships, tension develops within the system and when it is of sufficient proportion between two or more units of a system, then conflict is the consequence. If the conflict increases so that one or more of the parties feels that the situation is "intolerable" or there is "information overload" or the conflict "threatens to greatly transform the relationship between the parties," then it has become a "crisis".

The dynamics of tension, especially as it begins to escalate, provide drama to heighten the system's life and also cues about the value structure of the system for its members. By observing the tension dynamics of a system, Chin indicates an important diagnostic procedure: "The identification of and analysis of how tensions operate in a system are by all odds the major utility of systems analysis for practitioners of change."<sup>38</sup>

A fairly simple but important concept to systems theory is that of "equilibrium". The solar system in movement is an example of a system in equilibrium. Each part has found itself in delicate balance with one another, thus, each part is influencing the other and being influenced

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<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 301.



so that there occurs a dependable pattern to their movements. In social systems, equilibria are temporary and there are often multiple equilibria points. An alternative school that has discovered how to exist compatibly with the regular system is viewed as having found an equilibrium point.

"Thermostat"<sup>39</sup> is a more sophisticated case of equilibrium theory. It involves the addition of some control mechanism to maintain a determined equilibrium level. Boulding suggests that it differs from the simple stable equilibrium system. . .

. . . mainly in the fact that the transmission and interpretation of information is an essential part of the system. As a result of this the equilibrium position is not merely determined by the equations of the systems, but the system will move to the maintenance of any given equilibrium, within limits.<sup>40</sup>

Since environmental changes are frequent and they often critically affect social systems, a well functioning thermostat device is necessary if the organization aims to survive over any substantial period of time. "Feedback" data or data that has been outputted from the system and is fed back to affect succeeding outputs assists the thermostat device in making appropriate and timely adjustments.

Another dimension of systems theory is that of "open systems." An open system interacts with its environment; that is, there is an exchange of input and output across its boundaries. All living forms are open systems according to this description. One of the characteristics

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<sup>39</sup>Boulding, op. cit., p. 90.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., pp. 90-91.

of an open system is that of "self-maintenance." In living systems, the property of self-maintenance as it inputs and outputs energy to sustain itself is of dominant importance.

At the level of complexity of a social system, Boulding asserts that symbolic image is an essential concept which is manifested through one's "role". He defines "role" as. . . "that part of the person which is concerned with the organization or situation in question, and it is tempting to define social organizations, or almost any social system, as a set of roles tied together with channels of communication."<sup>41</sup>

General systems theory provides additional theories on the nature and development of organizations. Some of these will be briefly explored in the following pages. One note of caution, however, before continuing. Although the general level of knowledge of systems seems vast and impressive at times, its applicability in helping people to understand and control complicated systems is still in need of considerable development. While static systems such as in geography, chemistry, geology, etc. can be described fairly well, the ability to describe complex dynamic systems is still relatively primitive. Nevertheless, the development and use of systems theory is a necessary and important step towards a more sophisticated understanding of organizations. It provides a conceptual map based upon a language understood by those in different disciplines which can be tested and improved to fit an organization's empirical reality. Theorists and practitioners can then use these models in formulating strategies to help them predict the possible consequences of their actions and plans.

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<sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 93.

## Alternative School as a Sociotechnical System

In the systems scheme, Figure 1, alternative schools were viewed through a hypothetical-typical model which illustrated the school's interrelationship system and input-output system. This scheme is useful in understanding the school's equilibrium pattern and its basic transformation pattern. There is another more detailed way, however, to view alternative schools through systems theory. It is by combining the social and technical aspects of systems, an approach which has come to be known as sociotechnical systems.

Litterer (1973:23-37) presents a sociotechnical systems model in his book The Analysis of Organizations. According to him, "Organizations . . . are social institutions involving a set of people who have a particular way of relating to each other as they perform their activities."<sup>42</sup> The manner in which this is performed involves a series of organizational functions to provide input to the system, to assure effective internal transformation, and to provide output to the environment.

The organizational functions that are involved in performing the input-transformation-output flow fall into three major categories and two subcategories in Litterer's model. There is a "maintenance system" to insure the satisfaction of those who control the environment; an "institutional system" which involves maintaining the organizational internal state so that it is sufficiently congruent to society's expectations to be acceptable; and an "emergent system" which is the set of behaviors controlled by elements that have arisen or developed in a group of people

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<sup>42</sup>Litterer, op. cit., p. 353.

as a consequence of living in an organization. The maintenance system has two subfunctions: "search subsystem" which consists of searching the environment for resources needed; and "reward subsystem" which entails distribution of rewards that produce satisfaction.<sup>43</sup>

Since it appears that Litterer's model was conceived with business organizations more in mind, it has been modified somewhat to be more in accord with educational organizations. The reward subsystem function in the modified model has been enlarged to the "regulatory subsystem" function which involves the organization's effort to obtain desired behavior from its members. Regulatory activities include not only rewards but feedback, decision-making, rules, and adaptation methods.

This model was applied to the concerns of alternative school directors during an "Alternative Schools Clinic on Perspectives and Procedures for Crisis Management." (See Item 6 in Appendix for a copy of the report.) During the first evening of the Clinic, the major concerns of the participants were elicited. This was accomplished by dividing the members into three clinic groups in which each group had two facilitators to assist the discussion and to take notes. The task was approached through informal brainstorming. The contents of the exercise are listed under Table 4, "Sociotechnical Systems Perspective of the Concerns of Alternative School Directors." In Table 4, the concerns have been arranged as they appear to correspond to the model's definitions.

Proposition One: The two main concerns in rank order of alternative school directors are: the nature of the relationship between

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<sup>43</sup> Ibid., pp. 30-34.



alternative school and the regular school system; and the creation of internal organizational satisfaction.

Table 4 illustrates that the responses of twenty-seven alternative school directors fall quantitatively into the following order: Institutional System--eighteen; Maintenance System--seventeen; Search Subsystem--seven; Regulatory Subsystem--six; and Emergent System--six; totaling fifty-four responses. From the number of responses, two areas seem to obtrude as having the most concerns: Institutional System and Maintenance System. It is interesting to note that the Emergent System function had the lowest responses. This system is sometimes referred to as the "informal organization" and it is usually a significant aspect of organizational life because the continuously emerging activities, interactions, and sentiments combine to produce the collective behavior of the organization and thus its well being. Perhaps the low concern score can be explained by realizing that the responses of directors are essentially being reviewed and that this pattern of concern may indicate an approximation of the administrative viewpoint in alternative schools which appears to respond to external pressure through an interest in internal controls. It should be interesting to obtain responses to the same question from the other members of the schools to see whether there is a difference. One would suspect that the Emergent System area would score much higher as a concern to non-administrative members of a school because their day-to-day life deeply involves the quality of those interpersonal dynamics.

In contrast to the data obtained from the twenty-seven directors of alternative schools attending the Clinic, Table 5, "Reasons for the Purpose or Existence of the School having been Endangered" lists the

TABLE 4

Sociotechnical Systems Perspective  
of the Concerns of Alternative School Directors

Following are major concerns expressed by alternative school directors and classified according to the various subsystems of the alternative school:

I. Institutional System

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities which are performed to deal with the issues of the alternative school's relationship to the regular school system, the state, the neighborhood or community colleges, etc. This part of the school must keep the internal state sufficiently congruent with outside people's expectations so as to be acceptable to them.
- B. Concerns about the External Environment re Institutional System:
1. The alternative school making a dent in education.
  2. The role of the change agent as a pioneer to the regular school system.
  3. The change effects of alternative schools upon more distant schools.
  4. The lack of commitment by the system to alternative schools as reflected by financial support, attendance regulations, staff certification rules.
  5. The alternative school (individualization) as a threat to others.
  6. The alternative school's successes as a threat to other school people.
  7. The lack of alternative school credibility thereby leading to vulnerability.
  8. The alternative school as a pressure valve for release of those elements that threaten the smooth operation of the regular school system.
  9. How to achieve Board commitment.
  10. The idea of students talking to the system.
  11. The idea of teachers participating in committees within the regular school.
  12. The involvement of other authority points.
  13. The local teachers' union.
  14. The disparity between paper credentials and effectiveness with kids.

15. Arriving at a definition of "alternative school."
16. The issue of the alternative school as separate or as a part of the regular school.
17. The liability of the alternative school due to the students' activities outside the school building.
18. Being used by NASP--that possibility.

## II. Maintenance System

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed in order to insure satisfaction for all of the members of the school (e.g., maintaining morale of staff and students, helping staff to develop curriculum skills, etc.)
- B. Concerns about Internal Environment re Maintenance System:
  1. The development of processes, techniques, and tools that can be used by the leader in an alternative school. (Total--four responses)
  2. Dealing with hidden agendas.
  3. Protecting and enhancing the survival of different cultures in a predominantly white culture.
  4. The need for intensive counseling for students.
  5. The paradoxical concern of teachers for more structure while fighting structure.
  6. More information on what is working in alternative education. (Total--four responses)
  7. More theory.
  8. An understanding of the goals and of the process of measuring success or failure in the achievement of them. (Total--two responses)
  9. More opportunities for directors to deal with their feelings in times of crises.
  10. Opportunities for directors to share personal and organizational expectations.

## III. Search System

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed to search the environment for resources for the teachers, students, and administrators who have the skills, talents, or orientation to make the school succeed.
- B. Concerns about External Environment re Search Subsystem:
  1. The setting up or joining of networks for news about and resources for alternative schools.
  2. The development of lists for sharing information on acquiring interns and teachers, developing in-service programs, effectively involving parents, and procuring outside consultants.
  3. The question of why teachers seek alternative schools.

4. The question of characteristics of clients of alternative schools.
5. The question of limiting the number of students.
6. The question of how great a student diversity is desirable.
7. The question of size:
  - a. When to start another school.
  - b. Training people to start another school.

#### IV. Regulatory System

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed in order to regulate the daily life of the school (e.g., rule making activities).
- B. Concerns about the Internal Environment re Regulatory Subsystem:
  1. Decision-making processes.
  2. Structure and changeability.
  3. The issue of accountability.
  4. The issue of authority.
  5. The relief of the Director from burdensome responsibilities.
  6. How to get rid of staff.

#### V. Emergent System

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed to deal with issues that have arisen within the school as a consequence of students, teachers, and directors interacting with each other.
  - B. Concerns about the Internal Environment re Emergent System:
    1. Race relations among students.
    2. Interpersonal relations among all of the members of the school; trust.
    3. Student relations issues:
      - a. Communication with each other.
      - b. Isolation of some students.
    4. Inter-staff relations.
    5. The presence and influence of cliques conflicting with the desire for participative democracy in decision-making.
    6. The conflicts between leaders and team members.
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responses of 117 alternative school directors who were interviewed by NASP (see Item 4 in Appendix). This list is organized by the apparent sources of the danger. Each reason is coded by Litterer's sociotechnical systems categories and includes a notation if there was more than one response. From these 117 interviews there were sixty-six total responses to the second part of the question: "Has the major purpose or the existence of the school ever been in danger? Why?" The distribution of responses fell into the following sociotechnical systems categories: Institutional System--thirty-three; Maintenance System--five; Search Subsystem--four; and Emergent System--one; totaling sixty-six responses. The most noticeable difference between the frequency of responses in Tables 4 and 5 is the inversion of importance that Search Subsystem has assumed over Maintenance System in Table 5. There are several possible explanations for this alteration. The data from Table 4 was collected during the NASP-sponsored Clinic which was aimed mainly at dealing with internal organizational problems. The directors that attended the Clinic, therefore, were a self-selected group interested and concerned about internal crisis management. On the other hand, the interview data in Table 5 was acquired at each site without any such major predetermining selection process. Yet, at the same time, NASP is regarded as an external federal-university agency and the directors may have been, either consciously or unconsciously, trying to influence the final results of the survey to gain increased external support. In either case, though, both sets of data support proposition one:

The two main concerns in rank order of alternative school directors are: the nature of the relationship between alternative school and the regular school system; and the creation of internal organizational satisfaction.

Proposition Two: The continuance of financial support from the school district and/or federal agencies is a critical issue for alternative schools.

Reviewing once again the data from Table 5, the gain in importance of Search Subsystem serves to indicate that the reduction or potential reduction of financial support by school district and/or federal agencies was the second major reason for the purpose or the existence of the school to have been endangered. From a total of sixty-six responses, there were six responses indicating that lack of federal agency funding was an endangering problem and fourteen responses indicating that lack of local school district financing was an endangering problem.

Proposition Three: A dominant dilemma for alternative school directors is whether to have the school assume a safe or daring organizational position in relationship to the regular school system.

In examining the listings of Table 4 and Table 5 under Institutional System, several thematic concerns are found expressed. First, how is it possible to gain credibility and also reduce the innovative threat of that credibility to others, thereby insuring greater commitment by the regular system? (Table 4 Concerns--items: 1, 4, 5, 6, 9, and 13; and Table 5 Reasons--items: II.C. 3, 4 and 5; III.C. 1.) Second, how does one cope with the feeling of fear and danger that envelop alternative schools because of their sense of vulnerability? (Table 4 Concerns--items: 4, 7, 14, and 16; and Table 5 Reasons--items: II.A. 1, 2; C. 1, 2, 3; D. 1, 2; E. 1; III.A. 1; B. 1, 2; C. 2; and E. 1.) Third, what impact will the alternative school have on regular schools? (Table 4 Concerns--items: 2, 3 and 8.)

TABLE 5

Reasons for the Purpose or Existence  
of the School Having Been Endangered

- I. Federal Agencies
  - A. Funding:
    1. government support ran out--three responses (ss)
    2. federal funds delayed (ss)
    3. reduction of federal funds (ss)
    4. dependency on federal funds (ss)
  - B. Integration:
    1. H.E.W. required integration (ss)
- II. School District
  - A. Size:
    1. difficulty with district over expansion (is)
    2. school considered too small--two responses (is)
  - B. Finance:
    1. tenuous financial support from school district--two responses (ss)
    2. lack of funds or budget cuts--eleven responses (ss)
    3. school cost more (ss)
    4. fuel crisis--administration wanted to combine programs (ss)
  - C. Philosophic or Value Differences:
    1. disagreement over teaching philosophy: disciplined approach vs. liberal approach--two responses (is)
    2. method and process constantly in danger from administrators who would like more control (is)
    3. lack of support from school districts--four responses (is)
    4. seen as counter culture school by district and administration--three responses (is)
    5. seen as experimental--eight responses (is)
  - D. Academic:
    1. tested norms fell to average in high percentile school (is)
    2. academic improvement needed (is)

## E. Leadership:

1. considered transferring director (is)

III. Community Politics

## A. Teachers Union:

1. union/school conflict over personnel selection (is)

## B. Parents:

1. radical philosophic differences between two groups of parents (is)
2. parent groups wanted students back in regular schools (is)

## C. Students:

1. recruiting students a problem--enough to almost close the school (ss)

## D. Integration:

1. integration/desegregation--four responses (is)

## E. General Community:

1. public does not understand the school (is)

IV. Alternative School

## A. Organization:

1. school was organized poorly (ms)
2. student disciplinary problems--four responses (rs)

## B. Personnel:

1. selection of new staff members by school (es)
2. staff burnout and turnover (ms)

## C. Image:

1. school was at first pretentious about its impact (ms)

V. Director

## A. Inner Personal/Professional Conflict:

1. director burned out (ms)
2. director committed suicide (ms)



Code: (is) -- Institutional System  
 (ms) -- Maintenance System  
 (ss) -- Search Subsystem  
 (rs) -- Regulatory System  
 (es) -- Emergent System

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These concerns raise a central dilemma about the institutional system relationship: How does an alternative school, whose aim is to effect a change in the school district, become efficient as an agent of change, avoid being perceived as a threat, and still have its own safety guaranteed? Perhaps this dilemma can best be seen as a trade-off between taking a safe posture and being guaranteed institutional commitment, or taking more adventurous risks and hazarding the loss of that guarantee. The directors seemed, from the discussions in the Clinic, to lean more to the side of safety. This, of course, could be due to a number of reasons such as concern over career advancement, personality type, highly unsupportive districts, stage of development, staff and student characteristics, etc. These are all variables that may effect the director's strategy.

If one looks at this same issue from another perspective, that of the urban-inner city alternative school, the dilemma may appear to be a luxury of sorts. One individual felt that "the essential duty of keeping the urban school alive did not afford one the luxury of considering the issue of how the school can make an impact on the school district."

Proposition Four: For alternative school directors, creating organizational normalcy so that the members are operating in ways that

help the school achieve its organizational goal as well as the goals of its individual members is the main internal concern.

Maintenance is the category with second highest response in Table 4. The principle concern here seems to be a desire for more information on "what's working in alternative schools." Also, there is a desire for improving leadership skills, especially in dealing with hidden agendas, goal setting, and the issues of pluralism, achievement and evaluation.

The evidence within the maintenance area, then, expresses an interest in making the school operation more effective and normal so that better and less erratic learning, working, and community building can take place. It appears that many of these directors have had limited administrative experience prior to their directorship appointment. Their circumstances are made even more difficult if they also have had limited entrepreneurial experience, and this seems to be true as well. Even if they had had such backgrounds, however, the effort needed for innovation, entrepreneurship, and educational change in the public sector is continually met by difficulties and dangers; witness the countless list of innovation failures in both education and business.

Under Search Subsystem in Tables 4 and 5, the main concern focused on the matter of financial support. The other concerns center around networking for information and resource sharing, and questions about characteristics of schools (e.g., size, types of students, types of staff, limits) that will help the school in its definitional process so that it can be more effective. The focus here is on the search beyond one's own school for resources that will optimize the functioning

of the alternative school. It suggests a desire for collaboration with other alternative schools on both a regional and national basis.

In the Regulatory Subsystem, Table 4, the main interests are with authority-accountability and structure-changeability. The issues are: How much authority should the director have? How should it be exercised? What responsibility do the members of the school have to the directives? And how can greater responsibility be developed? A corollary issue is that involving structure and change. Structure--which includes rules, regulations, authority, and decisions, as well as a myriad of other factors that provide a framework for behavior--is often feared as an obstacle to the process of change. The directors seem to realize a need for more structure or perhaps a better structure, but they have apparently experienced considerable resistance against structure.

Finally in the area of Emergent System, Table 4, the two main themes seem to be race relations and interpersonal relations especially as they concern the difficulties of developing trust and improving the school for isolated individuals and groups. Apparently race relations was the dominant concern of urban alternative schools in contrast with the concern of interpersonal relations in the suburban schools. In either case, many of the same human relation skills such as communication, intergroup confrontation, coping with stereotyping, problem-solving, etc. are required.

In conclusion, the two predominate areas of concern are Institutional System and Maintenance System. Within these areas, the central themes are: (1) how to engage in a major change effort without jeopardizing the schools, (2) how to obtain continuous financial support, and

(3) how to improve the director's personal leadership skills in order to help the school operate more effectively and normally. Other lesser concerns are included in the function of Emergent System. The need that emerges here is that of human relations skills and approaches.

One aspect of a crisis management approach concerns the realization that crises are inevitable and that it is better to anticipate potential problems and to prepare for that possibility. In this section, two problem areas have been identified. A director interested in using a crisis management approach will investigate these problems further in their own schools and, confirmed, it is suggested that they initiate a problem-solving plan. The consequence of not doing this will leave the school organizationally unprepared for crises in these two significant areas.

One approach that proactive directors might take is to survey their own schools and use this sociotechnical systems model to help them analyze and identify the most pressing problems. On a larger scale, if a school decided that it wishes to deal with the institutional systems problem, for instance, it can begin by engaging in a common problem-solving venture with other schools facing similar problems. Strategies and solutions can be shared, and moral if not political support can be gained.

This analytical perspective and the themes that have been derived from it have delineated the content focus of action for a short-term program of crisis management training. Through this method of diagnostic data collection, it was possible to arrange a social-work contract with the participants of the "Alternatives Schools Clinic. . ." that addressed their concerns through a systematic framework.



## Alternative Schools as a Subsystem Paralleling the Regular School System

The scheme that follows in Figure 2 depicts the alternative school and the regular school as systems which are separate and parallel yet interconnected. They are separate because they have different aims, procedures, and constituencies, and particularly because they seem themselves as separate from one another. On the other hand, they are interconnected because as units of the larger system, they tend to influence one another either directly or indirectly through the community or an outside agency.

The term system has been deliberately employed in describing this scheme because it is the aim of this study to emphasize some of the features of a system when viewing alternative schools. The scheme, then, is an attempt to outline a hypothetical social system of an alternative school, and by so doing, to provide a map that can be used for analysis and planning. The scheme used here depicts a very simple and static view of a school's social system. Nevertheless, it does identify the main groups in the system which affect the alternative school, and it also conveys the sense of a key principle in systems theory--that of "interrelatedness". When one part of a social system makes vast changes, it will influence the other members of the system. Indeed, mounting tension will very probably develop until a new equilibrium is attained.

For alternative schools, it could be very helpful to examine their particular social system for the purposes of crisis management. They might informally draw their school setting in a manner similar to the following scheme. Then, by using it as a map once a given conflict

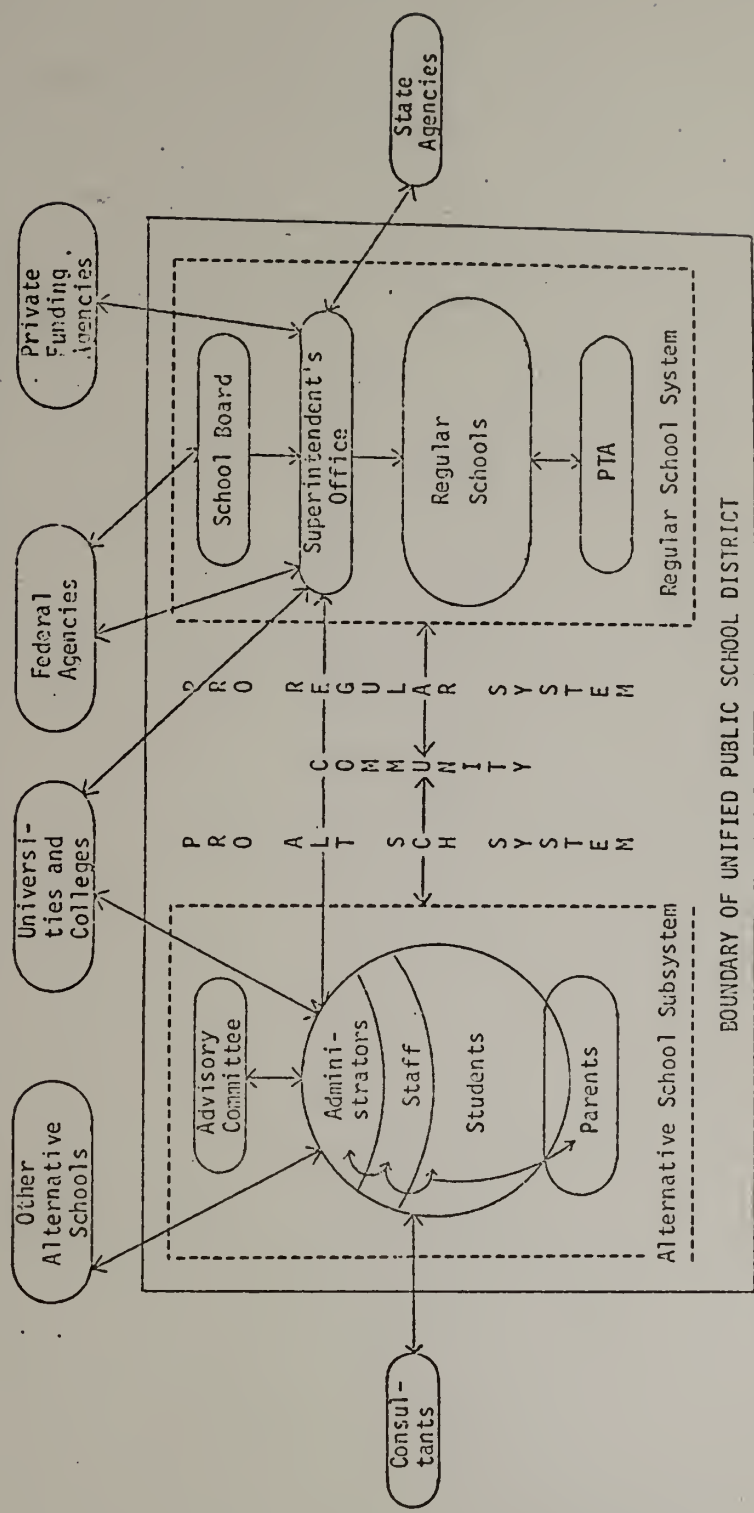
develops, it will facilitate predicting the behavior pattern of the groups involved. By further examining the relationships between the groups, one can begin to locate potential problems as well as opportunities. For example, should a conflict emerge between students and administrators, an analytical look at the scheme will map out the additional parties likely to be involved; perhaps the parties will be staff, parents, the superintendent, or even a federal agency that is funding a special program for students. Then some of the questions that must be coped with are: What points of view are the peripheral parties likely to have regarding the conflict? What impact might these views have on the superintendent's office, the school board, parents and the community, as well as the federal agency? Where does one's major support come from? Are critical lines of communication missing?

The main usefulness, then, of a systems perspective is that, in a time of crisis, it expands the point of view and focuses attention on the interrelationships within a system. Both of these are critical for effective crisis management.

Proposition Five: Alternative schools are commonly a subsystem paralleling the regular school system.

The foregoing system's model emphasizes the difficulty of the relationship between alternative schools as a parallel subsystem member of the regular school system. Each system has its own set of characteristics which when interacting with other systems helps to suggest to its members its own sense of organizational identity and its manner of behavior with respect to the other systems in its environment.

FIGURE 2  
 A VIEW OF ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS AS A SUBSYSTEM PARALLELING THE REGULAR SCHOOL SYSTEM\*



\*This scheme evolved from work with alternative schools by NASP and Dr. Robert Chin. It is a static model which aims to identify the main groups that could affect an alternative school.

Each arrow represents the interconnection between various units of a system. Communication and its manifestation of tension, conflict, and cohesion are transmitted.

Number the arrows for quick reference when constructing your own scheme

This model, though simplistic, does capture one of the most difficult problems to an alternative school. Since it grew out of a workshop attended by thirty-seven administrators of alternative schools or programs, and because an informal check was made with the attendees to see if it comes close to illustrating their sense of reality, one can be reasonably confident of the model's utility. For further information on this model and its application among alternative school directors, see Item 7 in the Appendix: "Selected Sections of the Crisis Management Handbook"--"Alternative Schools Clinic on Perspectives and Procedures for Crisis Management."

Proposition Six: The most endangering problem to alternative schools occurs in their relationship with the regular school system.

In Table 5, "Reasons for the Purpose or Existence of the School Having Been Endangered," the responses can be viewed in terms of the apparent location of the problems. From this viewpoint, the distribution of responses are: Federal Agencies--seven; School District--thirty-nine; Community Politics--ten; Alternative School--eight; and Director--two; from a total of sixty-six responses. In the eyes of alternative school directors, the School District, with thirty-nine responses, clearly stands out as the area of interrelationship that is most problematic. Seymore Sarason sheds some light on this problem in The Creation of Settings and Future Societies in which:

. . . [he wishes to] emphasize that a proposed new setting always arises in some relation to existing settings; that there are characteristics of the new setting (such as superiority of mission) and concerns of the existing ones (such as ideology, concern for resources) which ensure some conflict and competition; that regardless of whether the proposed setting arises from an existing



structure or arises outside of one, it reflects in its purposes or functions or ideology some aspect of traditional conceptions; that its heritage of conflict contains positive and negative forces. . .<sup>44</sup>

The pattern of alternative school development seems to correspond quite closely to Sarason's description of what happens in creating new settings. Because alternative schools are--whether they recognize it or not--counter organizations to the regular school system, the fact that the school district looms so imposingly should not be surprising. The tone of the contents in Table 5 under School District reads rather closely to Sarason's statement; e.g., "disagreement over teaching philosophy: disciplined approached vs. liberal approach" or "seen as counter culture school by district and administration."

Proposition Seven: The permanence of an alternative school's equilibrium position with respect to the regular school system is a function of its own ability to command power over the regular system and the congruence or incongruence of the two system's values and desire to assimilate with one another.

As reviewed earlier, regular schools have pursued a policy of providing a standard educational system which appears to be monopolistic. When an alternative school emerges within a regular school system, the equilibrium of that system is imbalanced because more often than not that basic monopoly is challenged as well as are the dominant values which support it. The degree to which the equilibrium is affected depends upon the extent of difference between the two systems. If the

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<sup>44</sup>Seymore Sarason. The Creation of Settings and Future Societies. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1972, p. 46.

alternative school differs radically in value and behavior from the regular system, then it is highly probable that tension between them will increase, perhaps into conflict, until a new equilibrium is established. Therefore, establishing the permanence of an alternative school's desired position is in part a function of its own ability to command power over the system.

Another factor influencing the equilibrium position is that of congruence and incongruence of the system's orientation towards autonomy and integration. Figure 3 provides one way of assessing whether the groups within a school have potential for conflict or collaboration. By determining the salient forces operating within two groups, one of a superordinate, the other of a subordinate nature, and by judging whether or not the forces are congruent (similar forces operating) or incongruent (dissimilar forces operating), one can predict one of the four different organizational situations described below.

In Situation A, the two groups are both moving toward increased participation (congruence) which will result in cohesion based on a mutually desired assimilation. This occurs when, for example, alternative schools and regular schools in a school district identify more with the school district than with their other independent roles.

In Situation B, the two groups are both moving towards autonomy (congruence) which will result in cohesion based on plural roles. This occurs when alternative schools and regular schools in a school district work separately but identify with the total district.

In Situation C, the superordinate group is moving towards autonomy as the subordinate group is moving towards increased participation

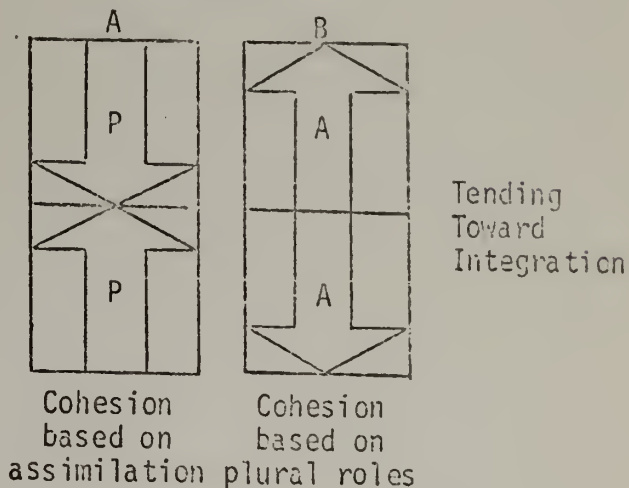
FIGURE 3  
 A WAY OF VIEWING CONFLICTS BETWEEN  
 ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS AND THE REGULAR SCHOOL SYSTEM

Congruent and Incongruent Orientations of Conflict

Superordinates  
 (e.g., Regular  
 School)

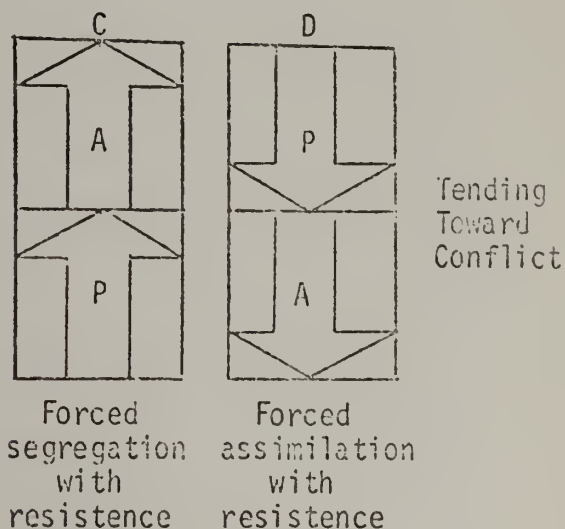
Subordinates  
 (e.g., Alternative  
 School)

Situations



Superordinates  
 (e.g., Regular  
 School)

Subordinates  
 (e.g., Alternative  
 School)



P = Movement toward increased participation in the total school district by the members of this group.

A = Movement toward autonomy, independence, or succession in the total school district by the members of this group.

(Incongruence). This situation will result in forced segregation with resistance. Alternative schools may often find themselves in this role with their own school district.

In Situation D, the superordinate group is moving toward increased participation as the subordinate group is moving toward autonomy (incongruence). This situation will result in forced assimilation with resistance. An example of this is when administrators of the school district force members of an alternative school to submit to their priorities instead of allowing them to pursue their own direction.\*

Proposition Eight: Alternative school changes must be viewed within the context of the entire system in order to gain an accurate perspective of those changes.

There is a tendency for many people to view organizational change from an internal organizational perspective. The efficacy of an environmental curriculum is often judged by how well it appears to operate apart from its indirect influence on other components of the school or school system. Likewise, a new form of decision-making procedure that aims to be more participatory is considered from the vantage point of those participating rather than those who are not. This tendency is understandable because it is so much easier to examine a select, limited, and accessible set of variables upon which to judge whether there is any real change occurring.

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\*The above model was modified from Richard A. Schermerhorn's ethnic relations model in "Polarity in the Approach to Comparative Research in Ethnic Relations," Sociology and Social Research, LI, January, 1967, pp. 235-240.



From the evidence given in the review of literature, it should be clear that change does not occur in absolute isolation. School districts are interdependent systems so that alternative school changes must be viewed in such a manner if they are to be viewed realistically. An alternative school may, for instance, be making, from its own perception, great strides in becoming a real distinct alternative but in the meantime it may also be generating increasing hostility to the concept and a general distaste for alternatives throughout the district. Thus, in this case, progressive change is occurring in the alternative school while regressive change is occurring in the larger system. Another example is when the alternative school may view itself as making limited progress toward its goals while cleverly impelling the entire system towards alternative education. In this latter case, limited progressive change is occurring in the alternative school yet progressive change is also occurring throughout the entire system.

One conclusion to this proposition is that alternative school changes involve a dialectical process which takes place between the alternative school subsystem and the school district system. The two systems evoke mutually interacting forces that affect and influence one another and, therefore, in the final analysis, both will be somewhat modified by the presence of the other. In this fashion (using Hegelian dialectics), the regular school system represents the thesis position while the alternative school represents the antithesis position. Through their interaction, a new synthesis will be formed which is basically a change to a new equilibrium position. From this synthesis, the cycle will repeat itself until one system absorbs the other or until one system is

diminished to an ineffectual role. In either case, though, both systems will be transformed to one degree or another.

Through a systems approach, a number of propositions were formulated, which will be briefly discussed below in terms of their implications and utility to crisis management training.

Proposition one identifies the two main concerns of alternative school directors which are: the nature of the relationship between alternative school and the regular school system; and the creation of internal organizational satisfaction. For purposes of providing crisis management or general organizational training to alternative school directors, this proposition suggests the approximate problem area for the training to concentrate on. It was in some ways an unexpected discovery since the training attempts tended to concentrate on internal organizational issues and on external issues that concerned federal and regional agencies rather than on organizational relationships within local districts. Future workshops and conferences might bring together local school district personnel and alternative school members for a planned confrontation program aimed at identifying specific conflict issues, problem-solving around these issues, and creating new institutional units or modifying existing ones to work on district intramural problems.

In terms of problem substance between alternative school and external agencies (i.e., local school district and federal), proposition two points out that financial support is a critical issue. Crisis management approaches probably cannot directly assist with this issue. Financial experts representing an alternative school point of view and a district point of view might be assembled to sharpen the issue and delineate

decision points and long range strategies. Crisis management practices can, however, assist the decision-making process especially to the advantage of alternative schools by training the directors or their representatives in the skills of negotiation and problem-solving. Alternative school members often new to the requirements of administration tend to be at a disadvantage in this realm.

The director's dilemma in proposition three indicates a role-confusion problem. The demands from both the regular school system and alternative school subsystem press hardest on the director who is usually the intermediary between both systems. Further research on directors of alternative schools could illuminate the ways in which such persons deal with their peculiar role and corresponding stresses. It was hypothesized during a crisis management clinic that because the director's job was so ambiguous and stressful, they would burn-out in a short time unless they have a somewhat clear personal sense of direction that is congruent with the demands of innovating. Without this, the exigencies of the school would overcome them and make the struggle less meaningful. This particular issue has implications of a broader scope. Innovative projects in education and other fields require the administrative function, yet there is little known about the protocols of administration for innovative organizations. Thus, research on this topic could be important and widely generalizable to those who are interested in observing and making change.

One of the unique insights that was gained through the clinics and personal interviews was that of proposition four: concern with creating organizational normalcy. The main concerns were expected to gravitate toward more dramatic issues such as race, class, ecology, sexism,

etc. Instead, the directors seemed to be searching for mechanisms that will help the school simply operate at a more normal level. To be sure, this does not negate the import of those social issues to the school. It does, however, imply that, in the minds of the directors at least, developing organizational normalcy has greater weight than pursuing idealistic causes. Viewing early alternative school concerns from this standpoint, necessitates a crisis management training strategy for directors that would concentrate on facilitating structure building. In this sense, crisis management training would be taking a crisis prevention posture because structure reduces conflict. For reasons too lengthy to go into at this time, trainers ought to expect that the members of an alternative school may be highly resistant to structure building. One brief possible reason is because it transforms the school from a more simple, friendship group arrangement into a more complex professional functional arrangement and for many alternative school members at this point of time such a change would be antithetical to their reasons for leaving the regular system.

Propositions five and six are inseparable. It is most important for anyone aspiring to make productive interventions in alternative schools to recognize that they are often a subsystem of the regular system and that the relationship between them is determined by the properties that dominate each separate system. It is sometimes thought that if certain school members are on good terms with significant members of the regular system, this in itself will be all that is necessary to insure a mutually positive relationship. These propositions assert that the quality of the relationship between two systems is a more complicated matter



than contacts between a few individuals. A crisis management training program could be useful in heightening the awareness of each school's unique condition and in understanding how the systems benefit and threaten each other. By building a parallel subsystem, the regular system is departing from its usual procedure in experimenting with innovations. More common are innovations that are more inclusively a part of the regular system boundary. It would be interesting to have a comparative analysis on these two different modes of innovation to determine what are the advantages and disadvantages of boundary separation.

Propositions six and seven focus attention on the danger that is part of the alternative school's relationship with the regular system and the factors that affect the equilibrium between the two systems. They are mostly concerned with the effect on the organizational mode that span a continuum from "real alternative" to "traditional". Crisis management training can work towards helping alternative school members clarify their power base and develop a repertoire of power strategies. Additionally, some type of thermostat device based on monitoring the congruence or incongruence of the two systems might be devised as an early warning system. This is a particularly important proposition because there is a tendency for many members of new projects to become so absorbed in their specific effort that they fail to see or acknowledge changes occurring on a larger scale. In Watson's (Miles, 1964:107-108) study of New College, Columbia University which was an experimental demonstration undergraduate school, he concluded that "It is difficult for members of a utopian experiment to take seriously the dangers due to external hostility. The leaders of the experiment are engrossed in its internal operation.

They trust to relative isolation to save them from the need to worry about foreign diplomacy or public relations." The psychological principle involved here is that a common way of dealing with threat is to dismiss it from the mind. For example, people who live on the sides of a volcano become accustomed to ignoring it. Preferrably, new innovative organizational projects should have some protective isolation in its earlier stages, but without this, they must assume the responsibility of countering the tendency to minimize dangers if they do not wish to become pseudo-innocent victims of an erupting volcano.

#### Summary of the Application of System Theory for Crisis Management Usage

One of the primary ingredients to effective management and, in fact, to effective organizational decision-making is the analytic function. To analyze an organization means to separate the pieces, inspect them, integrate the pieces, and reinspect them as a holistic unit. Social systems are very complicated devices and in order to analyze them successfully, systematic approaches and principles are necessary even though they are not always altogether adequate. In times of crisis, decision-making becomes urgent and its quality largely depends on how successful the analysis is.

A general systems approach to analyzing alternative schools under conditions of normalcy and crisis has many advantages. The analytic process is systemized. The concepts and language is such that comparative analysis can be made more easily than by using other analytic approaches that rely upon a specific discipline. Finally, it is versatile enough to examine an organization through a structural framework, a

developmental framework, or a process framework. Overall, it is a most promising analytic device for management and for furthering the study of various types of systems in change and in crisis.

## Epigenesis of Alternative Schools

### Description of Epigenetic Model

Thus far, alternative schools have been examined in this study as a social system within one general suspended time frame. The analytical models used have not attempted to probe the developmental aspect of the schools. Schools like other organizations, however, do change their characteristics over a period of time. Organizational transformations that occur are not a totally random process but, instead, they usually follow identifiable patterns that are assumed by many social scientists to be governed by certain principles of organizational development. From a systems perspective, Robert Chin defines what is meant by developmental models to organizations:

Developmental models assume change; they assume that there are noticeable differences between the states of a system at different times; that the succession of these states implies that the system is heading somewhere; and that there are orderly processes which explain how the system gets from its present state to wherever it is going.<sup>45</sup>

This section will analyze alternative schools from the developmental perspective that Chin has elucidated and it will attempt to identify some of the principles that govern organizational growth.

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<sup>45</sup>Chin, op. cit., p. 305.

Proposition Nine: The development of alternative schools is governed by epigenetic principles of organizational growth.

One of the principles of development that appears to apply to all living systems is that of "epigenesis". According to the "epigenetic principle" which was initially a biological principle but has since been used by Erikson to comprehend individual identity development: "anything that grows has a ground plan, and that out of this ground plan the parts arise, each part having its time of special ascendancy, until all parts have arisen to form a functioning whole."<sup>46</sup> It is proposed that an alternative school as a social system is also governed by this principle in which the ground plan are organizational principles that affect the school's process of transformation.

The study of the epigenesis of alternative schools, then, has as its aim the identification of the principles that govern the school's development particularly as crises play an intervening role. This will, hopefully, add to the understanding of educational knowledge regarding innovative organizations as they are created, grow, mature and decline, and as they meet various crises at each phase.

The epigenetic framework to be presented here was invented during a clinic that the National Alternative Schools Program sponsored in 1973 entitled "Clinic on the Perspectives and Procedures for Crisis Management in Alternative Schools." During the Clinic, the trainers in their attempt to provide an organized framework for dealing with many of the issues that were arising, devised what at that time was referred to as the

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<sup>46</sup>Erik Erikson. Identity Youth and Crisis. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1968, p. 92.



"stages of development" or "life cycle" model. From many provocative discussions, it was noticed that the similarity of concerns seem to be naturally following a pattern along the schools' stages of development. Since one of the objectives of the Clinic was to create working groups of administrators to problem solve around common issues, this discovery of an appropriate developmental scheme enhanced the Clinic considerably.

Below is a description and example of the schematic framework that was formulated during the Clinic:

- I. Stage One: The "Creation Stage" or "Birth"
- II. State Two: The "Start-up Stage" or "Childhood"
- III. Stage Three: The "Beginning to Settle-in Stage" or "Youth"
- IV. Stage Four: The "Well-Settled and Institutionalized Stage" or "Maturity"
- V. Stage Five: "Old Age"

The above framework of five stages, which has been expanded in its most recent version and will be explained later, characterize various levels of alternative school development. It is theoretically a sequential scheme, but it may also be cyclical. A school, for instance, may reach Stage Four and then find some way to recycle back to Stage Two. One alternative school does this by beginning each year anew and developing new structures to accommodate the new members of the school and their ideas as well.

The administrators in the Clinic applied the scheme to themselves by indicating the problems and crises they had and placing those crises within the scheme according to the stage of development that they, themselves, felt most closely characterized their schools. Table 6

TABLE 6

Stages of Alternative School Development  
And Their Problems

- I. Stage One: "Creation"
  - No response
- II. Stage Two: "Start-up"
  - Counterdependency
  - There is a lot of energy reacting to the regular system which makes organizing somewhat difficult
  - There is need for a lot of energy to break new ground
- III. Stage Three: "Beginning to Settle-in"
  - Concern over what is really happening
  - Honeymoon ending. We are not hugging and kissing but reacting to the power of the regular system and facing our own power
  - Behavioral (new) norms internalized, but now what?
  - Structure building
  - Decision-making. Everyone doesn't have to decide everything
  - Need to trust ourselves and others in making decisions
  - How to deal with authority
  - Crisis of authenticity, self-identity, and leadership styles for the administrators: Do I "hang" back because I can't legitimately express my skills/ability?
  - Who am I? Roles: professional and personal
  - What I need, want, and can do--is it legitimate?
  - Norms of elitism
  - Fear of failure
  - Individualization vs. collectivism
- IV. Stage Four: "Institutionalization" or "Maturity"
  - Establishing administrative routines that don't have spirit
  - Self-growth
  - Establishing some more structures to prevent burn-out (kids say you try so hard and nothing happens)
  - Director's mood effect: liveliness--administrator or pioneer?
  - Practicality of what works vs. personal satisfaction (creating a community within the school)
  - Tired, exhausted, burned-out
  - Boredom from repeating cycles
- V. Stage Five: "Old Age"
  - No response

which represents the responses of one group in the Clinic, is not meant to be comprehensive. It did, however, represent a most useful device in analyzing and understanding the issues as they might be typified. In this way, the model was a releasing factor during the Clinic which aided the collective comprehension of the array of issues confronting the group. As this list is expanded and analyzed, a clearer impression should emerge of the developmental problems of an innovation as seen by its directors.

Proposition Ten: The epigenesis of alternative schools involves seven states of development: (1) initial planning, (2) creation, (3) start-up, (4) beginning to settle-in, (5) institutionalization, (6) decline, and (7) termination.

By reviewing the data gathered from the Clinic, and discussing the epigenetic model with other staff members, and by combining these insights with other similar models (developed by Erik Erikson, 1968; Gordon Lippitt and Warren Schmidt, December, 1967; and Gail Sheehy, 1974) an epigenetic model of alternative schools was formulated. The model is based upon the epigenetic principle that each stage in an alternative school's life poses a central challenge which if dealt with successfully will provide a firmer foundation for the school to meet successive challenges in forthcoming stages. In terms of positive crisis outcomes, if the school is able to overcome each challenge and crisis, it will become stronger, more unified and evolve a sense of wholeness and completion. In terms of negative crisis outcomes, if the school is unable to overcome the challenges and crises, it will develop chronic problems around those issues until they are resolved. Table 7 illustrates the "Epigenesis of

Alternative Schools" which involves seven stages of development. Following Table 7 is a theoretical description of each of the model's stages.

TABLE 7

## Epigenesis of Alternative Schools

<u>STAGES</u>	<u>DESCRIPTION OF STAGES</u>	<u>CRISIS ISSUES</u>
Stage One	Initial Planning or Pre-birth	Designing an acceptable plan
Stage Two	Creation or Birth	Creating a new organization
Stage Three	Start-up or Childhood	Surviving as a viable school
Stage Four	Beginning to Settle-in or Youth	Gaining stability and pride
Stage Five	Institutionalization or Maturity	Achieving a sense of identity
Stage Six	Decline or Old Age	Contributing more to society and organizational renewal
Stage Seven	Termination or Death	Extension of the school's ideals beyond its own death

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Before proceeding, one note of caution should be mentioned regarding the model. The descriptors used to illustrate this model connote improvement and advancement as a school moves from stage one through stage seven. If a school does not move beyond stage three, for instance, the implication is that that school "ought" to mature further. This value implication is not intended. Rather, one of the main points of the model is that at any given stage, there is a trade-off of benefits as well as problems that may be gained at another stage (either below or above one's current stage). The most difficult problem in describing this model was in selecting terms that appear simultaneously accurate to empirical circumstances and to theory. Despite the unintentional bias regarding the terms used in the model, with proper explanation, it should serve as a useful and insightful paradigm in framing some of the important properties of alternative school development.

#### I. Stage One: "Initial Planning Stage" or "Pre-birth"

A fundamental characteristic of this stage is the concentration of energy that goes into transforming the school from an abstraction into a reality. The main concern in this process is that of designing a plan that will be acceptable to all the parties and still maintain its integrity as an alternative design. Lacking an adequate amount of preparation, energy attention, and acceptance, the school will be very weak at its birth or worse, it will not be born at all. There are several subissues within this stage which will affect the school's character and development depending upon the manner in which they are handled. One such subissue is that of gaining sufficient survival support. If the founders

do not obtain the necessary financial and psychological support at this stage, the focus of attention among the members of the school once begun will be on survival of the organization. This will use up a lot of constructive energy that could be dispersed around other equally necessary issues and learnings of a higher order. If the survival issue becomes too demanding, then it will be difficult to even use it as a stimulating learning agenda because the energy and attention required for that type of higher order learning will be depleted. Another subissue is that of the inclusiveness of planning. By engaging those members who will be most directly affected by the school in devising its future structure and their working relationships within it, considerable confusion, frustration, and unconstructive energy can be avoided when the school actually begins operating. Effective planning for the school can also provide a foundation of confidence for its members as well as to its community so that once the school is implemented, directions of growth can alter according to necessity with a greater sense of security and assurance. Without such advance planning, the number of factors that must be managed during its operation can be expected to multiply exponentially and this will make the school extremely difficult to manage. A final important issue is that of insulation. Studies have indicated that new experimental schools need a certain amount of protection and insulation from other hostile and greatly influencing forces. Excessive input, be it positive or negative, at this stage will be very distracting and will inhibit the school's coherence.

## II. Stage Two: "Creation Stage" or "Birth"

The main issues at this beginning stage are the problems of creating a new school and trying to keep it alive as a viable system. The staff and students have just met and share an eager optimism about their future. It is a time of great anxiety and energy. The school district's attitude toward the school is crucial at this point because a mutual sense of appreciation between the two will influence the climate within the school. For instance, if the school district allows for the creation of the school as a way of dealing with students and staffs that it cannot normally handle and does not usually support, the alternative school may be expected to begin its growth with a basic sense of insecurity and mistrust. Around the latter part of this stage, the members of the school will begin to assert their own independence and will-power. This will mark the beginning of a struggle over autonomy and authority. The school will need to make increasing decisions on what the school most values, what it is willing to sacrifice and compromise, and how much it is willing to risk itself.

## III. Stage Three: "Start-up Stage" or "Childhood"

To survive as a viable school now becomes the major issue. A crisis at this stage will pose the question: How willing is the school to organize itself, impose constraints and view its reality? Simultaneously, the school will engage in various experiments that will exercise its creativity, movement, and ability to pursue its aims. This experimentation and attempt to establish initiative and autonomy may often assume the characteristics of counterdependency. In the words of one group

of alternative school directors, "there is a lot of energy reacting to the regular system which makes organizing somewhat difficult."

#### IV. Stage Four: "Beginning to Settle-in Stage" or "Youth"

At this point, gaining stability and pride become the primary concerns. If the school does not organize itself better, it falls victim to chronic crises. Also without a developing sense of pride and reputation, the school will continue with feelings of insecurity and will have difficulty in attracting good students and staff. In any case, childhood has come to an end or put another way by a director: "The honeymoon is ending. We are not hugging and kissing but reacting to the power of the regular system and facing our own power." A climate of innocence and naivete is no longer as useful--it is, in fact, quite dangerous. The school ought to be forming a sense of role, purpose, and some accomplishments by this time. Without these, students and staff will be confused over their own roles, accomplishments and meanings. Another issue at this point is whether the members have been able to determine when to be individuals and when collective thinking is required.

#### V. Stage Five: "Institutionalization Stage" or "Maturity"

The principle concerns at this stage is the question of identity--developing a deep and unique sense of itself vs. the normalization of activities which reduces some of the creativity. If at this point the school isn't able to develop a more profound sense of its own identity, confusion and frustration will result because this issue is at the essence of starting the school. Some schools may choose to remain adolescent



because of the routinism which occurs here, but exhaustion and burn-out are the dues to be paid for this choice. On the other hand, normalization can lead to stagnation if it is too institutionalized. Thus, the school must decide if it is willing to commit itself to further review and change which may require sacrificing some of the new found comfort. The focus begins to shift at this period to the desire to contribute to society and education beyond the immediacy of the school. The members become more concerned about sharing its achievements with the school district and other school districts. They also begin to think in longer range terms beyond the immediacy of the current semester.

#### VI. Stage Six: "Decline" or "Old Age"

This is a stage in the life cycle of an organization that most people would prefer to avoid. Old age has a pejorative image in our society which is associated with visions of declining creativity, an absence of excitement, traditional views, and activities that are out of touch with contemporary reality. Although there is a bit of truth in these perceptions, they are largely misleading. The main characteristic of a school at this stage is not necessarily that its structure, though once strong and adequate, is growing feeble and its internal processes are not as vitally responsive as they once were. Instead, given that the school has developed successfully over the prior stages, it is a period when there will be a ripening maturity, a comforting sense of coherence and integrity, and an accumulation of knowledge which is often referred to as wisdom. And these characteristics will express themselves through a finely developed quality of understanding and judgement. The

dilemma that arises here is whether to maintain this very comfortable situation or to attempt a transformation back to a more youthful stage with its characteristics of confusion and erratic behavior. There is still the problem of conveying the meaning of the school's life and aims to others so that in the event that the school suddenly ends, its meaning will continue.

### VII. Stage Seven: "Termination Stage" or "Death"

When the life of a school ends, is it possible for the unique substance and meaning of the school to transcend its own mortality? This is an essential question at this stage and it is an important issue which often pervades the entire cycle of development of alternative schools, which again is another element that differentiates them from regular schools. That is, if a regular school does not do well, one does not usually hear of it being closed down by the school board. On the other hand, termination as a possibility looms very menacingly in the eyes of many alternative schools. Because of this stage, there is a uniquely "organic" quality that is intrinsic to alternative schools. The possibility of termination, and at times its partial incorporation into the school's plan, paradoxically heightens the life "meaning" of the school. By increasing the risk, the school's activities and relationships are enhanced because they must count for something more than the exhaustive ritual of merely being in cadence with other schools. When death does come to the school, a cycle has been completed. In viewing this stage as part of a growth process, the end does not signify merely the end but, rather, it can mean a beginning as well. Although the school as a formal organism may no

longer function, its ideals and its substance may well be carried on by those whom the school had personally impressed. In this manner, a rebirth of the school's dreams and ideals may occur at a later date and in a separate form.

Epigenesis of Alternative Schools:  
Crises and Their Consequences

Proposition Eleven: There is a medium to high probability that a majority of alternative schools will encounter a crisis that will endanger the school in each stage of its development.

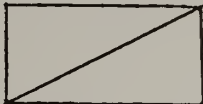
This proposition seems to be supported by the data gathered by the "National Survey of Public Alternative Schools, 1973-1974," conducted by the National Alternative Schools Program (see Items 3 and 4 in the Appendix). The responses to two questions from each school were compared to determine whether the purpose or existence of the responding alternative schools had ever been endangered and the period during which this occurred. Question 6 from the "Survey Questionnaire" was: "How many years has the school been admitting students? (circle one): (1) one year or less; (2) between one and three years; (3) more than three and less than five years; (4) five years or more." And question 4 from the "Directors Interview" was: "Has the major purpose or the existence of the school ever been in danger? Why?" Table 8 depicts both the frequency and percentage responses to these questions. Table 9 depicts the percentage of the responses according to the number of years that the school has been admitting students. Of the two hundred alternative schools that were mailed questionnaires and also interviewed, there were 117 schools which had completed both questions.

TABLE 8

Crises and Years of Operation  
(Frequency and Percentage)

Number of Years the School has been Admitting Students

		Number of Years the School has been Admitting Students				
		1 year or less	btwn 1 & 3 yrs.	more than 3, less than 5 yrs	5 years or more	totals
Has the purpose or existence of the school ever been in danger?	YES	4 50%	37 66%	20 69%	15 63%	76 65%
	NO	4 50%	19 33%	9 31%	9 37%	41 35%
	TOTALS	8 7%	56 48%	29 25%	24 20%	117 100%

Frequency of Responses  Percentage of Responses

The last column on the right in Table 8 shows that of the 117 responses to the question of: Has the major purpose or the existence of the school ever been in danger?, sixty-five percent of the respondents answered yes while thirty-five percent answered no. The answers to this question appear to support proposition eleven.



TABLE 9

Crises and Years of Operation  
(Percentages)

		Number of Years the School Has Been Admitting Students			
		1 year or less	between 1 & 3 years	more than 3, less than 5	totals
Has the purpose or existence of the school ever been in danger?	YES	50%	66%	69%	63%
	NO	50%	33%	31%	37%
	TOTALS	100%	100%	100%	100%

Proposition Twelve: For alternative schools, the probability of a crisis occurring is greater at stage four, youth, than the preceding stages.

During the "Alternative Schools Clinic on Perspectives and Procedures for Crisis Management" (see Item 7 in Appendix), it was discovered that if an alternative school reached a point where it was implemented, the school district and other agencies would allow for a certain marginal number of mistakes to be made and problems to arise. However, at around stage four the school district and other educational supporting agencies would become less tolerant of major problems, and the issue of how successful the school is and whether or not to continue it becomes a

predominate matter of concern. Robert Chin summarizes this point in the concluding session of the Clinic:

At Stage Three [which is stage four in the epigenetic model], youth, some students are really making it, and some people in the regular system are starting to say, "It's a great way for schools to be." The response of the regular school people is, "I think they're criticizing us." At this third stage, there is a problem with success. The criteria of success becomes more important. Some will claim that its a "ding dong" school and that it keeps the kids off the street. Alternative schools throw so much magic dust on themselves at stages one and two that when they really start talking about success, then what criteria of success are they to use, and who are they going to allow to do the evaluation?<sup>47</sup>

Further support for this proposition appears in Tables 8 and 9. Although there is no strict correlation between years of operation and stages of development, most of the schools encountered by the investigator seem to view themselves moving from stage two to stage four in about three or more years; this may occur in some very odd ways as will be explained later. The percentages in both Tables 8 and 9 show that the ratio of crises to noncrises increases from year one to the peak period of more than three years but less than five years. To be sure, the number of responses in each category differs, which brings into question the adequacy of the sample size for each period. This, of course, is a problem for further research. In the meantime, the data is meant to be tentative and suggestive at most and, in this way, it does seem to support proposition nine.

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<sup>47</sup> Larry M. Kubota. "Alternative Schools Clinic on Perspectives and Procedure for Crisis Management." Report to NASP and Clinic participants, Amherst, Massachusetts, January 17-20, 1974. Amherst, Massachusetts: National Alternative Schools Program, 1974, pp. 16-17.

Proposition Thirteen: As alternative schools progress through the epigenetic model toward greater organizational maturity, they will also tend to drift towards becoming more "regular" and "conventional".

The epigenetic model has helped in comprehending the development of alternative schools and particularly the matter of how a crisis may intervene in this process causing the advancement or retardation of the schools' organizational maturity. In addition to the life cycle concept, alternative school development may occur on another dimension. That is, its development may be viewed in terms of the organizational continuum that exists between "regular schools" and "real alternative schools."<sup>48</sup>

In interviewing six directors of alternative schools on the East Coast, the investigator asked them to locate their own schools at each stage of development on a continuum of "conventional school" to "real alternative school." The instrument is located in the Appendix under Item 4. Figure 4 illustrates their combined responses, first, as they had marked their individual instruments and, second, as their responses were arranged according to the separate stages of development which these schools had undergone.

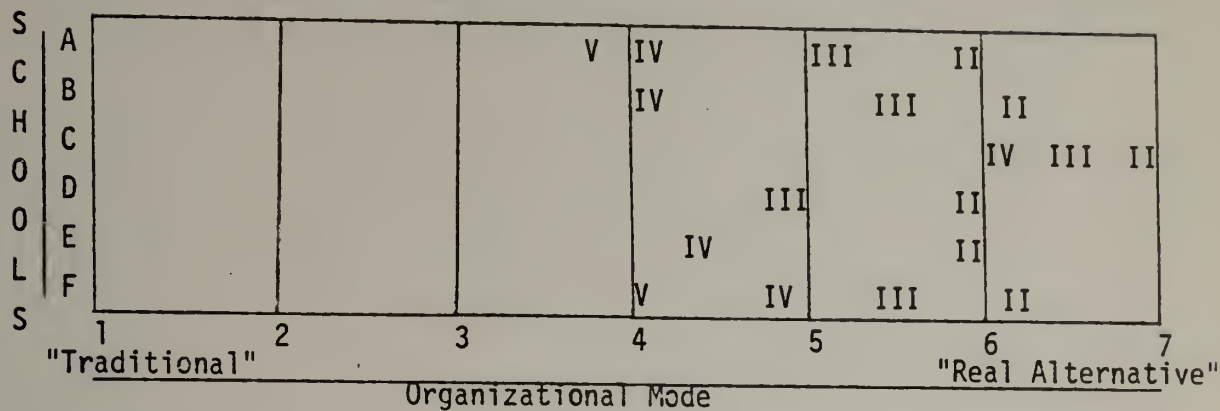
From Figure 4, one can observe a noticeable drift in the directors' perception of the schools from being a "real alternative" toward being a "conventional school." Each progressive stage of development for the schools appears to represent an almost entire unit movement on the seven point scale toward being a "conventional school." The diagram

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<sup>48</sup> Definitions to these terms can be found in Item 4 of the Appendix.

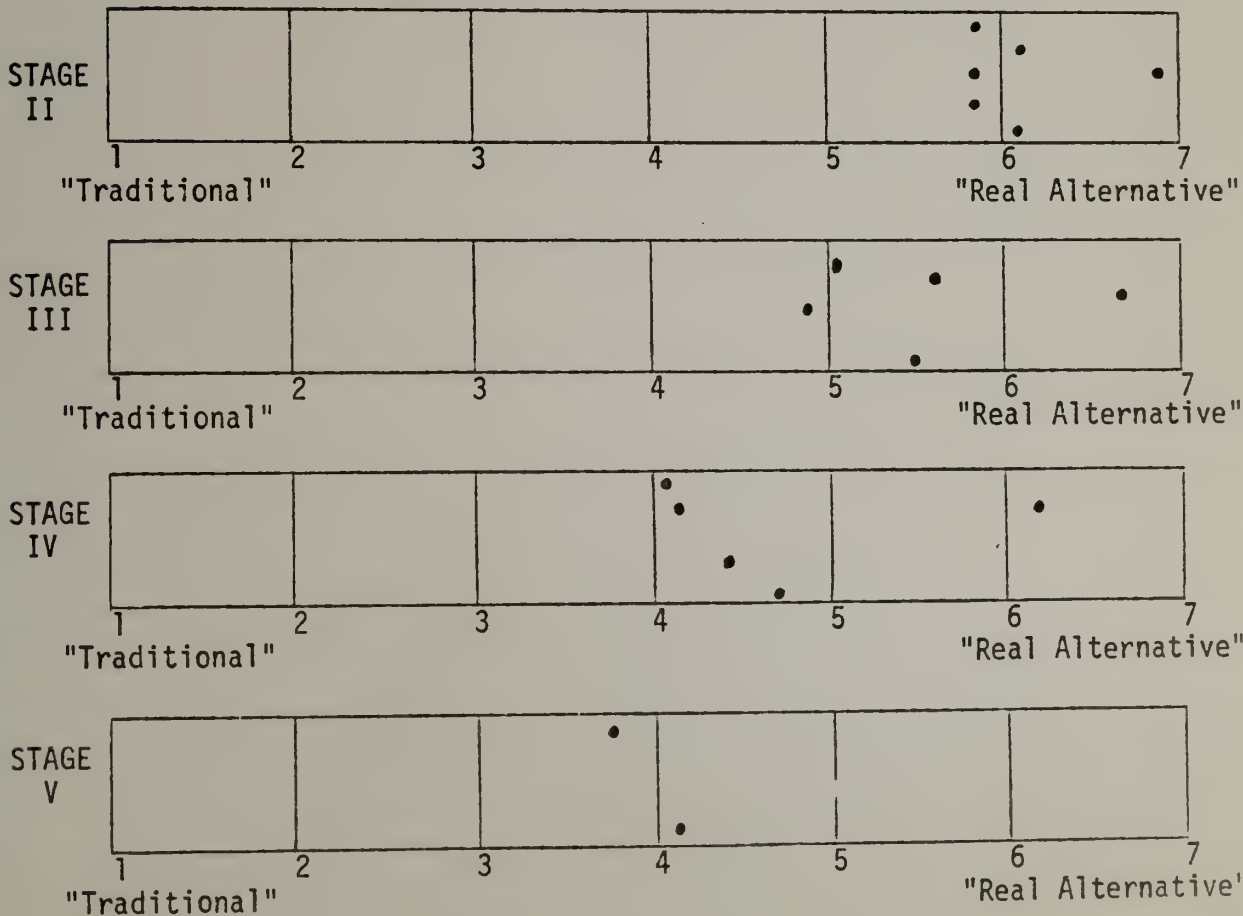
FIGURE 4

Director's Perception of the Degree to Which the School is Seen as a "Real Alternative" vs "Traditional" School Through the Stages of Its Development



Key: I -- Pre-birth      III -- Childhood      V -- Maturity  
 II -- Birth          IV -- Youth              VI -- Old Age  
    VII -- Death

The diagram below includes the same data as above, but it is arranged according to each separate stage.





includes stages two through five of which most of those schools are seen by their directors at stage four. Overall, the responses are all located on the right half of the scale indicating that all of the interviewed alternative school directors saw their schools throughout their development as being more "real alternatives" than "conventional".

Proposition Fourteen: Although alternative schools tend to drift towards becoming more conventional as they progress through their stages of development, crises present opportunities for change: for movement toward becoming a real alternative or for accelerated movement toward conventionality and regularity.

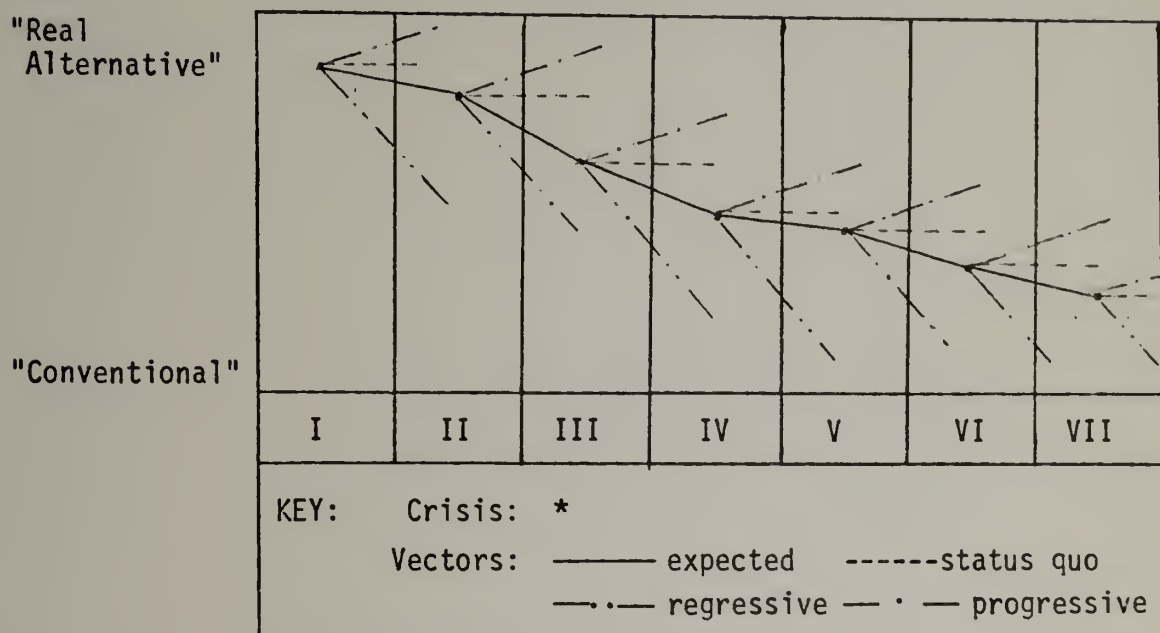
At this point, it has been demonstrated how crises are perceived to be a highly probable event in the growth process of alternative schools. Also, it has been proposed that alternative schools tend to drift toward becoming "conventional" or "regular" schools as they develop organizationally. By combining both propositions, it appears that the element of a crisis can play an intervening role in the development of the school towards becoming more alternative or traditional.

Figure 5, "Crises and Alternative School Development--From Alternative to Conventional" attempts to portray in a diagrammatic form the preceding ideas. Theoretically, there is a developmental sequence which alternative schools as an organization governed by certain organizational principles will undergo. Without any drastic alterations caused by internal or external sources, an alternative school can be expected to transform from stage one to stage seven and assume the general characteristics of each successive stage. However, as this occurs, the school will meet

a new crisis at each stage which may determine the schools' characteristic beyond the typical-theoretical scheme.

FIGURE 5

Crises and Alternative School Development  
(From Alternative to Conventional Organizational Mode)



The typical-expected developmental sequence is illustrated in Figure 5 by the unbroken line. The birth of an alternative school is conceptually seen by many of its directors as nearing the "real alternative" position which is then followed by a decline towards a "conventional school" position. At each progressive stage, the alternative school encounters a crisis, perhaps of the types listed in Table 7. Given a declining expected path, the crises could alter the nature of

the school in three different ways: status quo, regressive, or progressive. An intervening crisis could bring about a new equilibrium so that the school would remain unchanged in a status quo position. It could also create conditions that would impel a progressive transformation of the school towards being a "real alternative." Finally, a crisis can precipitate a regressive transformation of the school towards becoming "conventional" in mode.

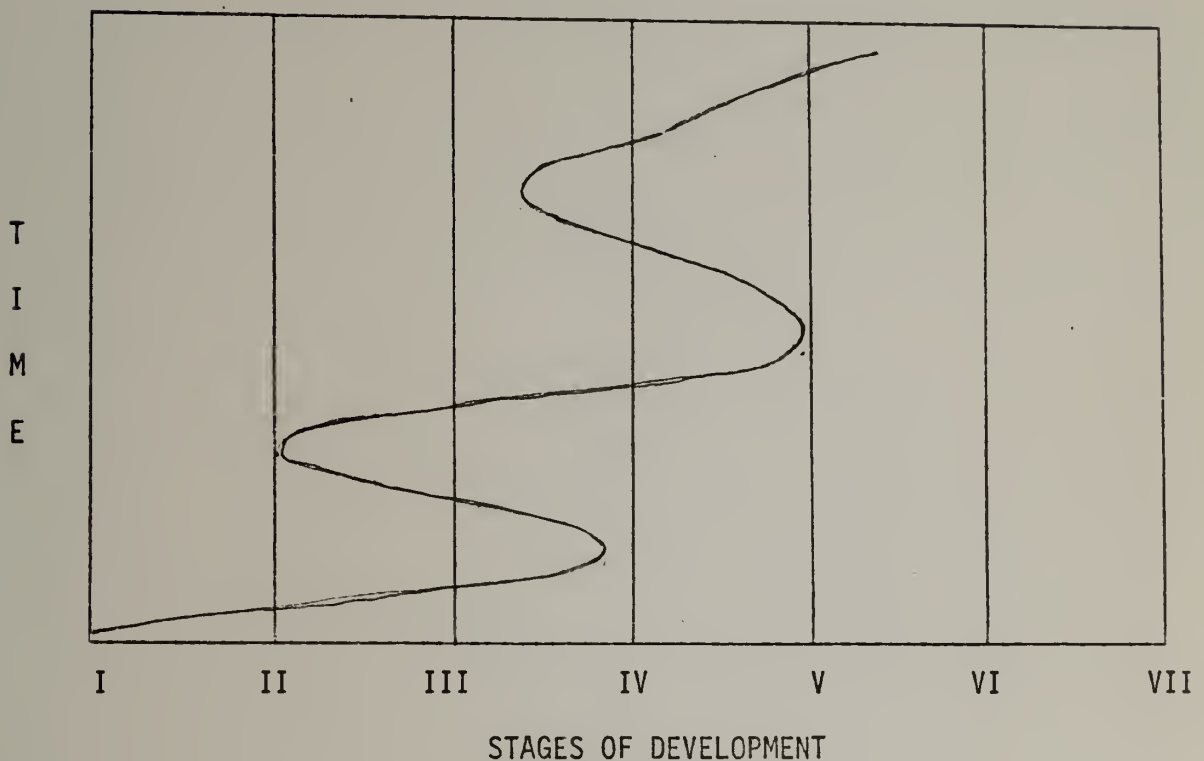
Proposition Fifteen: Alternative schools may often develop through the epigenetic stages, either consciously or unwittingly, in an alternating pattern.

Another aspect of alternative school development that is rather unique is the manner in which it may proceed through the epigenetic stages. Although it is assumed that most regular schools tend to proceed through the stages in almost a linear fashion, alternative school development is perhaps more dramatic and complex. One school director, for instance, mentioned that at the end of each year or two the members of the school begin redesigning the entire school. Organizationally, this means that whenever the school begins to mature into a certain mode, the school is disengaged from its present stage of development and reengaged at an earlier stage. This is an example of a conscious decision to create an alternating pattern of growth. An unconscious decision might result from a crisis as, for instance, when a charismatic leader departs from the school. Earlier in the survey of literature section, Etzioni pointed out that this was one of the more common crisis-producing situations among organizations. The crisis could be of sufficient magnitude to shift the

school back several stages to an earlier level of development. Figure 6 depicts this proposition of an alternating growth pattern.

FIGURE 6

Alternative School Development  
(An Alternating Pattern)



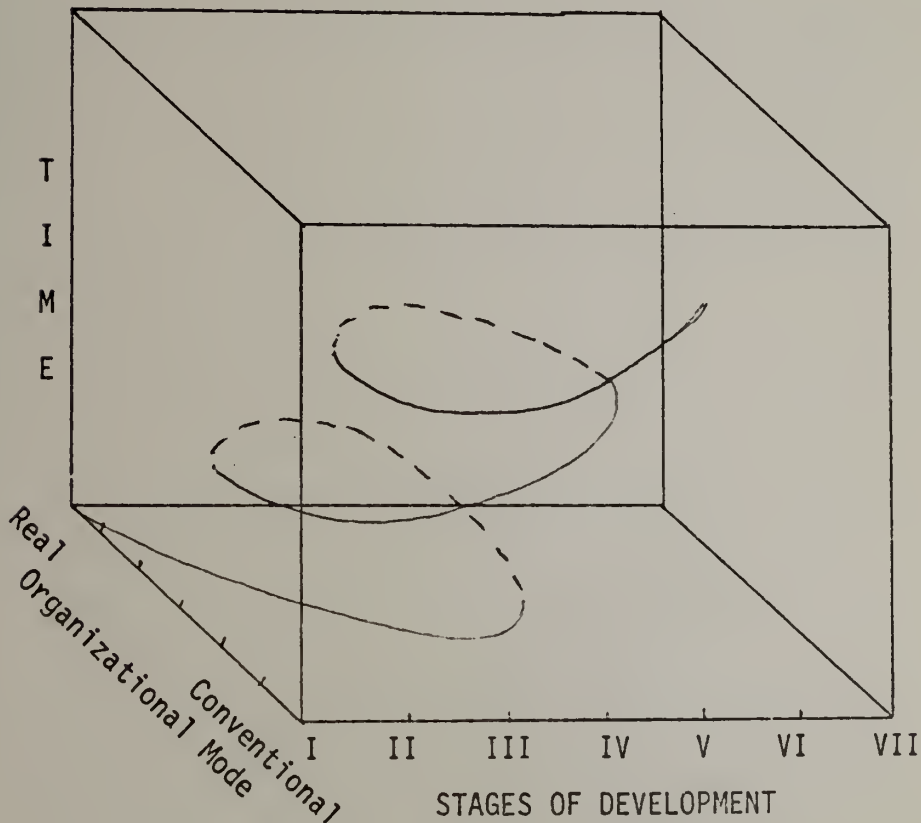
Proposition Sixteen: The development of alternative schools (when considering the three dimensional factors of time, organizational mode, and stages of development) may be symbolically visualized to assume an almost helical pattern.



The preceding propositions pointed out alternative school development under the separate conditions of organizational mode combined with stages of development, and time combined with stages of development. In Figure 7, "Alternative School Development: A Three Dimensional Scheme (Helical Patterns)," these separate factors are all combined to create a three-dimensional picture.

FIGURE 7

Alternative School Development  
A Three-Dimensional Scheme  
(Helical Patterns)



Referring back to Erik Trist's hypothesis about the emergence of a new system of values and organizational philosophies, this dynamic-helical conception of growth seems to concure with the notion that there is a small but increasing number of people who are carrying new values and effecting them.

Because alternative schools appear to alternate between their stages of development as well as drift toward the conventional organizational mode, one may symbolically attempt to visualize alternative school development as resembling a helix in three-dimensional coordinates if the solid lines representing real development could be connected with broken lines representing retrogressive change. In most instances, retrogressive change occurs without actually regressing stage by stage. Instead, by deliberate action or by crisis, the school usually returns to an earlier characteristic dimension in one short time span as if to leap from one point on the continuum to another. If, on the other hand, a school has incorporated renewal devices, then it may actually involve a series of gradual retrogressive transformations which would appear as the broken line on the diagram. The model is meant to be very loosely applied since it is a most primitive and simplistic illustration. Nevertheless, the diagram does attempt to illustrate an interesting phenomenon: the approximate transformation pattern of the typical and probable movement of alternative schools from "real alternative" modes toward "conventional" modes, whilst the schools alternate between various stages of development. It should be noted that, at the present time, there does not appear to be another more lucid model for describing and understanding this phenomenon.

In reviewing the literature, the investigator has not encountered any readings or research on organizations in any field which are descriptive of the unique pattern of development that is characterized by alternative schools. Without such references, it is difficult to discern if the apparent helical pattern of growth is common to all new emerging types of innovative organizations or if it represents a mutation in organizational design. That is, it is conceivable that alternative schools have a deliberate pattern of growth that is unlike other contemporary organizations, whether new or old, and may represent an extension of organizational change from a linear conception toward a dynamic-helical conception. In this latter approach to organizational change, members of an organization may select their organizational mode in terms of utopian-ideal and maturity as they appear appropriate for both internal and external organizational considerations.

For purposes of crisis management analysis, members of a school ought to have some idea of the school's direction (organizational mode); its nature (stages of development) and how a crisis might intervene to alter these characteristics. This model provides a conceptual image of how those three factors combine and effect the school. An imaginative director or an administrative group in the school can make professional and artistic use of crisis as "turning points" for altering the school in ways that will benefit it and the community. For example, an assault by some conservative board members on one school bordering on stage four, youth, precipitated a crisis of survival. In response, the school advanced an argument for developing a conservative alternative which would be closer in philosophy to that of the board members and their conservative

constituents. From this imaginative response, the school insured its own survival, expanded the concept of alternatives in the district and thereby, extended its own limits for becoming more of a real alternative. If it did not manage this crisis as skillfully, the school may have been terminated or severely constrained so as to endanger its viability. On the diagram, the crisis marked a turning point away from the conventional direction and opened new opportunities to move toward the real alternative direction.

Another example that may be cited is a case in which a school district replaced the director, added several staff members, and expanded the student body. In the course of a very short time, the school was altered from stage four to nearly stage two. However, due to the quality of the new staff members, the school developed more potential to attain greater maturity and its ideals if it wished to do so.

In one case, the crisis was managed skillfully and in the other the crisis was skillfully created. The crisis managers responded to these conditions without the benefit of a conceptual map which could have helped clarify the implications of the events and their actions. Luckily, those schools had directors whose professional judgements were accurate for those particular crises, whereas this is not always the case. If the two directors had this diagram in their mind, the decision choices may have appeared clearer. That is, the decisions made on organizational mode could be weighed against its effect on the school's stage of development and vice versa. Viewing alternative school growth in this multi-directional way frees one's mind from the constraints of a linear concept of growth and aids creative decision-making during crises.



### Summary of the Application of the Epigenetic Model

A number of interesting propositions on the patterns of alternative school development have been postulated by combining analysis of empirical data and current organizational theory. These propositions are the beginnings of an effort directed towards identifying principles of organizational growth that apply to schools which are striving to become an organizational alternative to regular schools.

There are many ways in which these propositions may be applied. Proposition nine and ten, for example, state that there are principles of growth which govern alternative schools, and that the developmental process involves seven stages: (1) planning, (2) creation, (3) start-up, (4) beginning to settle-in, (5) institutionalization, (6) decline, and (7) termination. One manner in which these principles have been applied was in the Clinic mentioned earlier. In any training or problem-solving program, the diagnostic function is essential. As a poor diagnosis made by a medical doctor can result in inappropriate or disastrous treatment, the same can be said of practitioners who intervene in schools. Therefore, in diagnosing a school, analytical tools are helpful in providing a systematic examination of the problems. Propositions nine and ten offer a developmental perspective so that schools which are in similar stages in their growth can examine common problems, and in turn refer back to past stages for reflective clarification, and also look at future stages to anticipate forthcoming issues. In this fashion, the stages of development is an analytical framework for examining problems, formulating strategies and, eventually with more data, developing theories that have a high rate of predictability.

Another use of propositions nine and ten are in helping alternative school members and external practitioners understand that organizational issues often follow a sequential pattern. One would not ordinarily expect a child to fulfill the responsible behavior patterns of adulthood because it is intuitively recognized that children encounter many difficult situations that they cannot cope with at their age level of development. If unrealistic expectations are made upon children, it is recognized how that may lead to unintended negative consequences for them. Likewise, newly created alternative schools will not have the capabilities of older schools and, therefore, consideration of this fact is necessary for the schools' satisfactory development. Unfortunately, most practitioners do not as yet comprehend this essential aspect of organizational change and growth. For example, they sometimes demand that new alternative schools specify their goals when this may be an unrealistic expectation at that stage and yet completely realistic at another stage (Table 7 depicts the stages and the corresponding crisis issues which will tend to dominate each successive stage). In the investigator's experience as a trainer to alternative schools, he has at times attempted to persuade the school to deal with several issues simultaneously instead of prioritizing them according to the school's natural growth pattern and capability. By doing so, he probably not only increased his own frustration and sense of impotence but that of the school as well.

Propositions eleven and twelve portend of the high probability of crises in alternative schools during each stage of their development, and identifies stage four as the most crisis prone stage. This should be useful information to members of alternative schools and external

practitioners alike because it focuses attention on the considerable risk involved in developing alternative schools. With additional information on the nature of the danger, schools can prepare themselves more for those occurrences instead of becoming pseudo innocent victims of known problems. To realize that stage four is often the most difficult should encourage schools to prepare for proving its viability and necessity by formulating strategies and building relationships that will insure their continuance. Training programs and conferences can assist this effort by arranging problem-solving groups in the first through fourth stages, followed by extracting information from schools in the fifth and sixth stages on how they overcame the problem of surviving as a viable school.

Propositions thirteen and fourteen state that there is a tendency for alternative schools to drift toward becoming more regular as they mature, but that crises offer an opportunity for change. In assuring that desired changes occur as a result of the high probability of crises, it is important to have effective normative mechanisms that can deal with those tensions, e.g., constitution, principles, judicial system, third party agents or legislative body. Devising ways to maintain a broad perspective is also advisable since crisis conditions tend to reduce one's vision. A director can also acquire leadership skills (e.g., diagnosis, mediation, negotiation, escalating and deescalating conflict) which may greatly enhance his/her crisis management capability and increase the school's confidence in him/her and mainly in itself. It can be anticipated that each stage of development will present a few key issues which require effective management or else they will become chronic

organizational problems until resolved in a later stage. For those in alternative schools, it is easy to digress into doing a hundred other activities only to confront the issues unprepared and in the midst of a crisis.

Finally, propositions fifteen and sixteen illustrate some fascinating alternative patterns of development that seems to typify many alternative schools. Unlike most traditional organizations, alternative schools have experimented with new exciting possibilities for organizational change. Realizing these organizational change possibilities more explicitly, an alternative school can experiment with using crises that have been devised to alter a school's future development in either expected or unexpected ways. Alternative schools can select to move back or forth through the stages of development and through the "real alternative" to "traditional school" continuum in ways that enhance the school and the district during those particular moments. For example, there is a tendency among some of the more idealistic members of the alternative school to view any backward movement as a symbolic loss to the school district. They see the school on a linear growth scale in which such reverses assume a meaning beyond that which occurs in a three-dimensional or "hyperspace" model (this latter model involves more variables than can be illustrated). Helical patterns in these latter models allow for dramatic changes in organizational direction; they are considered natural and expected.

A most important discovery for the investigator was the recognition of stage seven, termination, as a significant phase of alternative school development. It is suspected that termination or in organic



language, death, adds an element of mortality and meaning to the life of a school. Because of this element, the activities of a school must count for something more than the notion that it is simply an existential experience. In this fashion, crises magnify the possibility of death which heightens the meaning of the school to its members. That crises and death may serve a useful function in schools is a concept that is largely unrecognized. One conceivable way to apply this concept is to incorporate death as a part of the alternative school developmental design. A school could decide to terminate itself after a period of seven to ten years. Then the life cycle process of human beings could be experienced as a learning theme in a collective organizational-learning setting. It would also be most intriguing to interview members of schools that have died to learn of their experiences and to discover if the death of the school was entirely negative or if there were some positive dimensions to it. From a system theory standpoint, the death phase might represent only another transformation in a continuous process rather than an abrupt and complete termination of a process. For the organizational theorist, this paragraph may represent heresy since most studies attempt to discover ways for practitioners to extend the life of an organization. No matter, it is the investigator's position that the probability of organizational death constitutes a significant and functional aspect of alternative schooling which distinguishes it from many other organizations.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

#### Restatement of the Problem

This study began by analyzing the social, educational, and alternative school conditions which were described as having salient properties of change and crises. The social condition was depicted as evolving into an extremely complex, interdependent system in which structural change increases tension between components of the system that eventuate into crises. An additional complicating aspect of the social condition is the development of a "structural-ideological mismatch" which arises from predominating beliefs and values that lag behind rapid structural changes. This mismatch also enlarges the probability of crises because increasing demands are made upon society to alter its social beliefs and these beliefs are often slow to change and sometimes it would seem even impregnable to external changes. In effect, with prevalent American ideology and its traditions strongly supported by much of the American populace who are extremely fearful of having those traditions altered by force and necessity and not by choice and because these points of view dominate our institutions, a dialectic has begun between those who desire change and those who desire the status quo. Each of these elements combine to produce a condition of conflict and crisis.

The educational sector is one institution that dramatically and extensively reflects the prevailing social condition as described. The

elements of increasing complexity, interdependence, conflict, crisis and new emerging values are evident. In response to these elements and also impelled by ethnic resurgence and counter-culture values, alternative schools were conceived and developed as one strategy of change and reform. However, as an innovative subunit of an educational system, alternative schools tend to experience more crises than regular schools. Furthermore, they are also more vulnerable to crises apparently due to both their newness and innovativeness. The latter characteristic will generate crises by its very degree of effectiveness insofar as it attempts to deal with deeper, more problematic issues. And the former characteristic of newness heightens the problem of vulnerability because organizational mechanisms that would normally manage crises of low to moderate intensity are underdeveloped. Thus, normal crises are likely to quickly escalate into high intensity crises in a nonintegrated, low-structured environment.

In spite of the increasing significance of crises, there is a disturbing lack of knowledge regarding the role of conflict and crisis as they affect educational change. Louis Maguire, a member of Research For Better Schools, reviewed the literature on change for practicing school administrators and made these remarks:

The literature is replete with suggestions and lists of factors that can prompt change. Crisis is sometimes mentioned, but it is hardly ever emphasized. However, events occurring in the day-to-day world of the administrator reveal that crisis is one of the main factors prompting change. In fact, the school environment can aptly be described as a crisis environment. . . . the crisis environment will increase, probably with renewed vigor. How to handle a crisis situation. . . is a question that is shrouded in doubt and mystery.<sup>50</sup>

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<sup>50</sup>Louis M. Maguire. Observations and Analysis of the Literature on Change. Philadelphia, Pa.: Research For Better Schools, 1970, p. 4.

Although within the last decade there is an increasing number of individuals who are beginning to acknowledge the importance of crisis to the process of change, there are still very few individuals who view crises from a dialectical and developmental perspective. From these viewpoints, crises are not only social phenomena to confront instead of avoid, but they are accepted as natural elements of change. At present, crises are treated as abnormal and aberrant incidents.

Since most practitioners and observers of education have not seriously considered educational change from a dialectical and crisis perspective, they have tended to concentrate on developing methods to maintain social-educational order and stability rather than on methods to aid educational change through the creative management of disorder.

Looking at crises as functional phenomena, they signal and illuminate not only needs and arenas of change but also the manner through which change will occur. Furthermore, crises can be quite useful in providing a view of the future because their consequences will determine the direction and rate of change.

#### Principal Propositions and Implications

The purpose of this study was stated to be formulative in nature which meant that crises in alternative schools would be investigated to evoke insights on the subject, develop analytical tools for crisis management. From this study, two types of significant analytical tools evolved. First, static system models were described which provide a clearer understanding of the social and technical relationships within



a hypothetical alternative school social system. These are essentially static conceptual schemes which capture a social system at one given period of time. Secondly, an epigenetic model of alternative schools was constructed from the data generated by directors. This approach attempts to understand the dynamics of alternative schools as they pass through their stages of development over some time period.

Of these models, the epigenetic scheme was particularly exciting to the investigator as it appeared to elucidate alternative school crises in a more comprehensive manner than other approaches and revealed some very unique patterns of organizational growth.

Two patterns of organizational growth seem significant and distinctive of alternative schools. Proposition sixteen described the development of alternative schools as helical in a three-dimensional or phase space (n-dimensional) framework. The apparent pattern of alternative schools intentionally transforming their organizational mode and stage of development in response to or in anticipation of certain crises is a departure from traditional concepts of growth. Traditional notions of how organizations develop concentrated on their movement toward pre-established goals and on an evolutionary process that went from immaturity to maturity; thus, the traditional path of organizational growth was defined narrowly in a unimodal fashion. As a result, any alteration which veered the organization away from its pre-determined unimodal path would be considered retrogressive. A helical conception of development regards goals as changing elements which assume different priorities according to changing conditions and, that movement away from a goal (e.g., being a "real alternative school") at one point of time can be considered a

progressive movement toward another goal (e.g., survival). Also, the maturing process need not be sequential and linear. It may be cyclical or even stationary with positive effects. Over a period of time, there are many organizational choices and directions which should be analyzed and judged from a multi-situational perspective instead of from a limited linear perspective. Thus, progression is understood and evaluated by multiple criteria, the interaction between alternative school growth and its situational context, rather than by any one factor such as the school's progress in achieving its ultimate objective.

Stage VII, termination or death, is the other pattern which appears to be of considerable import to alternative school development. Institutions are instruments devised by society to extend human capacity beyond the scope of an individual or small group. One imminent factor limiting human capability is death. By creating an organization around particular aims that can be institutionalized, the inevitability of death can be overcome. A sophisticated institution is not overly affected by mortal issues that affect its individual members. The U.S. government and its constitution are an example of this. Schools on a smaller scale are another example. With a plan or constitution or policy guidelines, schools reduce their dependency on individuals and instead individuals alter their behavior to conform to the school so that its institutional intentions can be realized. One of the consequences, however, of an institution whose survival is rarely seriously challenged is that it begins to lose its vitality and assumes an almost unreal mundane quality. In real life, death plays an important role as part of the generation and regeneration cycle. Without death, individuals who have become attached to certain ideas and beliefs would make it difficult for new ideas to take root.

Crises in life brings to fore the spectre of death and through their presence they periodically tend to accentuate the value and meaning of one's endeavors. The reality of impending death (often through crises) does to the school in a collective sense what it does for individuals. It focuses attention on the meaning of the school and, thereby heightens the school's life world in terms of work, learning, accomplishment, association, etc. Moreover, the school members begin to feel that what they are involved in must count for something more than merely the pleasure of comfort of the existential moment. Without the presence of this last stage, developing alternative schools might be reduced to the same level of surrealistic routine and languor that so often characterizes regular schools in their development.

From this formulative investigation, sixteen propositions were developed. Most of the propositions were formulated by analyzing empirical data and considering its relationship to organization and systems theory. The remaining propositions (seven, eight, and sixteen) were formulated as hypothetical extensions of the propositions that preceded them. All of the propositions were organized by analytical tools for examining crises under two subheadings: "Systems Models of the Alternative School Structure" and "Epigenesis of Alternative Schools." These analytical tools were modified and invented to fit the special circumstances of alternative schools. In the Clinic and other training programs from which some of the data was obtained, many crisis management skills were adopted from other fields and successfully applied in a workshop training setting.

The following list is a summary of the propositions as they are organized in this study. Thereafter, the implications of these propositions

are discussed in a frame of reference which mostly represents the perspective of organizational development trainers.

Summary of Propositions  
Organized by Analytical Tools

System Models of the Alternative School Structure

Proposition One: The two main concerns, in rank order, of alternative school directors are: the nature of the relationship between alternative school and the regular school system; and the creation of internal organizational satisfaction.

Proposition Two: The continuance of financial support from the school district and/or federal agencies is a critical issue for alternative schools.

Proposition Three: A dominant dilemma for alternative school directors is whether to have the school assume a safe or daring organizational position in relationship to the regular school system.

Proposition Four: For alternative school directors, creating organizational normalcy so that the members are operating in ways that help the school achieve its organizational goal as well as the goals of its individual members is the main internal concern.

Proposition Five: Alternative schools are commonly a subsystem paralleling the regular school system.

Proposition Six: The foremost endangering problem to alternative schools exists in their relationship with the regular school system.

Proposition Seven: The permanence of an alternative school's



equilibrium position with respect to the regular school system is a function of its own ability to command power over the regular system and the congruence or incongruence of the two system's values and desire to assimilate with one another.

Proposition Eight: Alternative school changes must be viewed within the context of the entire system in order to gain an accurate perspective of those changes.

### Epigenesis of Alternative Schools

Proposition Nine: The development of alternative schools is governed by epigenetic principles of organizational growth.

Proposition Ten: The epigenesis of alternative schools involves seven stages of development: (1) initial planning, (2) creation, (3) start-up, (4) beginning to settle-in, (5) institutionalization, (6) decline, and (7) termination.

Proposition Eleven: There is a medium to high probability that a majority of alternative schools will encounter a crisis that will endanger the school in each stage of its development.

Proposition Twelve: For alternative schools, the probability of a crisis occurring is greater at stage four, "youth", than the preceding stages.

Proposition Thirteen: As alternative schools progress through the epigenetic model toward greater organizational maturity, they will also drift toward becoming more "regular" and "conventional".

Proposition Fourteen: Although alternative schools tend to drift toward becoming more traditional as they progress through their stages of

development, crises present opportunities for change: for movement toward becoming a real alternative or for accelerated movement toward conventionality and regularity.

Proposition Fifteen: Alternative schools may often develop through the epigenetic stages, either consciously or unwittingly, in an cyclical pattern.

Proposition Sixteen: The development of alternative schools (when considering the three dimensional factors of time, organizational mode, and stages of development) appears to assume a helical pattern.

In the beginning of this study, crises were defined as having a dual nature: offering both dangers and/or opportunities. Using the foregoing propositions as discussion points, the meaning of crises for alternative schools will be explored according to the dangers and opportunities which they suggest for both alternative schools and their directors.

To begin with, one of the issues in creating an alternative school lies in the members aspiration to experience greater freedom. According to Goodwin Watson, "Founders of utopias have usually sought some place where they would be free from expectations and pressures to conform to the norms of an established culture."<sup>51</sup> Public alternative schools rarely have the latitude of complete freedom because they are closely tied to and dependent upon their ultimate benefactor--the regular school system. The so-called free schools or non-public supported alternatives have

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<sup>51</sup> Goodwin Watson. "Utopia and Rebellion: The New College Experiment" in Innovation in Education, edited by Matthew B. Miles. New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1973, p. 101.

greater flexibility in this regard but they gain that advantage by sacrificing financial security. Members of alternative schools often neglect the reality of their dependency to the regular school system and thereby endanger their own school. Yet, coincidentally, this desire to experiment and explore, characterized sometimes as a "flight from reality," is an essential part of creative change. Thus, a source of creative change may also endanger the very prospect of change unless it is managed between the rather thin and precarious walk way that separates a tolerable level of freedom from the intolerable as defined by the school system.

Robert Chin once described alternative schools as a place where the regular system may locate its deviates and rebels. In this manner, the regular school system can isolate those bothersome elements and use them as a cushion to ward off any major change attempt to dismissing changes as coming from a bunch of "odd balls."<sup>52</sup> If alternative schools allow themselves to be isolated and used in this fashion, then it is likely that they will ironically become a danger and obstacle to significant educational change.

Financial dangers appear as a serious problem for alternative schools. The epigenetic scheme illustrates the necessity of obtaining adequate financing in the initial years because without a secure financial base, an inordinate amount of energy and attention is diverted to this issue rather than on building effective educational programs. The financing problem is in part caused by the alternative school's fringe or

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<sup>52</sup>Robert Chin. "Alternative Schools and China." Paper presented at a seminar on "Alternative Schools" at the University of Massachusetts, October, 1973.

rebellious image. This image adds to the school's survival problems during difficult economic times since a fringe element of rebels or a collection of frill programs is not likely to engender enthusiastic support as part of an austerity strategy for the school district. A very significant reason for the development of financial problems among alternative schools comes from their founding leaders, many of whom are idealistic and utopian thinkers, who dislike bothering with financial details. These factors contribute to an increasing probability of financial insolvency after two or three years of operation at which time the school district, often having provided an opportunity for the school to prove itself, now wants an evaluation of the program's effectiveness. Federal funding also ends after two or three years and the agencies ask for an accounting of their program.

Insularity is another danger in the initial years. Developing any new innovation requires some initial insulation in order for the innovation to gain its own sense of identity and direction as well as to minimize the number of factors that it must manage. This is also true in fields outside of education. Agricultural, biological, and engineering innovations are usually tested in a laboratory environment before any full scale field test is made. Business innovations similarly are experimented with under controlled settings, field tested in a limited and scrutinized fashion and later marketed for general consumption. Educational innovations often do not follow the preceding course of development. Instead, they are required to perform the functions of development, experimentation, implementation, and evaluation in the public arena simultaneously. Thus, before an alternative school has fully developed an acceptable



curricula, it must prove its effectiveness in the public arena where the forces of politics prevail. Although insularity or having a "cultural island" is useful in freeing the members from traditional constraints and is necessary for any realistic program of innovative development, it also operates to hinder the process of establishing a broader base of support. As long as it is considered an appendage and not essential to the school system, the alternative school will tread a precarious path. When a major crisis does arise, the school's past insularity will hinder effective support and insure its demise.

Hostility by members outside of the alternative school are often underestimated by members within the alternative school. Although the data in this study indicates that the directors were aware of the tension between alternative school systems and regular school systems, the directors have a difficult time convincing the members in the school of the seriousness of this problem. Goodwin Watson states that "this is a hard lesson for experimental schools to learn. The founders are so convinced of the purity of their motives, and of the valuable service they are rendering, that it seems incredible to them that others should distort what is going on and even seek to destroy it."<sup>53</sup> Alternative schools as a different mode of education, often as a countercultural attempt cannot escape hostility. This is natural to any strange group set in a larger community. What the alternative school members do not realize is that if their school methods succeed, then the practices of every member in the regular system comes under question.

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<sup>53</sup> Watson, op. cit., p. 107.

In order to cope with the problems external to the alternative school, those dangers are often minimized. This is in part due to their involvement with the multitude of tasks needing attention in the internal environment. It is also due to the often temporary commitment of its members. Many members of the school, staff and students do not consider staying longer than three years. Thus, they attend to immediate problems that are within the school rather than to impending dangers in the external world which requires an effort in public relations. However, a more important reason is related to a psychological principle that states that a common way for people to cope with danger is by dismissing it from the mind--a sort of ostrich syndrome. For example, people who live on the sides of a volcano become accustomed to ignoring it. Likewise, alternative school members frequently do not take their peril seriously.

Members of organizations tend to think and plan in linear terms. Goals and objectives are established and a rational linear path is determined in order to reach them. However, in the meanwhile, a swirl of complex forces surround the organization and may derail it from its original path. This is a common scenario for many alternative schools and those who would try to maintain strict adherence to a singular path in achieving its goals will encounter frustration and jeopardy. Under these rather erratic conditions, creative dynamic approaches emphasizing organizational agility will offer greater assurance of organizational progress. The danger, however, is that in moments of crises, the overriding tendency is to concentrate on safe, conservative and traditional methods of problem-solving.

Shifting the discussion now to opportunities that can arise from alternative school crises brings one to the issue of "dialectics". Ideologically viewed, alternative schools, whether they realize it or not, represent a counterforce to standard American education. As such, they offer a classical example of the concept of dialectical change. Between early and recent sociological change theory, it was imagined that significant change could occur with a rational and humanistic approach that does not include the feared elements of confrontation and crisis. Quite recently, sociologists and organizational behaviorists have begun to revise their theories which relied extensively on a rationale-educative model of change toward theories that include power-coercive strategies of change. If alternative schools are viewed as part of a dialectical sociological process, then the crises and conflicts that arise are normal rather than aberrant events in which change occurs. As an example, a small New England alternative school was overcome in a conflict with the conservative forces of the school district. Though the school was eventually dissolved, the personnel and students were for the most part absorbed into the regular system and allowed to continue some of the practices in a more closely supervised fashion. From the contention, the board members had been impressed with the vigorous support of the parents and students for the school. Thus, even though the alternative school no longer exists in that district, its temporary presence and the dialectics that ensued did cause educational change in the system, though not radical change to be sure.

Within the dialectics of change, alternative schools assume the role of the "rebel" as opposed to the "revolutionary". If a revolutionary is one who seeks to displace those in power by overthrowing the system,

the rebel according to Rollo May's definition is on the other hand:

. . . one who opposes authority or restraint: one who breaks with established custom or tradition. He seeks above all an internal change, a change in the attitudes, emotions, and outlook for the people to whom he is devoted. He often seems to be temperamentally unable to accept success and the ease it brings; he kicks against the pricks, and when one frontier is conquered, he soon becomes ill-at-ease and pushes on to the new frontier. He is drawn to the unquiet minds and spirits, for he shares their everlasting inability to accept stultifying control. He may, as Socrates did, refer to himself as the gadfly for the state--the one who keeps the state from settling down into a complacency, which is the first step toward decadence.<sup>59</sup>

May expands on the meaning of the rebel as:

. . . one who renounces authority, he seeks primarily not the substitution of one political system for another. He may favor such political change, but it is not his chief goal. He rebels for the sake of a vision of life and society which he is convinced is critically important for himself and his fellows.<sup>55</sup>

Although May's description is directed to individuals, it is no less fitting of organizations. In particular, new organizations with a social reform purpose fit into this category; e.g., new religious groups, community and public action groups, innovative education groups. Often, founding members of alternative schools are characterized by the above description and they input these characteristics upon their organization in the early stages of growth. As an alternative school becomes an organizational personification of the "rebel", the local educational system and society benefits from its deeds. The alternative school shakes and

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<sup>54</sup>Rollo May. Power and Innocence. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1972, p. 221.

<sup>55</sup>Ibid.



unfreezes the fixed rigidity of the local educational system and its environmental culture. And through this dangerous and painful but exhilarating process those social systems are awakened and revitalized. May describes this function in more vivid poetic terms:

Civilization begins with a rebellion. Prometheus, one of the Titans, steals fire from the gods on Mount Olympus and brings it as a gift to man, making the birth of human culture. For this rebellion, Zeus sentences him to be chained to Mount Caucasus where vultures consume his liver during the day and at night it grows back only to be eaten away the next day. This is a tale of the agony of the creative individual, whose nightly rest only resuscitates him so he can endure his agonies the next day.<sup>56</sup>

Inherent in the rebellion is the rebel's attempt to preserve its ethical and visionary integrity against the pressures of society to conform. This provides the basis for dialectics that occur between the rebel and society, but it is a dialectics which is common to all who experience the tensions between person and group, man and society, organization and institution, neighborhood and community. This process is an essential aspect of change and, without it, social stagnation and apathy develop.

As the rebellion develops between alternative school and regular school system and issues become sharpened, periodic crises result in bringing forth elements of creativity masked in dissension. Although rebels may make substantial contributions, this does not lessen their very precarious condition. This assertion has been tested in an experiment described by Elsie Boulding in which a problem was presented to a series of groups created for the purpose of the experiment. It was arranged so that some groups would have a "deviant" while others would not. In every

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<sup>56</sup> Ibid., p. 222.

case, the groups containing the deviant came up with a more elegant solution. When the groups were asked to eliminate one member, the deviant was invariably eliminated. Elsie Boulding concluded that: "As long as the group had to work with him, the results were creative: but faced with a choice, the group found it easier to continue minus the person who forced them to confront conflicting views and integrate them."<sup>57</sup> In this manner, rebels and crises are similar in that they force members of a group or society to expand their thinking in ways that they would not do normally. To actually appreciate and implement diversity (i.e., alternatives) is an enriching but difficult practice.

Another positive function served by crises and conflicts is its role in the process of socialization. As the "Survey of Literature" chapter indicated, elements of discord are necessary to the process and structure of group formation. In observing alternative school growth, one can see how both positive and negative forces help shape and build the internal relationships. As part of this socialization process, crises may contribute to the generation of such necessary factors as: group boundaries, group binding, group preservation, in-group cohesion, internal group structure, creation of associations and coalitions.

Because crises play such an important role in the development of an organization, they present an unusual opportunity to observe the nature of that organization. Crises provide an almost ideal moment to diagnose an organization since much of what goes on in the normal course of organizational life occurs at an almost imperceptible level except for those

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<sup>57</sup> Robert L. Kahn and Elsie Boulding (eds.). Power and Conflict in Organizations. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964, p. 19.

with the most sophisticated skills and the time to apply them. In a crises, issues and other significant factors that lie beneath the surface of an organization will erupt into view. With these items so discernible, an organization could use the crisis to better understand itself. One way this can be accomplished is through the use of a third party contracted to observe the organization when it is undergoing a crisis as a mirroring device to provide somewhat objective feedback. If the organization wishes to be more systematic about its diagnosis during crises, it could design a management information system. This system could provide important information to decision-makers and researchers. To the investigator's knowledge, this approach has not been widely applied in the field of education and, thus, there is sparse knowledge on the process of crises.

As was discussed earlier in this section, the matter of alternative school "death" is both intriguing and significant. It is an intriguing subject because regular schools seldom face this possibility and when they do, it is more for reasons of economy rather than for reasons of performance. The termination of a school as a real possibility creates, in the investigator's opinion, a different organizational climate and character than what one would encounter in regular schools. Among the questions that might be investigated in this area concern the manner in which the possibility of organizational death manifests itself, and whether or not termination should be incorporated into the life cycle of certain regular schools.

The significance of the termination stage lies in Proposition Eleven: "The termination stage causes a sense of urgency in the development of the school and, thereby, enhances the meaningfulness of the

school's experience in its search for greater substance and a better approach to education." Odd as it may seem, "death" or "termination" as an imminent possibility and as symbolized in reoccurring crises could help to impell and enrich the educational mission of a school.

The epigenetic model of alternative school development provides another perspective where crises offer opportunities for improvement. At each stage of development, alternative schools confront different crises which must be managed satisfactorily or else the school will be beset by a chronic problem. These stages of development and their corresponding crises challenge the management and resources of the school to reflect upon their current condition and arrive at new creative methods or directions.

Since at each stage of its development alternative schools can experiment with or modify its organizational characteristic and direction, there is a unique opportunity for the schools to select an appropriate organizational mode according to changing circumstances. Theoretically, the U.S. government and its constitution operates upon this somewhat radical approach. Periodically, for instance, the people of the United States vote on whether or not to change the character and direction of their government by electing their President and Congress.

Turning now to the meaning of crisis management for alternative school administrators, one of the principal factors to consider is that any given strategy may assume the quality of a double-edged sword that can cut to one's disfavor as well as one's favor. A strategy taken during a crisis may seem correct in resolving a particular problem; however, that same decision may haunt an administrator at a later date. For example,



some administrators attempt to deal with certain problems by being independently decisive and initiating problem-solving actions. This leadership approach to problems is often viewed as autocratic. On the other hand, if those same administrators assume more of a reactive, consensus-seeking approach, they may likely be seen as avoiding their leadership responsibilities.

One of the serious consequences of crises is the "burnout" of crisis managers. When alternative schools are loosely organized and lack conflict management protocols, then administrators invariably become crisis managers. If these conditions persist, then crises will eventually burnout the administrators and leave the schools in a worse position to cope with crises and the managers themselves will become precipitators of crises.

"Burnout" is also partly a function of role confusion. Of the alternative school directors that the investigator interviewed and observed, many seemed to be unclear about the specific nature of their roles. This is not altogether surprising since the school systems themselves are unclear about the organizational role of alternative schools in relationship to the school system. If one were to construct a two-dimensional diagram with a vertical scale representing role structure (low to high) and the horizontal scale representing role variety (low to high), the difference between alternative school directors and regular school principals would probably become clearer. Although purely speculative at this point, one would guess that the regular school principal would be located near the upper left hand corner of the diagram which exemplifies a high-structured role with low variety; while the alternative school director would be located in the lower right hand corner of the diagram which exemplifies a low-structured role with high variety.

In the matter of role identity, alternative school directors are confronted with three dimensions of consideration: professional, organizational and personal. They must formulate their role in part from their professional judgement of what is best for educational change. Also, they must consider the best interests of the local school district concurrently with the alternative school in formulating their organizational role. Finally, their own personal life role, which takes into consideration the desires and needs of their family, plays no small part in the matter of role identity. This latter dimension is especially important because if alternative school directors do not see their future with alternative schools but rather as a stepping stone for broader or other forms of professional advancement, then the probability of burnout may increase since the commitment to the school is marginal. This is based on the assumption that individuals who have a personal commitment, in addition to professional commitment, to alternative schools will have a greater tolerance for the problems of developing an alternative school when conditions become severe.

A systems perspective offers one way of viewing alternative school concerns and their ultimate effect on their administrators. The relationship between the regular school system and the alternative school subsystem poses a dilemma for administrators: should they assume a safer posture and be guaranteed institutional security or should they assume a more adventurous posture and hazard the loss of that guarantee. Stated another way, how does an alternative school, whose aim is to effect a change in the school district, become efficient as an agent of change, avoid being perceived as a threat, and still have its own safety guaranteed?

From an epigenetic or developmental perspective, alternative school administrators, when their own personal and career stage of development is not synchronized with the organizational stage of development of alternative schools, can be a precipitous crisis element. If an alternative school director who is skilled at stage one, or "creation", is placed in charge of a school that is at stage four, "settling in", then it would not be unusual to expect an internal crisis to result.

One aspect of administrative behavior that appears common to alternative schools involves the advancement of teachers to administrators. Because teachers are frequently not trained in the skills required of administrators, such as that of organizational planning, they tend to rely on classroom management techniques which served them well as teachers but are inadequate for the role of an administrator of an innovative organization. Teachers do not tend to think in terms of long range planning and short range planning, organizational strengths and weaknesses, using organizational feedback to make decisions on the nature of the organization and its direction, developing an effective management hierarchy, and the formulation of strategies. When these items are used, it is for an instructional purpose between teacher and student rather than for organizational planning as a necessary means of moving disparate members toward a selected common goal. In other words, knowledge dissemination and skill improvement is the task of most teachers, rather than the planning and collective achievement function which involves a broader range of organizational skills.

## Recommendations for Research and Action

As a result of this formulative investigation, several analytical models have emerged that can provide important and useful information to those researchers and practitioners who are interested in educational change from a conflict and crisis point of view. However, further research is required for the purpose of in-depth exploration of the salient aspects of this subject.

To begin with, it is recommended that the propositions offered in this study be used as focal points for further research. They can be more precisely worded as hypotheses for serious and rigorous testing and examination.

These propositions can be considered from at least three basic analytical frameworks: socialtechnical system, social system structure, and epigenetic or developmental model. Socialtechnical system analytical models as provided by Joe Litterer and Eric Trist will illuminate how the social and technical aspects of systems combine to produce certain results and how these elements are affected by crises. Social system structure analytical models as devised by Robert Chin and as adapted in this study to alternative schools, will portray the interacting elements of a school and, thus, make clearer for practitioners and researchers alike where crises are most likely to occur and what components of a system are most likely to be affected. The epigenetic or developmental model, as invented through the efforts of this study, will indicate the typical forms of crises that will probably occur at each stage of a school's growth. Hence, with this information, practitioners can plan for expected problems and opportunities that lie ahead.



From this preliminary investigation, one of the most exciting discoveries was the usefulness of the epigenetic or developmental model. It is heartily recommended by the investigator that this particular analytic framework be applied in more research designs having to do with organizational innovations. It is believed that this framework will prove to be a valuable tool in helping practitioners in their efforts at problem-solving. They can, through the application of this framework, identify others who are at their particular stage, develop the skills and resources necessary to manage their problems, and finally gain a developmental sense of where they have been, where they presently are, and what they are likely to encounter in the future.

Applying the epigenetic model to alternative schools also helped elucidate the positive and useful purpose that the termination stage serves. Therefore, it is recommended that research be specifically conducted on the effects of terminating schools. Because schools seem to have an almost eternal life, it is possible that they lose much of their meaningfulness and utility. Experiments might be established to create a number of schools simultaneously in districts with some schools predestined to end and others planned as a regular school with an indefinite life span.

Another area deserving greater attention and understanding concerns the relationship between alternative schools and regular school systems. The implications of this issue exceeds even the relative importance of comprehending the innovation process in an educational setting. Due to the fact that alternative schools conceptually represent a minority issue as well as a pluralistic approach, their attempt to survive provides an analogue to the problem America as a nation faces with its numerous

minority groups (in the broad sense of this term). Moreover, because alternative schools reflect diverse educational philosophies which are often sharply divergent from long-standing American tradition, the changing nature of the relationship between alternative schools and regular schools may signal how this country will attempt to resolve conflicting political ideologies, such as the issue of socialism vs. capitalism, in its educational sector. Hence, research might try to assess whether alternative schools are spreading nationwide and also throughout school systems, and whether the presence of alternative schools in districts have created ideological crises by precipitating serious questions about the nature of education.

Since it has been made explicit in this study that there is very little information on the dialectical process of educational change and since a considerable amount of research and empirical evidence suggests that educational change often results from a crisis of one sort or another, it is recommended that research be conducted to develop knowledge on the nature of that process. For instance, how does the dialectical process of change occur between a school system and its environment and within the school system? What are the levers of altering the process and its outcomes? What analytical models can be developed to help one perceive the dialectical process more clearly?

Finally, it is recommended that members of newly innovating organizations, who are interested in crisis management training, be instructed in: understanding organizational change theory, negotiation and arbitration techniques, diagnostic approaches, and local judicial procedures. While these skills may not remedy the problems of educational change,

they should provide those who engage in such endeavors with the tools and confidence to confront the issues more directly and perhaps more wisely.

Ultimately, the development of crisis management knowledge and practices should allow those who are involved in educational change to move from a reactive, problem-oriented posture to a proactive, problem-seeking posture. It is the discovery of problems on one's own initiative that essentially characterizes the best of human creativity and thinking. The following statement probably is as true for researchers and practitioners of change as it is for physical scientists for whose benefit it was originally stated:

The formulation of a problem is often more essential than its solution. . . . To raise new questions, new problems, to regard old problems from a new angle, requires creative imagination and marks real advances. . . .<sup>58</sup>

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<sup>58</sup>A. Einstein and L. Infeld. The Evolution of Physics. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1938, p. 92.

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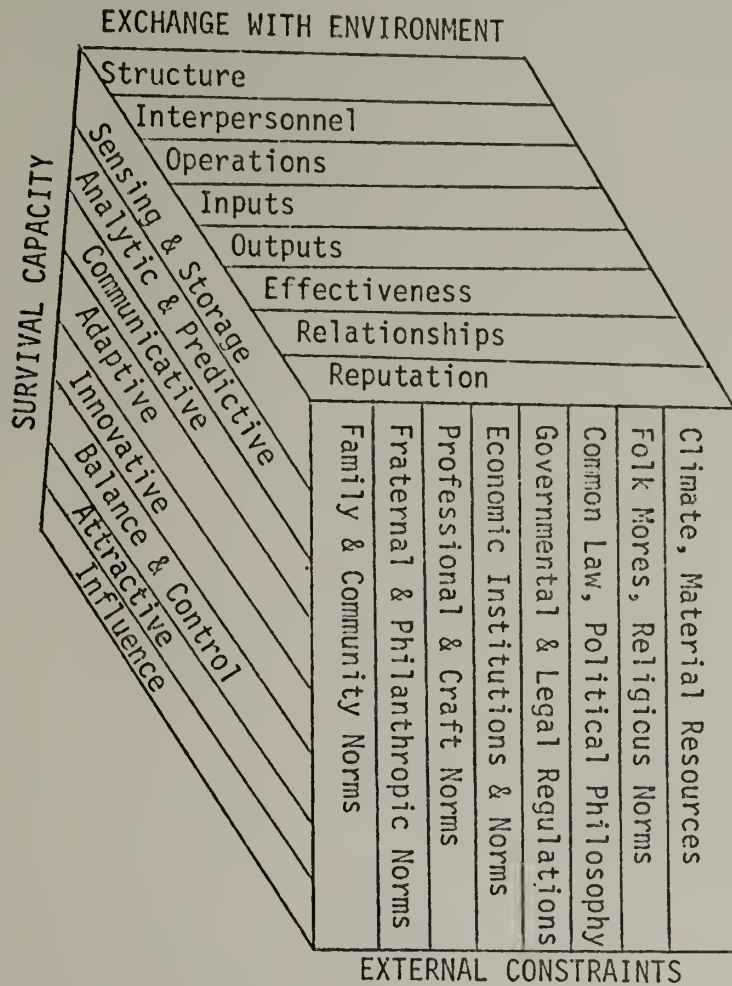
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A P P E N D I X

## ITEM 1

## The Environmental-Organizational Segment\*



This diagram illustrates an organization as part of its social environment. It is based on the belief that the viability of an organization is firmly rooted in the relationships that it maintains with its environment. In order to survive crises an organization must maintain the internal mechanisms necessary for coping with change. The three dimensions (External Constraints, Exchange with Environment, and Survival Capacity) do not include an exhaustive list of the possible relationships between an organization and its environment. They do, however, try to account for the most critical problems involved in those relationships.

\*Ralph M. Stogdill. "Dimensions of Organizational Theory," in Organizational Design and Research, edited by James D. Thompson. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1966, p. 42.

## ITEM 2

Description of Alternative Schools  
Involved in This Study

BERKELEY COLLEGE PREPARATORY  
BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL CAMPUS  
2246 MILVIA STREET  
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94704  
415-644-6756

grades 10-12. . . 3 years old. . . 100-200 students. . . 75% Black,  
25% White. . . 96% inner city. . . 1 full-time, 8 part-time staff  
. . . referral, interview selection process. . . state or federal  
funding. . . housed in school system building with other programs,  
facilities.

CAMBRIDGE PILOT SCHOOL  
1700 CAMBRIDGE AVENUE  
CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS 02138  
617-491-4344  
CONTACT: RAY SHURTLEFF

grades 9-12. . . more than 5 years old. . . 100-200 students. . .  
71% White, 26% Black. . . 100% urban. . . 11 paid staff. . . strati-  
fied random lottery selection process. . . housed in school system  
building with other programs. . . emphasis on cultural diversity. . .  
all involved in decision-making. . . wide variety of learning exper-  
iences. . . advisory groups meet weekly to discuss school policy  
and program, personal and group concerns.

CINNAMINSON ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL  
POMONA ROAD  
CINNAMINSON, NEW JERSEY 08077  
609-829-7600  
CONTACT: LEE OPERPARLEITER

grades 10-12. . . 2 years old. . . 100-200 students. . . 98% White  
. . . 100% suburban. . . 8 full-time, 8 part-time staff. . . open  
lottery selection process. . . public system funding supplemented  
by state or federal money. . . housed in school building by itself.



CITY  
 675 MASSACHUSETTS AVENUE  
 CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS 02139  
 617-867-0478  
 CONTACT: ERMA BALLANTINE

kindergarten-grade 5. . . 3 years old. . . 180 students. . . 99%  
 White. . . 100% rural. . . 9 paid staff. . . lottery with quotas  
 selection process. . . housed in school system building (one wing)  
 with other school facilities, programs. . . emphasized individual-  
 ized approach. . . strong parent support and participation.

FRANKLIN ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL  
 1150 VIRGINIA STREET  
 BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94702  
 415-524-7545  
 CONTACT: MR. MIZUHARA

grades 4-6. . . 4 years old. . . more than 500 students. . . 42%  
 White, 39% Black. . . 100% inner-city. . . 42 paid staff, 12 aides,  
 12 specialists. . . public system funds supplemented by state or  
 federal money. . . housed in school system building with other school  
 programs, facilities.

GENESIS-BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL  
 2246 MILVIA  
 BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA  
 415-644-6120  
 CONTACT: FRANCES HUNTER

grades 10-12. . . 4 years old. . . 50-100 students. . . 66% White,  
 26% Black. . . 60% urban, 40% suburban. . . 7 1/2 paid staff. . .  
 all who apply are admitted, up to 250 students. . . public system  
 funds supplemented by federal money. . . housed in Berkeley High  
 School with other school programs. . . wide variety in curriculum,  
 many student initiated courses.

JOAN OF ARC MINI SCHOOL  
 164 WEST 97TH STREET  
 NEW YORK, NEW YORK 11023  
 212-749-0291 (MAIN SCHOOL)  
 CONTACT: HARRIET GOLDBERG

grade 9. . . 3 years old. . . 50-100 students. . . 46% Spanish sur-  
 name, 46% Black. . . 100% inner city. . . 7 paid staff, 2 aides. . .  
 all who apply are admitted. . . public system funds supplemented by  
 private funding agencies. . . housed in leased storefront and also  
 in 3 classrooms within the parent school.

KILIMANJARO  
 2355 HEARST  
 BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94709  
 CONTACT: CARLOTTA CAMPBELL

kindergarten-grade 6. . . 50 students. . . 1 1/2 certified staff,  
 1 1/2 classified staff plus instructional aides. . . off-site cam-  
 pus (former church) with limited structure.

PASADENA ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL  
 PASADENA UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT  
 330 SOUTH OAK KNOLL  
 PASADENA, CALIFORNIA 91101  
 213-793-6173  
 CONTACT: GRETA PRUITT

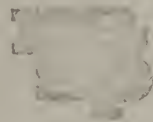
kindergarten-grade 12. . . 3 years old. . . 200-500 students. . .  
 45% White, 35% Black, 14% Spanish surname. . . 50% urban, 50% sub-  
 urban. . . 11 paid staff, 6 aides. . . lottery with quotas selection  
 process. . . housed on one floor of central administration building  
 (Education Center). . . public funds supplemented by money from the  
 University of Massachusetts. . . emphasis on cultural and socio-  
 economic diversity. . . off-campus learning experiences and cross-  
 age curriculum.

# NATIONAL SURVEY of PUBLIC ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

1973-1974

## survey questionnaire

The National Alternative Schools Program at the University of Massachusetts is conducting an intensive nationwide survey of public alternative schools. One of the data collection instruments being used is the survey questionnaire. The purpose of this instrument is to develop a comprehensive picture of the alternative school. All information collected is confidential. We appreciate your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire.



GENERAL DIRECTIONS: To facilitate both the compilation and analysis of questionnaire data NASP has designed a multiple choice, short answer format. There are three types of questions:

1. (circle one/circle all choices which apply) For these questions circle only the appropriate number(s).
2. (please specify) For these questions please enter the appropriate number, percentage, or short phrase clearly in the space provided.
3. grids-- For these questions mark the appropriate cells in the grid with a check. We feel the information generated by the grids will justify the time spent in completing them.

Please remember that this questionnaire is designed to get information about how the school is and not how you would like to see it.

Thank you very much again for your time.

# BACKGROUND

1. Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Address: \_\_\_\_\_
3. City: \_\_\_\_\_
4. State and Zip: \_\_\_\_\_
5. How many hours a day is the school building open for students?  
(circle one)
  1. less than 4 hours
  2. between 4 and 6 hours
  3. more than 6 hours

## DEVELOPMENT of the PROGRAM

6. How many years has the school been admitting students? (circle one)
  1. 1 year or less
  2. between 1 and 3 years
  3. more than 3 and less than 5 years
  4. 5 years or more
7. From what group(s) did the *major* impetus for the school come?  
(circle all choices which apply)
  1. school district staff
  2. teachers
  3. students
  4. parents
  5. community members
  6. university personnel
  7. educational consultants
  8. school board members
8. Who was involved in the initial planning of the school? (circle all choices which apply)
  1. school district personnel
  2. teachers
  3. students
  4. parents
  5. community members
  6. university personnel
  7. educational consultants
  8. school board members



9. How much time was involved in the initial planning phase? (please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_ weeks

10. How much money was spent in the initial planning phase, including released time for personnel, consultants, materials, etc.? (please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_ dollars

## PHILOSOPHY & GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

11. Do you have a written statement of your school's program goals? (circle one)

1. yes
2. no

(if yes, would you please send us a copy)

12. In what ways do you feel you are *most different* from the other schools in your district? (circle up to three choices)

1. curriculum
2. provide learning experiences for minority groups
3. decision-making processes
4. interaction of students and teachers
5. method of grading
6. use of non-certified personnel
7. physical environment
8. interaction between school and parents
9. interaction between school and community
10. emphasis on affective goals
11. other (please specify)

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13. What experiences does your school undertake to develop a sense of community? (circle all choices which apply)

1. we do not plan specific activities for this purpose
2. support groups
3. general meetings
4. field trips
5. plan, cook, and eat meals together
6. scheduled special events
7. other (please specify)

---

14. In what ways does your program support ethnic and cultural identity?  
(circle all choices which apply)

1. no specific ways
2. courses
3. counseling
4. ethnic makeup of staff
5. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

15. In what ways does your program support cultural pluralism? (circle all choices which apply)

1. no specific ways
2. courses
3. counseling
4. ethnic makeup of staff
5. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

## STUDENT INFORMATION

✓ 16. What is your 1973-1974 student enrollment? (circle one)

1. 50 or less
2. 51-100
3. 101-200
4. 201-500
5. 501 or more

17. What was your 1972-1973 student enrollment? (circle one)

1. 50 or less
2. 51-100
3. 101-200
4. 201-500
5. 501 or more

18. What was your 1971-1972 student enrollment? (circle one)

1. 50 or less
2. 51-100
3. 101-200
4. 201-500
5. 501 or more

19. What is the percentage of female students enrolled in the school?  
(please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_ %

✓ 20. What percentage of the students in your school come from the following areas? (please specify an approximate percentage)

urban, inner city \_\_\_\_\_%

urban \_\_\_\_\_%

suburban \_\_\_\_\_%

rural \_\_\_\_\_%

✓ 21. What is the makeup of the student population? (please specify an approximate percentage)

Asian \_\_\_\_\_%

Black \_\_\_\_\_%

Indian \_\_\_\_\_%

Spanish surname \_\_\_\_\_%

White \_\_\_\_\_%

22. What is the makeup of the school age population in the district? (please specify an approximate percentage)

Asian \_\_\_\_\_%

Black \_\_\_\_\_%

Indian \_\_\_\_\_%

Spanish surname \_\_\_\_\_%

White \_\_\_\_\_%

✓ 23. Which grade levels (as traditionally defined) are included in your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. 1

2. 2

3. 3

4. 4

5. 5

6. 6

7. 7

8. 8

9. 9

10. 10

11. 11

12. 12

13. pre-kindergarten

14. kindergarten

15. beyond 12

24. What is the age range of your student population? (please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_

25. What is the *average* daily absentee rate? (circle one)

1. 5 percent or less
2. 6-10 percent
3. 11-20 percent
4. 21-40 percent
5. 41 percent or more

26. What is the *approximate* percent of students who drop out of your program each year? (circle one)

1. 5 percent or less
2. 6-10 percent
3. 11-20 percent
4. 21 percent or more

27. Where do students go when they drop out of your program? (please specify an approximate percent)

to other schools within the public system \_\_\_\_\_ %

to private schools \_\_\_\_\_ %

move out of the district \_\_\_\_\_ %

to work \_\_\_\_\_ %

other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ %

28. Where do students go when they finish your program? (please specify an approximate percent)

to college \_\_\_\_\_ %

to other schools in the district \_\_\_\_\_ %

to private schools \_\_\_\_\_ %

to jobs based on training  
received in school \_\_\_\_\_ %

to other jobs \_\_\_\_\_ %

to the armed forces \_\_\_\_\_ %

other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ %



## STUDENT RECRUITMENT & ADMISSIONS

29. Which of the following methods are used in recruiting students for your school? (circle all choices which apply)
1. publicize openings in district schools
  2. advertising in media
  3. hold parent meetings
  4. invite prospective students and parents to school
  5. visit classrooms in district schools
  6. mailings to homes
  7. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
30. How many students applied for admission for the 1973-1974 school year? (please specify)
- \_\_\_\_\_ students
31. How many student openings were there for the 1973-1974 school year? (please specify)
- \_\_\_\_\_ openings
32. What is the selection process for students? (circle all choices which apply)
1. all who apply are admitted
  2. lottery with quotas
  3. open lottery
  4. referral
  5. reviewed application
  6. interview
  7. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
33. What must the student present to your school to be considered for admission? (circle all choices which apply)
1. no specific requirements
  2. parent signature
  3. letter of recommendation
  4. application form
  5. school referral form or letter
  6. permission of previous school
  7. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_
34. Do you use specific criteria for refusing admission? (circle one)
1. yes
  2. no

35. Who makes the decisions on student admission at your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. no decision-- lottery
2. director
3. teachers
4. students
5. committee for specific purpose
6. parents or community members
7. guidance personnel in the system
8. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

## STAFF

36. What is the number of paid staff at your school? (please specify number)

director(s) \_\_\_\_\_

administrators  
other than director \_\_\_\_\_

supervising teachers \_\_\_\_\_

teachers \_\_\_\_\_

counselors \_\_\_\_\_

aides \_\_\_\_\_

secretaries \_\_\_\_\_

custodians \_\_\_\_\_

37. What is the education and experience level of the paid professional staff (administrators, teachers, counselors, aides) at your school? (please specify approximate percent)

no college degree \_\_\_\_\_%

at least B. A. or B. S. \_\_\_\_\_%

at least M. A. or M. Ed. \_\_\_\_\_%

at least Ph. D. or Ed. D. \_\_\_\_\_%

state certification \_\_\_\_\_%

district tenure \_\_\_\_\_%

37. cont.

previous alternative school  
experience \_\_\_\_\_ %

previous public school  
experience \_\_\_\_\_ %

work experience outside of  
education \_\_\_\_\_ %

38. What is the makeup of the paid professional staff? (please  
specify an approximate percent)

Asian \_\_\_\_\_ %

Black \_\_\_\_\_ %

Indian \_\_\_\_\_ %

Spanish surname \_\_\_\_\_ %

White \_\_\_\_\_ %

39. What experience has the director had prior to taking this  
position? (circle all choices which apply)

1. have no director
2. teaching
3. administration
4. beginning another educational project
5. evaluating another educational project
6. educational consulting
7. work experience outside education
8. administrative experience outside education

## STAFF RECRUITMENT & SELECTION

40. What is the average number of applications received for each  
staff opening? (circle one)

1. 5 or less
2. 6 to 10
3. 11 to 20
4. 21 or more

41. Who is involved in the selection process for professional staff at your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. school district staff
2. alternative school administration
3. professional staff
4. students
5. parents
6. community members

42. Who makes the final decision in the selection of professional staff at your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. school district staff
2. alternative school administration
3. professional staff
4. students
5. parents
6. community members

## STAFF ROLES & DEVELOPMENT

✓ 43. How is the director's role different from the administrator's role in other district schools? (please check all boxes in the grid which apply)

	more	same	less
teaching and counseling			
informal interaction with students			
involvement in research			
developing curriculum			
publishing			
involvement in social reform (school as a way of meeting the needs of the disen- franchised)			
involvement in administrative duties			
involvement in teacher training			
involvement in insuring the survival of the school			
involvement in program planning and evaluation			
involvement in student discipline			



44. How is the teacher's role different from the teacher's role in other district schools? (please check all boxes in the grid which apply)

teaching and counseling

informal interaction with students

involvement in research

developing curriculum

publishing

involvement in social reform

involvement in administrative duties

involvement in teacher training

involvement in insuring the survival  
of the school

involvement in program planning  
and evaluation

involvement in student discipline

	more	same	less
teaching and counseling			
informal interaction with students			
involvement in research			
developing curriculum			
publishing			
involvement in social reform			
involvement in administrative duties			
involvement in teacher training			
involvement in insuring the survival of the school			
involvement in program planning and evaluation			
involvement in student discipline			

45. What is the average working week for the paid professional staff?  
(circle one)

1. 30-40 hours
2. 41-50 hours
3. 51-60 hours
4. 61 or more hours

46. What is the percent of professional staff turnover each year? (circle one)

1. 20 percent or less
2. 21-40 percent
3. 41-60 percent
4. 61-80 percent
5. 81 percent or more

47. How would you characterize your in-service training program? (circle all choices which apply)

1. have no program and see no need for one
2. have no program but would like one
3. program is run by an external consultant
4. program is run by district personnel
5. program is run by certified staff for student teachers
6. program is run by staff for itself
7. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

48. What content areas are covered in your in-service training program?  
(circle all choices which apply)

1. language arts/communication skills
2. vocational skills
3. mathematics
4. science
5. sex
6. drugs
7. interpersonal relations
8. curriculum development
9. have no in-service training program

49. What content areas of the in-service training program are in most need of improvement?(circle all choices which apply)

1. language arts/communication skills
2. vocational skills
3. mathematics
4. science
5. sex
6. drugs
7. interpersonal relations
8. curriculum development
9. have no in-service training program

50. How many hours per week does the professional staff devote to staff meetings? (circle one)

1. 1 hour or less
2. between 1 and 3 hours
3. more than 3 and less than 6 hours
4. 6 hours or more

## INTERNS & VOLUNTEERS

51. What is the number of interns/student teachers at your school? (please specify)

\_\_\_\_\_ interns/student teachers

52. Is the use of interns/student teachers and volunteers critical for the survival of the school? (circle one)

1. yes
2. no

53. In which activities do interns/student teachers participate? (circle all choices which apply)

1. assisting teachers in a classroom
2. teaching classes
3. running tutorials
4. counseling
5. administrative work
6. clerical work
7. curriculum planning
8. working with community volunteers

54. How many community volunteers spend time in the school? (please specify)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ volunteers

55. What is the makeup of the volunteers? (please specify an approximate percent)

Asian \_\_\_\_\_ %

Black \_\_\_\_\_ %

Indian \_\_\_\_\_ %

Spanish surname \_\_\_\_\_ %

White \_\_\_\_\_ %

56. How are your volunteers recruited? (circle all choices which apply)

1. students solicit the learning resource they need
2. staff members are responsible for certain areas
3. certain staff members have the major responsibility
4. parents recruit volunteers
5. advertising in media
6. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

57. In which activities do volunteers participate? (circle all choices which apply)

1. assisting teachers in a classroom
2. teaching classes
3. running tutorials
4. counseling
5. administrative work
6. clerical work
7. curriculum planning
8. working with interns/student teachers
9. maintenance and repair

## DECISION-MAKING

58. For what stated purposes does the school have *regular staff meetings*? (circle all choices which apply)

1. staff does not meet regularly
2. to maintain a sense of staff unity
3. for in-service training
4. to discuss progress of students
5. to form school policy
6. to plan curriculum
7. to evaluate program
8. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

✓ 59. Which people are involved in the decision-making process in the indicated areas? (please check all the boxes in the grid that apply)

	school administrator(s)	teachers	students	volunteers	interns, student teachers	volunteers	school district staff
student discipline							
student admission							
staff hiring							
staff firing							
curriculum							
budget							
school goals							
physical plant							
conflict, racial							
conflict, staff/student							
conflict, staff/staff							
conflict, school/community							



✓ 60. Which people or mechanisms are involved in making the final decisions in the indicated areas? (please check all the boxes in the grid that apply)

	all school meeting	staff meeting	director	governing board	school district staff	standing committee	ad hoc committee
student discipline							
student admission							
staff hiring							
staff firing							
curriculum							
budget							
school goals							
physical plant							
conflict, racial							
conflict, staff/student							
conflict, staff/staff							
conflict, school/community							

## BUDGET

61. In what range is the annual per pupil expenditure at your school?  
(circle one)

- |                  |                   |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. \$800 or less | 5. \$1401-\$1600  |
| 2. \$801-\$1000  | 6. \$1601-\$1800  |
| 3. \$1001-\$1200 | 7. \$1801-\$2000  |
| 4. \$1201-\$1400 | 8. \$2001 or more |

62. In what range is the annual per pupil expenditure in your district?  
(circle one)

- |                  |                   |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. \$800 or less | 5. \$1401-\$1600  |
| 2. \$801-\$1000  | 6. \$1601-\$1800  |
| 3. \$1001-\$1200 | 7. \$1801-\$2000  |
| 4. \$1201-\$1400 | 8. \$2001 or more |

63. What are the sources of your funding? (circle all choices which apply)

1. public school system
2. private funding agencies
3. community
4. state or federal funding

64. How is your budget allocated? (circle one)

1. as a separate school within the district
2. as a separate department within the school
3. from different departments within a school
4. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

65. What is the percentage of your curriculum budget that you spend for the following areas? (please specify an approximate percent)

ethnic studies \_\_\_\_\_%

learning experiences outside school building \_\_\_\_\_%

career education \_\_\_\_\_%

affective education \_\_\_\_\_%

basic skills-(reading, writing, and computation) \_\_\_\_\_%

## PROGRAM EVALUATION

66. Who is involved in the evaluation process in your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. we have no regular program evaluation
2. we use outside evaluators
3. we use personnel within the school community

67. Which of the following methods of evaluation do you use for *program evaluation*? (circle all choices which apply)

1. pre and post tests of student performance
2. standardized achievement tests
3. school designed achievement tests
4. standardized attitude/personality measures
5. school designed attitude/personality measures
6. interviews
7. observation techniques
8. document collection (articles, memos, examples of student work, etc.)
9. none of these ( no evaluation done)

## STUDENT EVALUATION

68. Which of the following methods *best* describes what you do in evaluating students? (circle one)

1. normative (student's performance judged against that of other students)
2. criterion-referenced (student's performance judged against specific negotiated or prescribed educational objectives)
3. anecdotal (narrative assessment of student progress)
4. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

69. Who participates in student evaluation? (circle all choices which apply)

1. the student
2. peers
3. teacher(s)
4. advisor
5. director
6. parents
7. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

70. In what form(s) is student evaluation data reported? (circle all choices which apply)

1. student or parent selects own form
2. standard school system report form
3. alternative school designed report form
4. descriptive written analysis
5. checklist of criteria
6. marks
7. parent conferences
8. student conferences
9. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

## STAFF EVALUATION & IMPROVEMENT

71. What procedures do you use for professional staff evaluation? (circle all choices which apply)

1. we have no procedures
2. student feedback
3. competency-based listing of teacher effectiveness
4. staff meetings devoted to peer feedback
5. school system rating form
6. observation by dept head, principal, or district staff
7. outside evaluators
8. assessment against individually negotiated goals
9. standing committee
10. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

72. What are the stated purposes of these procedures? (circle all choices which apply)

1. we have no procedures
2. teaching improvement and growth
3. tenure decisions
4. firing
5. merit pay increase
6. promotion
7. to fulfill state requirements



## CURRICULUM

73. Which of the following *scheduled* experiences are available to students in your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. apprenticeships
2. work-study
3. independent study of regular course work
4. concentrated independent study to allow for specialization
5. cross-age tutoring
6. problem, issue oriented learning
7. open classroom environment
8. all school projects
9. learning or skill centers
10. classes in another school building
11. classes in local colleges
12. learning experiences in the community
13. guest lecturers
14. support groups
15. group projects (collaborative learning)
16. overnight field trips
17. student exchange programs
18. athletic activities

74. Which of the following curriculum areas do you *emphasize* in your school? (circle all choices which apply)

1. interdisciplinary studies
2. institutional racism
3. institutional sexism
4. basic skills (reading writing, and computation)
5. career or vocational education
6. cross-cultural studies
7. college preparatory courses
8. consumer education (food economics, home economics, etc.)
9. environmental studies
10. ethnic studies
11. human relations
12. social-political issues
13. outdoor education

75. Please fill out the following grid which characterizes your school's curriculum. (please check all the boxes in the grid which apply)

(if available, please enclose a copy of your schedule or course catalogue)

Scheduled experiences offered in this area																				
School district or state requirement																				
School requirement																				
Need curriculum materials in this area																				
Use commercial curr. materials in this area																				
Generate curriculum materials in this area																				
Teaching in this area done <i>only</i> by professional staff																				
Some teaching in this area done by volunteers																				
Some teaching in this area done by students																				
Some courses in this area ability grouped																				
Some courses in this area age grouped																				
	language arts	reading	mathematics	social sciences	natural sciences	second language instruction	art/music	vocational education	physical education	human relations	ethnic studies	environmental studies								

76. Who has the major responsibility for determining a student's course of study? (circle all choices which apply)

1. student
2. peers
3. teacher(s)
4. advisor
5. director
6. parent

77. Does the school *emphasize* a student's having an overall method for integrating the different learning experiences he/she has? (circle one)

1. yes
2. no

78. In light of your curriculum, in which of the following domains of learning do you place *major* emphasis? (circle up to three choices)

1. moral (social responsibility, judgement)
2. perception (sensory awareness)
3. cognitive (formal thinking, logic, content)
4. volition (will to action)
5. spiritual
6. aesthetic (development of individual talent)
7. affective (emotional needs and feelings)
8. psychomotor (physical development and coordination)

79. For which of the following learning styles is your curriculum designed? (circle all choices which apply)

1. we do not take these learning styles into consideration
2. dependent learning style (high direction and supervision need)
3. interdependent learning style (high affiliation and collaboration needs)
4. independent learning style (high self-direction and autonomy needs)

80. Which of the following teaching styles are used in your school? (please specify an approximate percent)

lecture	_____ %	be a passive resource	_____ %
present problems to solve	_____ %	participate in discussions	_____ %
question	_____ %	provide feedback	_____ %
facilitate	_____ %		

## PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

81. Which facilities exist at your school? (circle all choices which apply)

- |                               |                            |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. library                    | 15. large meeting room     |
| 2. gymnasium                  | 16. large open classroom   |
| 3. cafeteria                  | 17. bathrooms              |
| 4. media lab                  | 18. custodial space        |
| 5. music room                 | 19. administrative office  |
| 6. science lab                | 20. dark room              |
| 7. art room                   | 21. quiet room             |
| 8. language lab               | 22. playground             |
| 9. reading clinic             | 23. playing field          |
| 10. wood shop                 | 24. non-specific classroom |
| 11. consumer education center | 25. other (please specify) |
| 12. teacher lounge            |                            |
| 13. student lounge            |                            |
| 14. office space for teachers |                            |

82. Which of the following pieces of equipment belong to your school? (circle all choices which apply)

- |                          |                               |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. film making equipment | 13. typewriters               |
| 2. film projectors       | 14. adding machines           |
| 3. cassette recorders    | 15. computer terminal         |
| 4. video-tape            | 16. reading machines          |
| 5. overhead projector    | 17. stove                     |
| 6. screens               | 18. refrigerator              |
| 7. slide projectors      | 19. piano                     |
| 8. record players        | 20. other musical instruments |
| 9. headphones            | 21. playground equipment      |
| 10. television           | 22. athletic equipment        |
| 11. potter's wheel       | 23. other (please specify)    |
| 12. kiln                 |                               |

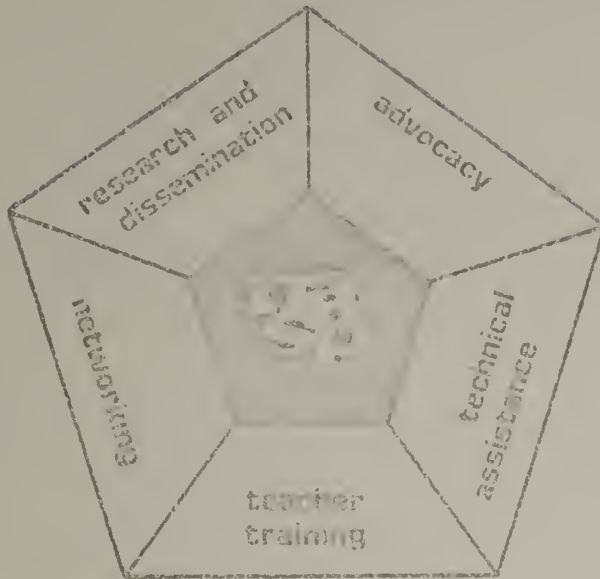
83. Which of the following describe your school situation? (circle all choices which apply)

1. the school is in a leased building with other non-school programs
2. the school is in a leased building by itself
3. the school is in a school system building with other school system facilities
4. the school is in a school system building with other programs (school-within-a-school)
5. the school is in a school building by itself
6. the building meets state regulations
7. members of the school have been permitted to decorate building



## OPTIONAL

- ✓ 84. What do you feel are your school's greatest strengths?
- ✓ 85. In what areas do you feel your school needs improvement?
- ✓ 86. What do you feel are your school's greatest needs?



thank  
you!

## DIRECTOR INTERVIEW

1. Do you enjoy working here? Why?
2. Can you tell me a little bit about how your school got started?
3. What groups of people, or agencies, outside the school are most supportive of your school?

Why?

How do you know?

Least supportive of your school?

Why?

How do you know?

4. Has the major purpose or the existence of the school ever been in danger?

Why?

What happened?

5. What have been the most successful things your school has done to build good relations within the community? Give some examples.

Least successful? Give some example.

6. Is your school seen as being controversial?

Why?

By whom?

7. How do you find out what community resources are available to your school?

How do you use these resources?

Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with this process?

8. What major social issues is the school dealing with?

To what extent? (for each issue)

Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the process? (for each issue)

9. What is the process you have for designing curriculum?  
Who decides what the learning experiences will be?
10. What do you feel have been the most successful learning experiences at your school? Give some examples.  
Why?
11. Is there a systematic process at your school for helping students organize and make sense of their various learning experiences?  
What is it?  
How successful has it been?
12. What kinds of students (different learning styles, economic backgrounds, race, cultures, etc.) tend to do well here?  
Why?  
What kinds of students tend to have difficulty?  
Why?
13. Are there groups of people in this school that don't get along with each other or disagree with each other on certain issues?  
How do you know?
14. Are there any crises which have happened as a result of people or groups of people not getting along within the school?  
What happened?
15. What have been the most successful things the school has done to help people get along with each other? Give some examples.
16. Generally, how are decisions made at this school?
17. Are there areas of decision-making in which you would like to see more people included?  
What are they? (describe each one)  
Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the part you play in the process? (for each area)
18. Are there areas of decision-making in which you would like to limit participation?



What are they? (describe each one)

Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the part you play in the process? (for each area)

19. Who are the people with the most influence in your school?
20. Do you think everyone has a clear understanding of the major rules here? Give some examples.
21. If someone breaks one of these rules, what happens?
22. I've asked you some questions about specific aspects of your program. In your opinion, what are the important aspects of your program that we haven't talked about in this interview?
23. Is there anything you would like to add to what you have already said for any of the questions?
24. How do you feel about the survey we are conducting?
25. Do you know of any other alternative schools in this area that we may not be aware of? (show interviewee master list)
26. Are there any questions you would like to ask me?

ITEM 4

Personal Interview Formats

## DIRECTOR'S INTERVIEW OUTLINE

Profile Data

1. Name:
  - a. Age:
  - b. Ethnicity:
  - c. Economic Class:
2. School:
  - a. Address:
  - b. Region:
  - c. Urban \_\_\_\_\_ Suburban \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. Stage of development: birth \_\_\_\_\_ childhood \_\_\_\_\_ youth \_\_\_\_\_  
maturity \_\_\_\_\_ old age \_\_\_\_\_

Pre-Directorship Data

1. Pre-professional career alternatives.
  - a. What were your early (college) occupational choices?
  - b. Did you train or practice in this field?
2. Professional choice.
  - a. When did you first consider becoming an educational administrator? Why?
3. Professional specialty.
  - a. When did you first consider becoming an alternative school director?
  - b. What were your early images of work as an alternative school director?
  - c. What brought you here?
  - d. What did you know of this alternative school in advance?
  - e. What were your expectations about the work you would be doing?
  - f. What claims did you make?
4. Alternative school.
  - a. What did you know in advance of the treatment of this school?

- b. What did you know in advance of the school's operational philosophy?
  - c. Did you have any knowledge of the limitations of the school's requirements for the work you would be doing?
  - d. Why did you start this school?
5. Alternative school teamwork.
- a. What were your first impressions of your professional colleagues on all levels of the alternative school?
  - b. What were your first impressions of the students?
6. Early ideology.
- a. What were your early thoughts about education?
  - b. What was your assessment of the ability of education to affect the lives of students and their problems?
  - c. What was your approach to educational change:
    - 1) Change will be best achieved through a systematic process.
    - 2) Change can only be accomplished through power.
    - 3) Change will come faster if you can show people an example of how good things can be.
    - 4) Change is best effected by challenging the system.
  - d. How would you rate your early ideas in comparison with your professional colleagues in the district on a scale from one to seven, one being very practical and seven being very idealistic?
  - e. How would you rate your early professional practices in comparison with your colleagues in the district on a scale from one to seven, one being very practical and seven being very idealistic?
7. Professional training.
- a. What are the schools you have attended?
  - b. What were the in-service trainings that you have received?
  - c. What experiences best prepared you for your current position?

### Current Data

1. Professional role.
  - a. As a director, what do you do here?
  - b. Are you clear about your role?



- c. Do you think others (regular school district and members of your own school) are clear about your role?
  - d. If you were going to hire someone for the directorship of this school, what kind of person would you hire?
  - e. How do you find out how you are doing?
  - f. What are two or three things you like about your work?
  - g. What are the two or three things you dislike about your work?
  - h. What is the main challenge of this job?
  - i. Why are you doing it?
  - j. How far are you willing to risk your position for the purpose of achieving the aims of your school?
2. Personal role.
    - a. If you were to step outside yourself for a moment, how would you describe yourself?
3. Alternative school.
    - a. What sort of place is this to do your job?
    - b. What are the school's expectation of you?
    - c. What does the school say it stands for?
    - d. Make believe this school is a person. . . Describe this person to me.
    - e. Do you think this school is distinct from other regular schools?
    - f. What is it about your alternative school that makes it worthwhile to you?
4. Regular school system.
    - a. What sort of place is the regular school system?
    - b. What are their expectations of you?
    - c. Make believe that the regular school system is a person. . . Describe this person to me.
5. Community.
    - a. What type of community is this for an alternative school?
    - b. What do they think of your school?
6. Teamwork--alternative school.
    - a. Who do you turn to for support when problems come up?

- b. Does this school support you in being the kind of professional you want to be?

## 7. Crises.

### a. Types of crises.

- 1) What are the three most difficult types of crises that you have faced?
- 2) Which parties are involved in each of those crises?
- 3) How would you rate the manageability of the crises that you have faced on a scale from one to seven (one being highly unmanageable and seven being highly manageable)?
- 4) How would you rate the intensity of the crises that you have faced on a scale from one to seven (one being very low intensity and seven being very high intensity)?

### b. Where crises occur.

- 1) On the chart. "Systems Perspective of an Alternative School" which relationships are involved in the above three most difficult types of crises.

### c. How and why crises occur.

- 1) Can you identify any pattern or phases in the development of those crises?
- 2) What were the reasons for those crises?

### d. Protocols of crisis management.

- 1) How do you manage internal crises?
- 2) How do you manage alternative school--regular school district crises?
- 3) How did you manage those preceding most difficult crises?
- 4) What school structures normally deal with conflict and crises?
- 5) If there was a serious problem between the alternative school and the school district, how much consideration do you think the school district would show you?
- 6) What outside groups do you pay most attention to?
- 7) With whom and how do you communicate during a crises?
- 8) How are decisions made during crises?
- 9) What is your level of comfort in dealing with crises?
- 10) How would you rate your professional practices in comparison with your colleagues in the district on a scale from one to seven (one being very practical and seven being very idealistic)?

- 11) During those moments of crises, can you describe how you saw yourself?
- 12) During those crises, how did you make decisions? Who helped make decisions?
- 13) In dealing with crises, did you rely upon any of the following: constitution, legislative body, judicial system, or third party mediator/advisor?
- 14) Rate the tactic in terms of the percent that you used each in dealing with those crises:
  - a) power \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) rational \_\_\_\_\_
  - c) educational \_\_\_\_\_
- 15) Rate the mode in percentages that you used in dealing with the crisis:
  - a) structural (legislative or judicial) \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) personal (loyalty or conversation) \_\_\_\_\_
- 16) Would the use of third parties (mediators, advisors, etc.) appeal to you during a crisis?
- 17) How would you deal with a group of dissident students who were creating a crisis because they were dissatisfied with your leadership and the direction of the school?
- 18) Have you noticed that crises tend to heighten your power?

e. Consequences.

- 1) What have been the advantages and disadvantages of those three most difficult crises for the alternative school?
- 2) What about for the district?

8. Ideology.

- a. What are your current views of education?
- b. Do you see alternative schools affecting the learning of students in ways that you think are important? How about in basic skills?
- c. Do you see alternative schools as having a positive effect on the students in terms of the issues of race, class and sexism?
- d. How would you rate your ideas on education in comparison with your professional colleagues in the district on a scale from one to seven (one being very practical in thinking and seven being very idealistic in thinking)?

- e. What are a few characteristics that you think distinguishes a good leader-director of an alternative school?
- f. Judging from alternative school directors that you know, what do you think of their ability to use power in dealing with those under them and above them?
- g. Do you think decisions in a crisis situation ought to be made according to your ideals or to the political and practical circumstances?

### Future Projected Data

1. Career--profession--ideology--schools.
  - a. Where do you see yourself professionally in the next several years?
  - b. What do you predict will be the future of the alternative school directorship profession?
  - c. What is your prediction of alternative schools in ten years?
  - d. Can you make some recommendation on how to improve crisis management for administrators of alternative schools?
  - e. In making long range plans for this school, what do you think would be the most important things about the school that you would have to keep in mind?

## SCHOOL TYPE

(Some Characteristic Elements)

Traditional School:

1. It is the typical, most common type of school.
2. Students are judged by traditional expectations of background and other qualities which provides the basis for preparing them for a world that is or was instead of the world that might be. For example, upper income students are tracked into academic programs while low income and minority students are tracked into vocational and low academic achievement programs.
3. School is organized for "efficiency" as one of its main priorities, e.g., to teach students the curricula in the quickest, most expansive and least costly way as though students were items on a production line.

Real Alternative School:

1. A school that is quite different from the traditional schools in the district.
2. It is preparing students for a world that might be instead of the world that has been and still exists. Students are educated for new and ideal roles and activities.
3. School is organized more for "effective education" rather "efficient education."





7.a.1. What are the three most difficult types of crises that you have faced? Prioritize the crises according to their intensity and identify at what stage they occurred and between which groups.

Types of Crises

At What Stage      Between Which Groups

Crises with the Environment

- conflict with regular sys. because alt. sch. is seen as counterculture sch
- conflict with regular sys. over autonomy of the alt. sch.
- conflict with community because of undisciplined students
- conflict with community because it is seen as counterculture sch.
- 
- 
- 

Crises within the School

- conflict over goals and values
- burnout of staff
- individualism vs. collectivism
- creating a new school
- lack of viability (e.g., uncertain financing)
- lack of stability (organization)
- lack of pride and reputation
- conflict over authority
- lack of long range vision
- lack of uniqueness
- lack of adaptability
- unable to contribute to community
- 
- 
-

NASP Staff Questionnaire on Directors

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Name of School							
----------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Questions

- 1
- 2
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On Thursday, February 14th, it was suggested that the staff's perceptions, experiences, and observations of alternative school directors be gathered together for a more thorough study of alternative school directors' leadership dimensions.

The Questions below are related to your perceptions of the administrators of alternative schools you visited. Please use the grid above to answer each question. Consider only those schools for which you feel you had the opportunity to acquire a fairly accurate picture. Where possible, simply record the letter (a, b, c,...) that answers the question for each school.

If you will return this form to Jean immediately, all of the data can be compiled and put on a grid for staff discussion at a future Thursday debriefing session.

1. The school can be considered as:
  - A. Major Urban-Inner City (e.g., New York, Los Angeles)
  - B. Middle Urban-Suburban (e.g., Seattle, Pasadena, Berkeley)
  - C. Rural
  
2. The school is located in:
  - A. East
  - B. Midwest
  - C. South
  - D. West
  
3. In terms of the life cycle frame of reference, the school was in the stage of:
  - A. Birth
  - B. Childhood
  - C. Adolescence
  - D. Maturity
  - E. Old Age
  
4. What level of administrative experience did the administrators seem to have?
  - A. High
  - B. Medium
  - C. Low
  
5. Of the administrators that you surveyed, what was the general age range?
  - A. 20-25
  - B. 25-30
  - C. 30-35
  - D. 35-40
  - E. 40-40+
  
6. How did they become administrators?
  - A. By school district appointment
  - B. By alternative school consensus
  - C. By parent-community selection
  - D. Other:

7. Why did they become administrators in alternative schools?
8. How did you see them functioning?
  - A. As a symbol
  - B. As a problem-solver or decision-maker
  - C. As an advisor
  - D. As an initiator
9. What was their leadership style most like? Rate from 1 (low) to 9 (high). List coordinates for each school.
  - A. Relationship oriented
  - B. Task oriented
10. What was their conflict management style most like?
  - A. Smoothing
  - B. Confronting
  - C. Avoiding
  - D. Forcing
11. What was their administrative decision-making style most like?
  - A. Autocrat
  - B. Benevolent autocrat
  - C. Laissez-faire
  - D. Democrat
12. Rate the following elements of leadership growth from 1 (low) to 9 (high).
  - A. Insight into self
  - B. Personal security
  - C. Diagnostic ability
  - D. Tools and skills of administration
  - E. Flexibility in role relationship
  - F. Ability to learn
13. What elements in their environment were they most sensitive to?
14. Which group do you think the alternative school administrator feels most accountable to?



- A. School Board
  - B. Students, staff
  - C. Parents
  - D. Community
  - E. Other:
15. What is the quality of an individual that satisfies the needs of the school which leads to one's emergence as a leader?
- A. Teaching excellence
  - B. Problem-solving/decision-making
  - C. Facilitating group activities
  - D. Personality (charisma)
  - E. Hard worker
  - F. Political "know how"
  - G. Other:
16. What attitudes does the director inspire in the school?
- A. Trust
  - B. Respect
  - C. Fear
  - D. Other:

## List of Persons Interviewed

Hussain Adeith, Assistant to the Director, Harlem Prep,  
Harlem, New York.

Dwight Allen, Dean, School of Education, University  
Massachusetts.

Robert Chin, Professor, Director of Social Psychology Department,  
Boston University.

Harriet Goldberg, Co-director, Joan of Arc Mini School,  
Brooklyn, New York.

Skipper Griffin, Assistant to the Director, CITY, Cambridge,  
Massachusetts.

Hannah Hess, Co-director, Joan of Arc Mini School, Brooklyn,  
New York.

Lee Oberparleiter, Director, Cinnaminsen Alternative School,  
Cinnaminsen, New Jersey.

Ray Shurtleff, Director, Cambridge Pilot School, Cambridge,  
Massachusetts.

Robert Singleton, Director, Educational Finance Project,  
Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, California.

Bob Suzuki, Assistant Dean, School of Education, University  
of Massachusetts.

ITEM 7

Selected Sections of the  
Crisis Management Handbook

CRISIS MANAGEMENT TRAINING  
HANDBOOK

Prepared by

Larry Kubota with the assistance of  
Scott Bristol and Mary Jane Cleare,  
Crisis Management Training Program Members

Edited by Sharon Roberts

National Alternative Schools Program  
School of Education  
University of Massachusetts  
Dr. Robert A. Mackin, Director

a program of:  
U.S. Office of Education  
Bureau of Education  
Personnel Development

Advisors:

Dr. Dwight Allen, Dean  
School of Education  
University of Massachusetts

Dr. Robert Chin, Director  
Social Psychology Program  
Boston University

SECTION IV: THREE ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS TRAINING PROGRAMS

Introduction:

Three Approaches to Crisis Management Training

- A. Berkeley
- B. Omnibus
- C. Pasadena



## Introduction:

### Three Approaches to Crisis Management Training

Offered in this section are three different examples of crisis management training for alternative schools. The examples are derived from real rather than theoretical situations which existed in the Berkeley School System, Omnibus Alternative School, and Pasadena Alternative School.

Each of the training attempts involved a team from NASP working with members of the different schools to develop an internal team which ultimately would deal with conflicts and crises as they occurred and would also train other members in their schools to perceive the beginnings of crises and to develop preventive measures. Each training design evolved from the unique circumstances of the particular school. For example, Pasadena Alternative School was in the process of doubling in size which required a strategy that focused on making the "transition." The Berkeley Alternative Schools, on the other hand, required a training strategy concerned with team building and the handling of intergroup conflicts.

Hopefully, these examples will provide trainers and practitioners with some additional insights into crisis management procedures. We think that it is primarily important to establish a collaborative "network" between the schools and secondarily important to develop "internal training groups" whose responsibilities would lie in the anticipation and management of crises.

Section IV, A: Berkeley

Berkeley

Berkeley's Experimental Schools Program is made up of twenty-three federally funded alternatives, many of which are very different from each other because of an attempt to create a variety of environments that offer something to everyone regardless of age or background. However, all of the alternatives have in common several basic characteristics: small size (ranging from 50 to 600), power distribution which includes parents and students, and student involvement in such strategic roles as teachers and advisors.

NOTES TO JAY MANLEY AND ROBERT SINGLETON FOR TRAINING  
A CRISIS MANAGEMENT TEAM IN BERKELEY

The following pages are some notes to Mr. Jay Manley, Training Director of Experimental Schools Project at Berkeley, California and Dr. Robert Singleton, Director of Urban Educational Reform Project at Pepperdine College. These notes were abbreviated from a series of conversations held with both gentlemen and were used to help establish the foundation for a crisis management training program for four of Berkeley's alternative schools.

Included within this section are, first, "Goals for Training the Crisis Management Team," which describes the aims of this program for a period of one year. Second, "Mediation Role of the Crisis Management Team," which gives a mediator's approach to a crisis and offers some guidelines for our own training program. Third, "Training Strategy," which illustrates the alteration of training between Robert Singleton, Experimental Schools Program (ESP) and the National Alternative Schools Program. Fifth, we have listed an "Inventory of Skills" that should be conveyed during the training sessions. Finally, there is a "Mediation Model of a Crisis" illustrated for the purpose of developing a common understanding of the dynamics of crisis and, together with the "Mediator's Role in Crisis Management," for presenting a procedure for dealing with crises. Together these notes form an abstract of the nature and direction of one approach to crisis management, which uses a network of schools and a method of mediation for the problem of intergroup crises.

### Goals for Training the Crisis Management Team

- I. To develop four internal consulting teams that can operate independently of each other, but also as a total collaborative unit. A larger team will be composed of the four smaller teams as a support network, and for the purposes of collective training.
- II. To develop teams that incorporate complementary skills which they can use as resources during a crisis.
- III. The teams should be trained to bring a crisis to a positive end--an end that will be unbiased and will enhance the entire school rather than just one faction.
- IV. The teams will be trained in the following skills: goal setting, mediation, role negotiation, confrontation, social structuring, and problem solving.

### Mediation Role of the Crisis Management Team

PHASE I: The first step is to identify "the problem(s)." There should be a recognition of who the actors are in the conflict and what their goals are. Without these clear identifications, the negotiation process becomes much more complex and difficult.

PHASE II: Once the arena has been established, the mediator should get each party to understand the major points of contention. Then, he should try to get the parties to empathize with the opposite viewpoint.

PHASE III: In this phase, the mediator should try to identify the relationship between problem and solution. While analyzing the conflict in that relationship for the differing points of view, he should include a study of commonality and the possible existence of outside enemies, and finally, he should analyze the total situation from a position of



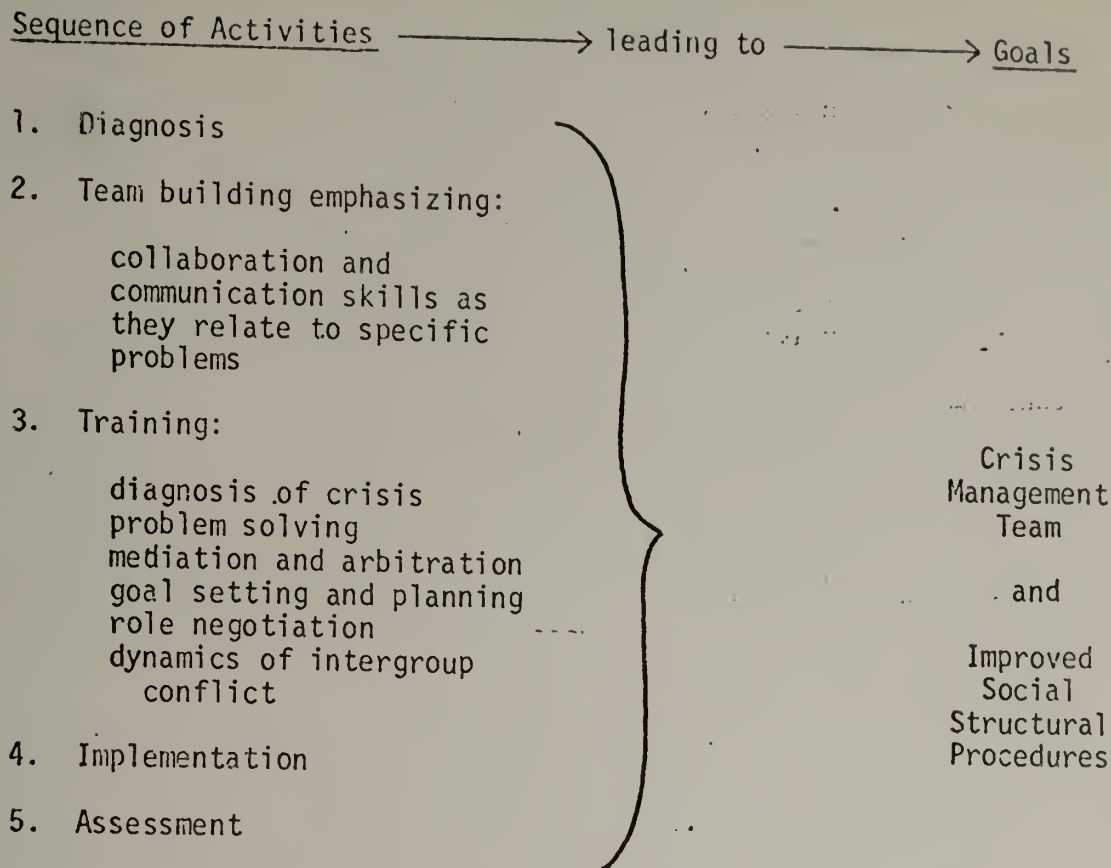
omniscience.

PHASE IV: Now, a reinterpretation of the problem(s) by the mediator could be the very key to a settlement. The mediator should reinterpret the problem(s) according to what both parties will realistically agree upon. The reinterpretation of the problem should not rely only on practicality. In the judgement of the mediator, the settlement should be just as well as reasonable or practical.

PHASE V: The terms of settlement are specified and agreed upon. A social contract is made.

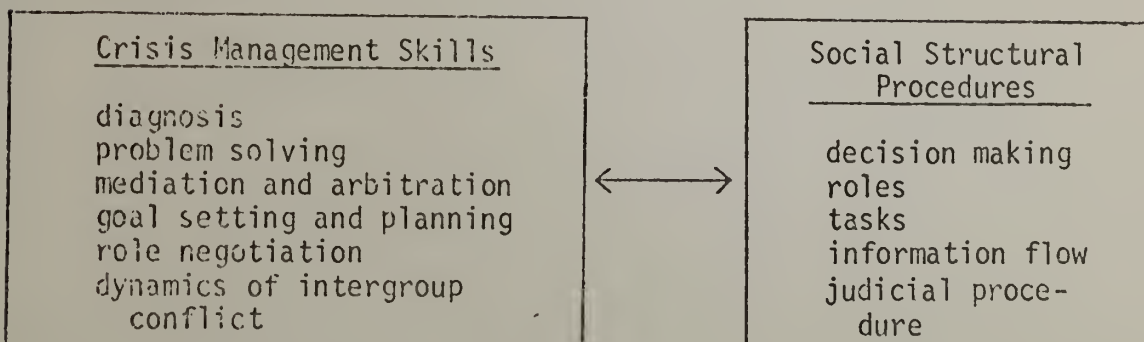
### Training Strategy

The training strategy will begin with an emphasis on solving the real problems of team members and on providing them with the skills to continue this effort on their own. As the training program develops and takes its cues from the problems disclosed by the members, a broader training sequence (described below) will be embodied in the program, thereby making it more specifically relevant and coherent.



All of the above will occur simultaneously in varying degrees, but the foregoing sequence will provide a thematic focus.

Training will focus on the interface between crisis management skills and social structural procedures of the schools (e.g., decision making).



Training Schedule For 1973 And 1974

- |          |    |   |  |
|----------|----|---|--|
| October  | 15 | - | Diagnosis: site visitations  |
|          | 16 | - | Diagnosis: site visitations<br>NASP and Singleton                      |
| November | 8  | - | Team building: emphasizing collaborative problem                       |
|          | 9  | - | Solving and communication<br>Singleton and ESP                         |
| December | 6  | - | Training with focus on identified problems                             |
|          | 7  | - | Training with focus on identified problems<br>NASP, Singleton, and ESP |
| February | 7  | - | Training   |
|          | 8  | - | Training<br>Singleton and ESP  |
| March    | 14 | - | Training   |
|          | 15 | - | Training<br>NASP, Singleton, and ESP                                   |
| April    | 25 | - | Training   |
|          | 26 | - | Assessment and Recommendation  |

Inventory Of Skills

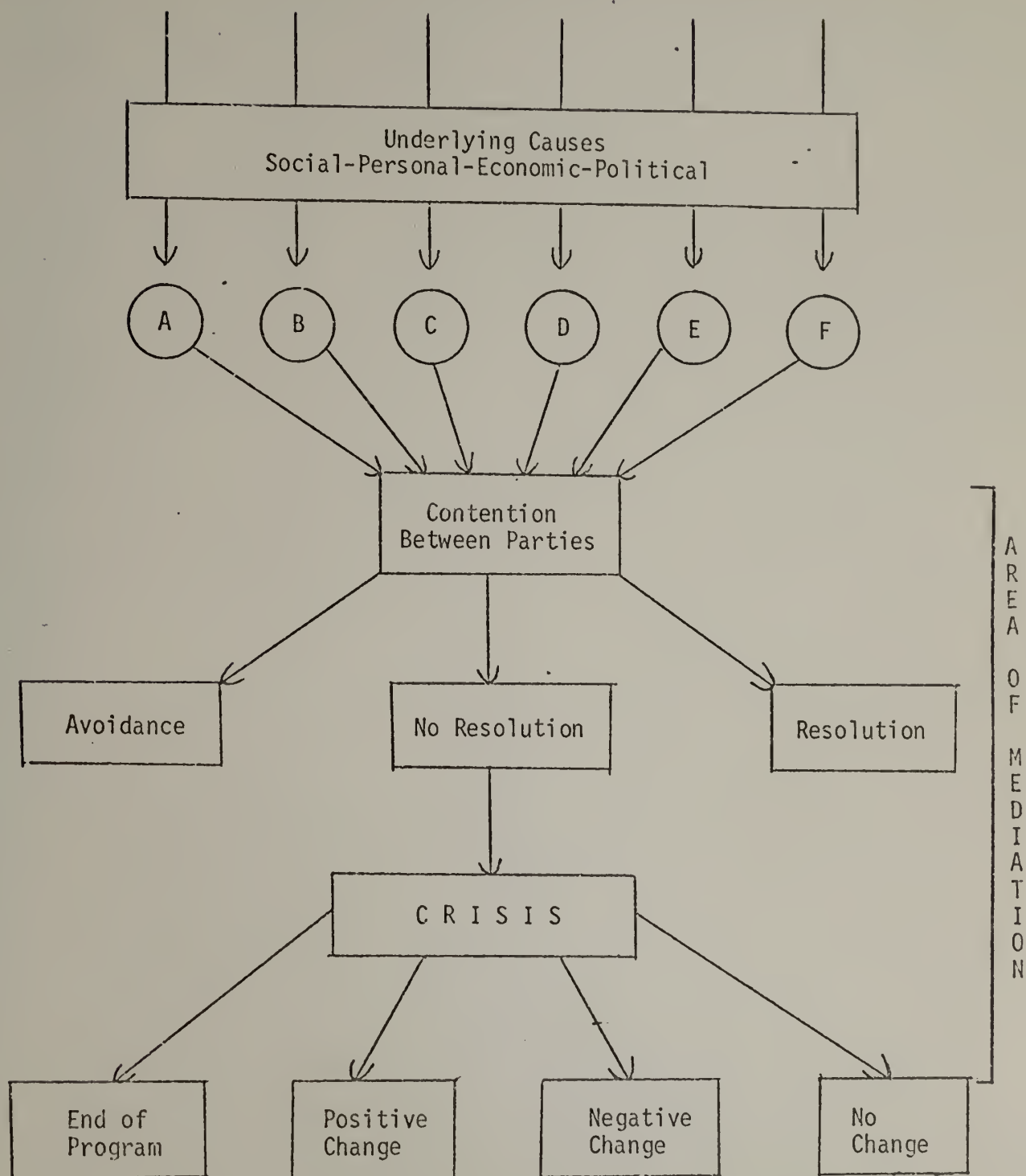
NASP

Goals and planning  
 Communication  
 Problem solving  
 Decision making  
 Role definition and negotiation  
 Team building  
 Diagnosis  
 Confrontation

Bob Singleton

Mediation  
 Arbitration  
 Negotiation  
 Bargaining  
 Initiating and keeping open contact between factions  
 Helping parties anticipate the consequences of their  
 own anticipated actions  
 Arranging pace, timing, packages, trade-offs in the  
 negotiating process  
 Goal formulation  
 Problem identification

## A MEDIATION MODEL OF A CRISIS



## SCHEDULE OUTLINE

- I. Data collection and team building--peer group.
- II. Data sharing and team building--intergroup.
- III. Negotiating future plans.

## SCHEDULE\*

Tuesday	<u>Data Collection and Homogenous Team Building</u>	
8:00-12:00	Student Peer Group	(6-8 people)
1:00- 5:00	Parent Peer Group	(6-8 people)
	(Evening meeting if more feasible)	
Wednesday		
8:00-12:00	Staff Peer Group	(6-8 people)
1:00- 5:00	Administrative Peer Group	
Thursday	<u>Intergroup</u>	
8:00-12:00	Intergroup data sharing and team building	
	<u>Future</u>	
1:00- 3:00	Negotiations	

\* The order of the peer group meetings suggested (student, parent, staff, administrators) is not crucial.

## MATERIALS NECESSARY

News Print  
Magic Markers

Hopefully, we would like to get all the data collection out to all the peer groups before the intergroup meeting Thursday. Therefore, a typist and mimeo material will also be helpful.



August 15, 1973

Jay Manley  
Central Offices of the ESP  
1720 Oregon Street  
Berkeley, California

Dear Jay:

The goal of the three-day workshop will be multifold. First, we would like to begin to create working peer group teams, -i.e., student team (6-8 people), parent team (6-8), staff team (6-8), and administrative team (6-8). Team building will coincide with the implementation of a peer group-intergroup survey feedback model. This survey feedback model is centered first around the collection of data from peer groups. The nature of the data would be based on the problem concerns of each specific peer group. During the peer group meeting, the consultant has a dual role: he acts as technical consultant on the study procedures, data analysis, etc. (Here we will be using a diagnostic interview similar to Dale Lake's.) And he also acts as a process consultant to the group aiding in whatever way we can the development of team building among members. During the initial group discussions he encourages individuals to speak their opinions and to listen to others in the group who may have differing views. He attempts to establish a norm that the group does not have to reach a common agreement on issues, but rather may use the upcoming intergroup meeting as an opportunity to test out differing interpretations and to obtain more information from people who have different perspectives.

The intergroup meeting will then be held and the data will be officially shared by all. The role of the consultant at this point is not necessarily the resolution of conflict but the promotion of intergroup recognition of areas of existing or potential conflict. Hopefully, communication procedures and possible teams for working on such problems will have been started. Also, we would like to set aside time on the final day to negotiate the nature of UMass's future involvement with the various peer groups or with the intergroup.

See you Monday.

Sincerely,

Larry Kubota  
Scott Bristol

SB/nrh

Section IV, B: Omnibus

## OMNIBUS

Omnibus Alternative School is located in Woods Hole, Massachusetts. It has been open since September, 1972, and has an enrollment of twenty-one to thirty students. The school is sponsored by RETOCOM Projects, Inc., a non-profit organization operating in Bourne, Massachusetts. However, both the Falmouth Schools Committee and the University of Massachusetts help to support participating teachers and students. The school programs are designed to meet the immediate needs of alienated students as well as the long range needs of schools and communities. Most of the students enrolled are white and from low income environments.

TENTATIVE PROPOSAL FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM  
OMNIBUS ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL

We see the in-service program for Omnibus Alternative School and for members of the Falmouth School District as being in three phases:

- Phase I: Intragroup  
(Omnibus staff)
- Phase II: Intergroup  
(Omnibus staff, high school teachers, participants in Masters program, possibly district personnel)
- Phase III: Crisis and Conflict Management Team  
(Two representatives each from the above-named areas)

Phase I

This would be a three-day training program with particular emphasis on personal styles for dealing with conflict and on the means for using those styles in a group situation. Through the use of role playing, power and conflict simulations, personal and group processing, and interpersonal feedback, the group would begin to identify the personal and group skills needed to proceed effectively.

Phase II

Of necessity, this phase would have to be negotiated with all those involved. However, I see the possibility for three or four weekend sessions (possibly more) planned with the following directives in mind:

- Exploring differences, respecting differences, working toward techniques for both integrating and utilizing these differences.
- Trust building and team building.
- Work in effective communication, problem solving, and decision making.
- Goal and value clarification.

Phase III

This would be a training program which could run concurrently with Phase II. Its purpose would be to develop a team of people from both the local area and the system who would have expertise in diagnostic and crisis intervention skills. The advantages of an on-site team are that the need for an outside consultant is greatly reduced or eliminated; a

team of people who have potential access to all relevant data is, therefore, equipped to anticipate, diagnose, and to deal with crises before they get out of hand; an on-site team which has developed a level of credibility with local people has a greater chance of being accepted and successful when it intervenes in local crises.

We are including the following as a list of possible areas of potential crises:

- School governance (structure of authority).
- Personal styles of staff members for dealing interpersonally.
- Strategies of decision making.
- Problem-solving techniques.
- Curriculum planning.
- Amount of student involvement in decision making, etc.
- Goal perceptions of staff members.
- Personal goals of staff and students vs. educational goals of the school.
- Methods of dealing as a team and individually with the high school; the district personnel; the community.

These are not necessarily potential problem areas for Omnibus; however, they are areas which have caused much concern in many other alternative schools, and we see them as district possibilities for exploration. Also, there may be other areas not mentioned here which seem more imminent or relevant from your closer perspective.



Report on Phase I Workshop  
Omnibus Alternative School  
Falmouth, Massachusetts

Submitted by Jany Cleare

Problems which David Rockwood, Director, had mentioned prior to the beginning of the workshop as being of primary concern:

1. Interns were resisting surfacing possible interpersonal conflict issues among themselves.
2. Power/authority issues were not being dealt with openly.
3. Negotiations for Learning Support Teams had been superficially treated.

Tom and I arrived with a fairly structured three-day design which included a number of exercises aimed at identifying individual behaviors when confronted with frustration and possible conflict situations; also a full-day simulation primarily made up of local alternative school data and utilizing a power/authority, conflict resolution model. The third day was to be devoted to identifying potential conflict issues within the school and to finding possible ways of deal with them. We also wanted to deal with those crises that originated in the outside community.

The first day's program went as planned in the original design. However, when Tom and I met with David and Jean Carmel that evening, we made a decision to scrap the rest of the design and to begin dealing solely with local data.

We began Wednesday morning with a power and influence sculpture. This proved very effective and from it a number of personal issues began to surface. The major issue which emerged had to do directly with David's power as Director of Omnibus. Also a number of relationship issues among interns began to surface.

In the afternoon, we began to deal directly with negotiations among interns for Learning Support Teams, setting up a structure whereby they would deal with at least two other people before coming to a final decision. There was much honesty, confrontation, and open discussions in these negotiations.

Thursday morning was spent doing an affective (relationships) sculpture. Thursday afternoon was given over to final negotiations between members of two teams who had been exploring some doubts about their ability to work successfully together. These negotiations were pursued in a total group setting.

Our overall evaluation of the workshop was that it was quite successful. Many issues were not resolved, especially those centered around

power and influence, but dialogue had been established as had a more open communications environment.

The exercises of the first day may have been unnecessary since more self-disclosure sessions than we realized had been conducted in the previous week.

One of our professed purposes for conducting the workshop was to begin to train the participants in conflict resolution skills and, hopefully, to aid them in determining for themselves appropriate ways for dealing with conflict. This was not accomplished, at least not in a formal way. There was some modeling through the sculptures and through the negotiations for Learning Support Teams. However, dealing with the present needs of the participants did not provide the time to begin working with concrete skills in conflict resolution. It is our recommendation that this become formalized in-service training within the environment of the school so that whatever skills were learned can be expanded upon, and so that conflict issues can be dealt with as they arise.

Through an oversight, no evaluation forms were taken for the participants to fill out. There are forms being mailed and they will be placed on file upon return.

## Section II, C: Pasadena

Pasadena Alternative School opened in 1972. There were 100 students ranging in age from 4-17. The alternative school is 47% white, 37% black, 12% Mexican American, and 4% Asian American. According to Board of Education guidelines, the school receives \$625 per pupil. In September of 1973, the school's enrollment doubled, and the following information concerns itself with the planning and training workshop that was organized to help in preparing for the expansion.

## RATIONALE FOR THE PASADENA PLANNING AND TRAINING WORKSHOP

As we see it, the aims of your workshop will be first, to acquaint the staff members with each other; second, to plan and to begin operating a design of an enlarged school within two weeks; and third, to train staff members to function effectively with one another within the framework of the new school design. In the following pages, we shall attempt to describe a planning and training workshop model that will fulfill the above tasks.

Our proposed model incorporates the three factors listed above. As you can see in both the outline and the schedule, it begins with a format that focuses on acquaintantship, which leads to training in skills for functioning in an organization, and which, in turn, addresses the actual planning of the school. Another way of looking at the model is to see the first part as providing personal and interpersonal data necessary for the design; the second part as establishing procedures in communication, problem solving, and decision making for the facilitation of school planning and operation; and the third and lengthiest as that which emphasizes the task of actually planning the school. From this viewpoint, then, all the elements of the workshop are seen as essential components of the planning process. Like the process of becoming a leader, training is best when it occurs concurrent with a challenging task. The power game is included to acquaint staff members with the dynamics of crisis and with the flow of authority in alternative schools. We intend to introduce a low risk game for surfacing issues relating to crisis and authority and for perceiving how your staff members will respond in

problem situations. This should provide all of us with valuable data that will be helpful in structuring the school. Furthermore, it will hopefully get the staff to see the importance under stress conditions of cooperation and responsible interpersonal behavior..

Scott Bristol and myself will be happy to fly out to initiate the workshop for at least the first week. Steve Gluckstern, who will be in Hawaii until that time, has offered to stop on his way back to help out by taking care of phone calls, running errands, and generally by doing things that will release you and us to fully participate without distractions. Scott Bristol was the Director of Bent Twig. He has experience in the area of organizational development in addition to his considerable experience with various facets of alternative schools.

Once the workshop enters the actual planning of the new school (after the first three days), we recommend that you use Ken Anderson as a consultant to coordinate these sessions. When working teams are operating and have devised preliminary plans, you might also consider having other resource people available either in gratis or as paid consultants to provide technical assistance in such areas as curriculum development, cross cultural courses, etc.

Where do we go from here? First, after you've examined this workshop proposal, please give us a call as soon as you can to let us know if it is go or no go. Second, if it is go, we would appreciate your comments, suggestions, any questions in order to modify the workshop model so that it will be more appropriate for your purposes. Third, please



send us the survey you recently took of the parents and their reactions to the school objectives. Fourth, please begin establishing the basic parameters of the new school--the items on the outline should give you some ideas of what to consider. Fifth, with a larger school and staff, we suggest that you begin thinking of key permanent staff people whom you can rely on as possible team leaders. Sixth, we, in the meantime, will be refining our workshop ideas and later we will send you some possible school designs based upon the survey that you will have sent us.

## PASADENA TRAINING AND PLANNING WORKSHOP

## Purpose:

1. To design an enlarged school for three hundred students in which approximately one hundred and sixty will be new.
2. To provide organizational developmental training that will:
  - a. assist in planning efforts
  - b. improve meeting procedures, e.g., decision making
  - c. assist in solving problems
  - d. assist in the management of crises especially ones that involve maintaining the cohesiveness and survival of the school.

## Time:

1. August 27 to September 11
2. 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. each day
3. Evenings will be used later in the workshop if necessary.

## Place:

1. Site of the new school ? or . . . .
2. Cal Tech, USC, ?

## Participants:

8 Pasadena teachers  
 4 UMass interns  
 5 Part-time staff  
 2 Parents  
 4 Students  
23 Total

## Planning Process:

1. Establish basic parameters (Greta)
  - a. money and financing
  - b. academic credits
  - c. rules for staff and students
  - d. space utilization
  - e. testing
  - f. state, district, and Greta's requirements
  - g. organizational structure
  - h. organizational process
  - i. scheduling or time requirements - student and staff

2. Statement of the core mission - get a simple statement of the school's goal.
3. Fall semester demands
  - a. number of courses
  - b. excursions
  - c. other activities
  - d. resources
4. Analysis of basic parameters and Fall Semester demands resulting in the design foci of the new school. This analysis will identify the focal points for action (or areas to organize around), e.g., scheduling, financing, organizational development (student, staff, community and district relations), integrated day, etc.
5. Set objectives - short and long range.
6. Formulate strategies and plans for action.
7. Organization of skills, resources, and structuring the school.
8. Each unit negotiates an evaluation method with Greta for maintaining its effectiveness.

## August

- 27 I. Acquaintantship -interpersonal data sharing. Purpose of workshop explained and agreement reached.
- 28 II. Power game -provides interpersonal data for the design of the new school.
- 29 III. Communication and consultation skills for meetings.
- 30 IV. Begin the planning process. 1) establish the basic parameters (givens),

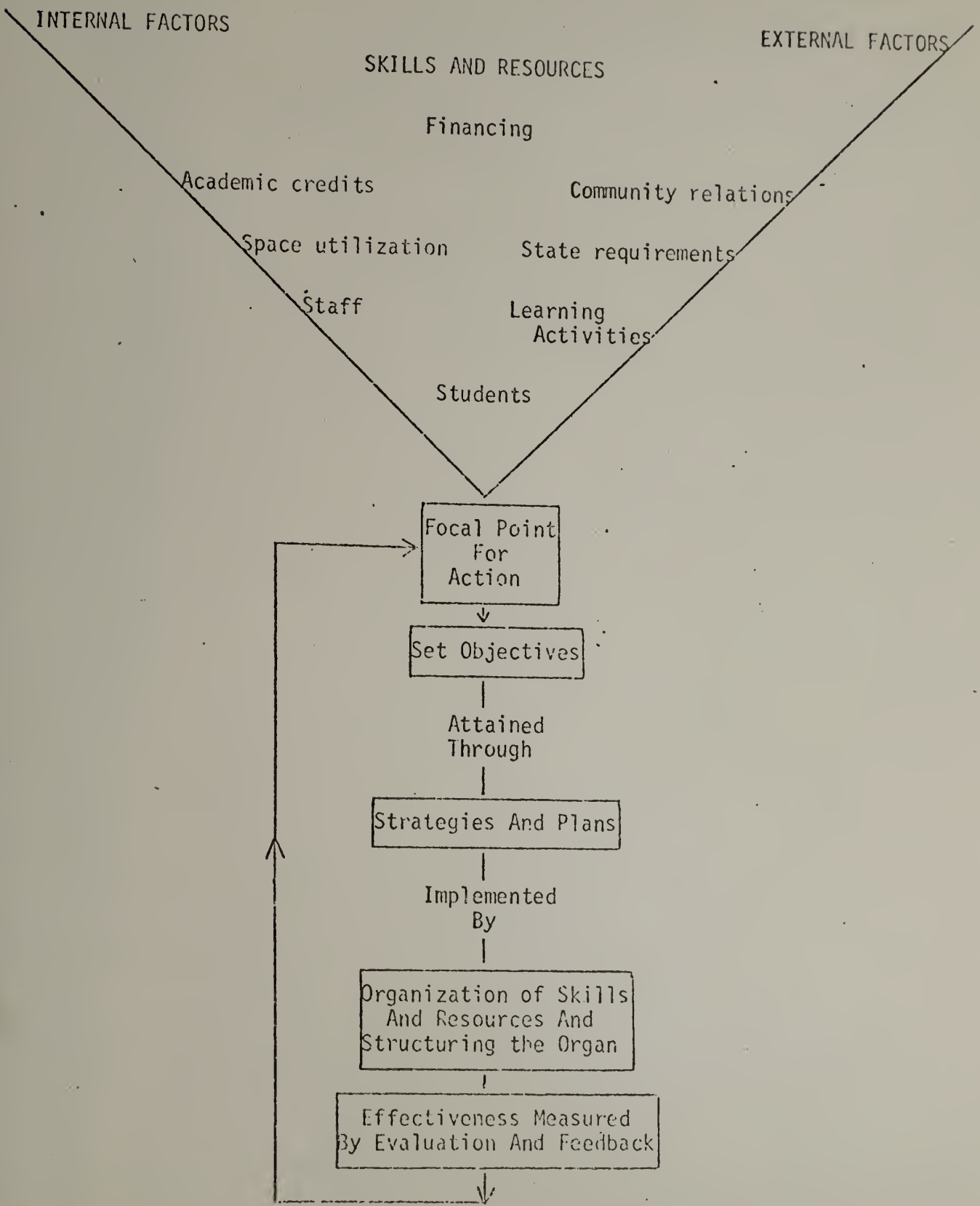
## September

- 1 FREE
- 2 FREE
- 3 2) state and agree upon the core mission of the school, 3) identify areas of demand for the Fall semester, 4) analysis of basic parameters and Fall semester demands resulting in the design foci of the new school, 5) set objectives for each focus within separate groups, 6) formulate strategies and plans for action, 7) organization of skills, resources and structuring
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8 FREE
- 9 FREE
- 10 the school, 8) each unit negotiates an evaluation method to maintain effectiveness.
- 11

## NOTE:

The above schedule is designed to provide a compressed session in interpersonal relations that elicits diagnostic data which can be used to design the new school. Training in communications, problem solving, crisis management, meeting coordination, etc. will be offered concurrent with the planning of the new school. The emphasis for this workshop will be the task of planning and moving towards implementation; everything else will resolve around and contribute to this central concern.

# PLANNING PROCESS DIAGRAM





## SECTION V: CLINIC REPORT

National Alternative Schools Program  
School of Education  
University of Massachusetts  
Amherst, Massachusetts

ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS CLINIC  
on  
PERSPECTIVES AND PROCEDURES  
for  
CRISIS MANAGEMENT

POST-CLINIC REPORT  
January 17-20, 1974

Prepared by  
Larry M. Kubota

with the assistance of  
Scott Bristol, Kerry Homstead, Sharon Roberts, Tom Sharkey, and Nancy Howes

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## INTRODUCTION

An educational response to the turmoil and crises of the 1960's was the development of alternative schools. They became a vital attempt to meet the fluctuating needs of our society through the creation of new modes of teaching, learning, and living. Though alternative schools were founded basically to alleviate those problems evident in the 1960's, they now have their own crises to face, their own growth and metamorphoses to nurture.

Crises are inevitable. Often they reflect the inability of conventional models, both theoretical and practical, to deal with a given situation. This, then, initiates the need for social retooling. Not only are crises inevitable, but they have become frequent occurrences shifting focus from one area to another with only momentary lulls in between. In part, this can be explained by viewing society as a social system that is becoming ever more complex and interdependent in a milieu of rapid social, technological, and structural change--a process that is essentially sporadic and unbalanced, and out of which crises and conflict are bound to emerge.

Directors of alternative schools are in a unique position. They must keep one eye on the alternative school, the other on the regular system, and then modulate the disparity between the two. A crisis in this setting may initiate an opportunity for positive change, but it may also mean imminent danger. With effective management and some luck, the crisis can become a turning point eventuating in educational advances for the alternative school itself and for the school district at large. On the other hand, a crisis may encourage negative changes and ultimately disaster if, for instance, it



results in the closing of an alternative school. With these concerns in mind, the Clinic focused on the roles and practices of administrators as they maneuvered their schools through the turbulence of educational change.

The Clinic was designed to achieve three aims: first, to provide an environment in which administrators of alternative schools could mutually examine their crises and the measures they have devised in response to them; second, to provide additional perspectives and strategies for the management of crises; and third; to provide training in selected skills for managing crises. This document represents a post-clinic report summarizing the information and conclusions that emerged from three days of work and discussion.

The Clinic, entitled "Alternative Schools Clinic on Perspectives and Procedures for Internal Crisis Management," was held January 17-20, 1974, in North Andover, Massachusetts. There were 37 participants representing 12 states: Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Minnesota, Arizona, New York, Ohio, Connecticut, Washington, New Jersey, Indiana, and Michigan. Ten of the group were staff members of the National Alternative Schools Program for this project, while the rest of the participants came from 25 alternative schools and one regional alternative school coordinating agency.

Included within this report are a synopsis of selected events that took place; (e.g., lectures, clinic sessions and skill sessions), evaluations, a conclusion, and a profile list of the participants and the skills they are willing to share. Not included within this report are presentations by Charlotte Ryan and Wayne Jennings and notes from many of the skill sessions. To those who are interested in those activities and to those who made presentations, we apologize for not having taped the events to provide suitable

notes for publication.

We hope this report will provide those who attended the Clinic with further information on alternative school crises and that it will assist in the management of crises. Finally, we hope that the Clinic and this report will encourage collaborative ventures and closer association among all of us.

## ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS CLINIC FOR INTERNAL CRISIS MANAGEMENT SCHEDULE

Thursday--January, 17

- 4:00- 5:00 Registration
- 5:00- 6:00 Social hour with refreshments
- 6:00- 7:00 Dinner
- 7:00- 7:30 Introduction to the aims of the Clinic and the schedule
- 7:30- 8:30 "Living questionnaire" to identify major concerns
- 8:30-10:00 Division of participants into three Clinic groups

Friday--January, 18

- 8:00- 9:00 Breakfast
- 9:00-10:00 Summary of Thursday evening and brief lecture on the "life cycle of alternative schools and their crises"
- 10:00-11:30 Clinic Session I: Identified participants' crises and located those crises in the life cycle of alternative schools
- 11:30-12:30 Report-out
- 12:30- 1:30 Lunch
- 1:30- 2:30 Charlotte Ryan spoke on her experiences with educational change as related to community issues.
- 2:30- 5:00 Clinic Session II: Continuation of identifying the participants' crises
- 6:00- 7:00 Dinner
- 7:00-10:00 Skill Training Session I: Intergroup confrontation, role negotiation, force field analysis, collaborative problem-solving and leadership styles

Saturday--January, 19

- 8:00- 9:00 Breakfast
- 9:00-10:30 Skill Training Session II: Continuation of Skill Training Session I
- 10:30-12:30 Dwight Allen spoke on types of crises and strategies for managing them
- 12:30- 1:30 Lunch
- 1:30- 2:00 Clinic community meeting
- 2:00- 4:00 Free time
- 4:00- 6:00 Wayne Jennings spoke on career development and alternative school crises
- 6:00- 7:00 Dinner
- 7:00-10:00 Skill Training Session III (optional): team building, transference of Clinic experience to alternative schools, problem-solving/Black issues

Sunday--January, 20

- 8:00- 9:00 Breakfast
- 9:00- 9:20 Recap and overview by Bob Chin
- 9:20-10:00 Brainstorm participants' problems
- 10:00-10:30 NASP follow-up: Letter of attendance, materials and written evaluation
- 10:30-11:30 Final session included a Quaker type of meeting where one commented on any aspect of the Clinic without having to defend it, and a quick survey of reactions
- 11:30-12:30 Lunch

## SKILL SESSIONS

Saturday Night Skill Sessions

- I. Team building: Mark Bringewatt and Larry Kubota
- II. Force field analysis: Jerry Porter
- III. Problem-solving/Black issues: Len Smith
- IV. Back home planning: Bob Chin
- V. Conflict management modes: Len Smith

Inventory of Skill Sessions Offered Throughout the Clinic

1. Force field analysis
2. Conflict management modes
3. Performance appraisals
4. Team building
5. Basic diagnostic instruments
6. Consulting styles
7. Improving field educational experiences
8. Communication skills
9. Decision skills
10. Problem-solving/Black issues
11. Human relations
12. Life planning
13. Back home planning



## ADMINISTRATORS' MOTIVES FOR ATTENDING THE CLINIC

At the very beginning of the Clinic we asked the participants to fill out a sheet giving answers to such questions as: (1) name, (2) school, (3) personal goal, (4) why you came to the Clinic, and (5) skills that you possess. Below are the four areas of learning that were synthesized from Question 4 of the participants' data sheets. The order of each item does not necessarily signify its level of priority for either the participants or staff members.

Following are rationals for attendance:

- I. For information exchange. To learn from an interchange of problems and ideas on how various schools deal with their crises.
- II. To learn skills and techniques of crisis management.
- III. To learn how to deal with interrelationship tensions between alternative schools and the regular school system.
- IV. To learn how to develop an adaptive-cohesive school when the different values of its members tend to create disorganization and sometimes chaos.

The above information was helpful to us in indicating the types of events that the participants would find most useful. As a result, the Clinic was structured into clinic groups for information exchange and problem solving; skill sessions for the purposes of training techniques and approaches of crisis management; and lectures for conveying cognitive maps and theories.

## LECTURES

Crisis Management Strategies for Directors

(Selected Notes from a Speech by Dean Dwight Allen)

1. One of my overriding concerns is what makes a crisis a crisis? How do you recognize it, and how do you deal with it? The reason that this is more important than most people realize is that sometimes the way in which you respond to a problem can make it a crisis. In other words, if someone thinks a problem is a crisis, it can become one; but until someone thought it was a crisis, it wasn't.

2. To elaborate, if one wants to think about crisis management, one ought to start thinking about how an issue becomes internalized and dealt with as a crisis and the question of the legitimacy of a crisis. For example, there may or may not be a crisis about how you admit students to a school. A school can have a terrible, fallacious and prejudicial admissions policy; but if no one ever gets around to focusing on it, it is not a crisis. However, if someone suddenly raises the flag and insists that preferential treatment is being given to some people concerning their admission to an alternative school or to a university or whatever, and if other people climb aboard and join in that issue, it becomes a crisis. This illustrates how difficult it is to anticipate a crisis, because it is not the lousy admissions procedure that leads you to anticipate the crisis but the combination of genuine concerns, certain attitudes, and a desire for change that exists in people who are together enough to create the crisis.

3. I was told in the Fall of 1971 that there was a group of militant black students and faculty who were going to create a crisis in the School of Education. At that time it had not been decided what the crisis was going to be other than there would be a crisis. Since I had been told so many other times with other matters that there would be a crisis, I did not pay any attention to it. As it turned out, this was a mistake. - But, in terms of crisis management, the details of the crisis are not as important as the fact that there was a group of people who were in search of a crisis. Now this is one of the ways in which crises are begun.

4. If you have an alternative school and there are people who are dissatisfied with the school and with what you are doing, you then have a group of people who are built in to precipitate a crisis. And what this really becomes is a chess game where you have to create a kind of matrix so that when someone moves, it may be check but not checkmate. You should keep enough options open so you have enough responses available in order to deal with the crisis.

5. The basic philosophy that I have had at the School of Education for dealing with problems and challenges is to have really good people. Because rather than spending time developing contingency plans for all the things that might happen, it's much stronger to have competency in the resources that you have available so that at the time you get into a real situation, you can develop within that context the most powerful way to respond. By not using a lot of your resources in developing contingency responses, you will have more resources that you can throw into the problem when it becomes a crisis.

6. One of the problems of crisis management is to sort out the issues. In a crisis, it is sometimes the case that other groups will climb aboard on an issue even though they are interested in another issue. These other groups will manipulate the crisis, sometimes consciously and sometimes not even knowing themselves what they are doing, for their own purposes rather than helping to resolve the original issue.

7. One of the strategies in a crisis is that of calling a meeting. If you want to find out how much power you have, call a meeting at the same time that the other side is calling a meeting and see who shows up.

8. In our crises at the School of Education, the real thing that resolved it was summer vacation. America is probably the only country in the world where revolutionaries go on vacations for the summer like anyone else.

9. One of the issues that we had to deal with was the gap between our rhetoric and reality. Although our rhetoric was a "super democratic" rhetoric, the reality was that the School members tended to make me a "first among equals." In other words, they listened to me more than anyone else.

10. An important crisis to be aware of is the crisis of externally imposed authority. There is a tendency among many alternative schools to do in or confront the standard way of doing business. Sometimes involved is all of the unwisdom of not knowing what it is that you want to do in. This is one of the real problems of alternative schools. In the process of trying to do in everything, one of the biggest crises here is a crisis of our own mentality. It is a mental crisis in terms of people's self-image and their sense of their own power. The way you deal with the crisis of external

authority is not necessarily straight forward. It is not my intention to fool anyone or to get away with anything or to skirt anything, but rather to find a way of redefining the legalism to accommodate the substance of the program instead of being defeated by it. One of the things schools have been terribly unimaginative about is the way in which they allow themselves to be defeated by legalism that they have not even examined.

11. One of the things that precipitates and avoids crises is nomenclature. We sometimes confuse the compromise of nomenclature with the compromise of substance. I have seen alternative schools precipitate a crisis and bring their identity into jeopardy because they insisted upon calling something a certain name that was offensive to a particular community. Everyone has to decide for themselves where the boundary of nomenclature ends and that of principle begins. But, I think it is rather foolish to jeopardize legitimate educational ventures in the defense of nomenclature. Sometimes it is even worse in the sense that we become so fooled by our own nomenclature that we even believe it.

12. Schools that do not define their own legitimate limit will create the potentials for crises that are very difficult to deal with. For example, giving the impression of total freedom when, in fact, there are quite distinct boundaries to behavior in a school or community.

13. Another crisis is that which has to do with the misunderstood notion of consistency. "Consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds, and inconsistency will drive you up the wall, too." For example, you can make a statement and the students will test that statement and the boundaries, and they will find a hole, and then they will come back and use your own rule on



you. We have become so legalistically oriented that the rules become strict legalisms which "do in" the merit of the case instead of being conceptual guides which are interpreted sensibly. I would personally feel more comfortable if people tried to get a sense of things rather than honor the legalism.

14. One of the biggest issues in crisis management is the extent to which a leader is willing to take personal responsibility. Most administrators would like to find a precedent to refer to as a way of avoiding responsibility rather than accepting responsibility for making a judgement on its merit. Many crises can be avoided by accepting the responsibility to make a judgement rather than by trying to find a precedent to retreat behind. This does not mean that sometimes precedents are not very handy, because they are, and they are part of a total strategy. But, precedent setting and precedent honoring should not become the only strategy of leadership.

15. One of the worst crises and one of the most legitimate crises that people can accuse the alternative school movement of, is that the alternative school movement is not really in favor of alternatives. If there is anything that I can do personally to get this audience committed to alternative schools instead of just "your alternative," I would like to go on record as thinking that that would be a good thing to do. And, furthermore, I think that a true alternative position might be a handy position to take when a crisis occurs. An alternative school is on pretty dangerous ground when it is on record as favoring alternatives and on record, at the same time, as opposing more conservative schools. So I would ask you to think through the consequences of positions that you will be taking.

One of the hallmarks of this society is its commitment to pluralism, and we have defined certain broad limits within which it is legitimate to be different. I think that those limits ought to be not just a theoretical commitment but a real commitment. Anytime we start to do in someone else's diversity, we call into question our own diversity.

16. In dealing with a group who is in search of a crisis, the strategies are as varied as the situations. One way to get out of a potential crisis is to convince the members of the group that they are not going to win. If they can be convinced of their own impotence, regardless of the reality of the situation, then the problem is solved. Obviously, one of the ways to handle crises is to have the image of power. And, in fact, the image of power is more important than power itself. When people think you have power, you have more power than if you really had power.

17. Another way is to find out why the group is in search of a crisis and try to find a genuine accommodation. I am cynical enough to think that this approach usually won't work because the real issue is not usually what it is stated to be--it is often an excuse.

18. The following are some hypotheticals of how to deal with crises. The philosophy of alternatives itself provides some strengths because it means that one can accommodate a lot more variability than most programs. With that variability, it becomes difficult to develop a common thread of dissatisfaction around which one can organize.

Another way is to find means of using crises as opportunities for improvement and to go beyond what is simply a negotiated settlement. The

presumption is that you should try to negotiate a settlement that causes as little change as possible. This is not always necessarily the best settlement. By offering more than what people expect to gain, they won't know how to respond--this is a very powerful political maneuver..

Another way of accommodating is to have unexpected responses. By the time people get organized to deal with you in one way, change your approach so that you are no longer in that position.

Another way is to admit all of your weaknesses in advance. My strategy in dealing with those above me is to make sure they know everything I know, because then my own liabilities are minimized. At the present, the more conventional strategy of leadership is to protect your flanks.

One other kind of strategy is government by commission. That is, whenever any kind of crisis occurs, appoint a commission to deal with it. This is a non-action that appears as an action. If one wants to insure that nothing will happen, make sure that the commission is as representative as possible and they will cancel each other out. In this way, one can buy some time. This is not a strategy that I ascribe to.

19. The thing that makes crisis management complicated is the double edge quality of almost any leadership strategy. The strategy of the leader maintaining the initiative can be an excuse for the leader to not involve anyone else in important decisions or for the leader to become dictatorial or autocratic in a negative way. Yet we have also covered the importance of the leader in assuming more personal responsibility.

Selected Summary Notes

(by Dr. Robert Chin)

1. What we have tried to provide is an organizational framework for the Clinic in dealing with the issues of crises and conflicts in alternative schools. This was accomplished through a situational frame in which crises occur; that is, by taking stages of development I through V and examining the issues within that context.

2. In looking at the director of an alternative school, we note that he or she is parallel but separate in position to the regular school system principal. The director is connected to the Superintendent's Office as a special program which sets it apart from the regular system. The conflicts and crises that the director faces begin at a personal level. For example, the crises may occur within the following relationships: director to self and career line (role to personality); director to other directors (role to role); and director to family (role to familial). All of these are endemic to any professional career-minded person.

3. Some of the main issues which surfaced during the Clinic were (1) how alternative schools could help each other--networking; (2) concern about the university's relationship to alternative schools--assistance or "rip-off"; and (3) concern about the alternative schools' relationship to the regular system.

4. The alternative school's relationship to the regular system seems to be a particularly critical issue. What is involved is the credibility of a subsystem to the regular system. Put another way, how does the alternative



school get the School Board and regular system to make a permanent commitment? My advice is not to examine this issue as a direct relationship between the director and the School Board, but instead, it should be viewed as a relationship between alternative school subsystem and school board subsystem. The relationship between the School Board and the School Superintendent as it relates to educational change will describe more about the future of the alternative school program than your own personal relationship to either of these parties. The School Board commitment is usually not to the alternative school but to its own subsystem. Systems analysis would suggest that we need to examine more carefully the intersystem properties of the regular relationship between schools and alternative schools.

5. The crisis issues seemed to fall into a pattern that could be identified according to an alternative school's stage of development. At Stage One, Creation, the regular school system's response is: "Would you please go away? We'll give you those FO's (far outs) and dropouts and crazy teachers. Here's some federal money; please go." At Stage Two, Childhood, the Superintendent begins to give speeches: "We are innovative; we're in touch with the times; we have alternative programs," etc. At Stage Three, Youth, some students, however, are really making it, and some people in the regular system are starting to say, "It's a great way for schools to be!" The response of the regular school people is, "I think they're criticizing us; I think they're really after us." At this third stage, there is a problem with success. The criteria of success becomes more important. Some will claim that it's a "ding dong" school and that it keeps the kids off the street. Alternative schools throw so much magic dust on themselves at Stages One and Two that when they really start talking about success, then what



criteria of success are they to use, and who are they going to allow to do the evaluation?

6. The following are some properties of a system that has relevance for alternative schools: A system is an interdependent series of units whereby the interchange of energy across some boundary is less than within that boundary. At Stage One, the boundary is tightened up. The level of influence across the boundary changes according to the school's stage of development. The boundary question of how many windows are on the boundary may be a function of the permeability desired and the stage of development. Any healthy organization spends energy on systems boundary maintenance as part of its own survival.

7. There were three themes to the Clinic. First, we provided concepts--frames of reference, frames of analysis--in order to give some semblance of order. This was done so that the members would not feel as though he or she were caught in a unique morasse, but that there are some systems properties and some dynamics that the problem is a part of. Second, we provided skills in order to give the members some tools and techniques that could be used to help them with their crises. Third, we provided a setting to share administrative practices and techniques; administrators seem to learn best through these procedures.

## REPORTS FROM CLINIC GROUPS AND SKILL SESSIONS

Major Concerns of Administrators  
From an Organizational Systems Perspective

During the first evening of the Clinic, we tried to isolate from the participants their major concerns and most pressing issues. In order to do this, they were divided into three clinic groups, and each group had two facilitators. The group task was approached through informal brainstorming. The Outline of Systems Perspective (Page 8) is a list of the concerns refined by those groups and categorized according to Joe A. Litterer's conception of an organizational system.<sup>1</sup> The following is a description and interpretation of the categories that is aimed at discerning their meaning specifically as it relates to alternative schools.

As the outline illustrates, the responses fall quantitatively into the following order: Institutional Subsystem, 8; Maintenance Subsystem, 17; Search Subsystem, 7; Emergent Subsystem, 6; and Regulatory Subsystem, 6; an explanation of these terms is also presented. From the number of responses, two areas seem to obtrude as having the most interest: Institutional Subsystem and Maintenance Subsystem. So far, this only tells us the areas of concern, but it does not yet disclose to us the nature of the concerns.

In examining the content of the listings under Institutional Subsystem,

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<sup>1</sup> Joseph A Litterer, The Analysis of Organizations, (New York, Wiley & Sons, 1973), pp. 23-37.

we find several themes expressed. First, how is it possible to gain credibility and also reduce the innovative threat of that credibility to others, thereby insuring greater commitment by the regular system? Second, how does one cope with the feeling of fear that results in alternative schools because of their sense of vulnerability? Third, what effect will the alternative school's changes have on standard schools?

There is a dilemma within the concerns raised about the Institutional Subsystem relationship: How does an alternative school, whose aim is to effect a change in the school district, become efficient as an agent of change, avoid being perceived as a threat, and still have its own safety guaranteed? Perhaps this dilemma can best be seen as a trade-off between taking a safe posture and being guaranteed institutional commitment, or taking more adventurous risks and hazarding the loss of that guarantee. The directors seemed to lean more to the side of safety. This, of course, could be due to a number of reasons which are beyond the scope of the report to analyze--reasons such as concern over career advancement, personality type, highly unsupportive districts, stage of development, staff and student characteristics, etc. These are all variables that may effect the director's strategy.

If one looks at this same issue from another perspective, that of the urban-inner city alternative school, the dilemma may appear to be a luxury of sorts. One individual felt that the essential duty of keeping the urban school alive did not afford one the luxury of considering the question, "To what extent can the school be made an instrument of education change?"

Maintenance is the category with the second highest response. The

principle concern here seems to be a desire for more information on "what's working in alternative schools." Also, there is a desire for improving leadership skills, especially in dealing with hidden agendas, goal setting, and the issues of pluralism and achievement and evaluation.

The evidence, then, expresses an interest in making the school operation more effective so that better learning, working, and community building can take place. Apparently many of these directors have had limited administrative experience prior to their directorship appointment. Their circumstances are even more difficult if they also have had limited entrepreneurial experience, and this is probably the case. Even if they had had such backgrounds, however, the effort needed for innovation, entrepreneurship, and educational change in the public sector is continually met by difficulties and dangers; witness the countless list of failures in both education and business.

Under Search Subsystem, the concerns center around networking-information and resource sharing, and questions about the characteristics of schools (e.g., size, types of students, types of staff, limits) that will help define the school and make it more effective. The focus here is on the search beyond one's own school for resources that will optimize the functioning of the alternative school operation. It suggests a desire for collaboration with other alternative schools on both a national and regional basis.

In the area of Emergent Subsystem, the two main themes seem to be race relations and interpersonal relations, especially in dealing with the issues of trust and isolated individuals and groups. Apparently race relations was the ultimate concern of urban alternative schools in contrast with

interpersonal relations in the suburban schools. In either case, many of the same human relation skills such as communication, intergroup confrontation, coping with stereotyping, etc., are required.

Finally, in the Regulatory Subsystem, the main interests are with authority-accountability and structure-changeability. The issues are: how much authority should the director have; how should it be exercised, and what responsibility do the members of the school have to the directives of authority; how can greater responsibility be developed? The correlaries of these issues are those involved in structure and change. Structure, which includes rules, regulations, authority, and decisions, as well as myriad other factors, is often feared to be an obstacle for the process of change.

In conclusion, the two predominate areas of concern are Institutional Subsystem and Maintenance Subsystem. Within these areas, the central themes are: (1) How to engage in a major change effort without losing the schools, and (2) How to improve the directors' personal leadership skills in order to help the school operate more effectively. Other lesser concerns are almost evenly distributed into three areas: Emergent Subsystem, Search Subsystem, and Regulatory Subsystem. The themes that loom here are the desire for more collaboration with other alternative schools, the need for human relations skills, and the concern for the problems of authority, responsibility, structure and change.

These areas which have been distinguished through an organizational systems perspective and the themes that have been derived from them helped us to delineate the content focus for action for a program of crisis management training. Through this data and other data collected, we were able to arrange a social-work contract with the participants.



## Outline of Systems Perspective

Following are major concerns expressed by alternative school directors and classified according to the various subsystems of the alternative school:

### I. Institutional Subsystem.

A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities which are performed to deal with the issues of the alternative school's relationship to the regular school system, the state, the neighborhood or community, colleges, etc. This part of the school must keep the internal state sufficiently congruent with outside people's expectations so as to be acceptable to them.

### B. Concerns:

1. The alternative School making a dent in education.
2. The role of the change agent as a pioneer to the regular school system.
3. The change effects of alternative schools upon more distant schools.
4. The lack of commitment by the system to alternative schools as reflected by financial support, attendance regulations, staff certification rules.
5. The alternative school (individualization) as a threat to others.
6. The alternative school's successes as a threat to other school people.
7. The lack of alternative school credibility thereby leading to vulnerability.
8. The alternative school as a pressure valve for release of those elements that threaten the smooth operation of the regular school system.
9. How to achieve Board commitment.
10. The idea of students talking to the system.
11. The idea of teachers participating in committees within the regular school.
12. The involvement of other authority points.
13. The local teachers' union.
14. The disparity between paper credentials and effectiveness with kids.
15. Arriving at a definition of "alternative school."
16. The issue of the alternative school as separate or as a part of the regular school.

17. The liability of the alternative school due to the students' activities outside the school building.
18. Being used by NASP--that possibility.

## II. Maintenance Subsystem.

A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed in order to insure satisfaction for all of the members of the school (e.g., maintaining morale of staff and students, helping staff to develop curriculum skills, etc.)

### B. Concerns:

1. The development of processes, techniques, and tools that can be used by the leader in an alternative school. (Total--four responses.)
2. Dealing with hidden agendas.
3. Protecting and enhancing the survival of different cultures in a predominantly white culture.
4. The need for intensive counseling for students.
5. The paradoxical concern of teachers for more structure while fighting structure.
6. More information on what is working in alternative education. (Total--four responses.)
7. More theory.
8. An understanding of the goals and of the process of measuring success or failure in the achievement of them. (Total--two responses.)
9. More opportunities for directors to deal with their feelings in times of crises.
10. Opportunities for directors to share personal and organizational expectations.

## III. Search Subsystem.

A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed to search the environment for the teachers, students, and administrators who have the skills, talents, or orientation to make the school succeed.

### B. Concerns:

1. The setting up or joining of networks for news about and resources for alternative schools.
2. The development of lists for sharing information on acquiring interns and teachers, developing in-service programs, effectively involving parents, and procuring outside consultants.
3. The question of why teachers seek alternative schools.
4. The question of characteristics of clients of alternative schools.

5. The question of limiting the number of students.
6. The question of how great a student diversity is desirable.
7. The question of size:
  - a. When to start another school.
  - b. Training people to start another school.

#### IV. Emergent Subsystem.

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed to deal with issues that have arisen within the school as a consequence of students, teachers, and directors interacting with each other.
- B. Concerns:
  1. Race relations among students.
  2. Interpersonal relations among all of the members of the school; trust.
  3. Student relations issues:
    - a. Communication with each other.
    - b. Isolation of some students.
  4. Inter-staff relations.
  5. The presence and influence of cliques conflicting with the desire for participative democracy in decision making.
  6. The conflicts between leaders and team members.

#### V. Regulatory Subsystem.

- A. Definition: That part of the school consisting of activities that are performed in order to regulate the daily life of the school (e.g., rule making activities.)
- B. Concerns:
  1. Decision-making processes.
  2. Structure and changeability.
  3. The issue of accountability.
  4. The issue of authority.
  5. The relief of the Director from burdensome responsibilities.
  6. How to get rid of staff.

## Crises And The Stages Of Alternative School Development

One of the models through which crises and alternative schools may be understood consists of a conceptual scheme of stages of development. This scheme attempts to identify the nature of the problems and crises that alternative schools face by locating those problems within a developmental framework. Below is a description and example of the scheme that emerged from the Clinic.

- I. Stage One: The "Creation Stage" or "Birth."
- II. Stage Two: The "Start-up Stage" or "Childhood."
- III. Stage Three: The "Beginning to Settle-in Stage" or "Youth."
- IV. Stage Four: The "Well-Settled and Institutionalized Stage" or "Maturity."
- V. Stage Five: "Old Age."

The above five stages characterize various levels of alternative school development. It is essentially a sequential scheme, but it is not necessarily linear. A school, for instance, may reach Stage Four and then find some way to recycle back to Stage Two. One alternative school does this by beginning each year anew and developing new structures to accommodate the new members of the school and new ideas as well.

The administrators in the Clinic applied the scheme to themselves by indicating the problems and crises they had and placing them within the scheme according to the stage of development that they, themselves, felt most closely characterized their schools. The list below is not meant to be comprehensive. It does, however, represent a most useful device in analyzing

and understanding the issues as they might be typified. As this list is expanded and analyzed, a clearer impression should emerge of the developmental problems of an innovation as seen by its directors.

#### I. Stage One: "Creation."

- No response.

#### II. Stage Two: "Start-up."

- Counterdependency.
- There is a lot of energy reacting to the regular system which makes organizing somewhat difficult.
- There is need for a lot of energy to break new ground.

#### III. Stage Three: "Beginning to Settle-in."

- Concern over what is really happening.
- Honeymoon ending. We are not hugging and kissing but reacting to the power of the regular system and facing our own power.
- Behavioral (new) norms internalized, but now what?
- Structure building.
- Decision making. Everyone doesn't have to decide everything.
- Need to trust ourselves and others in making decisions.
- How to deal with authority.
- Crisis of authenticity, self-identity, and leadership styles for the administrators: Do I "hang" back because I can't legitimately express my skills/ability?
- Who am I? Roles: professional and personal.
- What I need, want, and can do--is it legitimate?
- Norms of elitism.
- Fear of failure.
- Individualization vs. collectivism.

#### IV. Stage Four: "Institutionalization" or "Maturity."

- Establishing administrative routines that don't have spirit.
- Self-growth.
- Establishing some more structures to prevent burn-out (kids say you try so hard and nothing happens).
- Director's mood effect: liveliness--administrator or pioneer?
- Practicality of what works vs. personal satisfaction (creating a community within the school).
- Tired, exhausted, burned-out.
- Boredom from repeating cycles.



## V. Stage Five: "Old Age."

- No response.

### Problem Solving: Black/White

The following is an overview of the workshop on problem solving: Black and White issues conducted by Led Smith. The overview reflects the brainstorming-discussion format of the workshop; each heading introduces a different problem and is accompanied by a list of brainstormed issues relevant to each problem.

The workshop was very successful and energetic. Not only did it address specific problems some directors were facing in their schools, but it also suggested ways that schools, in general, could open and facilitate a constructive dialogue on their racial problems.

#### I. Hindrances to Meaningful Involvement--Black/White.

##### A. White Behaviors Which Hinder.

1. Condescension.
2. Intellectualizing.
3. Lack of previous experience
4. Paternalism.
5. Tracking.
6. Tyranny of testing.
7. Over-curiosity in cultural experience. (Do they eat...?)
8. Lack of sensitivity.
9. Taking over process? or progress?
10. Reluctance to confront.
11. Failure to support.
12. Exclusion. (Social and other)
13. Misidentifying issues in terms of race.
14. Language. (Black neg.)
15. Imposition of definitions.

##### B. Black Behaviors Which Hinder.

1. Stereotyping.
2. "Black racism doesn't hurt kids."
3. Separatism.
4. Low expectations.
5. Jealousy over power.
6. Refusal to trust.
7. Black is better.
8. Negative self-image.
9. Failure to accept differences.
10. Rejection of institutions.
11. Paranoia.
12. Negative peer pressure.
13. Fear of success.
14. "Uncle Tomism."
15. Ecceptance of white authority.
16. Over sensitivity.
17. Stereotyping: Monolithic Blacks.
18. Myth creation.
19. Failure to deal with Blacks on philosophical level.
20. Reverse discrimination.
21. Romanticizing.
22. Double standard: Pugmalion Syndrome.

## II. Ways to deal with Problem of Hindrances to Meaningful Involvement.

- A. Interracial marriage.
- B. Cross-cultural meeting to put problems on table.
- C. Retreat, party.
- D. Cross-culture simulation.
- E. Role reversal.
- F. Sensitivity module.
- G. Dialoguing around common experience.
- H. Common task activities.
- I. Team Building Experiences.
- J. Meeting with parents and administration.
- K. White racism workshop for White and a Black workshop for Black.
- L. Dialoguing around Black expectations and White teachers' expectations.
- M. T-group marathon.
- N. Socio-psycho drama.
- O. Intergroup conflict techniques.
- P. Require Black representation at meetings.
- Q. Recruit Black staff.

## III. Test Discrimination and ways to deal with this Specific Problem.

- A. Examine test (cultural bias) substitute another test.
- B. Reduce implications.
- C. Have discussion with students to show how tests discriminate.
- D. Develop other success modules.
- E. Give a group test.
- F. Show how tests have little to do with future success, etc.

- G. Work toward abolition of test.
- H. Student mobilization toward wiping out test.
- I. Prepare for test.
- J. Change the curriculum.
- K. Develop a system of student revealing only data he/she approves.
- L. Judge and develop credentials in terms of competency.

Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI)

Self Instrument for 21 Directors of Alternative Schools

(by Scott Bristol)

At the January Clinic, 21 directors of alternative schools filled out and scored the Ken Blanchard/Paul Hersey Leadership Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI-SELF)<sup>1</sup> Instrument. This report focuses on leadership style as indicated by those 21 directors.

About the LASI-SELF Instrument

According to Blanchard and Hersey, it is important to know not only how one's behavior is perceived by others but how consistent these perceptions are with one's self-perception.<sup>2</sup> The more consistent a leader's self-perception is with others' perception of him, the higher the probability that he will be able to cope effectively, especially in those situations in which other people allow their own behavior to be influenced by their expectations of his. The LASI Instrument attempts to measure several aspects of leader behavior: (1) style, (2) style range, and (3) style adaptability.

Style

Style is defined by Hersey and Blanchard as "consistent patterns of

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, "Rationale and Analysis of LASI Instruments," Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI), Athens, Ohio, Center for Leadership Studies, (Ohio University, 1973.)

<sup>2</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972), pp. 112-115.

behavior of the leader as perceived by others."<sup>3</sup> This behavior is what others learn to recognize as a leader's style or personality. Leadership style can be measured in two separate and distinct dimensions: task behavior and relationship behavior. Task behavior consists of structuring the relationships and activities in a group situation in terms of task accomplishment, while relationship behavior stresses building and maintaining good personal relations between the leader and followers.

### Determining Leadership Style

Leadership style as perceived by both self and others (e.g., subordinates, superiors, and associates) was determined by circling the letter of the alternative action chosen for each of twelve situations. The question was scored by totaling the number of times the style in each quadrant is used. The choices of alternative actions are distributed according to whatever style quadrant they represent.

Each quadrant in Table 1 corresponds to the following leadership style:

- Quadrant 1: High Task/Low Relationship
- Quadrant 2: High Task/High Relationship
- Quadrant 3: High Relationship/Low Task
- Quadrant 4: Low Task/Low Relationship

**Dominant Style:** A leader's dominant style is determined according to the quadrant where the most responses fall.

**Supporting Styles:** A supporting style is a leadership style which tends to be used by a leader on occasion. In Table 1, the dominant style suggests the number and degree of supporting styles of the leader.

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 82-83, pp. 110-112.



### Style Range

A leader's dominate style plus supporting styles determine style range.<sup>4</sup> In essence, this is the extent to which one varies or is perceived to vary one's leadership style. Some leaders are able to modify their behavior considerably. Others seem to be limited to a dominant style.

### Determining Style Range

Style range can be analyzed by examining the quadrants in Table 1 (see Page 33) in which a leader's behavior is seen in terms of frequency of behavior patterns. Leaders who are perceived as engaging in behavior in a variety of quadrants, are considered to have wide style ranges. Leaders whose behavior appears limited to a single style, exemplify a narrow style range.

### Style Adaptability

Style adaptability is the degree to which leader behavior is appropriate to the demands of a given situation. A person with a narrow style range can be effective over a long period of time if he remains in situations in which his style has a high probability of success. Conversely, a person with a wide range of styles may be ineffective if these behaviors are not consistent with the demands of the situation. Therefore, style range is not as relevant to effectiveness as style adaptability.

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 121-122.

## Determining Style Adaptability

The degree of style adaptability or effectiveness for a leader can be determined on any of the LASI instruments. The weighting of a +2 to -2 is based on behavioral science and empirical research. The behavior with the highest probability of success with the alternative solutions offered is always weighted a +2. The behavior with the lowest probability of success is always weighted a -2. The second best alternative is weighted a +1 and the third a -1. The effectiveness score thus has a range from -24 to +24.

TABLE 1  
Task Behavior

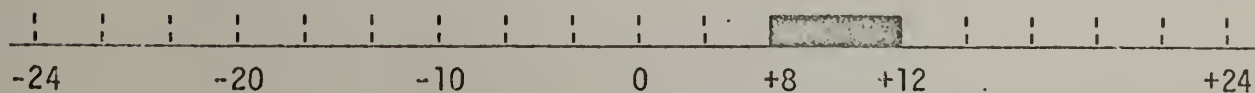
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 3</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Relationship and Low Task</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 2</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Task and High Relationship</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 4</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Low Relationship and Low Task</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 1</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Task and Low Relationship</p>

TABLE 2  
21 Directors' Scores  
(Style and Range)

<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 3</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Relationship/Low Task</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><math>\frac{102}{5}</math> Total Average and Median</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 2</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Task/High Relationship</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><math>\frac{102}{5}</math> Total Average and Median</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 4</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Low Relationship/Low Task</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><math>\frac{27}{1}</math> Total Average and Median</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Quadrant 1</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">High Task/Low Relationship</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><math>\frac{21}{1}</math> Total Average and Median</p>

REMEMBER: 21 directors x 12 questions each = 252 answers  
 21 + 102 + 102 + 27 = 252 answers

TABLE 3  
Effectiveness (Adaptability)



MAJOR DISTRIBUTION OF DIRECTORS' SCORES FELL BETWEEN +8 AND +12.

## Conclusion

From Table 2 we can see that the directors' predominant style falls into Quadrant 2 (High Task and High Relationship) and Quadrant 3 (High Relationship and Low Task). The common feature to both quadrants is High Relationship.

The results were examined through the use of Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Theory.<sup>5</sup> According to this theory, as the level of maturity of the members of an organization increases, the leader is able to lessen his or her task and relationship support. Ideally, the pattern of maturity development follows this sequence: Quadrant 1, 2, 3, 4. Maturity, in this instance, is characterized by organizational members "who need loosely controlled, flexible organization with general supervision to utilize their full potential."<sup>6</sup>

The data indicates that these directors work best with a staff that is of average maturity. Under this condition the theory would predict that the directors have the highest probability of success in situations where the staff members are beginning to know their job but still require some structuring; the staff members are seeking and accepting more responsibility for their own behavior; socioemotional support is needed and sought.

This style seems to characterize the salient leadership patterns alternative schools need in the second and third year phase where the development

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<sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 134-148.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 147.

of staff and student relationships can be an important ingredient for school cohesion.

The low scores in Quadrant 1 and 4 indicate situations in which these directors might have trouble exerting leadership. The low score in Quadrant 1 suggests why intern, student teacher, community volunteer or new student problems are often dealt with poorly in alternative schools. The absence of a highly structured leadership style characterizes these directors. They have an inclination to be hesitant in imposing a task structure on new members. This lack of structure will tend to leave those new members and others who need guidance in a state of confusion. In Quadrant 4, the low score of the directors suggests that they are likely to have trouble working with what Blanchard and Hersey call mature groups or individuals. What this means behaviorially is that the directors are inclined to want to jump in and help a mature group with tasks or with personal support, but according to Blanchard and Hersey, a mature group or individual is one that completes the task and maintains its socio-emotional support without the direct influence of the leader. One appropriate way for a director to show support for a mature group is to solicit the resources they need from the superintendent's office, the community, foundations, the regular system, etc.



## EVALUATION

Administrators' Evaluation

The evaluation questionnaire (Page 38) includes the responses of only 17 participants out of a total of 26. The questionnaire appears to indicate that the general degree of satisfaction with the Clinic was very high. On those questions that concerned learning, participation, satisfaction, meeting of needs, and help to one's job, the participants indicated scores that were high to very high on a scale from very low to very high.

According to the responses to Question Number 6 (Did the workshop raise any questions you would like to explore in the future? Please comment if your answer is yes.), the Clinic seemed to provoke a number of issues. The emphasis was concentrated around three themes: First, the interrelationship between the alternative school and the regular school district system, (i.e., public relations, funding, and impact on the system). Second, the relationship between an alternative school and other alternative schools around the nation. And Third, improving the internal aspects of the school, its goals, team building, decision making, and conflict skills.

Responses to Questions 7 and 8 (Which session was most helpful? and Which session was least helpful?), indicate that the administrators preferred sessions that focused on sharing administrative practices and skill training. The lecture sessions, especially those which had a primarily abstract and theoretical relationship to the immediate concerns of the administrators, were the least preferred.

The type of workshop that the administrators would like to attend in the future could be organized under the following subjects: leadership, organizational development practices, the problems of change, staff training in counseling, curriculum, evaluation, and human relations.

The final comments to Question 11 (comments please), were nearly all positive. Some participants, though, would have liked the clinic to last longer, allowing for more time for informal exchanges.

From this data and from the verbal debriefing, the "Crisis Management Clinic" can be considered successful. For the most part, the participants were very satisfied with the events, the learning, the schedule; and most important, they left with a recharged optimism about their efforts, a greater sense of their own capabilities, and a feeling of being part of a wider community of people who share their beliefs, their struggles, and their successes.

#### Evaluation Questionnaire: Participants

	<u>Responses</u>
1. How much do you think you learned?	
1. Nothing	
2. A little	
3. Moderate	15
4. Quite a lot	15
4.a. 4.7	1
5. Maximum	1
2. How was your participation in the workshop?	
1. Very unsatisfactory	
2. Moderately unsatisfactory	
3. Neutral	
4. Moderately satisfactory	8
5. Very satisfactory	9

Responses

- |  |    |
|--|----|
| 3. What was the degree of your feeling of satisfaction with the workshops?   |    |
| 1. Low satisfaction  |    |
| 2. Moderately unsatisfied  |    |
| 3. Neutral   |    |
| 4. Moderately satisfied  |    |
| 5. High satisfaction   | 6  |
| 5.a. 5.1   | 10 |
|  | 1  |
| 4. Has the workshop met your needs?  |    |
| 1. 1.5   |    |
| 1.a. Yes   | 1  |
| 2.   | 7  |
| 3. Neutral   | 7  |
| 4.   |    |
| 5. No  | 2  |
| 5. This information has helped me on my job.   |    |
| 1. Yes   | 10 |
| 2.   | 5  |
| 3. Neutral   | 1  |
| 4.   |    |
| 5. No  |    |
| ?  | 1  |
| 6. Did the workshop raise any questions you would like to explore in the future? Please comment if your answer is yes. |    |
| Yes  | 16 |
| No   |    |

## Comments:

- Need to find a way to tap the creative minds of the staff
- Impact on the system
- Building internal strengths
- Future development of alternative schools
- Goals of education
- Best means of attaining goals
- Size issues
- A definite plan for regional and national meetings
- Would like more exchanges with alternative schools
- Public relations and support by NASP
- Is there too much emphasis on serving a small group with special programs and ignoring the larger group?
- Decision making
- Resolving conflict skills
- Possibility of on-going training, like the Clinic for alternative school directors

Responses

- |   |    |
|---|----|
| 7. Which type session(s) was most helpful?  |    |
| Skill   | 10 |
| Clinic, sharing administrative practices, and<br>problem solving  |    |
| Lectures  | 6  |
| Informal  | 1  |
| 8. Which type session(s) was least helpful?   |    |
| Skill   | 1  |
| Clinic, sharing administrative practices, and<br>problem solving  |    |
| Lectures  | 1  |
| Data collection-opening   | 3  |
|   | 1  |
| 9. I would like to attend a workshop focused on:  |    |
| - How to make positive change in the regular system   |    |
| - Problem solving   |    |
| - Internal problems to staff relationships  |    |
| - Skills  |    |
| - Goals of education and how to attain them   |    |
| - Evaluation  |    |
| - Group process skills  |    |
| - Leadership  |    |
| - Role negotiation  |    |
| - Organizational analysis   |    |
| - Alternative schools dealing with community problems   |    |
| - Handling student diversity  |    |
| - Curriculum  |    |
| - Staff training  |    |
| - Staff-student relationship  |    |
| - Life planning   |    |
| - Leadership styles   |    |
| 10. I found the schedule to be:   |    |
| 1. Too heavy  |    |
| 2. Somewhat heavy   | 12 |
| 3. Moderate   | 3  |
| 4. Somewhat concentrated  | 1  |
| 5. Not concentrated enough  | 1  |
| 11. Comments:   |    |
| - The staff worried a lot, too much? A fine workshop  |    |
| - Much better than I'd expected or hoped  |    |
| - Best conference I've been to  |    |
| - Need more time  |    |
| - Perhaps structure some exchange time  |    |
| - Things on the board Sunday morning [brainstorming issues]<br>might have made a day of discussion sessions |    |
| - Staff shouldn't be afraid of all those egos who say they<br>[staff] have little to add                    |    |

- Some time might be turned to listening skills
- Would like some work on program evaluation
- The heavy scheduling was absolutely necessary
- Fine
- All in all a valuable experience
- More outside socializing--physically and in the local area
- Should be spread out over a longer period
- Excellent conference; open trainers
- Need more women trainers



## HUMAN RESOURCES

The Clinic brought together people with talents and experience in:

environmental education	school community relations
planning	political survival
funding	conflict management
public relations	human relations
team building	staff development
Black and African studies	alienated students
Asian American studies	Outward Bound
Organizational Development	governance

They have invited you to get in touch with them in order to begin a network of sharing skills. You probably have some skills that you can share with them in return.

WHO	WHAT	WHERE
Gisha Berkowitz	-mediation of staff, students, and parents	Greenwood and Walt Wyncote, PA 19043 home: 215-CH7-7883 215-885-0160 Alternative East
Mark Bringewatt	-organizational change	30 Greyston Road Saugus, MA 01906 home: 617-233-8375
Lynn Cadwallader	-fund raising -public relations	112 Exchange Street Lynn, MA 01901 home: 617-284-1109 617-581-5111 Reach Out School
Jerry Cox	-application of Outward Bound principles	420 Linden Excelsior, MN 55331 home: 612-474-4270 612-474-5965 x59 Minnetonka High School
Mac Evans	-individualized instruction -alternative programs within a standard high school	400 North Second Avenue Tucson, AR 85705 home: 602-886-9917 602-791-5252 Tucson HS--Extended Day

WHO	WHAT	WHERE
Mike Franzblau	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-environmental education project development</li> <li>-group planning skills</li> <li>-multi-disciplinary theme oriented courses</li> <li>-science project development</li> <li>-educational programs in the community</li> </ul>	18 Kilmer Road Larchmont, NY 10538 home: 914-834-7987 914-698-9000 x205 Manaroneck High School
Dorothy Joseph	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-communication skills</li> <li>-work with bureaucracy</li> <li>-parent involvement</li> </ul>	249 Fenimore Street Brooklyn, New York 11225 home: 212-469-8481 212-384-1363 High School Redirection
Larry Kubota	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-crisis management approaches</li> <li>-organizational development</li> <li>-community organizing</li> <li>-cross-cultural studies, especially in relationship to Asian Americans</li> </ul>	364 Puffton Village Amherst, MA 01002 home: 413-549-6553 413-545-0941 National Alternative Schools Program
Lew Marks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-survival in district crisis situations</li> </ul>	740 Helendale Road Rochester, NY 14609 home: 716-288-5077 716-546-6732 School Without Walls
Bernie Mrazik	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-public relations</li> <li>-dealing with alienated students</li> </ul>	2153 10th Avenue West Seattle, Washington home: 206-284-2729 206-583-2759 Neighborhood Youth Corps
Lee Oberparleiter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-involving parents, staff, and students in making decisions</li> </ul>	126 New Castle Lane Willingboro, New Jersey home: 609-871-4235 609-829-7600 x47 Cinnaminson Alternative School
Jerry Porter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-organizational development</li> <li>-interpersonal dynamics</li> <li>-field experience education</li> </ul>	211 Harvard Avenue Allston, MA 02121 home: 617-277-4777 Boston University Psychology Department

WHO	WHAT	WHERE
Bill Pugh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-organizational design, elementary school</li> <li>-teacher training</li> <li>-teacher center</li> </ul>	29 Kilbourne Road Rochester, NY 14618 home: 716-385-2350 716-464-9370 World of Inquiry
Leo Reese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-parent involvement</li> <li>-community action</li> </ul>	2971 West 19th Place Gary, Indiana home: 219-944-7255 219-949-5700 Community Oriented for Relevant Education (CORE)
Dave Rinkel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-school organization</li> <li>-finance</li> <li>-proposal development</li> </ul>	1000 SW 126th Street Seattle, WA 98146 home: 206-242-1016 206-587-3499 Project Interchange
Charlotte Ryan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-school finance</li> <li>-school-community relations and organization</li> <li>-legislative strategies</li> </ul>	110 Bridge Street Manchester, MA 01944 home: 617-927-1171 New England Program in Teacher Education
Leonard Smith	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-affective curriculum development</li> <li>-family planning education</li> <li>-human relations: values clarification, organizational development and personal growth</li> </ul>	National Alternative Schools Program (NASP) School of Education University of Massachusetts Amherst, MA 01002 413-545-0941 home: 413-367-9596
Kurt Soper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-funding</li> <li>-public relations</li> </ul>	Alternative Education Program 1300 Leith Street Flint, Michigan 48505 313-232-4139
Charles Stein	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-organizing, planning, implementing programs</li> </ul>	87 Stratford Road East Brunswick, NJ 08816 Perth Abboy High School
Linda Woodard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Black and African studies</li> <li>-self-concept building</li> </ul>	549 State Street #4 Springfield, MA 01109 home: 413-732-9575 Shanti

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## CONCLUSION

The notes within the Post Clinic Report give an overview of the content of the Clinic. There were basically three dimensions involved: First, that encompassing the conceptual analytic side; second, that dealing with the more practical aspects--skills and tools; and third, the communal energy committed to sharing administrative issues and practices. The following conclusions are organized according to these dimensions.

Conceptually, one of the most interesting notions that developed from the Clinic was the model for the stages of development, which thereby gave us a framework for analyzing the growth of alternative schools. The issues and crises of these schools became understandable as part of a life cycle. We noted that there were some properties common to all the schools based upon their particular stage of development. Most of the schools represented were at Stage Three, "Youth," where the main crisis seemed to be centered around the issue of success. From an internal standpoint, the alternative school directors seemed concerned about whether their school can not only measure up to its own claims and ideals but also continue with the same zeal and creativity of its earlier years. The external view (i.e., the regular system), however, may develop fears and hostilities towards the alternative schools during this stage, particularly when these schools become successful educational organizations, thus setting examples that cannot be ignored.

The developmental model was also applied on a personal level to the directors themselves. A "life planning" exercise was administered to

encourage the directors to consider their own life direction and their current stage of development within it as it related to their alternative school position, activities, and growth possibilities. We guessed that if there was an incongruity between one's personal stage and direction of development and the school's, "burnout" might be one of the major consequences.

Another conceptual way of looking at alternative school concerns and crises was attempted through a systems perspective. From this analytical approach two areas were singled out as being of major concern to the alternative school administrative participants: Institutional Subsystem and Maintenance Subsystem. Within these two areas the central themes were (1) how to engage in a major change effort without losing the school, and (2) how to improve the director's personal leadership skills in order to help the school operate more effectively. We noted that these two themes were identical with the major crisis issues identified in the stages of development approach, thus, confirming that analysis.

Skills and tools for conflict and crisis management were considered the second most important session. There seemed to be a great deal of interest in the areas of conflict management modes, role negotiation, problem/solving/black issues, and team building. Decision making and communications were skills we did not deal with, but participants expressed strong interests in those areas.

The sharing of administrative issues and practices was an aspect of the Clinic that held the greatest interest. This is apparently a mode of learning that practitioners value the most. The administrators were grouped and

regrouped according to Clinic functions and topics in order to allow maximum exposure to each other. Through this process, we believe a temporary support base--a learning community, if you will--was established. It is difficult to predict whether or not this community will continue in an informal way, but the administrators expressed hope for its perpetuation and even the desire for the aid of a formal networking apparatus.

In conclusion, the Clinic was generally considered successful by the participants and staff, although many found the scheduling a bit too heavy. The level of crises encountered were moderate, and the administrators were, for the most part, professional educators who were quite impressive in their concern for their school, their zeal and determination, and in their commitment to making schools into more humane and significant environments.

The directors are often in a peculiar position, mediating between a larger traditional system and a smaller innovative subsystem. Their roles are unclear as are the procedures for dealing with such administrative positions. A number of questions about leadership and crises in alternative schools remained unanswered:

What are the distinct stages in the process of a crisis as it occurs in an alternative school, and what are the qualities that make each stage unique?

What methods can be used to deal with intense crises where time is short and the stakes are high?

What are the qualities of survival that keep an individual sane and courageous during crises?

How does one incorporate "justice" into the process of crisis management?

Do the exigencies of crisis management centralize authority in top administrators thereby giving them a vested

interest in generating and maintaining crises?

Despite these unanswered questions, some hypotheses have arisen out of the experiences of the Clinic and other training events:

Training administrators in skills for internal crises should focus on diagnosis, confrontation/problem solving practices, mediation, role negotiation, and the use of a normative third force (e.g., constitution, principles, judicial system, third party agents, legislative body).

Training administrators for crises between the alternative school and the school district or community should focus on the application of strategies and open systems planning, on skills of contention and negotiation, and generally on methods of eliciting future opportunities for educational advancement through the crisis.

When educational change is determined only by politics and power, crises will simply exhaust the administrators who manage them, thereby creating a vicious circle where the managers actually aggravate the crisis.

There is a need for an institutional mechanism, such as a normative third force, to modulate the shifting balance of power among contending groups and also to help create self-correcting policies.

A normative approach to crisis management is an educational device that aims not only at dealing with the conflict but at informing the members in the social system of the critical issues that govern their lives.

A support network of alternative school administrators could be helpful in the sharing of ideas, skills, resources, and most important, in providing psychological support.

A school district might create a crisis management training team composed of representative members of the school community who could act in a preventive as well as an intervening capacity. This team, with the assistance of qualified advisors, could become the nucleus for in-service training in crisis management.

Crisis as it occurs and is managed in the various stages of development or in different parts of the alternative school system could be a matter



of critical importance either in significantly improving educational concepts and practices or in maintaining a status quo. From this standpoint and from our experiences with the Clinic, crisis management for educational change is a field of study that justifies further serious investigation, development, and experimentation.





