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APPLICATION OF A MODEL

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NETWORKING IN CURRICULUM PLANNING:

THE DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION

OF A MODEL

by

Robert Dale Simmons

A Dissertation Submitted to
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The purpose of this study was to create an analytic and program-
matic model of networking for application to an existing educational
setting. The model created was designed to bring social studies
teachers together along with community people for the purpose of infor-
mal curriculum planning.

A model was created which used the settings models of Sarason and
Brubaker as guides for the basic structure of the final product.
Theory and practice were joined together in the model in terms of using
settings theory within the context of traditional teacher attitudes
toward involvement in curriculum planning. In creating the model, the
aspects of the before-the-beginning history of the setting, emergence
of leadership, formation of a core group, goal setting and articulation
of network concerns, and resource exchange were utilized.

The model was applied to a group of social studies teachers in
western North Carolina. The network which resulted from the application
of the model was successful in helping teachers transcend the tradi-
tional mindset of reluctance to engage actively in curriculum planning
The network was able to sustain itself and was expanding at the end of
the phase used as a case study for evaluative purposes. The members of
the network were able to experience meaningful participation in
curriculum planning and implementation of the network's materials in
their classrooms.

Community members also experienced satisfaction through their contact with teachers in the network. The two major goals of the network setting, (1) attainment of a sense of personal worth and (2) attainment of a psychological sense of community, were reached by the network members.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the decade of the 1980's, curricular efforts in the social studies have focused on economic, citizenship, and legal education. Less verbalized goals include creating a psychological sense of community, and the development of good self-concepts and personal worth. These goals are neither unrealistic nor unattainable. However, that which social studies education undertakes to accomplish in the public schools becomes complex when theory is applied in classroom activity.

Ideas of community spirit, social change, and development of personal worth and potency, while given hearing in textbooks, standard curriculum guides, and at workshops, often become lost in the actual curricular-instruction transmission process. Traditional textbook-oriented instruction in social studies perpeutates itself.

The curriculum of the public secondary school in America today is theoretically designed to help develop an individual's competence in reading, writing, and mathematical skills, as well as skills in citizenship education. Much has been written in recent years with regard to the latter. A major controversy seems to revolve around the matter of just what it is that social studies education is supposed to reflect. Should the social studies focus on the inculcation of the ideas, theories, and structure of government or should it seek a more direct application of the basic tenets of citizenship skills by way of community involvement for such purposes as realizing social action?

Given the fact that many persons expect the school to be the major public socializing agent of the child, those who advocate and encourage social action on the part of high school students, oftentimes invite the angry and powerful opposition of those in the school community who advocate preservation of the status quo. This writer argues that too much is being sacrificed by the perpeutation of such thinking.

In an age of growing consciousness of the scarcity of both human and nonhuman resources, it behooves American citizens at all levels to search for alternative resources. In the field of public education, it should therefore become a major priority of curriculum planners to re-examine current curricular frameworks in light of these acknowledged scarcities. This is especially true for those involved in social studies education. Such responsibilities recognize the need to take a fresh look at the social studies classroom as a base for reaching out beyond the traditional barriers of the school into the surrounding community. By doing so, the social studies curriculum could acknowledge and sustain the ongoing informal exchange networks already operating to some degree, in the lives of people in the school community.

What is needed in social studies curriculum planning today is a means whereby theory can be joined with practice with each informing the other. One vehicle for this can be an analytic and programmatic model of networking useful to architects of curriculum as well as practitioners. Networking is a process which takes place on an informal basis. Through networking people can gain access to needed resources and at the same time be accessible as resources for other people.

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the rationale, structure, and feasibility of the concept of networking as the basis for promoting greater community involvement with the potential of realizing both awareness and social change through social studies curriculum planning and implementation.

This study will point out the usefulness of the networking concept in social studies programs designed to make both teachers and their students more aware of the potential rewards gained through closer contact and involvement with the school community. In turn, it is hoped that members of the school community will realize the potential rewards to be gained through increased contact and participation with students and teachers. The networking concept as described here can illustrate Sarason's settings model as revised by Brubaker, and emphasizes the purposes or major ends of any setting. These ends include the attainment of a sense of community and personal worth for the individual.

In recent years, networking as a term and concept has become popularized in numerous writings and discussions. In fact, the use of the term is so widespread and disparate that there is much confusion as to what a network truly represents. Definitions of network and networking as these terms are used in this study will be included later in this chapter.

Before schools can begin to bring about the needed development of networking between social studies classes and the school community, teachers are going to have to be given more opportunities to become aware of both the need for and implementation of, networking activities. Due to the current lack of significant participation of social studies

teachers in curriculum planning, efforts must first be made to involve teachers in a format for purposes of both learning about the possibilities of networking as a vehicle for actual teacher input in curriculum planning and as a laboratory for implementing networking activities in their classrooms. Naisbett(1984) has pointed out that we are witnessing the end of effective pyramidal structures for purposes of management in formal institutions(p. 217), but at the same time, we are experiencing a shift toward more horizontal (participatory) decision-making in these same institutions.

The present study attempts to verify this proposition through the creation and implementation of an informal curriculum setting based on the concept of networking.

Statement of Problem

In order to meet better the needs of social studies education--especially the need to emphasize and transform the goals of encouraging active citizenship on the part of students--new approaches to curriculum planning and classroom instruction are needed. The conscious and deliberate development of networking in the social studies curriculum may provide one such approach.

One of the major obstacles to be overcome with regard to effective curriculum planning involving networking is that of the teacher's perceived lack of efficacy in planning. Sarason (1971) has pointed out that ". . . it is rare that they [teachers] feel part of a working group that discusses, plans, and helps make educational decisions" (p. 78). Weiss (1978) found that the main source of information about

educational developments for teachers at all grade levels is other teachers. She noted that "in terms of unmet needs, a large number of teachers indicated that they did not receive adequate help in obtaining information about instructional materials" (p. 152). There exists then, a need for a more feasible means of resource exchange for the classroom teacher.

Informal networking operates at all levels of education. Such informal networking may, however, prove to be less effective than more formalized networking strategies. In order to implement networking in the school community, it is necessary to create a potentially workable model of networking for curriculum planners.

This study asserts that construction of a thoughtful and well-grounded analytic and programmatic model of networking can be implemented in any school system and utilized for the purposes of (a) providing a better organized means for interaction between and among curriculum planners, (b) providing a more efficient delivery system for exchange of resources, and (c) providing an effective means whereby teachers can enhance their own sense of self-worth and feeling of community. The larger benefit to be gained from implementation of such a model would be found in its power potential for extending the traditional textbook-centered classroom curriculum into the concrete, action-oriented school community beyond the classroom. The aim of this study is to use the tools of modeling as well as the dimensions of networking and settings development concepts to create such a model. The model will then be applied to the creation of a local curriculum planning network of teachers and school community people established to plan for meeting

state accreditation goals of better implementing community resources in the secondary school social studies curriculum. The study will attempt to answer four vital questions:

1. Can the precepts of networking be adapted to a generally restrictive, bureaucratic, hierarchical mode of decision-making and curriculum planning?

2. Can a network for curriculum planning effectively draw upon members from both inside and outside the school community for the purpose of resource exchange?

3. Can a network for curriculum planning operate in such a manner that teachers can overcome the traditional mind-sets of individualism and conservatism with regard to their professional self-concepts?

4. Can a network meet the concerns and needs of its member-ship so that it will be self-sustaining and perpetual in the school setting?

These questions will be addressed in further detail in Chapter IV which includes a description and analysis of a case study involving the use of a networking model.

Methodology

The stated purpose of this dissertation is to create an analytic and programmatic model of networking for bringing about increased use of community resources in the classroom as well as bringing about greater interaction between and among curriculum planners. Literature relating to this purpose and to the subject of modeling will be reviewed

in the study. The model will be applied to an actual network setting
dealing with curriculum planning.for using more community resources in
the classroom and extending the classroom into the community. The case
study approach will be used to evaluate the model in an actual curriculum
planning setting.

Model Building

Analytic models serve to aid in explaining the existence of social
phenomena particularly as such phenomena relates to other phenomena.
Galt and Smith (1976) pointed out that there are two types of analytical
models relating to the study of social change. They noted that "there are
models in which change must be introduced into the system from the out-
side, and models which propose that change is inherent within any system"
(p. 93). The model being presented in this study will largely be con-
cerned with the latter type.

A conceptual model of networking for bringing about social change
and change in the way curriculum is planned, assumes that current social
studies instruction does not adequately recognize or meet the needs of
encouraging active student participation in the practice and process of
community involvement. Neither does the present system provide for
meaningful teacher input into curriculum planning. Therefore, an
analytic and programmatic model of networking serves both to explain
existent networking components already at work in the school community
and to prescribe an alternative approach for further development and
enhancement of on-going networks.

The model presented in this study will be based on a set of

assumptions regarding the school community, identification and allocation of resources, settings development, leadership and the formation of core groups. Assumptions relating to change will also be discussed. These assumptions will be presented in Chapter III.

Case Studies

The case study is a useful means of describing a setting within the context of its environment. Case studies are not positivistic and thus suffer in the eyes of some researchers from the lack of being easily quantified.

For the purpose of implementing and evaluating a model of networking, however, case studies serve a valuable role. Sarason (1972) noted of case studies that they provide ". . . a description of events which are considered important according to some conception or theory about how things work and develop" (p. 161). Stake (1978) pointed out that a case study ". . . will often be the preferred method of research because [it] may be epistemologically in harmony with the readers experience . . ." (p. 5). Stake went on to suggest that the case study is valuable "when the aims are understanding, extension of experience, and increase in conviction in that which is known. . ." (p. 6). The use of the case study method proved to be best suited for the purposes of describing the application of the networking model. The case study is presented in Chapter IV.

Definition of Terms

In education as in other areas, there must be recognition of the fact that the terminology used to describe, explain, or demonstrate phenomena is not value free. Israel Scheffler (1960) has identified three types of definitions in education--stipulative, descriptive, and programmatic. Stipulative definitions "lay down conventions for the interpretation of terms within certain contexts, without regard to familiar useage" (p. 14). Descriptive definitions are "used to teach how a term is normally used. . . they provide explanatory accounts of meaning" (p.18). Programmatic definitions are used for the purpose of "embodying a program of action" (p.22). The definitions used in this dissertation will be largely stipulative and programmatic.

In order to better clarify the useage of certain terms included in this dissertation, the following definitions are offered:

case study: "an intensive, detailed analysis and description of a single organism, institution, or phenomenon in the context of its environment" (Anderson, Ball, & Murphy, 1975, p.46).

curriculum: "what persons experience in a setting" (Brubaker, 1982, p.2); includes but is more encompassing than what persons experience in relating to "courses of study," the more traditional definition of curriculum; that is, curriculum as what persons experience in creating settings, has a dynamic quality to it for it includes the intended and unintended, the obvious and the hidden.

curriculum planning: both formal and informal efforts directed to determination of probable experiences in a setting.

evaluation: is the determination of the worth of a thing; includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of a program, product, procedure, or objective, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives" (Worthen & Sanders, 1973, p. 19).

network: dynamic relationships among people who may or may not share identical goals, but who nonetheless provide one another with information, services, support and access (Morrison, 1981).

networking: the dynamic process of identifying potential relationships between and among members of a network setting for purposes of exchange of information, services, planning, support and access.

model: a figure or pattern representing an "imaginative construct invented to account for observed phenomena" (Barbour, 1974).

school community: all persons who have an interest in, affect, and/ or are affected by the school institution.

interorganizational networking: lateral relationships among organizations which share information, services, support, and access to one another.

intraorganizational networking: lateral relationships among members of organizations who share information, services, support and access to one another.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter II will more fully review literature on the concept and rationale of networks and the process of networking in the social studies curriculum for purposes of realizing more effective means of

curriculum planning which will bring about greater involvement on the part of teachers in that planning. The Sarasonian approach to networking and Brubaker's modification of Sarason's concepts will be critically analyzed and evaluated. This chapter will also review traditional means of curriculum planning, as well as literature concerning networking as a vehicle for curriculum planning change.

Chapter III will include a discussion of the usefulness of social models and model building and will present and describe a networking model. This analytic and programmatic model will include an enumeration of basic assumptions regarding networks, discussion of membership, resource redefinition, questions involving network leadership and power, the setting of priorities for networks, and evaluation of network goals. A major feature of this discussion will include an identification of relationships between and among these components.

Chapter IV will present a description of a case study involving the application of the networking model to a curriculum planning group. The group being studied was created to allow interested social studies teachers in a western North Carolina county to provide insight and input for the planning and implementation of the production of a series of videotapes. These tapes related to various areas of community resources for use in the social studies classroom. The study assumes that teachers, if given an opportunity to participate in an informal networking setting, will become more involved in curriculum planning and will have the chance to broaden their access to community resources as well as enlarge their sense of professionalism and effectiveness as educational decision-makers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In order to understand better the need for the creation of a net-
work setting for the purpose of bringing about change in traditional
patterns of curriculum planning, it is necessary to provide an assess-
ment of the current status of curriculum planning and the role played
by the teacher in that endeavor. This chapter will offer a review of
the literature concerning both traditional and alternative modes of
curriculum planning. Recent writings on the concept of educational
networking will also be reviewed. The chapter will conclude with an
assessment of current literature regarding teacher change.

Traditional Curriculum Planning

Since the end of the first World War when curriculum theorizing
and planning became a field unto itself, the nature of curriculum plann-
ing has seemingly undergone little change. In the wake of World War
One and the great increase in the use of scientific management in indus-
try and subsequently educational planning, the works of efficiency ex-
perts such as Frederick Taylor were highly·regarded in educational
circles. C.H. Edson (1978) has noted that it was the appearance of
Taylor's The Principles of Scientific Management in 1911 which "gave
strong impetus to school reformers to apply scientific principles to
the curriculum field" (p. 65). He further noted that the leading ex-
ponent of scientific curriculum making, Franklin Bobbitt, "reasoned

that if scientific procedures could increase productivity and efficiency

in industry, those same procedures could be used to improve curriculum"

(p. 65). The application of scientific management procedures to curri-

culum has proved to be more than just a temporary emphasis in educational

planning. As Edson pointed out, several legacies continue to influence

curriculum planning. These include:

> First, curriculum came to be viewed by educators as a
> professional, nonpolitical concern.
> Second, viewing curriculum development as a rational and
> scientific process often obscures important power align-
> ments among and between political coalitions economic
> interest groups, and professional organizations.
> Third, the application of scientific procedures to
> curriculum development suggests that curriculum is 'value
> free' or 'value neutral'. (p. 65)

Eisner (1979) has offered similar criticism of the scientific-management

approach to curriculum planning and has traced early influences of Dewey

and Thorndike on the scientific model. He noted that "they shared a

belief in the potential of scientific inquiries as a means of informing

and guiding educational practice. In this respect they helped establish

and legitimize a tradition that others were to follow" (p. 7). Through

the work of men like Bobbitt, W.W. Charters, and Henry Harap in the 1920's

and 1930's, curriculum design took on the look of a plan for an assembly

line in which the various components (units or aspects of learning) were

assembled. Such an approach to setting up school curriculum provided

a means whereby evaluation of the degree to which a child might learn

all about one of the components might be made more efficient at the ex-

pense of disregarding the many other factors involved in the learning

process. Such an approach to curriculum making seemed consistent with a

growing industrialized society.

Most critics agree that one of the most influential writings in the field of curriculum in the last 35 years has been Ralph Tyler's Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction which was first published in 1949. Tyler postulated four basic questions to be answered by curriculum makers. These include:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (p. 1)

This rationale represents a somewhat linear approach to curriculum development. The four steps involved are (1) identifying objectives, (2) selecting the means for the attainment of these objectives, (3) organizing these means, and (4) evaluating the outcomes (Tanner & Tanner, 1975, p. 57). Eisner (1979) described the Tyler rationale as "a model of a rational, systematic approach to curriculum planning" (p. 7); however, he criticized the ends-means nature of the rationale which ignores various complexities found in the instructional process. The orientation of curriculum as technology falls into the same category as curriculum planning for control purposes. Brubaker (1982) has identified three major criticisms of this approach:

1. Control is but one human interest and it is appropriate for nonhuman rather than human subjects.
2. As with all technical approaches, attention is given to linear, sequential processes but not to basic assumptions below such processes.
3. This orientation fits the industrial view of society and as such simply reinforces the status quo. It doesn't anticipate the tremendous changes that will be realized in a post industrial third wave society (p. 23).

Curriculum fashioned according to a control-oriented pattern and based on the ends-means rationale may provide curriculum makers with a readily measurable instrument, and may easily fit a hierarchical-bureaucratic system of school governance, but such an approach fails to take into account the political and value factors at work in influencing curriculum thinking. Tanner and Tanner (1975) have pointed out that the three key sources of educational objectives as identified by Tyler--(1) studies of the learners themselves, (2) studies of contemporary life outside the school, and (3) suggestions about objectives from subject specialists--tend to become "mere components rather than. . .organically interacting factors in curriculum development" (p. 63). They contend that sources for curriculum objectives must be interactive. The ends-means, scientific rationale for curriculum planning has come under heavy attack by the new school of curriculum thinkers known as reconceptualists. This school which includes theoriests such as J.B. Macdonald, Michael Apple, Joseph Schwab, and Eliot Eisner has raised serious questions about the continued use of scientific epistomology in education, particularly in the area of curriculum planning. Eisner has clearly stated the challenges accepted by these new thinkers in the face of dominant curriculum rationale. He wrote:

> What we badly need are models that are heuristic and useful,
> ways of talking about educational problems that are clear
> but not stilted . . . we need . . . approaches to the study
> of educational problems that give full range to the varieties
> of rationality of which humans are capable, that are not
> limited to one set of assumptions about how we come to know,
> that use methods outside of as well as inside the social
> sciences to describe, to interpret, and to evaluate what
> occurs in schools. (p. 17)

The management or control-oriented apporach to curriculum planning and decision-making evolved naturally from the bureaucratic nature of school organization. Brubaker and Nelson (1972) and Brubaker (1976; 1982) have stressed the need for separation of the governance responsibilities of administrators from the curriculum and instruction responsibilities best left to professionals (i.e., teachers). Brubaker and Nelson noted that "governance [which] encompasses the formal, legal rules and regulations which control the overall operation of the organization . . . provide a framework in which daily decisions are made" (p. 37). Curriculum and instruction, on the other hand, "refer to that area within the school as a socio-political system where learning experiences that students encounter occur" (p. 37). The note that governance "is appropriately a function of a bureaucratic organization . . . when the primary concern of the organization is public reaction [for it] provides the appropriate structure for dealing with such reaction, for disciplined compliance, hierarchial arrangements, and a causal relationship between means and ends all exist" (p. 38).

The governance function, however, does not serve the purposes of curriculum and instruction very well, for there are many educational goals (e.g., effective citizenship, development of ethical character, etc.) which "are not most appropriately or efficiently carried out under the bureaucratic model" (p. 37). Reasons cited for this are the following:

1. the ends are not discreetly measurable due to the abstractness of the objectives
2. the means for reaching the objectives are not agreed upon
3. the causal relationship between means and ends is not readily or concretely demonstrable (p. 37)

Brubaker and Nelson called for the creation of a new model for schools which brings about a "reconciliation between the bureaucratic model and the professional model [and] which gives more attention to the discovery and application of knowledge and is more highly flexible in the choice of processes used to achieve objectives" (p. 37).

The next section of this chapter will review literature related to the place of the teacher in curriculum planning, emphasizing the traditional view of the teacher with regard to curriculum input in planning as well as teacher attitudes toward involvement in such planning.

The Current Status of Teachers in Curriculum Planning

The professional model for curriculum planning calls for the inclusion of teachers in making actual curriculum decisions. Blau and Scott (1962) made the distinction between bureaucratic and professional approaches to decision-making by noting that "the bureaucratic official's authority rests on a legal contract backed by formal sanctions, but the professional's authority is rooted in his acknowledged technical expertness" (pp. 244-245). One of the major concerns of the role of the teacher in the curriculum planning process rests squarely in the area of receiving recognition for expertise in curriculum planning.

Sarason (1971) pointed out the wide descrepancies evident in trying to force teachers to adopt wholesale changes in a particular subject area (e.g., the "new math"). He wrote that "any attempt to introduce a change into the school involves some existing regularity, behavorial or programmatic. These regularities are in the nature of intended outcomes" (p. 3).

He went on to point out that "it is a characteristic of the modal process of change in the school culture that the intended outcome . . . is rarely stated clearly, and if it is stated clearly, by the end of the change process it has managed to get lost" (p. 3). Thus many of the so-called innovations for instruction result in more of the same old method. Blau and Scott (1962) pointed to the restrictive nature of bureaucracies with regard to exchange of communications and the frequently negative result from this situation, as they noted " . . . [the] mechanism through which hierarchical differentiations improve coordination--restricting and directing the flow of communication--is what impedes problem-solving" (p. 241).

Studies such as those conducted by Goodlad (1970) and Lortie (1975) point to the relative position of the classroom teacher in the bureaucracy as the leading factor in the gap between what is proposed by curriculum planners outside of the school and what actually does take place in the classroom. Goodlad's study of over 150 elementary school classrooms revealed a high degree of incongruity between the stated curriculum and the actual instruction taking place. He concluded that much of the problem lay in the fact that teachers "are very much alone in their work" (p. 94). He noted that "it is not just a matter of being alone, all _all_ alone with children in a classroom cell . . . rather it is the feeling . . . of not being supported by someone who knows about their work, is sympathetic to it, wants to help and, indeed does help" (p. 94).

Lorties's sociological study of the teaching profession revealed three major orientations of teachers. These include presentism, individualism, and conservatism. Presentism refers to the way in which

teachers conduct instruction along the lines of small, segmented units without giving much attention to the macrocurriculum. Individualism refers to the teachers' sense of autonomy in conducting their classroom activities. Conservatism refers to the teachers' sense of self-preservation in their "single cell of instruction" (p. 15). The three orientations point up the ambivalance in teachers' attitudes about their position. Lortie noted:

> Teachers want a degree of boundedness around their classrooms; they cathect them, not the organization at large. They want more potentially productive time with students. They depict other adults as intrusive and hindering, and they yearn for more resources as they try to influence their students. (p. 201)

Lortie felt that the combination of these three orientations effectively retards teacher interest and commitment to going beyond the classroom door for help and personal development. Concerning the psychological barriers imposed on teachers, he observed:

> The preference for boundedness exemplifies how individualism combines with presentism to retard the search for occupational knowledge. Teachers who work in isolation cannot create an empirically grounded, semantically potent common language; unless they develop terms to indicate specific events, discussion will lack the clarity it needs to enlighten practice. We see a similar theme in the relational preferences of teachers--they have a constructed a conception of colleagueship which discourages extensive interaction. (p. 212)

A study conducted by Young (1979) found an ambivalance among teachers regarding participation in curriculum decision-making. She found that organizational constraints inhibited teachers from participating in curriculum planning due to several phenomena. One of the major organizational constraints concerned the clearly defined lines of authority and responsibility in most bureaucratically modeled school systems. Teachers accepted this arrangement somewhat passively to the extent that

they looked to central office staff people for initiative in curriculum decision-making. With regard to the hierarchical pattern of educational bureaucracies, teachers defer to the "dominant position" of central office personnel in matters concerning curriculum planning. Young also noted that when teachers are part of curriculum-making process, their representation is often short-term and transitory. She wrote, "continuity of commitment is seldom achieved" (p. 119). Another observation pointed to the fact that the reward system in centralized organizations such as educational bureaucracies does not offer much to the classroom teacher. Those more likely to be attracted to participation in curriculum-planing activities are to be found among those teachers who had administrative aspirations (p. 119).

Young offered three major points as to why teacher involvement in curriculum planning has been negligible at best:

> First, the information field of classroom teachers is largely restricted to fellow teachers . . . they maintain few external contacts with professionals in their own or related fields.
> Second, teachers are oriented toward short-run rather than long-range planning.
> Third, a teacher's classroom orientation often promotes separation and independence from other staff members rather than interdependence. (p. 120)

Duke, Showers, and Imber (1980) carried out a study on teachers and shared decision-making. They sought to determine teacher perceptions of the potential costs and benefits of involvement in school decision-making. The most cited "costs" of involvement in decision-making by the teachers whom they interviewed involved increased demands (mainly on teacher's professional time), loss of autonomy (becoming more subservient to the bureaucratic structure), risk of collegial disfavor (e.g.,

becoming embroiled in decision-making conflicts with colleagues), subversion of the collective bargaining process (which would blur the hard-fought distinction between teachers (labor) and administrators (management), and threats to career advancement (whereby teachers involved in curriculum making might cross their superiors on certain points) (p. 95). The over-all results of their study showed that while teachers were more receptive to the benefits of shared decision making (e.g., self-efficacy, ownership, and participation in workplace democracy), their greatest reservation lay in their perception that teacher participation made little or no difference in the decisions reached. Typically, teachers perceived that the principal or central office personnel made the important decisions (p. 104).

They concluded that "since the benefits of shared decision-making accrue, not from mere involvement, but rather from a combination of involvement and influence, it would seem unwise to offer opportunities for shared decision-making which do not include provisions for actual influence over decisions" (p. 104).

The history of the last thirty years or so with regard to teacher participation in curriculum decision-making attests to the current ambivalence on the part of teachers to increasing their participation in the curriculum planning process. Tanner and Tanner (1975) have noted that the move to isolate teachers from the curriculum-making process in the years following the second World War through such techniques as moving toward "teacher-proof" curricula and increasing centralization of educational decision-making in state and federal government have had somewhat negative effects on teachers' self-perceptions of their place in

the planning and instructional process. The end result of these factors
along with such schemes as competency-based teacher evaluation have con-
tributed to the attitude taken by many teachers that their primary (and
in some cases, sole) responsibility lies in curriculum implementation.
Given the bureaucratic model of educational decision-making at work today,
it is little wonder that, as Tanner and Tanner noted, "many teachers
have been led to perceive that their only role in curriculum development
is to improve their teaching, that is, to analyze their teaching and to
become more indirect in their classroom behavior" (p. 592). They fur-
ther point out that one of the major dangers that this attitude poses is
that teachers "begin to view the curriculum as agreed upon, finished and
unchangeable" (p. 592).

Thus, most of the literature regarding teacher involvement in cur-
riculum planning seems to agree that teachers do not participate in the
curriculum-planning process due to (1) lack of self-confidence with re-
gard to what is generally perceived as a highly theoretical process, (b)
deference to the hierarchical decision-making structure of the dominant
bureaucratic model which manages educational institutions, and (c) what
Lortie has described as the "presentism, individualistic, and conserva-
tive" orientation of school teachers today. What then stand as alter-
native directions that might be taken by teachers that would encourage
them to become not only more active in curriculum planning, but con-
fidently active as well? The networking approach as a strategy for
change intervention in curriculum planning will be discussed in the
following section.

Networks and Networking

"Networks are in the air, "wrote Seymour Sarason in 1977. The very terms network and networking, however, connote many things to many people. The concept of networking simply conveys three basic and yet distinct ideas: (1) human and material resources are limited and this fact has led to the necessity to redefine values, goals, and who or what is a resource; (2) people seek ways in which to realize self-worth and potency in their personal and professional lives; and (3) people are constantly engaged in seeking identity with a community.

Yale psychologist Seymour B. Sarason has contributed much in the areas of mental retardation, culture and personality, projective techniques, teacher training, and school culture. During the past decade, he has expanded his studies into the area of networks and networking.

Sarason referred to networks (in light of the frequency with which the term is being used) to describe a setting involving people who are linked together around a central focal point. Though there is widespread use of the term in the literature, this somewhat liberal employment of networking does not consistently align with the criteria established by Sarason and a multitude of others (sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists and so forth), that clearly define a true network.

In his first major work on networking (1977), Sarason noted that "rarely is the word network used with intended precision, but rather as a label reflecting the obvious fact that each person has a wide array of relationships, the basis of which can vary in the extreme" (p. 3). He further noted that "the label network ordinarily suggests . . . that

with a portion of these people we have a relationship permitting us to 'approach' them and we may approach them with the deliberate aim of asking them to help us establish a similar relationship with a person we do not know" (p. 3). Not all of the settings which take on the label network meet even this description.

Sarason has offered a comprehensive description of the generalized concept of networks and networking in the following:

> . . . a network is a structural entity that centers around
> a specified focal unit (for example individual, family
> organization) and includes all those units with which the
> focal unit has direct and indirect interrelationships. In
> direct contrast with tightly bounded group and system con-
> ceptualizations, the only characteristic that all members
> of a network have in common is their relationship (direct
> or indirect) with the focal unit; there is no clear exter-
> nal boundary surrounding a network, and the individuals,
> families, or organizations within a focal unit's network
> do not necessarily have interrelationships with each other.
> A primary distinguishing characteristic of network inter-
> action is that they are relatively 'all encompassing' and
> far-reaching'--an interaction affecting any one unit will
> tend to spread and have ramifications that ultimately af-
> fect many network units. A primary distinguishing charac-
> teristic of network composition is that a very large num-
> ber units extremely diverse in role, function, and type
> are involved in a focal unit's network--the number and
> diversity of the network units that significantly affect,
> and are potentially available for utilization by the fo-
> cal unit, challenge both everyday and social science con-
> ceptions. (pp. 151-52)

The above description is operational and serves as a set of criteria by which to analyze social and organizational networks.

The rationale behind the establishment of networks revolves largely around the American societal myth of optimism and faith in unlimited resources. Inherent in this myth is the notion of infinite resources which has pervaded the societal structure for decades. It is true that we have recently acknowledged the finite limitations of various mineral

reserves on our planet, but this recognition has not yet extended to the equally limited reservoir of human resources.

As Berger, Berger, and Kellner (1973) noted in The Homeless Mind, western industrial society has been most effective in the development of the componentiality of the industrial worker (similar inferences may be made for the bureaucrat). This societal structure has thus developed artificial restraints on what people are with regard to their occupational status. As has been pointed out previously in this chapter, such has been the case for teachers who perceive restraints on their role in the educational system. Sarason (1977) has noted that in the process of networking, it is essential to begin first with the redefinition of human resources.

Students, for example, are quite often categorized as passive receptors of information (sometimes called knowledge). The school structure, hierarchical and authoritative, does not see the student in the realm of active participant or community resource. One of the major areas necessitating change in the school structure is that of redefinition of students as valuable human resources rather than mere consumers of instruction.

Sarason's concept of resource definition usurps traditional ways of defining resources. He is adamant in his belief that the faith of most Americans in infinite human and material resources which has been perpetuated by those controllers of the economic system, stands as one of the major contributors to the current storm of fear and disarray in people's minds regarding their personal situations.

Old myths--and that is exactly how Sarason refers to the notion of

unlimited resources--die hard and painfully slow deaths. Thus the move-
ment to increase and utilize networking arrangements in multiple areas
of people's lives must sucessfully challenge first the unlimited re-
sources myth, and second, the bureaucratic structures of most social
and economic agencies which have successfully defined the parameters of
professional expertise for the greater part of the last century.

Given the realities of the times which increasingly point to an
austere future--both in people's personal lives and in their institu-
tions, those who will find themselves concerned about these increasing
limitations of resources will also find themselves looking for alterna-
tives. Simply stated, this is the point at which the utilization of
the network and networking concepts might offer a positive and effec-
tive remedy. It is precisely this idea that Sarason espoused in his
assessment of today's society particularly with regard to the short-
comings evidenced in the area of human services.

Sarason's studies on networks largely represent the culmination of
a three-year personal experience with a community network in New York
(the Essex Network) wherein a voluntary network of persons represent-
ing a broad range of public and private agencies effectively identified
community problems and needs. This network through its wide range of
'linkages' and contacts then undertook the task of meeting and attempt-
ing to reconcile these problems. The outstanding characteristics of
this experience bring to fore the following observations regarding the
nature of true networks:

   1. People will come together voluntarily in a network if that
      network setting offers opportunities for both giving and
      receiving resources.

2. A strong, sensitive, persistent leader can, even in this day and age, facilitate the interaction of people with problems and people with solutions.

3. The frustrations and grievances brought on by the stark reality of the myth of 'unlimited resources' may be ameliorated by a network setting whereby the necessities of monetary resources are minimal.

4. Existing networks that are expanded and informally structured can do much to alleviate the sense of loneliness and feelings of hindrance that one may have by not being allowed to fully utilize one's expertise in one's formal occupational role. The network offers an outlet for unused skills.

5. Some network settings succeed where others fail by the very nature of their open operation that demands that the air be cleared in the beginning with regard to agreement on values, concepts, and attitudes. These are examined along with potential obstacles and pitfalls that may arise and an acceptable means for dealing with these problems is agreed upon. This process incurs a lateral rather than a hierarchical decision-making base.

6. Networks help to confirm the fact of interrelatedness that exists in each person's life. This confirmation comes about in the open acknowledgement that resources are limited, people need to attain and maintain a psychological sense of community in order to deal effectively with life and work on a day-to-day basis, and people need opportunities to share problems and sources of alternative solutions with one another. (Chapters 3-8)

These ideas from Sarason are in large part related to networks dealing with human services. Both of his major studies on networking deal with institutions largely outside of the educational setting (though in many cases linked to them). The interest displayed in such a concept as networking, however, has led to direct investigations into the potential of networking as a strategy for change intervention in the school setting.

The National Institute of Education's Network Development Staff-School Capacity for Problem Solving Group called for a number of papers in 1977 concerning the prospects for the use of networking as a change strategy in the schools. A number of network-related topics emerged

from this study. Lortie (1977) followed up on his sociological study
on teachers by questioning whether networking strategies would "produce
the desired goal of significantly improved decision-making" (p. 9). He
felt that such change as might take place through networking would not
be effected from the outside. Lortie further stressed that initial
efforts to bring about networking in schools necessitated a "research
of accurate perceptions of school realities and deep[er] understanding
of avenues of influence within a school structure" (p. 27).

Peterson (1977) shared Lortie's view on the difficulties that
even networking might face in trying to bring about marked change in the
school system. He noted that "networks are a product of the society's
system of social stratification; whatever variability in membership and
texture specific networks may have, the overall social network of
society only reproduces existing patterns of domination and subordian-
tion" (p. 47). Thus, as Peterson pointed out, " . . . one cannot easily
create networks that induce significant social change" (p. 47).

Parker (1977) discussed the potential of networks in educational
systems for purposes of bringing about innovation and problem solving.
He pointed out five major criteria for networks for innovation and pro-
blem solving:

1. A sense of being an alternative to established systems
2. A feeling of shared purpose
3. A mixture of information sharing and psychological support
4. A person functioning as a effective facilitator
5. An emphasis of voluntary participation and equal treatment
   (p. 7)

Parker felt that networks had a better chance of survival and success
in bringing about innovation and change in smaller local units than on

a large-scale basis. The function of these networks, he wrote, "is to foster the sharing of information and inspiration among independent educators in their local problem-solving efforts and to assist in the development, adaptation or adoption of new programs, products and practices" (p. 22).

Parker urged that networks be created which serve both selfish and altruistic motives. In fact, he noted, one enters a network with both motives. He pointed out that most participants in a network seek (a) information (and perhaps resources) gained in an unpredetermined manner and/or (b) psychological support received in an unpredetermined manner (p. 32). A major concern for network facilitators is to try to maintain a setting that does not bring about overly selfish motives on the part of the participants.

Parker also advocated that those involved in the process of networking maintain in-depth case studies in order to analyze and evaluate the direction in which the networking is taking. He also observed that "inservice credit and/or released time sometimes are sufficient encouragment for teachers to create and maintain a local network for innovation and problem solving" (p. 51).

Schon (1977) offered a clear set of features common to most networks of any type (e.g., helping networks, community networks, practitioner · networks, program networks). These features are of vital importance for consideration of both network construction as well as network analysis. They include the following:

1. Boundaries are fuzzy and shifting. It is often hard to
   say who is in or out of the network. A person may be in in
   some respects and out in others. Membership shifts over
   time.

2. There is often no clear center or locus of leadership (though this is a matter of considerable variability among networks). Absence of center, multiple centers are the norm...

3. The networks are dynamic, in the sense that their properties, concerns, missions, configurations of members and boundaries, are subject to change, often in unpredictable ways.

4. Networks are apt to have multiple functions. They may serve as vehicles for exchange, for mutual support, for status and evaluation, (or) for the distribution of power . . .

5. Informal networks may have multiple relations to formal institutions. They may be 'draped' over formal structures. If we trace the history of any formal organization or informal network, we observe a complex pattern of interaction between formal and informal entities, and often we observe a kind of dialectic within which formal and informal entities generate influence and give birth to one another.

6. Networks depend upon persons who play 'network roles.' Among these roles are brokerage, referral, mediation, diffusion, facilitation, and evaluation. In addition, some networks are built upon shared beliefs and values, and in these cases, a person may serve as carrier and promulgator of these. In this sense, the survival of vitality of a network may depend upon particular persons who play such roles, often in ways that come to seem irreplaceable.

7. Networks depend upon slack. Without the free resources for exchange [or] the free time for involvement, the functioning of networks would become impossible. Often, in return, networks are creators of slack; they fill functions for their members which would otherwise require greater output of time and resources, and they create 'capital' which can be spent in a variety of ways.

8. Networks have life-cycles, stages of development, growth and maturity. They are apt to have different functions and to serve different needs at various stages of their life-cycles. They have different degrees and kinds of vulnerability as they enter different stages.

9. Some networks are central to the meanings persons find or create in their lives. The energy invested in networks as well as their effectiveness depends upon these created meanings (pp. 5-7).

Schon placed a great deal of emphasis upon the necessity for the existence of informal networks for purposes of "catalyzing change" in all

institutions. Schon agreed with Lortie that major changes in educational institutions particularly for the sake of disseminating new ways of thinking would hasten the call for the development of practitioner networks.

Miles (1977) in a summation article on the feasibility of networking for promoting innovation and change in educational institutions agreed with Lortie, Parker, Schon, and Peterson that "networking does seem to be possible" in schools. He felt that networks should be created which (1) bring about educational improvement, (2) are durable, reasonable, and self-sustaining, and (3) will add to knowledge and lore about networking (i.e. they should be studyable during the process)" (pp. 7-8).

Miles outlined six major problem areas which educational networks must generally address. These included the problems of backwardness/obsolesence, inequity, stagnation, isolation/resource poverty, anomie, and unshared craft. Networks thus function to modernize, bring about justice, offer revitalization, cosmopolitanize, create or restore the idea of community, and bring about diffusion of competence. Not all networks face each of these problems, of course, but educational networks seem to deal mainly with the problems of backwardness/obsolesence, anomie, and unshared craft, whereas the flows from such networks are mostly "those of knowledge, objects (specific educational materials), and evaluation (what works well and why)" (p. 9).

He also called for "ongoing" (not retrospective) documentation of networking efforts and their consequences, as they happen in all their complexity (p. 56). Miles thus agreed with most current

commentators on networking who see the need for formative evaluation in all aspects of the process.

Brubaker (1982) used the networking concept as "an integrating thread" in his book Curriculum Planning: The Dynamics of Theory and Practice. He pointed out ten implicit biases which can serve as a rationale for using networking in curriculum planning, as follow:

1. the powerful nature of persons' perceptions, especially regarding resources (the curriculum planner's perception and definition of resources is a critical part of the curriculum-planning process)
2. the importance of informal relations (positional authority on the part of the curriculum planning leader should be used sparingly in order to better insure significant personal change on the part of others)
3. the significance of structure (structure is an essential part of curriculum planning, but a multi-structured approach may prove to be desirable for both identifying leadership styles and approaching basic curriculum (problems)
4. a sense of community and relatedness (curriculum planners have been challenged to provide the kind of leadership that helps persons, including themselves, to feel a sense of community and relatedness)
5. different kinds of covenants (as there is a wide array of relationships that vary as to intensity and duration, the effective curriculum-planning leader adopts a leadership style that is best for a particular situation--there is no one set style for leadership)
6. being rewarded as well as rewarding others (the curriculum-planning leader has to get at a high level in order to give at a high level)
7. transdisciplinary approaches (networking involved bringing together diverse peoples and resources)
8. praxis (reflective action) . . . is the work that best connotes the desirability of interaction between theory and practice. (Theory that stops short of action and action that is not based on theory are unfulfilled. Theory and action are wedded through reflective action experiences)
9. what can be as well as what should be (moral judgements ['something should be done!'] must be tempered by resource realities ['something can be done']). To focus only on the moral dimensions of an issue is to deny the reality of limited resources. The curriculum planner's challenge is to transform dreams and values into real-life relationships.

10. a balanced view that includes 'what goes right' as
    well as 'what goes wrong' (curriculum planners should
    avoid deficit model orientation and should realize
    that problems are part of larger dilemmas and we
    should therefore focus on what is 'right' in a setting
    as well as what is 'wrong') (pp. 77-79)

Brubaker's rationale for networking for use in curriculum planning

emphasizes the value of the networking process as a means for both

introducing and maintaining change in a "community setting," where

the learning is shared between curriculum-planning leaders and others

in the network. Decision-making takes place in a horizontal rather

than vertical arrangement. Communication is better facilitated through

such a process, and the resultant "cooperation and commonality of pur-

pose will lessen destructive competition" (p. 82).

A survey of current literature on networks and networking revealed

that the process seems to be a desirable vehicle for purposes of pro-

moting innovation and problem-solving in educational curriculum plan-

ning. Networking is seen as a workable alternative to the dominant,

traditional, bureaucratic model for curriculum planning. The problem

of bringing about innovation and change in educational settings partic-

ularly as they relate to curriculum planning will be discussed in the

final section of this chapter.

Change in Educational Settings

Networking can serve as an intervention strategy for change in

educational institutions. The process for bringing about change in

any type of organization, however, is extremely complex. Sarason (1971)

pointed out that those involved in trying to bring about change in

educational institutions too often focus on changing the individual in the institution rather than giving attention to the structure of the setting itself. He noted, "one of the most difficult obstacles to recognizing that the major problem in our schools, inher[ing] far less in the characteristics of individuals than it does in its cultural and system characteristics, is that one cannot see culture or system the way one sees individuals" (p. 228). He pointed out that the "change process in schools is based on three types of social relationships-- those among professionals, those among professionals and pupils, and those among professionals and different parts of large society " (p.47). He further noted that change "both affects and will be affected by all of these types of social relationships and that is precisely what is neither stated nor faced in the modal process of change in the school culture" (p. 47).

Sarason's view of change in the school also emphasized the need to change existing regularities. He wrote that "most efforts to change the classroom have not started with a clear statement about what behavioral regularities, overt and covert, were to be changed" (p. 173). Only by closely questioning the ideas and values which underlie existing regularities in the school, can those charged with implementing change be urged to recognize alternatives to existing practices.

Brubaker and Nelson (1975) also urged that attention be given the setting earmarked for change as well as the individual in the setting. They identified three foci of educational change: (a) the person, (b) the organization, and (c) the culture of the educational organization. They pointed out that "there have . . . been too few attempts to

understand personal and organizational change within the culture of the school" (p. 65). They further noted that "those involved in educational change must always be conscious of the three arenas of educational change and their relationship to each other" (p. 65). They cautioned against ignoring the "total Gestalt of the three arenas," so that the recommended change will not be "so narrowly defined that larger pressures absorb the change before it can be realized" (p. 65).

Tye and Novotney (1975) also agreed that those involved in seeking to bring about change in educational settings must recognize the complexity of roles and role relationships in the school (p. 45). They noted that "change always occurs within a context of vital environmental variables which interact, such as persons, things, and institutional processes, and it usually encounters resistance" (pp. 71-72).

Tye and Novotney encouraged the adoption of a peer support problem-solving strategy as the most desirable means for better assuring the success of change implementation in the schools. They noted, "the rationale for this strategy is based upon the assumption that self-inhibited change in a school has the best chance of success because the staff is highly motivated to make it work" (p. 110).

They also stressed the close relationship between the problem-solving strategy and the peer-support strategy. The peer-support strategy endorses the idea that "cooperative linkages" be fostered among schools. Such a strategy offers three distinct advantages:

1. It is seen by teachers and principals as highly
   relevant since help comes from other teachers and
   principals who are engaged in similar activities
2. The amount and number of potential resources is
   greatly increased
3. A school staff becomes both a giver and receiver
   of help, thus developing the process of self-renewal
   from two directions (pp. 138-39)

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed literature related to the topics of

traditional and present modes of curriculum planning particularly as

they regard the involvement of teachers. It also reviewed current

literature on networking with emphasis on the findings and conclusions

of Sarason on the subject. The problem of bringing about change in the

school was also discussed.

The writer has concluded through the literature search that the

need for more involvement of teachers in curriculum planning is well

grounded in research. The networking strategy as a means for change

intervention in schools is an especially attractive and potent means

for doing this. The next chapter will offer an analytical and pro-

grammatic model for networking in curriculum planning for social

studies teachers.

CHAPTER III

THE MODEL

Model Building

Conceptual models are heuristic tools useful for purposes of explaining the existence of obeserved phenomen. A prescriptive definition of the term separates the idea of model from the idea of theory though the two are often used interchangeably. Galt and Smith (1976) defined models "as the building blocks of theory" (p. 24). Models help us grasp the essence of the whole of any social phenomena. Galt and Smith used the example of model airplanes to show the value of models per se for understanding. They noted "like model planes, social science models miniaturize and simplify the dimensions of real systems of social interaction so they can be comprehended as wholes and become manipulable in the mind" (p. 26).

Models of concrete objects sacrifice detail. Galt and Smith noted that real airplanes have dents, scratches, textured surfaces, rivet heads, and all kinds of other minor characteristics. In a model at reduced scale fine surface details are lost and usually the interior and operating components are not represented. Similarly in social science models, detail is sacrificed for a clearer conception of the whole and certain parts of social systems are ignored in favor of others (p. 26). The "certain parts" chosen for representation by the model builder underscore the idea that conceptual models are not

free from value bias.

Models used in social science are not usually as quantifiable as those used in bio-physical sciences; for example, the margin of error is greater. Still, such models can be useful in many ways.

Conceptual models are the product of assumptions and processes. Galt and Smith have pointed out that "if models are the building blocks of theory, assumptions are the molds in which these building blocks are cast, the tools with which they are shaped, or, sometimes the mortar with which they are connected" (p. 29).

Another important area of consideration for the model builder concerns that of perspective. Galt and Smith (1976) used the term perspective to mean the "special viewpoint from which a model builder constructs a model" (p. 33). The term perspective as used here implies, among other things, the value orientation of the model builder. Thus, in addition to the enumeration and explanation of assumptions, the value base of the conceptual model builder must be made clear.

Brubaker (1978) has noted that "model building is the process whereby one attempts to convey the essential features of a particular reality through a construct whose elements and their relationships to each other and the whole are described" (p. 23).

Macdonald (1980) pointed out that all models are heuristic—though they are not a statement of reality, they do have use in understanding reality. Galt and Smith wrote that "the heuristic model provides a frame of reference from which discoveries can be made" (p. 62).

The conceptual model which is the focus of this study is both

analytic and programmatic, "Analytical models explain the existence of phenomena in relationship to other phenomena" (Galt & Smith, p. 92). Galt and Smith felt that "analytical models are best seen first as contributions to the growth of a developing sense of understanding of social phenomena, and only secondly, with due understanding of the process and limitations of model building, as a practical road map for making policy" (p. 93).

The model is programmatic not only in terms of advocating a certain policy for curriculum planners, but as such, this policy is based on the above criteria for analytical model building. It is hoped that the model being presented will offer a practical means for improving not only curriculum planning in an informal manner, but also in understanding the process being implemented.

Comparative Models

Sarason (1972) has defined a setting as "any instance in which two or more people come together in a new relationship over a sustained period of time in order to achieve certain goals" (p. 1). The network model for curriculum planning represents a highly important and valuable settings example. Thus the model of networking for curriculum planning should take into consideration other settings models for comparison and contrast. The settings models of Sarason and Brubaker will be examined as a prelude to the model for networking.

The Sarason Model

Sarason's model represents a linear sequential description of

settings creation which may be applied to any type of setting (e.g.
medical, clinical, political, etc.). The model includes three major
stages:

1. The Before-the-Beginning Stage
   a. explanation for new settings
   b. basic assumptions
   c. confronting history

2. The Beginning Stage
   a. choosing the leader
   b. formation of the core group

3. The Setting/Implementation of Goals

Sarason has noted that a proposed new setting "always arises in some
relation to existing settings" (p. 46). The before-the-beginning
stage involves giving attention to the history of the existing setting.
Sarason refers to this period as time for examining the zeitgeist or
"what is in the air." Too often, Sarason noted, the creators of a new
setting do not examine other important questions such as availability
of resources, questions of leadership, agreement on approaches to
problem solving, and so forth. Agreement on values and motivation in
creating a new setting do not necessarily offer enough to sustain a
new setting (p. 12). Sarason noted:

> a proposed new setting always arises in some relation to
> existing settings . . . there are characteristics of the
> new setting such as superiority of mission and concerns
> of existing ones (such as ideology, concern for resources)
> which ensure some conflict and competition . . . (p. 46)

Thus it is important for creators of new settings to take into account
the history of the existing setting. In the beginning stage the choice
of a leader is most crucial. A leader may be self-appointed (the
creator of the setting), or come from within the group or from the

outside. However, it is necessary that the leader have not only knowledge of the setting's earlist phase as well as the existing organization, but also possess "a way of thinking which mirrors the complexity of interest and conflicts out of which the new setting has emerged, the internal and external groups which are, or will be affected, and the necessity to confront these problems in ways which will not interfere with achieving the purpose of the new setting . . ." (p. 49).

Whether a setting is created from an existing setting or represents the ideas and efforts of a single individual or a group, the ultimate leader is faced with the job of choosing and forming a core group. Sarason described the "core group as usually a handful of people who will be closest to him (the leader) personally and status-wise and will be 'his family' to whom he delegates responsibilities and powers second only to his own" (p. 72).

Sarason pointed out that the leader chooses core group members ostensibly for their talents and abilities to perform tasks. Usually questions dealing with potential conflict and obstacles which will most likely be present in the setting are ignored, and the crises and failures of a setting which later occur are often blamed on lack of communication between and among the core group members and the leader. In other words, the enthusiasm and optimism which attend the creation of a new setting either naively or purposefully ignores both the past history of the setting as well as possible (and probable) future conflicts.

One of the problems involving core group members is that they fall victim to two myths regarding their role. First they feel that their

job is "not determined by how other core members do their job, and secondly, resources available to the setting are sufficient to allow each core member to do his job in the way he wished." (p. 79). Sarason felt that there were two related tasks which led to the major problems encountered by settings creators. These included "growth and differentiation, on the one hand, and forging of a "constitution by which the setting will be governed" (p. 141). The way in which these two tasks are handled in new settings generally leads to several important pitfalls within the setting. Sarason noted that leaders and groups generally feel that motivation, agreement on values and goals, and the assumption that sufficient resources exist to pursue individual core members' goals ignores giving sufficient attention to constitutional issues. Sarason noted that "the failure to think in constitutional terms maximizes ambiguities which usually lead to informal, umambiguous, and individual kinds of resolutions, such as heightened competitiveness and individual empires" (pp. 141-42). The process repeats itself as core members form their own subcore groups.

The final stage of the Sarason model involves the implementation of the goals of the setting. The assumptions listed above serve, in many cases, as the thinking usually present in the implementation stage of a setting.

Sarason's model, while not directly geared toward an educational setting, offers a valuable framework to one interested in creating a model of networking for curriculum planning. This is particularly true in regard to giving attention to the prehistory of the setting, the choice of leader, and the formation of a core group. Most important,

Sarason has called attention to the need for leaders and core group members to articulate and recognize potential obstacles and problems in the "constitutional formation" period. The failure to do so has proved to bring about the decline of many worthwhile and ambitious new settings.

The Brubaker Model

Brubaker (1977) developed an analytic and programmatic model which is specifically related to the creation of educational settings. Unlike the Sarason model which is somewhat linear and sequential, the Brubaker model stresses the constant interaction between processes (means) and goals (ends). Brubaker has chosen the amoeba as the metaphor for his model. He noted that elements of the settings model are placed within an everchanging amoeba-like framework which symbolizes the belief that decisions in creating a setting follow no particular linear sequence (p. 21).

The Brubaker model is graphically illustrated in Figure 1. Brubaker has identified a stage of settings creation in which the creator becomes aware of the influence of tradition and culture on the setting. This is analogous to Sarason's "before-the-beginning" stage: Brubaker posed three major questions that leaders of a new setting should ask in the early stages of the setting:

1. Was the need for a new setting recognized, expressed, and initiated by a substantial element within the old setting or was this need recognized, expressed, and initiated by persons outside the old setting?

goals (ends)   processes (means)

psychological sense of   relating to the history and
community   culture of the setting

sense of personal   covenant formation (defining roles
worth   and building a core group)

_____   value identification and
                                          priority setting

_____   change strategies (first and
                                          second order change)

_____   operational guidelines for
                                          implementing creation of
                                          settings processes

                    basic assumptions about creation
                          of settings goals and
                                processes
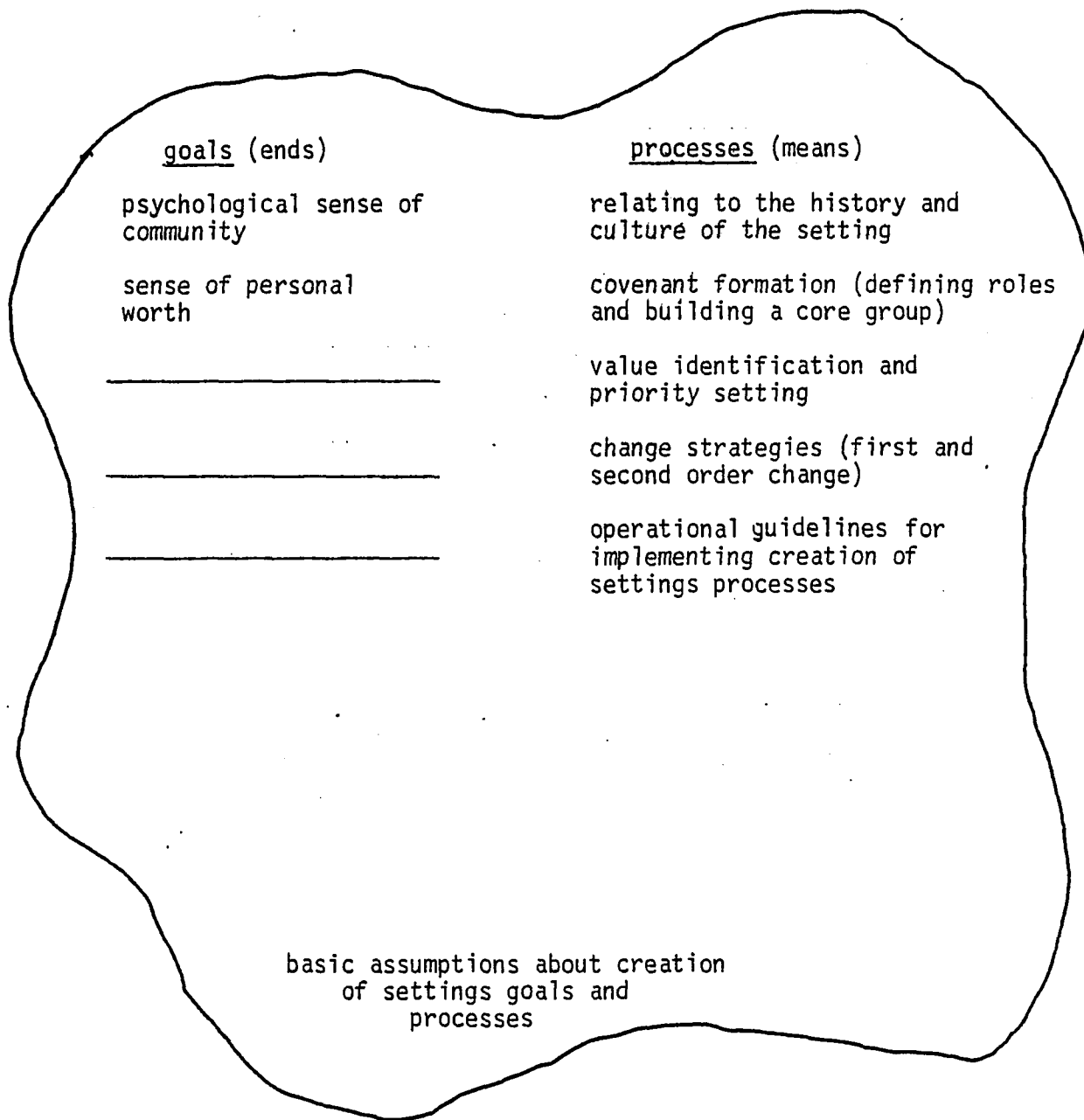

Figure 1.   The Brubaker Model   The creation-of-settings goals (ends)
            and processes (means): An analytic and programmatic model

2. Recognizing the fact that the proposed setting " . . . confronts a preexisting complicated structure of relationships . . .", which facets of these relationships will work for and which facets will work against the creation of the new setting?

3. What ". . . ways of thinking (assumptions, conceptions, theories) . . ." existed in the old setting and how do they compare and contrast to ways of thinking of those who initiated the new setting? (pp. 22-23)

Brubaker emphasized the need to examine "existing regularities which in turn are based on dispositions or attitudes" (p. 23). In particular, he advised that those involved in settings creation pay attention to symbols, rituals, and myths in order to more clearly understand the culture of the setting. In other words, the creators of settings should look for the "hidden curriculum" of an existing setting.

A second process to consider is that of covenant formation. This includes dealing with role definitions and building a core when they create a new setting. One of the most important covenants in a new setting is that between leader and core group. Brubaker agreed with Sarason that there must be "open and honest communication between the leader and core group members" (p. 23). If leaders choose friends as core group members, they may make the mistake of assuming that they will work well together when in fact, they cannot and do not. Brubaker has noted that this element in the process of settings creation brings to bear a very critical factor--" the leader and core group must share a basic tenet in their covenants with each other: honest discussions must take place in order to anticipate as well as react to problems and dilemmas" (p. 24). Brubaker also noted the

importance of distinguishing between problems and dilemmas--one thinks

of "solving" problems, but dilemmas must be reconciled, thus requiring

a higher tolerance for ambiguity" (p. 24).

The third major area of settings creation processes deals with

values and priority setting. This element involves the degree of

intensity and length of duration of covenants between persons. Brubaker

has noted that "the degree of commitment to a relationship depends on

one's values and to act on such values is to involve one in priority

setting" (p. 24). He listed four kinds of covenants which are applic-

able to most settings:

1. Little Intensity, Brief Duration
2. High Intensity, Brief Duration
3. Little Intensity, Long Duration
4. High Intensity, Long Duration (pp. 24-25).

Desirable covenants in settings creation would be of the fourth type

listed above. Brubaker pointed out that "although this is the rarest

kind of personal covenant for it involves considerable openness and

risk taking, it can be the most rewarding" (p. 25). Most new settings

commence in an atmosphere of high intensity (unbounded enthusiasm

and euphoria, etc.) but the intensity seems to ebb over the duration

of the setting due to the problem outlined earlier in this chapter--

lack of giving attention to "constitutional formation."

Since most new settings are created to bring about change, a

fourth major process deals with change strategies. Brubaker identified

two types of change in his model. These include first-and second-

order change. First-order change generally refers to cosmetic change

in a setting. This type of change supports the phrase "the more things

change, the more they remain the same." Second-order change involves "implosion" within the setting and depends on reconceptualization of "self" within one's setting. Obviously, this process requires that participants in a setting be given opportunities to reflect on their basic assumption about the change process.

The goals for the Brubaker model include giving those involved in the setting (a) a psychological sense of community, and (b) opportunities to enhance feelings of personal worth. The processes (means) of the Brubaker model revolve around these two goals.

The model is intertwined by the concept or idea of praxis. Brubaker (1978) defined praxis as reflective action, or a marriage of theory and practice. Praxis serves to demand a "realistic view of what has been, what is, and what can be" (p. 28). This realistic view of the setting allows for prediction of the types of problems and dilemmas that will occur in the setting. Brubaker noted that "this feeling fosters the participants' self-confidence, for it communicates decision-making potency" (p. 28). He further noted that it allows for playfulness and creativity in dealing with issues within the setting and it helps bring about a climate whereby members of its setting can achieve community. (p. 28).

The network model for curriculum planning includes and extends elements from both the Sarason and Brubaker models. It also takes note of areas of comparison and contrast where appropriate.

A New Model

The network model for curriculum planning reflects the following values bias of the writer:

1. Each person has dignity

2. Each person has an inherent right to make personal decisions

3. Teachers should be treated as professionals and as such should have a major voice in curriculum decision-making

4. School settings should offer a meeting ground for both children and adults for experiences, for discourse and dialogue, and for self-examination and self-realization

5. People seek and deserve to experience a psychological sense of community if possible, in any setting

6. People seek and desire to possess a sense of personal worth and potency

As was stated earlier in the section on model building, a conceptual model is built upon assumptions which help to better understand the orientation and value system of the model builder. The basic assumptions on which the network model for curriculum planning is based include the following:

1. <u>Teachers desire opportunities to participate in curriculum decision-making so that they will feel a greater degree of self-worth.</u> Sarason and others have noted that teachers desire to participate in curriculum decision-making activities. The current bureaucratic mode of educational decision-making tends to inhibit the participation of

teachers in most curriculum planning decisions.

2. Resources are limited in any institutional setting, therefore a network created to provide an informal meeting ground for exchange of resources will mitigate needless and wasteful competition over limited resources. In settings, resources are limited though the myth continues to exist, especially in the beginning stages of a new setting, that the resources necessary to meet goals are available. The reality of the scarcity of resources leads to wide-spread competition among settings members which in turn inhibits cohesion, community, and a sense of personal worth. The informal nature of networks helps to lessen the usual competition for scarce resources.

3. People are willing to come together in an informal setting such as a network in order to "give and get" resources on a high level. Studies by Sarason (1977), Scott and Blau (1981), have shown that in highly organized bureaucratic organizations, informal networking emerges in order to allow the members of the institution to satisfy personal needs as well as offer opportunities to step out of institutionalized roles and offer services and resources that might be ignored or not permitted in those roles.

4. Teachers, given their relative isolation in the school institution, desire ways in which to interact with other professionals in a collegial community atmosphere. Sarason (1966), Lortie (1975), and others have commented at length

about the "loneliness" of the teacher in the bureaucratically organizational structure of the educational setting. Much of this "loneliness" can be attributed to the lack of opportunity for contact with colleagues and others in the school community to discuss professional problems.

5. <u>The relaxed, informal nature of a network setting allows for, and encourages spontaneity and creativity among its members.</u> <u>The unexpected and the mysterious are welcomed and this helps to establish trust in oneself and one's fellow network members.</u> One of the more attractive features of networking is that it is not highly organized along bureaucratic lines. Trust is offered to all members and in that trust the members come to see themselves as valuable contributors or "actors" (rather than re-actors) in the curriculum decision-making process.

6. <u>The informal-lateral decision-making process of a network encourages the emergence of many leaders and facilitates leadership qualities among many in the network who might otherwise not have opportunities to express and demonstrate their own particular leadership skills in a professional setting.</u> Networks help mitigate the problem of resource scarcity in many ways not the least of which is leadership. Brubaker (1976) has noted that there are four major sources of power used by leaders in settings. These include positional power (or power derived from authority), expertise,

charisma, and succorance (p. 31). Network members
share these sources of power in different degrees and
the non-hierarchical structure of the network more
easily allows for leadership to emerge from all areas
within the network.

A traditional (ideal-type) view of curricular decision-making is
illustrated in the following figure (Figure 2). This hierarchical
educational setting structure represents a simplistic view of the
traditional means for the dissemination of curriculum planning--
though the flow of command would, realistically, not be as rigid as
depicted here.

In this traditional hierarchical structure, decisions and
directives are issued in a vertical direction with little opportunity
for feedback, let alone allowance for consideration of the values,
attitudes, and the "before the beginning" environment of school
personnel in the decision-making process. A case in point may be
found in a recent law passed by the North Carolina State Legislature
which requires ninth graders to take a course entitled "Economic,
Legal, and Political Systems." The mandating of this course has
ignored the realities of the current education situation. A handful
of brief workshops were conducted in the state in the summer before
the course was to be taught, but these workshops only served a frac-
tion of the teachers who would be teaching the course. Adequate
materials and qualified personnel are limited. This situation
indicates the failure of the lawmakers ("curriculum planners') to

```
              FEDERAL EDUCATION AGENCIES   Federal Power Bodies
                        ı  /\               Executive
                        ı   ı               Legislative
                        ı   ı               Judicial
                        ı   ı
                        \ı  ı
State Board     STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES    State Power Bodies
of Education            ı  /\               Executive
                        ı   ı               Legislative
                        ı   ı               Judicial
                        ı   ı
                        \ı  ı
Local Board     LOCAL EDUCATION AGENCIES    Local Elected
of Education           ı  /\                Power Bodies
                        ı   ı
                        ı   ı
                       .ı   ı
                       \ı   ı
                        PRINCIPALS
                        ı  /\
                        ı   ı
                        ı   ı
                        ı   ı
                       \ı   ı
              TEACHERS------------Other Education Personnel

COMMUNITY             STUDENTS      PARENTS
   ı                            /\
   ı                    ı
   ı                    ı
   ı                    ı
  \ı                    ı
Direction of Command    Direction of Compliance
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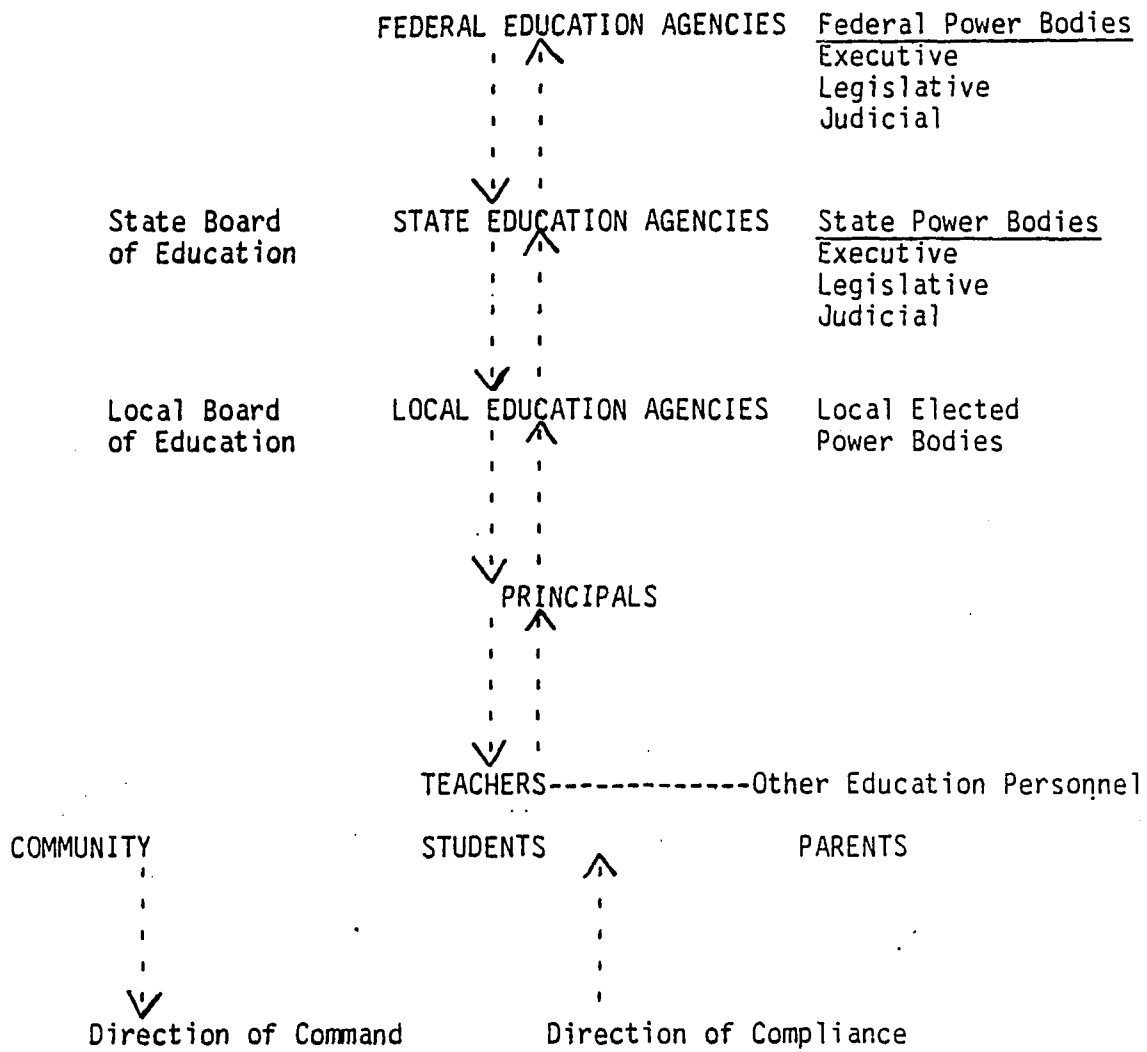
Figure 2. Traditional hierarchical educational

settings structure

NOTE: This hierarchical educational settings structure represents
a simplistic view of the traditional means for the dissemination
of change strategy--from the federal level to the individual
school staff (though the flow of command would, realistically,
not be quite as rigid as depicted here).

take note of the limited resources available to implement the program.

This example serves to point up the alienation and sense of loneliness (helplessness) felt by many practitioners. The hierarchical arrangement through its usual means of seeking to bring about change in curriculum policy, defines the resources to be used (whether available or not), the allocation of said limited resources (which intensifies competition over existing scarce resources), and the means and procedures for implementation of the resources. Thus grandiose ideas and plans are oftentimes unrecognizable and unclear as to purpose in the lower echelons of the hierarchical structure after they have been "put into operation." There is an absence of sense of "ownership" or "control" over the curriculum decision-making process on the part of teachers and others involved in the educational setting.

Components of the Network Model

A network model for curriculum planning might conceivably take the form pictured in Figure 3. The metaphor used is that of the web or netlike structure which centers around a point or points of focus (the ego). The ego in the network model represents the desired ends of the setting: (a) psychological sense of community and (b) sense of personal worth, which are interpreted to include the ability of the network members to successfully define and meet the curriculum needs of the school community while sharing in a community atmosphere and realizing personal satisfaction and self-esteem.
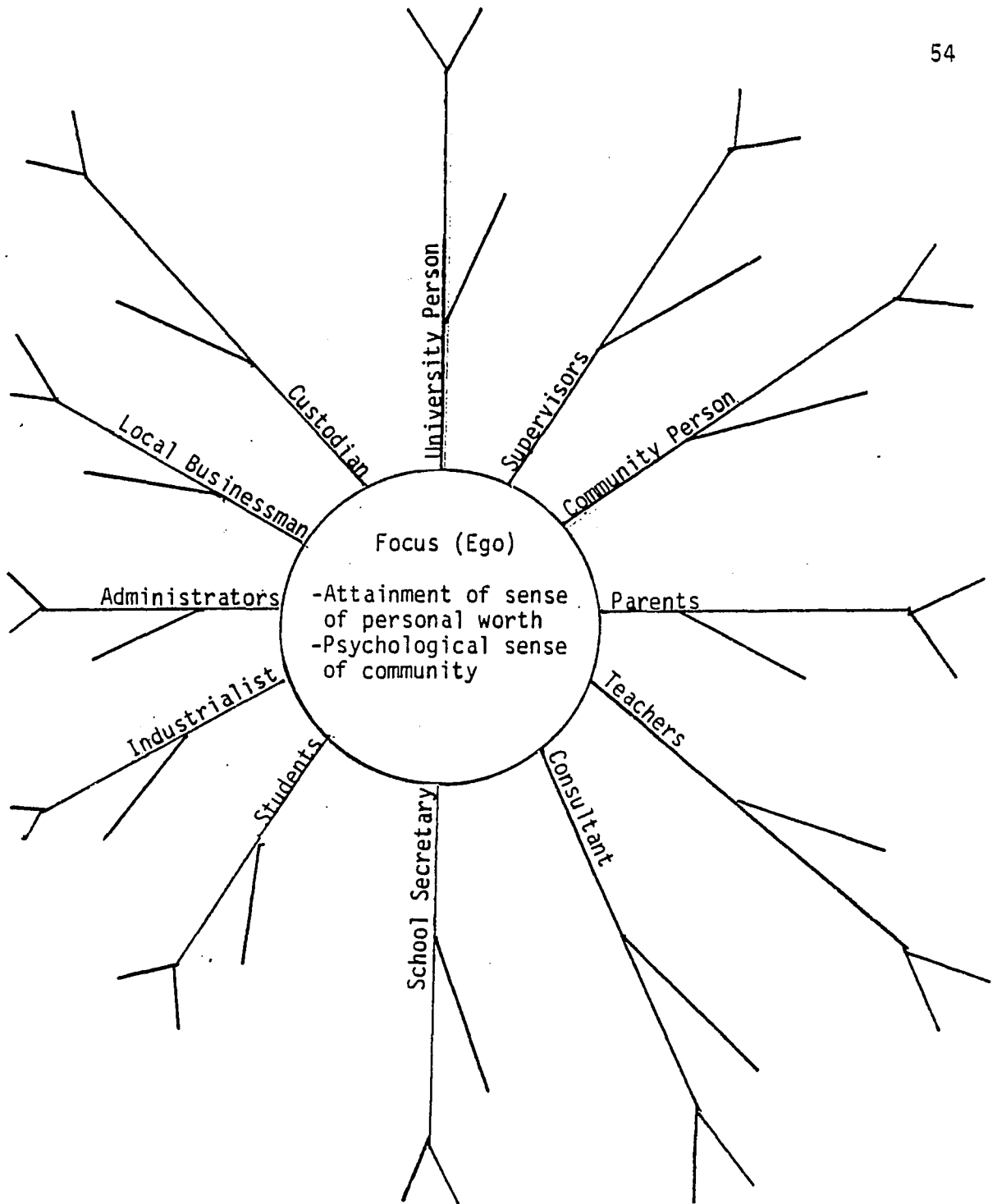
Figure 3. Conceptual model of a network in an education setting.

NOTE: This model does not show the intricate overlap between units that immediately surround the ego, but they will, of course, invariably exist.

The pattern of communication and decision-making as presented in the model is accomplished on a horizontal or lateral level. The model is structured so as to allow for diverse input and reaction (feedback) on curriculum planning proposals.

The intricate patterning of the "webbing" represents the infinite number and types of linkages (or contacts) created by the network members. The infinite ends of the figure are represented by the lines which do not terminate. This depicts the unbounded nature of the network. There exists a very large number of units extremely "diverse in role, function, and type involved in a focal unit's network" (Sarason, 1977, pp. 151-52). Examples of these units might include teachers, administrators, parents, community leaders, business and financial leaders, supervisors, students, consultants, and so on. This would represent the "intranetworking" element of the model. The setting would undoubtedly be linked to other settings (the local school system, and other formal institutions both public and private--which would represent the internetworking component of the model).

These units can and will change and interchange continuously, especially in the goal setting and implementation phase of the model. The focus of the network will not undergo change per se, but the conception of the focus of the network will hopefully transcend from one of "his/her or their" network to that of "my/our" network. The latter conception of the network represents the ultimate goal of all concerned.

The curriculum planning network model as represented in Figure 3 conforms to the accepted description of the network concept. The model presented does not depict the infinite contacts and linkages of a network. One of the qualities of the network model is its unboundedness. It continuously extends and expands in membership.

In the school setting, the application of the network model can deal not only with the diffusion of change strategies in an effective way, and provide for second-order change (given the opportunities for continuous self-evaluation and reconceptualization), but also in a manner that can accommodate the uniqueness of the particular school setting.

The curriculum planning network model can more readily assess the various alternatives that exist for current practices in the school system. In this way, practitioners may be able to break free from the binding behavioral regularities which tend to inhibit them. Sarason (1971) pointed out that "the failure to consider or recognize a universe of alternatives is one obstacle to change occurring from within the culture, and make it likely that recognition of the universe of alternatives will await events and forces outside the culture" (p. 86).

A curriculum planning network, by bringing together diverse resources (people, ideas, interchange), can do much to alter the traditional conception of the system that school personnel often hold. These conceptions many times lead to inaction and failure to be cognizant of the wide range of alternatives available to them.

The network model for curriculum planning borrows heavily from both the Sarason and Brubaker settings models. From both models, questions related to the "before the beginning" phase are considered. The network model will be applicable to situations where a new setting is desired or where a new setting emerges from an existing setting. Given the nature of the circumstances surrounding a curriculum planning network, it will be imperative that the network creators carefully assess the problems, obstacles, and concerns of the teachers who express a desire to create the network. The traditional orientation of teachers as pointed out by Lortie (1975) and which include conservatism, presentism, and individualism must be carefully considered and articulated in adopting a model of a setting that counters or offers dramatic alternatives to these orientations. Agreement on goals and values is not enough to guarantee the success of a new setting. The network model emphasizes, within the context of informal professional collegiality, frank discussions of the basic assumptions, views of resources, and cultural obstacles facing the setting.

In the beginning stage of the network formation, the important task of choosing a leader (or leaders) and forming the core group is most critical. Brubaker (1977) has referred to this stage as covenant formation.

The process of choosing a leader for the network is closely aligned to the previously mentioned sources of power found among people in a group. Though it is likely that there will be one or two leaders in the initial stage of network formation, the leader

may, in reality, be more of a coordinator or facilitator of network activities (a match-maker of people and resources).

The leader in a network setting will need to suspend positional authority and work toward decision-making formats such as consensual agreement among members. The leader of the network setting must admit doubts, concerns and questions about the future of the setting to the members. Many times the leader of a setting refuses to reveal weaknesses and fears to the core group, a situation which may lead to problems in later stages of network setting development.

The choice of the core group is of equal importance in the network setting process. Brubaker (1977) has noted that "the leader and core group members must share a basic tenet in their covenants with each other to anticipate as well as react to problems and dilemmas" (p. 24).

Role clarification is also of vital importance in the beginning stage of the network model. Brubaker (1977) pointed out that "as participants engage in the covenant formation process, they clarify the roles they play. The relatedness of these roles is clear if one keeps in mind that even a slight change in one person's role forces others to modify their role definitions to some extent" (p. 24).

Membership and Resource Redefinition

The network model for curriculum planning initially involves both practitioners and administrators, but the unbounded nature of networking

allows for the inclusion of a vast range of people from different areas and orientations. The network will continue to expand and grow; thus, the very nature of networking is dynamic and free-flowing. The open-ended nature of network membership lends itself to the critical area of resource redefinition. A major aspect of network creation is found in the way in which the framework of the network encourages its members to reconceptualize their roles--to be allowed and encouraged to go beyond the parameters of their official role designations, and to expand their capacities for change. Sarason (1979) has used the work "exchange" within this context and pointed out that it is "a sustained process in which people become part of each other's social and intellectual environment . . . in the sense of each enlarging the other's knowledge as well as possibilities for action" (p. 150).

Members of the network are accepted for their value as resources regardless of their official professional status or occupation. A major goal of the network for curriculum planning stresses the breakdown of traditional rigid barriers to people because of their official role within a bureaucracy.

Guidelines for Implementation of the Model

The final stage of the network model for curriculum planning involves implementation of the network's goals. The following represent suggested guidelines for the creation and implementation of a network for curriculum planning:

1. Those involved in creating a network setting for curriculum planning must assess that there is a need for a new setting.

2. Those involved in creating a network setting for curriculum planning must take into consideration the history of the existing setting.

3. Leadership in the network must create an atmosphere in the early stages that

   (a) demonstrates flexibility and (invitational) openness

   (b) encourages exchange of ideas on potential conflicts and problems and helps convey the idea that conflict and tension can be both healthy and constructive

   (c) encourages the emergence of leadership throughout the network

4. Leaders should help members realize the limitations of resources in terms of how alternatives may be considered to meet needs.

5. General meetings should be scheduled on a basis conducive to providing a forum for articulation of ideas and concerns, and introduce people to resources.

6. Evaluation of networking must be formative as
   issues continue to emerge throughout the develop-
   ment of the setting.

7. Network leaders should give attention to the time
   variable and try to avoid being trapped by time
   constraints with regard to the work of the network.
   Time is a limited resource particularly when it
   is invoked as a constraint.

Conclusion

Networks promote involvement, sharing, interaction, opportunities
for both giving and getting, and they encourage eternal vigilance
over the goals for attainment of self-worth and psychological sense
of community. The model presented in this chapter is analytic and
programmatic. It serves as a useful heuristic tool and can serve as
a springboard for further study and research.

The network model for curriculum planning can be "plugged in"
to various types of formal institutional programs such as inservice
or other types of staff development. The application of the network
model to an actual curriculum planning setting will be described in
the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL: A CASE STUDY

The implementation of the network model for curriculum planning

took place in a medium-sized school system in western North Carolina.

The model presented in the previous chapter was used as the basis

for the network created in the Caldwell County School System. Chapter

IV will describe and analyze the workings of the network model in

terms of the components of the "before-the-beginning stage," the

developmental or constitutional formation stage which includes the

question of leadership selection and core group formation, goal

setting, and the beginning-of-the-setting stage. The chapter will

also include a section on the development of the leader in the network,

the area of formative evaluation, and meta-evaluation and the role of

the participant observer.

Before-the-Beginning Stage

The creation of a new setting such as the Caldwell County Social

Studies Network involves the need to carefully examine and assess the

present setting. New settings usually emerge from old settings for

various reasons. Such was the case of the network under consideration.

The site used for the present study is a medium-sized county in

western piedmont North Carolina. The school system includes 22 schools.

Three of these schools are secondary and two are designated as middle
schools (grades 7-9). Approximately 4500 students attend the three
secondary and two middle schools, in which there are twenty social
studies teachers. These teachers are, generally speaking, in full
charge of their traditionally organized classes. Little formal col-
legial contact takes place nor is there any degree of significant
team or cooperative teaching in the social studies program.

No individual is solely responsible for social studies super-
vision or consultation in the system. Rather, one person serves as
coordinator for all middle and secondary school programs (except
those in the vocational and exceptional areas). Thus the scarcity of
time and sheer human resources with regard to providing adequate
intercommunications and other consultive resources is especially
evident. This being the case, the social studies teachers in this
system are left largely on their own with regard to curriculum planning
and resource procurement. Contact with the over-burdened middle and
secondary school coordinator is almost totally by paper directive
or memorandum.

In the early winter of 1983, a committee of six (only two of
whom were teachers) served on an accreditation committee whose
purpose was to identify strengths and weaknesses of the system's
social studies program. The consensus of the committee revealed
several areas of vital concern. One of the major areas of concern
was the need to provide teachers with more access to a wider area of
community resources as well as access to each other as resources.

Having identified these needs however, the committee did not make any concrete proposals as to how to meet them. As with other self-study recommendations, these too seemed headed for oblivion.

The idea for creation of a network for social studies curriculum planning emerged from the work of this committee. While the committee itself was a bureaucratically appointed group given the task of dealing with an administrative chore, the needs described by the group appeared to some members to be much more conducive to an informal setting such as a network.

In informal conversations with teachers and some administrators, the writer ascertained the desire and preference of teachers to engage in some sort of unofficial body whereby critical and relevant needs might be identified and met without going through the usual (and many times frustrating) bureaucratic channels. Teachers readily agreed that resources--particularly those dependent on monetary funds-- were especially limited in this particular school setting. Easy access to community resources was also mentioned as being limited within the traditional context of the institutionalized arrangement of the schools in relation to the central office staff.

The writer used these discoveries to help formulate a plan for networking as a vehicle for social studies curriculum planning. The development of the network will now be discussed.

Development of the Network

In April, 1983, the writer informally suggested to the co-
ordinator of middle and secondary education the idea of pulling
social studies teachers together in a network for the purpose
of examining some of the needs identified by the accreditation
committee. Both the writer and coordinator served on that committee.
The response was favorable enough so that the writer felt confident
to carry the proposal to another administrator in charge of the
total curriculum. This adminstrator was also impressed with the
idea and gave his approval.

A few weeks later, a letter (see Appendix A) was sent to each
social studies teacher in the secondary and middle schools explain-
ing the purpose of the network as well as including an invitation
to meet at the end of the school year to further discuss the idea.

The writer's notes of that first meeting which was held about
five days before the end of the teacher's work year point out that
in attendance were four secondary social studies teachers (including
himself), one secondary school principal, and the coordinator of
middle and secondary education. The meeting was held in a public
restaurant, and those present sat at one long table. The principal
sat at the end of the table, and dominated the discussion. Ironically,
much of the discussion focused on the acquisition and use of power
by both teachers and citizens.

The principal's presence seemed to intimidate two of the teachers
who sat very quietly and were observed to nod in agreement with the

principal rather frequently. One of the teachers (who never attended
any of the subsequent meetings) offered a suggestion of using net-
working to create a student-tutorial service. Her suggestion was
not picked up by any of the others present, and the principal con-
tinued to dominate the conversation about his own experiences in
informal networking. The school coordinator also seemed to defer
to the principal. One of the secondary teachers (who is discussed
in greater detail later in this chapter and identified as "Tom"),
did not sit idly by and interjected his own "agenda" into the
discussion. He was very interested in looking for ways for teachers
to raise their consciousness levels concerning the recognition and
utilization of avenues of power that may already exist within the
school system.

The writer tried to keep the focus of the discussion centered
on the networking concepts and the proposal to create a social studies
network for purposes of engaging in informal curriculum planning. He
explained, in general terms, what he saw the network accomplishing
(helping teachers to feel more involved in curriculum decision-making,
planning, creating, and applying various projects into the social
studies program of the system, and so on), but he felt rather
uneasy about the clarity of his remarks.

The mood and tone of the meeting was friendly and pleasant, but
the presence of an administrator and a consultant most definitely
inhibited others present. Perhaps since administrators, consultants,
and teachers had not often (or perhaps ever) come together for such

discussions, the traditional reaction to positional authority on the part of the teachers was to be expected. The writer made a mental note to try to plan for the next meeting to take place in an even more informal setting such as his home.

Though this first meeting was small in terms of numbers present, it was important in terms of identifying some of the problems existing in the school system. Frustration at lack of ability to secure resources, restrictions on such things as field trips, time management, lack of access to other teachers, and so forth were identified. Except for agreeing to meet in the fall, no other concrete plans were made at this first meeting.

Shortly after the first meeting, the writer contacted the other secondary and middle school social studies teachers in person in order to try to generate interest in the social studies networking proposal. Most of those with whom he talked were interested in knowing (a) how much of their time it would take to get involved in networking activities and (b) exactly what kinds of activities would be taking place. Though interest and curiosity were high, few commitments were made by those contacted.

In September, another meeting was held at the home of the writer. Letters of invitation were again sent to each social studies teacher. Again, there was a small turnout, but some important decisions were made. More concrete evidence as to the types of interest and concern of social studies teachers was displayed at this meeting. In attendance were two high school teachers, one

middle school teacher, and the middle and secondary school coordinator.

Sarason (1977) noted that "it is relatively easy to describe what people say at a meeting. It is far more difficult, obviously, to describe what they felt, that is, that large part of the experience for which spoken words are at best inadequate and at worst misleading symbols" (p. 45). Such was the case at this meeting of the network. The following observations were made by the writer about the four people in attendance:

> Supervisor (Jane) seems concerned about her professional role and the way others may view her in the network setting. She is eager to help and provide information from the administrative sector to teachers. She has a pleasant, non-threatening personality, and has had much experience in teaching and supervision.

> Secondary teacher #1 (Jack) is articulate, self-assured, and highly opinionated. It is difficult to judge how others perceive him. One wonders how much substance there is to his talk. It is interesting that he has taken such a great interest in the network idea. His personal goal may be to gain power in some way for himself.

> Middle School teacher (Bill) is a veteran teacher (some twenty-five years or more), but it is interesting that he is willing to take the risk of joining in with a project that might alter his approach to teaching (doesn't seem too concerned with his territoriality).

> Secondary teacher #2 (Bob) talked a lot at this meeting. He mainly talked about the networking process, and perhaps painted too simplistic a picture to the networking idea, but was made aware of the importance of the before-the-beginning considerations that must be taken into account.

Though the above observations are not greatly revealing with respect to describing the inner most feelings of the participants, they do

serve to show one way in which the initiator of a network might begin
to think about how a core group might be formed, as well as helping
to pinpoint potential obstacles to the development of the network.

This meeting produced three major things: (1) It was the first
time that social studies teachers and an administrator in this
system had gotten together outside of the school day to share ideas
and concerns, (2) it ended with the willingness of the participants
to commit themselves to a project not required or demanded by their
teaching situation, and (3) it brought about an agreement by all
to invite others both in and out of the school system to become
participants in the network.

The meeting also produced a plan to develop a project that could
involve many participants both in the school system and in the school
community. This project was to create a series of video-cassette
tapes on various aspects of the community society--business and
economic, governmental and political, social, religious, cultural,
environmental, and so on. It was agreed that individual members of
the network begin thinking about ways in which to carry out this
project, and that this project would be the subject of the next
meeting.

The writer mentioned that he had been asked to address a meeting
of the local Chamber of Commerce on the topic of networking. The
group suggested that he use this as an opportunity to invite the
community leaders present to become part of the new network. (See
Appendix B for a copy of these remarks.)

Emergence of Leadership

Some networks are the creation of an individual or persons within an organization, while others are created by people outside of formal organizations. The network under present study represents the former. As the initiator of the network, the writer was immediately perceived as the leader/coordinator not only by other social studies teachers, but by administrators as well. The writer however, never referred to himself as "leader" or coordinator in any communications (oral or written) with network members. In fact, the writer continuously tried to emphasize the need for many leaders at different points (or phases) of network activities.

Sarason et. al. (1979) noted that many times "network leader/ coordinators emerge as a result of self-selection. That has always been the case where the resource exchange network is informal, voluntary, and unbounded" (p. 151). Thus, at least in the initial stages, the initiator of the Caldwell County Social Studies Network was also perceived to be its formally designated leader.

Formation of the Core Group

The formation of a core group is a vital step in the creation of any setting, particularly a network setting where the relationships are not bounded by institutionalized restrictions, rules, or rigid time-tables. Sarason (1976) pointed out that "a core member is attracted to a new setting because he has concluded that it will provide him with the opportunity to work and develop in ways

superior to those in his old setting" (p. 79).

Choosing the core group is one of the most important first steps to be taken by the leader/coordinator. The leader in this particular case sought to choose members from each of the schools represented. He tried to take into consideration not only the need to have people who were in agreement with the principles and philosophy of networking, but also people who were willing to transcend the traditional boundaries that beset classroom teachers. The middle and secondary school coordinator was also chosen for the group. Though she had expressed some concerns and doubts about her formal role, her interest and willingness to detach herself from her formal role were viewed favorably by the coordinator.

The coordinator sought to include in the core group individuals who were (a) willing to project themselves beyond their traditionally defined roles and (b) were willing to share their own personal resources with others in the network. The initial core group members, in addition to the administrator, included two secondary teachers-- each from a different school. Jack, (mentioned earlier), proved to be dependable and especially interested in marshaling the other teachers in his school behind the video project. Tom, a secondary teacher whose prime interests include teacher politics and business, is also a go-getter and has many ties in the professional and business sectors in the community. He proved his willingness and desire to move beyond the classroom in his efforts to get his students out of the classroom and involved in community research and action projects.

Goal Setting and Articulation of Network Concerns

At each of the early meetings, the network members would eventually discuss the obvious lack of resources available to them in the classroom. These included not only lack of monetary resources, but also the resources of time and lack of adequate vehicles for communication, curriculum planning, and implementation opportunities among and between social studies colleagues throughout the system.

The traditional conception of the classroom teacher held by teachers, administrators, and laymen has served to inhibit or obstruct recourse to innovative means of securing resources for classroom use. The initial network members agreed that the development of a vehicle for informal access to community resources was a high priority for the network. Thus the decision to create a series of video tapes on the various aspects of community society was felt to be both inexpensive (since the equipment was available at no cost, and the tapes themselves were not costly) and valuable in making contacts with people outside of the school.

Lortie's comments on the individualism and conservatism of teachers was greatly evidenced in the school system under study. Many social studies teachers--no less than other teachers--guard their instructional domain and regard outsiders (e.g., supervisors, consultants, university people, etc) with suspicion. The coordinator of the network found such feelings to exist in this particular school system to a degree, but not to the extent that many of the teachers were not willing to become participants in an informal curriculum planning group.

Another major priority of the network was to search for ways
to open doors of trust for such teachers in order to help extend the
network throughout the system and thus enlarge the reservoir of
available resources and increase the possibilities of incidents of
resource exchange.

The Network in Action (Beginning of the Setting)

Leadership and Network Coordination Strategies

As was described earlier, the initial goal adopted by the net-
work leader and members was to create a series of video tapes about
community resource people. Agreement on this goal was reached by
mutual consent after much discussion at the early meetings of the
network.

Communication between and among network members and the leader
was carried out along two major channels: informally by telephone
calls or notes using the interschool mail system, and by formal
newsletter composed by the network leader. The newsletters were
sent to all secondary and middle school social studies teachers
regardless of degree of participation in network activities. This
was done as a means of keeping potential network members informed
of the various activities and plans of the network, as well as
leaving an open invitation to those people should they decide to join
in network activities.

Communications flowed easily in a two-dimensional direction

between leader and members, but not as much communication took place among network members in the initial stages. The difficulty of bringing about increased lateral communications can be attributed to the difficulties presented to a mindset used to dealing with communications on a vertical rather than lateral direction which is usually the case in the traditional school system.

One of the primary attractions of a network system is found in the network's ability to overcome problems brought on by scarcity of resources. The early goals of the Caldwell County Social Studies Network were to plan, develop, and produce a series of video tapes utilizing community resource people as subjects. It was discovered that the equipment necessary for implementing this project existed within the schools in the system and accessibility to such equipment was convenient for the network members. The tapes were purchased by the network leader. The relatively inexpensive nature of the tapes directly purchased by a network member without having to go through the usual bureaucratic procedures for making purchase requests, inviting bids, or competing with other departments for scarce funds, made this task simple and direct.

Time is a very scarce resource. School time for network activities was found to be almost nonexistent. Thus the network activities involved in planning the first tape, "The Town Administrator" took place outside of the school setting. The preliminary interviews with the subject of the tape, the taping session, and the critiquing session all took place outside of the regular school day. The members

of the network found this procedure to be not only satisfactory in terms of having adequate time to carry out the task, but also comfortable with regard to knowing that this project was being done outside of the school regimentation, free of standardized evaluation and scrutiny.

The network task assignments were taken on a voluntary basis. The leader tried to match the interviewer with the interviewee in terms of interest and personality compatibility as well as taking into consideration the connections the two people might have.

The core group of the network remained basically the same during the beginning stage of the network setting. Jack, the secondary teacher, proved to be the most active member of the core group in addition to the leader. He came to all of the meetings, conducted the first video interview, and offered valuable assessment of the network's progress during the first stage. It was the leader's assessment that Jack's interest and concern for the networking process as demonstrated by his own leadership in the network's activities made him a very valuable core group member. (See Appendix C)

Jane, the supervisor who participated in the first few network meetings, had withdrawn from direct involvement in the later activities of the beginning stage. It will be remembered that she had early on expressed concern over her professional role as it might tend to affect both her interactions in the actual network as well as the feelings others might have toward her in the network setting.

Bill, the veteran teacher, remained interested in the activities of the network, but had to be invited each time to participate in the network's meetings and projects. Bill's contributions lay more in his support of the network than in his actual involvement during the beginning stage. His interest and endorsement of the networking idea though, made him a valuable supporter and sponsor of the network. He influenced one of his colleagues to join the network.

Tom, another secondary teacher who specializes in teacher politics, also proved to be a valuable and contributing member of the core group. Tom created one video project on his own and carried out the planning and implementation of the project. He contributed his work to the network's resource file. He continued to provide the network leader with timely advice and suggestions for future network endeavors.

Bob, the secondary teacher, and initiator of the network, emerged early as the network leader/coordinator. His experiences and ongoing development as the network leader will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

Large-Group Network Activities

Few general meetings were held in the early stages of the network. Two such meetings were held, but drew a small number of participants. Plans were being made to pull together all of the social studies teachers on the middle and secondary levels during part of a day appropriated for county-wide inservice training later in the Winter of 1984. The associate superintendent in charge of this inservice

activity refused a request to include a presentation by members of
the network as part of the scheduled sessions. The reason given
was that "there was no room on the schedule." The core group
members decided to have an "unofficial" networking session during
the break-times and lunch period of the inservice day.

Small-Group Network Activities

Network activities are usually carried out most effectively
through small-group actions. Small groups operate in a more informal,
relaxed atmosphere than might be found in large-group sessions. The
small-group activities of the Caldwell County Social Studies Network
focused more directly on the actual goals of the network than the
large group or general meetings.

Implementation of Network Activities

The initial phase of the Caldwell County Social Studies Network
culminated with a meeting at the home of the leader in early January,
some seven months after the first organizational activities had taken
place. The meeting was attended by Jack, the secondary teacher,
Terri, a middle school teacher recruited by Bill, Tom the teacher
activist, and Bob, the network leader. The town manager who had been
the subject of the network's first video tape was also present.

The leader's notes from the meeting observed that others were
now taking more responsibility for planning and implementing the
network's activities. The town manager who had attended the meeting

to preview the tape featuring him, remained for the entire meeting and offered many other suggestions for future tapes. He agreed to arrange for a taping of a meeting of the town council he serves, as well as individual interviews with other leaders of his town. The town manager's interest in joining in other network activities opened up the way for further extending the network into the community which had been adopted as one of the priorities of the network's purpose.

Terri, though attending her first network meeting, quickly expressed an interest in planning another phase of the video tape series by arranging to work out arrangements to do a segment on the economic sector of the community beginning with a small business and extending to a corporation.

Tom, the teacher activist, volunteered to plan and coordinate the segments on the political sector of the community. He also contributed his first effort in the area by presenting the network with a tape he had made with one of the local political party chairmen.

The town manager agreed to introduce Terri to some of the business people in his town. He also agreed to help arrange other matches between network members and community people he knew.

This meeting represented the conclusion of the beginning phase of the network's activities, but merely the beginning of the operational phase of the network. Though the network was still revolving around the interaction of a small core group and the

network leader, the efforts to expand the consciousness of the net-
work participants were beginning to be realized. The leader sensed
a feeling of accomplishment and enthusiasm among the members at this
meeting. There was excitement about the possibility of getting more
people involved in network activities especially with regard to
continuing the video tape series. The mood was upbeat and optimistic
as the meeting adjourned and with all of those who attended ready to
set out and extend the network through their various tasks related
to the continuing development of the network's project.

The On-Going Development of the Leader in the Network: Meta-evaluation

The leader of a new network setting must be conscious of several
important criteria necessary to help initiate a successful network-
ing process. Sarason (1979) has pointed out that the leader, while
probably being the only person to see the principles of participation
and resource exchange in the beginning, must be careful in articulat-
ing this relationship. Sarason warned against taking advantage of
this position. He noted "the leader is or should be always walking
a tightrope, trying to avoid falling off the side that enmeshes him
or her in the net of a labeled ego trip . . . or off the side that
lands him or her in the net of directionless passivity" (p. 138).

The leader of the Caldwell County Social Studies Network found
himself in the role of teacher as well as participant in terms of
trying to help the network's members see the principles of

participation and resource exchange in a network setting. Sarason has pointed out that one of the common pitfalls of such a task is that the leader in the role of "teacher" might manipulate others to "do what the teacher wants at the expense of learning the nature, consequences, and dilemmas of self-determination" (p. 137). It became vitally important for the leader to continually redefine and clarify his primary role in that position--that of facilitating matches of resource people, and helping those in the network to further expand their own roles in the network. With regard to the latter task, the leader was especially concerned in helping to provide an atmosphere within the network that would allow for the emergence of leadership at all levels.

The leader of the network tried to remain constantly aware of the style of leadership he was using in dealing with the other network members. The Vroom model of leadership styles (1973) as modified by Brubaker (1976) provided the scale by which self-evaluation was conducted. The modified scale includes the following levels:

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

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

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

CII   You share your problem with the group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decisions, which may or may not reflect their influence.

GII   You suspend your positional authority in dealing with the issue at hand and adopt a collegial relationship rather than treating other participants as subordinates. You have the right to argue your opinions in the same way that your colleagues have this right. After weighing various alternatives, members of the group try to implement the position that is most highly favored and generally agreed upon as the best alternative.

GIII You share the problem with the group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of a chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your solution," and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group (p. 61).

The leader in the Caldwell County Social Studies Network found that he operated on all levels at one time or another. Though the operational nature of the "ideal" network might push for leadership on the GIII level most of the time, the task of creating a new network and trying to relay the basic concepts of the networking process to those who had become members, required that the leader make AI and AII level decisions on various organizational concerns (time and places for meetings, initial contacts for purposes of planning the over-all video tape project, generating publicity in the community and so forth). By the end of the beginning stage of the network, the leader had moved more and more into the CII, GII, and GIII levels of leadership.

Closely related to the leadership style adopted by the network leader was the issue of relating to the network members in meetings and other formal and informal exchanges. The basic importance of true listening on the part of the leader was found to be one of the most critical areas of ongoing development of the network leader in the beginning stage. Peck (1978) has identified five levels of listening:

1. Don't permit the other person to talk.

2. Permit the other person to talk but go about your business without even pretending to listen.

3. Pretend to listen but you really don't hear a thing.

4. Selectively listen to the other person.

5. Truly listen giving your full and complete attention to the other person's verbal and non-verbal messages. (pp. 123-24)

Level Five represents "true listening." Peck noted that "true listening" invloves the "discipline of bracketing, the temporary giving up or setting aside of one's own prejudices, frames of reference, and desires so as to experience as far as possible the speaker's world from the inside, stepping inside his or her shoes" (p. 128). This level of listening demands a great deal of work on the part of the listener. The use of bracketing requires "a setting aside of the self, . . . [and] involves a total acceptance of the other" (p. 128). The leader in this network, having had some training in listening skills, though not to any extensive degree, felt that he was improving his ability to bracket himself during the

various exchanges with network members on all levels. The leader's notes of the network meetings revealed that he talked less and less and focused in on the talk and meta-messages conveyed by the other members of the network. Peck pointed out that listening skills "never become an effortless process" (p. 129). Thus, the leader must seek to become alert to the particular level on which he is listening. As with the styles of leadership levels, the levels of listening on time, circumstance, and objectives, which is to say that the network leader will operate on all levels at one time or another, yet should concentrate on using the higher levels of both leadership and listening styles that best promote the over-all goals of networking: (a) helping people attain a sense of personal worth and (b) helping people to attain a psychological sense of community.

The role of leader in the network has been defined in an earlier section of this study. It is important, however, to reiterate the primary obligations of the leader in the early stages of network implementation as pointed out in the guidelines for the network model:

1. demonstration of flexibility and (invitational) openness

2. encouragement of exchange of ideas on potential conflicts and problems

3. encouragement of the emergence of leadership throughout the network

One of the major tasks of the leader of this network was to ascertain self-development as network leader through the process of developing the beginning stage of the setting.

Among the important questions to consider about oneself as a network leader, the following required close examination:

1. What is the predominant source of power applied by the leader of the network (i.e. positional authority, succorance, expertise, or charisma)?

2. How well did the leader help members identify resource limitations as well as enlarge their sense of resource alternatives?

3. How well did the leader bring disparate peoples together in order to promote the exchange of resources?

The position of the leader in this network was unique due to the fact that he was also acting as a participant observer. Wax (1968) pointed out that "participant observation implies involvement and thereby socialization or more frequently, resocialization" (p. 279). Though such observation is complicated, it is, as Wax noted, "essential to almost all branches of the social sciences that depend to any degree on understanding or meaning" (p. 279). The leader as observer had to make careful note of personal biases and attitudes with regard to the members of the network.

The need for the leader to be in the forefront of the network's planning and implementation of its goals and activities made the need to detach the leader's self from the role conferred upon him for purposes of analysis even more difficult. This required a form of "meta-evaluation." Meta-evaluation involves the process of evaluating the evaluator. In the context of this particular study, meta-evaluation involved the detachment of the leader from the position of

leadership the better to identify the significance of his own actions
in the network.

Formative Evaluation of the Network Setting

Scriven (1967) has made the distinction between the summative
and formative roles of educational evaluation. Summative evaluation
assesses the worth of a completed educational program, while formative
evaluation deals with programs still in a position to be modified.
Anderson, Ball, and Murphy (1975) noted that "an important feature
of formative evaluation as distinct from summative evaluation is
that formative evaluation must occur in close collaboration with
program or product development" (p. 177). Thus the formative
evaluation is a part of the program which is being evaluated.

Formative evaluation is much more useful to the developers of
a network setting than summative evaluation, at least in the early
stages. A network, though it may have clearly defined goals, is
composed in such a manner that finite measurements may not be
realistically possible. One might tend to think of a network as
an evolving organism (comparable to the amoeba in terms of its
ever-changing shape, but different in its lack of paramaters or
boundaries). Formative evaluation helps the network developers to
assess where the network might be at any given moment, and allows
them the luxury to make adjustments necessary to keep the flow of
the network intact.

At the conclusion of the beginning stage of the Caldwell County

Social Studies Network, the leader and members assessed the work
and direction of the network through its first phase. The initial
plans to initiate and implement a video tape series were carefully
reviewed. Many suggestions as to themes, format, and participants
were made. The major goals of the network and the ego-focus remained
intact. Formative evaluation in this sense was useful in refining
and honing the means by which the established goals of the network
might be met.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has focused on the application of the networking
idea in one specific case. The implementation of the model of net-
working for social studies curriculum development took place in a
county in western North Carolina. The case study of this development
considered the "before the beginning" stage, the actual development
of the network, questions considering the emergence of network leader-
ship, discussion of the formation of the core group, and goal setting
and articulation of network concerns.

The network in action, a discussion of the beginning of the
setting, was also included. This section of the chapter examined
the communication system in the network, the manner in which task
assignments were made and carried out, and the attitudes and actions
of the core group during this phase of network activity. Large-group
and small-group network activities were also discussed and examined.

Another section of the chapter described the implementation of network activities which centered around the completion of the first phase of a video taping project and the way this project brought others into the network. The original goals of the network found expression through the activities of the beginning phase.

The next section of the chapter concerned the ongoing development and self-evaluation of the network leader. It also identified leadership and listening styles and attempted to place the leader of the network within the appropriate levels of each.

The final section of the chapter briefly discussed the need for and use of formative evaluation strategies in assessing network activities. This type of evaluation best fits a setting such as a network which is always in the process of "becoming." As a network is not a closed system, the necessity for providing an evaluative process that is not restricted to a bounded system was found to be imperative for purposes of measuring the degree of success of the network.

This study has proposed networking as a workable means for increasing teacher input in curriculum planning. A model for networking for curriculum planning in the social studies was proposed in the previous chapter and a description of how that model was applied to an educational setting was included in the present chapter. The final chapter of this study will summarize the issues involved in networking, offer conclusions based on the actual application of the model, and propose recommendations for further study in this area.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER STUDY

<u>Summary</u>

The purpose of this study was to create and implement an analytic and programmatic model of networking for curriculum planning in the social studies. Current literature has suggested that the need for alternative approaches to curriculum planning exists, especially in the social studies area.

Networking was defined as the process of identifying potential relationships between and among members of a network setting for purposes of exchange of information, services, support, and access to one another.

The premise for the creation of a network model, which emerged from the identified needs by practitioners, theorists, and the general public, was that of more clearly joining the theories of social education to practice. A second premise for the study rests on the growing need for changes in social studies curriculum planning, especially in terms of realizing increased direct participation on the part of teachers and students. Theorists such as Sarason (1971) and Weiss (1978) were quoted as pointing out that there was a perceived lack of efficacy on the part of classroom teachers with regard to curriculum plannning. Many times the curriculum planning, which takes place with little or no regard to teacher input and which

filters down vertically to teachers, becomes lost in the actual instructional product. Where there is no sense of "ownership" of the curriculum by the teachers, suggested alternative procedures for social studies instruction fall by the wayside and the traditional form of textbook-centered instruction remains. The study suggested the need to create a vehicle for alternative forms of curriculum planning. One such vehicle was chosen for the purposes of the study-- an analytic and programmatic model of networking. It was noted that analytic and programmatic models serve to explain the existence of social phenomena as well as prescribe alternative approaches for dealing with problems inherent in a complex situation.

The study then proceeded to review the concept and rationale of networks and networking as discussed in both educational and sociological literature. Chapter II discussed traditional curriculum planning especially with regard to the use of scientific management (e.g., Taylor and Bobbitt) approaches to curriculum theory and application, and Tyler's linear approach to curriculum, which, as Eisner (1979) noted, stressed an ends-means rationale which excluded many complexities found in the instructional process. Such orientations, it was pointed out, do not take into account the tremendous change processes at work in industrial and highly technological societies.

Brubaker and Nelson's (1972) distinction between the governance (bureaucratic) and curricular (professional) modes of decision-making

in education were noted, the conclusion being that there was a need for a new model for schools which brings about a reconciliation between the bureaucratic and professional models.

The review of literature also included a discussion of Lortie's (1975) sociological study of the teaching profession which revealed the three major orientations of teachers. These include presentism, individualism, and conservatism. Presentism refers to the way in which teachers conduct instruction along the lines of small, segmented units without giving much attention to the macrocurriculum. Individualism refers to the teachers' sense of autonomy in conducting their classroom activities. Conservatism refers to the teachers' sense of self-preservation in their "single cell of instruction" (p. 15). It was concluded that the combination of these three orientations effectively retards teacher interest and commitment in going beyond the classroom door for help and personal development. Other studies such as that by Young (1979) revealed a high degree of passivity on the part of teachers regarding participation in curriculum planning due to what they felt to be the clearly defined lines of authority and responsibility in most bureaucratically modeled school systems. Such attitudes resulted in teachers maintaining a habit of looking to central office staffs for initiatives in curriculum decision-making.

A study by Duke, Showers, and Imber (1980) concurred with Young's assessment and concluded that teachers felt that their input into curriculum decision-making had little or no important effect on actual curriculum decision-making. Thus, most of the literature reviewed for

the study agreed that teachers do not actively participate in curriculum planning due to (1) lack of self-confidence with regard to what is generally perceived as a highly theoretical process, (2) deference to the hierarchical decision-making structure of the dominant bureaucratic model which manages education institutions, and (3) what Lortie has described as the orientations of presentism, individualism, and conservatism of teachers.

The review of literature next considered the concepts of networks and networking. The writings of Sarason on settings and networking, based on his views on the need for resource redefinition and the need for people to become involved in the networking process, were reviewed. The networking process, as described by Sarason, enables people to come together voluntarily to both give and receive resources and to experience opportunities to display leadership skills, and it helps people to confirm the fact of interrelatedness in life.

Parker (1977) pointed out that networks had a better chance of survival in smaller local units than on a large-scale basis. The network model created and implemented for this study was especially geared toward smaller educational units. Schon (1977) offered a clear set of features common to most networks of any type. His features included the boundlessness of networks, dynamism, multiple functions, allowance for multiple leadership, and complex patterns of interaction between networks and formal institutions.

Brubaker (1982) used the networking concept as "an integrating thread" in his discussion of curriculum planning. He emphasized the value of the networking process as a means for both introducing and maintaining change in a "community setting," where the learning is shared between curriculum-planning leaders and others in the network.

The problem of bringing about change in educational institutions was also included and it was noted that networking can serve as an intervention strategy for change in schools. Networking can help give closer attention to the relationship between the school culture, the individual, and interactions with colleagues and others in the school system. Sarason (1971), and Brubaker and Nelson (1975) agreed that more attention must be given to both the setting earmarked for change as well as the individual in the setting.

The review of literature led the writer to conclude that the need and desire for more involvement of teachers in curriculum were evident. The networking strategy as a means for change intervention in schools appeared to be an especially attractive and workable means for bringing about change particularly in the area of teacher involvement in curriculum planning.

Chapter III discussed model building, the settings models of Sarason and Brubaker, and offered a new analytic and programmatic model of networking for curriculum planning. The new model incorporated aspects of both the Sarason and Brubaker models.

The Sarason model included three major stages: (1) the Before-

the-Beginning Stage, (2) the Beginning Stage, and (3) the Setting
and Implementation of Goals Stage. Sarason's model emphasizes the
need for leaders and core group members to articulate and recognize
potential obstacles and problems in the formation period of the
setting.

Brubaker's analytic and programmatic model for settings in
education which stresses the constant interaction between processes
(means) and goals (ends) of the Brubaker model, includes attaining
(1) a psychological sense of community and (2) a sense of personal
worth. The processes (means) of the Brubaker model include (1)
relating to the history and culture of the setting, (2) convenant
formation (3) value-identification and priority setting, (4) change
strategies, and (5) provision of operational guidelines. The model
is intertwined by the concept or idea or praxis, or the marriage of
theory and practice.

A new model of networking was offered which reflects six basic
assumptions: (1) teachers desire opportunities to participate in
curriculum decision-making; (2) the limitation of resources in any
institutional setting make it obvious that a network created for
resource exchange can help mitigate needless competition and waste
of scarce resources; (3) people are willing to come together in an
informal setting such as a network in order to both "give" and "get"
on a high level; (4) teachers seek to transcend their relative
isolation in the school institution in order to interact with other
professionals in a collegial atmosphere; (5) the informal nature of

of network setting allows for and encourages spontaneity and creativity among its members; and (6) the informal-lateral decision-making process of a network encourages the emergence of many leaders and facilitates leadership qualities among many network members.

The new model used a web-like metaphor which centers around the ego. The ego focuses on the desired goals of the network which include (1) attainment of a sense of personal worth and (2) attainment of a psychological sense of community for its members. The new model emphasized the unbounded nature of a network which allows it to be "invitational" in terms of welcoming a large variety of people in the field of social studies (but actually applicable to almost any subject area). The network would ideally be made up of teachers, community leaders, people in varied professions, students, university people, ad infinitum. The network represented in this type of model would also undoubtedly be linked to other settings (the local school system, civic organizations, local governmental bodies, etc.). The multi-faceted nature of the network itself would represent intra-networking, while the linkages with other settings would represent inter-networking.

The new model of networking was offered as a vehicle for more readily assessing various alternatives that exist for practices in the school system especially with regard to allowing for more wide-spread decision-making on a lateral basis as well as for encouraging the emergence of leadership at many different points within the network. The new model of networking also recognized the necessity of

assessing the problems, obstacles, and concerns of those who express
a desire to create the network. It gives close attention to the vital
issues raised in the "before-the-beginning" stage. It also directs
attention to the need to choose network leaders and coordinators who
not only have skills to match people with resources, but also the
skills and demeanor necessary to suspend positional authority in
decision-making matters.

The new model also lists the criteria to be considered in
choosing the core group emphasizing the need for leader and core
group members to be honest and open with regard to articulating pro-
blems, concerns, and doubts in the early stages of the network's
development.

The study also provided guidelines for implementation of the
model which included the following: (1) those creating the setting
must assess the need for a new setting; (2) those creating the network
must take into consideration the existing setting; (3) leadership
must demonstrate flexibility and openness, encourage the exchange
of ideas of potential conflicts and problems, and encourage the
emergence of leadership throughout the network; (4) leadership must
help members realize limitations of resources in terms of how
alternatives may be considered to meet needs; (5) general meetings
must be scheduled in order to provide a forum for articulation of
ideas and concerns and resource exchange; (6) evaluation of networking
must be formative; and (7) network leaders must avoid the pitfalls of
being trapped by time constraints with regard to the work of the network.

The fourth chapter presented a case study of the implementation of the new model. A network was created by social studies teachers in a western North Carolina county. The network emerged as a result of a recognized need for increased utilization of community resources in the social studies classroom; moreover, it provided for an informal, yet effective means for involving classroom teachers in curriculum planning.

The Caldwell County Social Studies Network began in the spring of 1983. The writer coordinated the early phases of the network, formed a core group made up of both teachers and a few community people, and helped inform the core group and important segments of the school system and the community-at-large of the basic rationale and concepts of networking. Consequently, the writer was early perceived and considered to be the leader of the network.

The early meetings of the leader and core group discussed the various frustrations of teachers in trying to have real input and influence in curriculum decision-making, in securing adequate resources for instruction, and in helping students to appreciate more fully and to realize the true nature of the various social studies concepts (e.g. citizenship, power, etc.).

The case study described the characteristics of the early core group members, and provided insight into the emergence of the leader/ coordinator, especially in terms of how the writer came to be perceived as the leader of the network. The formation of the core group and a description of the interests and early activities of each were also included.

Goal setting and articulation of network concerns were discussed in the next section of the chapter. The initial goals of the network included the planning and creation of a series of video tapes on various aspects of community society. It was felt that such a goal would allow for an atmosphere that would invite otherwise cautious or skeptical teachers into the network's activities.

The case study also described the leadership and network coordination strategies used in the beginning stages of activity. It revealed that communication flowed easily in a two-dimensional direction between members and leader, but not as much communication took place between network members in the initial stages. Network activities took place outside the regular school setting. While this proved to be a barrier to some who might otherwise participate in networking, others found the informal, nonbureaucratic nature of the setting to be very attractive.

The informal nature of the networking process also produced the emergence of leadership in planning and project implementation on the part of one of the core group members. This network member took the initiative to plan and develop a videotape on his own. He shared his resources with others in the network, and sought to expand their own resources beyond the network itself.

The first major accomplishment of the network was the production of a videotape of an interview with the manager of a small town in the community. The manager of the town, on the basis of participation in the videotaping, took an interest in the activities of the network

and volunteered to arrange further tapings of various aspects of his town's government. He also agreed to arrange for other members of the network to meet with and arrange tapes with people in the business community of the town. This added another phase to the videotape project as well as an additional member to the network.

The final section of the case study dealt with the ongoing development of the network leader. The leader, who also happened to be the writer of this study, found that he had to be particularly careful in articulating the relationship between the principles of participation and resource exchange to the novice network members in the beginning stage. The leader had to be conscious of the fragility of his position, especially in the beginning stage when many of the network members did not yet fully understand the complexities of the process. The leader had to be particularly careful not to manipulate others during this stage. It became important for the leader to re-define his role continually and to take careful note of his particular leadership style at any given time. The Vroom model of leadership styles as modified by Brubaker was used for this purpose.

Peck's five levels of listening were also used to assess the behavior of the leader during network meetings and in conversation with network members. Peck urged the use of "bracketing" in which the listener temporarily "gives up or sets aside his own prejudices, frames of reference, and desires so as to experience the speaker's world . . . (p. 128)." The leader in this instance felt that he was improving his ability to "bracket" himself by the conclusion of the first phase of the network's activities.

The chapter then dealt with the difficulties involved in being a participant/observer in a network and urged the use of meta-evaluation as a means of better assessing the degree to which the leader meets the criteria established for effective leadership in a network setting.

The final section of the chapter argued for the use of formative evaluation strategies in assessing network activities. The case study surmised that effective networks can be created from within bureaucratic educational institutions, in this case a county school system. If the leaders and core group members give serious attention to the criteria and guidelines suggested for meaningful resource exchange and support for leadership emergence throughout the network, and will engage in formative evaluation strategies, true alternatives to current curriculum planning within the traditional bureaucratic systems can be realized.

Conclusions

The creation and application of an analytic and programmatic model for networking in curriculum planning led to several important conclusions. These include the following:

1. Networks can be created within formal institutionalized settings. Once created, these networks can work to bring about desired change, identify a wide range of alternatives, and promote widespread exchange of resources.

2. People from diverse occupations and professions are
   willing to be invited and participate in networks for
   curriculum planning. Networks help to better tie the
   school into its surrounding community for resource
   exchange.

3. Participants in a network for curriculum planning can
   gain a greater sense of personal potency and self-worth
   and can better realize a psychological sense of com-
   munity through interaction with the wide range of net-
   work members.

4. Leadership can emerge from many different levels within
   a network. The informal, horizontal nature of decision-
   making in a network encourages the need for and accept-
   ance of, leadership from many different directions in
   the networking process.

5. The flexibility of a network enables participants to
   extend beyond their traditional mind-sets and boundedness
   of their professional positions and offers numerous
   opportunities for self-discovery and unlimited creativeness
   in curriculum planning.

6. Teachers, when given an opportunity to explore, exchange
   ideas, and implement programs relevant to their cur-
   ricular and professional needs, will respond with
   enthusiasm and interest that may not come through the
   traditional modes of curriculum planning.

The above conclusions represent the positive outcomes of the networking model applied in the case study. The writer also found some important limitations to the implementation of a network in the school system. Among these limitations were the problems of dealing with the scarce resource of time and the unwillingness of some teachers to participate in network activities because of its out-of-school planning and implementation schedule. Those teachers who were persuaded to give of their time resources in order to gain other meaningful and helpful resources were able to transcend part of the mindset found in many teachers. Participating in curriculum planning outside of the traditional, clearly recognized structure for such activities was not always inviting to many social studies teachers in the case study. Perhaps as the network continues into the next phase of development and extension, and as the fruits of its labors are brought to bear, more and more teachers will understand the benefits available to them from participation in the network.

The fact that the leader of the network was a participant observer may also have clouded the outcomes of the network's accomplishments during the beginning phase. The fact that others were beginning to voluntarily assume leadership roles near the end of the beginning phase may serve to mitigate the dominance of one person as leader/coordinator of the network's activities.

Naisbitt (1984) pointed out that informal networks exist in almost all hierarchical settings. He advised those in formal, hierarchical settings to locate and cultivate involvement in those

networks. Such was the case in this particular study.

Recommendations for Further Study

The model developed and applied in the present study was examined through only the beginning stage of implementation. It is suggested that the model be applied and studied through several phases and from varied viewpoints. Any one component of the networking model presents itself as a legitimate aspect for study. These include the before-the-beginning setting and network initiation (covenant formation), the emergence of leadership, the selection and formation of the core group, and goal setting and articulation of network concerns. Decision-making and intraorganizational networking relationships also need to be studied in further detail.

It is recommended that further study be conducted on the use of networking for curriculum planning in other academic areas such as mathematics, science, vocational education, and the arts. The use of networking for planning interdisciplinary curriculums might also provide an interesting and crucial area for study and comparison.

Studies concentrating on the biographical features of network participants could better define the reasons why individuals will come together in such settings. The network in question was the subject of formative evaluation during the beginning phase, but the whole question of evaluation of both network membership and leadership needs to be more closely addressed. The use of meta-evaluation

or some similar type of evaluative procedure should be applied to this particular network model and might better reveal the usefulness and true effectiveness of the networking process for curriculum planning if studied over a longer period of time.

The lack of discernible parameters of networks makes empirical studies almost useless for purposes of measuring the effectiveness of networks for curriculum planning. Responsive evaluative techniques might better prove to reveal the positive results of networking for curriculum planning.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INVITATION

May 26, 1983

Dear Fellow Social Studies Teachers:

I know that we are approaching the end of the school year--
with many activities and duties to complete, etc., but I hope
that you will lend me your attention long enough to read this
letter and send me some sort of response to what I am about to ask
of you.

As a social studies instructor, I am sure that you have con-
sidered all kinds of things that would enhance your teaching sit-
uation. As we pour over various publisher's catalogues and fan-
tasize about how wonderful it would be to have limitless funds for
our classes, we realize all too quickly how impossible this really
is. (e.g. refer to the current struggle between the school board
and commissioners over budgeting).

However, as we read more and more about reduced budgets and
cutbacks on funding of educational programs, we realize how frus-
trated we can get in trying to meet more and more instructional
demands with less and less monies.

As many of you know, I have been working on my doctorate degree
at UNC-Greensboro. I am currently working on a dissertation on
networking in the school community. This summer I will be at UNC-G
constructing an applicable model of networking for use in school
communities. This autumn, I want to put the model into operation
by creating a network of social studies teachers and community
resource people in Caldwell County.

This past year, I served on the county accreditation committee
on social studies. One of the goals chosen by this committee for
our school system concerns that of better identification and
utilization of community resources in the classroom--especially in
the teaching of social studies. All of us know that we do a fairly
adequate job of verbalizing such social studies objectives as
fostering "good citizenship" among students, and we implore our
students to get involved in community affairs, but we have few out-
lets available for this to take place, or we don't quite know how to
adequately promote this type of involvement.

A network could do many positive things to bring about the real-
ization of the goal of increasing community involvement and utili-
zation of community resources in the classroom. Networks are defined

as a collection of people who may or may not share exact or identical goals, but who nonetheless provide the others in the network setting with information, services, support and access.

I am attaching a copy of the proposal for such a network which I presented to Mr. Brooks Barber, Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum. Mr. Barber has approved this proposal and has agreed to offer up to 3 credit units for those teachers who actively participate in the network (one for each ten hours of involvement).

This network will be an in-service type activity. It will be both instructional in the sense that I will be discussing methods and techniques of networking with you, and it will be action-oriented as we build the network for specific purposes related to the social studies goal of increasing the use of community resources in the classroom.

I would really like to see all of the high school and ninth grade (middle school) social studies teachers come together to identify issues and problems related to the use of community resources, to share common concerns and ideas, and to plan and implement strategies. The membership of our "network" will probably not be limited to just teachers as we begin to identify and invite community people to join us in our planning and actual implementation of our ideas. A network actually has no boundaries--it just keeps on extending and extending. Some say that networks are not really created at all-- they exist in everyone's life. Thus what actually takes place in a project such as this is really the identification and extension of already-existing networks in order to make them even more useful and effective in our lives.

That is what I wish to do. I will be using the activity of our network as the basis of a case study that I would like to include as part of my dissertation. I will be trying to assess strengths and weaknesses of a networking model for use in an in-service activity such as this, and of course, our work can be applied to our own instructional settings.

Are you still with me? Are you interested in learning more about this proposal? I would like to meet with all who are at an informal dutch luncheon at the Western Sizzlin on Thursday, June 9 at 12:00. This is our first workday and I know that we will be busy, but all I ask is one hour (or even less) of your time (and after all, you have to eat anyway!) At this meeting, I will elaborate on what I know I have inadequately described above, distribute a little bit of explanatory material, and lay out some ideas as to how our network might function. Also, it will be a good time to share some initial concerns and ideas (and certainly questions) related to this proposal.

Your participation in this in-service activity will reap you not
only some credit units, but will give you an introduction to infinite
resources and possibilities for broadening the entire scope of your
social studies teaching. Networking works, and it costs practically
nothing in monetary terms.

Our "formal" network would begin at the beginning of the school
year in August and "formally" continue through the fall, but for many,
it may very well continue on and c·· (that is the real hoped-for goal
of networks).

Please fill out the attached sheet and return it to me immediate-
ly--either by courier or by mail to:

> Dale Simmons
> Hibriten High School
> 550 East Boulevard
> Lenoir, North Carolina 28645

If you know of a colleague who might be interested in this but
may not teach social studies, please bring he/she along. If you
wish to talk with me about this more before the luncheon, please call
me at Hibriten (758-7376). If I can't get to the phone when you call,
please leave a message and I will get right back to you.

ONE LAST PLEA: Even if you feel overwhelmed with your schedule,
you can still fit networking in. Our meeting dates will probably
not be set, and everyone will not be involved in everything at the
same time anyway, so if you are looking for something that will be
(a) interesting (b) beneficial and (c) flexible enough to fit into
your impossible schedule, this may be what you are looking for.

Thank you for your attention. I look forward to hearing from
you (one way or the other) real soon.

Dale Simmons

p.s. Even if you are not interested in joining the network for credit
     units, you are certainly welcome and strongly encouraged to be
     a part of this experience.

APPENDIX B

SPEECH TO

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

Remarks: Dale Simmons
Lenoir-Caldwell Chamber of Commerce Luncheon
September 10, 1983

Thank you very much for your gracious invitation to share lunch
with you today and also for the opportunity to share some of my recent
summer experiences as well. Though I did not travel as far as my two
colleagues, or meet all kinds of interesting people, your generosity
allowed me the opportunity to research, reflect, and create on a sub-
ject that has been close to my heart for the past few years--the sub-
ject of creating networks in school communities.

There are many increasingly hard realities which we have to
acknowledge in modern life. We have, for instance, been made aware
over the last ten years of various material shortages--in oil and
other natural resource essentials. The adjustments we have all had
to make in our personal standards of living reflect the gravity of
these shortages. But there are other shortages--in terms of human
resources. The shortages in this area are due not to the lack of
supply, but rather to the lack of meaningful ways in which to tap
the abundant supply. We are constantly wasting the one resource of
which we have the largest supply--the human ability to share and con-
nect with one another within a community.

As a social studies teacher, I am especially concerned with the
way in which we teach the social studies. In our social studies
classrooms, we find ourselves fighting wars and old conflicts which
were never resolved or were resolved to no one's complete satisfaction.

We memorize dates and state capitals, yet we end up realizing that it
is not really important whether Columbus left for America on the Love
Boat (you get some weird answers sometimes) in 1492 or 1942 . . .
Seriously, we have difficulty locating the forest for the trees--or
I suppose, the history, for the dates.

It is my opinion that all history is in fact, local history--at
least in the ways in which the trials and tribulations of the world
affect the average individual in his/her community--and in which they
garner one's real interest and attention. It is my belief in this
idea that has led me to my work in networking.

Over the summer as I spent hours and hours hunched over various
books, microfiche cards, and periodicals, deep in the recesses of
the UNC-Greensboro library, I made some interesting discoveries--
some of which only validated what I had been thinking for some time.
For instance, my work in the area of teacher attitude and orientation
research led me to an important piece of research by Professor Dan
Lortie of the University of Chicago. In 1975, Lortie conducted a
sociological profile of the schoolteacher in America society. Lortie's
conclusions, while not as grim as some, are not exactly pretty either.
He has noted that teachers have three basic orientations which guide
their behavior in the classroom. These include: individualism, con-
servatism, and presentism. Let me explain: Individualism under-
scores the relative isolation of the teacher in the classroom. Teach-
ers are in contact throughout most of the day with children or at best
very young adults, and, due to the typical bureaucratic structure of

the school, are unable to interact at length with colleagues, and find themselves isolated in many respects from the administrators who govern the schools. Secondly, due to this isolation (and its long term acceptance as a programmatic regularity of the school system), the teacher becomes rather possessive of his/her turf, and is resistent to real change especially when change appears in the guise of outside superviors, consultants, or directives from the central office. Thirdly, the teacher is heavily involved in presentism--that is he/she find themselves teaching in terms of short units, or segments without much regard to long term understanding or overall pictures of a particular subject. All of this fits in nicely in a factory charged with the production of an item such as a chair or table, but calls to question, true value and priority clarifications with regard to education of human beings--particularly in the area of the social studies. Do we wish our school to be efficient factories or places conducive to creative, humanistic learning?

The concerns of Dan Lortie are echoed in countless other research studies too numerous to list and these concerns are finding new voice in the various current reports of educational investigative commissions which have been commanding the headlines since early last spring. Most of the findings of these commissions call for some common basic changes in the educational system. They call for more input on the part of the teacher and parent in the development of the curriculum. They call for more definite clarification by schools of their goals or missions in the community. They call for more

involvement through the classroom. Thus, my studies and research this summer have led me to develop a model of networking for curriculum planning especially for social studies teachers.

I define networking to be the process whereby two or more people come together who may or may not share similar goals, but who nevertheless agree to share resources with one another. My model proposes to begin the networking process with the social studies teachers of Caldwell County. It is my belief that if we begin with the social studies teachers and involve them in a setting whereby they can have the opportunity to informally interact with their colleagues, to share common needs and concerns, to discuss what is really important and vital in the social studies classroom, and most importantly, to make themselves available for contact by other social studies teachers, then perhaps we can begin to give credence to some of the social studies goals we have been mouthing over the years. For a long time now, we have agreed that schools should become a more integral part of the community, and that we should draw upon community resources and really bring the community into the classroom and vice versa.

The Caldwell County Social Studies Network is now in the embryo stage. We are working to bring social studies teachers from the three high schools and two middle schools together in an informal setting to provide a forum for fostering the things I have just mentioned. But this is only the beginning. In order to make the network work, we need the help and support from the community-at-large. Our first project will be to develop a videotape series

on Caldwell County--its history, its economy, its government, its social and cultural aspects, and its people. We plan to involve students in this project, but we need your help in terms of identifying and locating the various types of resources that may be available to us. We are especially interested in the human resources of the community.

I brought with me today, some information sheets which I have placed at the end of each table. Would you please fill these out and give them to me at the conclusion of today's luncheon? Our network would really appreciate your interest and help.

We have good, caring, and interested teachers, students, parents, and community people who would like to get involved in such an endeavor--but have simply not been invited. It is our hope that this network of teachers will eventually include parents, community people, and most importantly students in the quest to provide real, meaningful opportunities for community service and citizenship development. The network, we hope, can provide us with such a setting.

Again, I would like to thank you for the scholarship award. It will play no small part, I can assure you, in both helping me to complete my doctoral dissertation on the subject of networking in the schools, and by virtue of helping me to commit the past summer to research and development of the networking model which I am now implementing, actually realize some good for our students, our teachers, and most importantly for the citizens of the Caldwell County community.

I hope that we may be able to call on you to participate in this
endeavor real soon. Thank you very much.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW WITH JACK

A NETWORK MEMBER

INTERVIEW WITH JACK, A NETWORK MEMBER
(February 9, 1984)

Q. Given what we have been doing the last ten months or so, what do
   you think networking means?

A. Obviously it means greater communication with people in the com-
   munity who are responsible for government, religion, and business.
   In that it will enable us not only as teachers, but in the class-
   room as well, to bring these individuals into the classroom and
   will enable us to build better relationships between the schools
   and these other individuals in the community who can be of benefit
   to us.

Q. Why do you think we have not started doing more of this [network-
   ing] before now?

A. Well, the obvious problem in doing anything is the time and effort
   that is required in doing it. It is not something that can be
   done in the 8:00-3:30 time frame. Also, it takes a group to do
   this. I am sure that things of this sort have been tried in the
   past made up of one or two people, and the network is such a
   gigantic task that they began it, became frustrated and surrend-
   ered.

Q. As a department chairman, what are some of the obstacles you and
   some of the other social studies teachers face in trying to teach
   your students about some of the basic concepts such as citizenship.
   power, control, etc.?

A. Perhaps what I run into again and again is making it a real
   situation rather than a textbook situation. One of the advantages
   of the network system is to make it a real situation by dealing
   with people who actually are in government, religion, business
   and so on. So much of our instruction has been centered around
   the textbook. You can use an example of Houston, Texas, or
   Dayton, Ohio, but that is not a realistic situation for a fifteen
   or sixteen year old high school student sitting in a classroom.
   Instead, if we use Hudson, N.C. and use the network package and
   the taped interviews we have, it becomes far more realistic for
   these people. It is a question of looking at the t.v. screen
   and saying, "I know that fellow!" I think that makes a great deal
   of difference.

Q. What do you see as being institutional barriers in a school
    situation that we have to overcome--things we find difficult to
    overcome in an 8:00-3:30 day?

A. The problems are, number one, being in my situation, I have two
    world history classes meeting at first and fifth periods. When
    I have a guest, I don't think they want to sit around for three
    and a half hours between those classes. The second problem comes
    in trying to take people out of school to meet community people.
    This interrupts other teacher's classes. Then there is the
    financial burden of transportation involved. Both of these are
    negative and obviously it is difficult to take someone out of
    another class and explain it to their teacher.

Q. So the project we are doing now with the video taping would help?

A. The project we are doing now allows us to use the tapes at any
    time we need them. Obviously there is a tremendous positive
    side to that.

Q. In my research on networking, I read a study by Dan Lortie of the
    University of Chicago, and he talked about three orientations or
    barriers facing teachers. One of these is that teachers deal with
    present situations too much. Secondly, they are conservative in
    the sense of wanting to have a bounded system in which to work--
    their classroom, their textbooks, etc., and they also deal with
    individualism in that their mindset does not allow them to deal
    effectively with other teachers in something like a networking
    system. Have you noticed that your social studies teachers and
    other teachers fit into these categories?

A. Yes, I can agree with several of your points. The most obvious
    point I agree with is the teacher in the bounded classroom
    situation. We operate here in a semi-open situation and one of
    the most frequent comments I have heard here the last seven years
    is "Put walls around my classroom!" I think that there is security
    when you have walls and a door. You can lock yourself in and you
    can lock problems out. At the same time that is your situation
    and you're not heard outside your room. The way we have it now,
    we have six people in social studies and we have only one with
    a four wall situation. We are relatively open. I think most of
    the people have adjusted to it [the open classroom situation],
    but here again seven years later, the major want of these
    individuals is still walls for their classroom. So I feel that
    that is very true. I am not so sure when you talk about the
    teacher as an individual. I think we go back to a teacher's
    situation as his/her own area or responsibility. I'm not saying
    you should not appreciate another area and I am not saying that
    you should be so opinionated as to say no other area exists.

However in preparation for teaching, you have been prepared generally in one area. Secondly, you teach in that one area and that tends to become all-important to you. Those are some of the barriers found among teachers within the school.

Q. We have enjoyed some success with our network in terms of the people involved and a lot of other people who are not involved have expressed interest, but why do you think we have not had more people involved at this stage--of course we are still in the beginning phase of it? What problems have you seen here?

A. I would probably list as number one, the problem of time. People today in life whether they're teachers or anything else simply do not like to accept responsibility when they don't have to. I feel that many people think that if they get involved in it [the network], they are going to be strapped for time and time is going to be taken away from them so that they would not be able to perform some other job, perhaps something they would even prefer to do. Number two, I think when you use the term "net-working," some people say, "I don't know what he is talking about. Not knowing what you're talking about leads me to not want to get involved." So I think that it is just the matter of clarifying our definition.

Q. So, our group needs to do a better job of explaining ourselves?

A. True! definition, explanation, perhaps a simpler explanation and let it become more complicated as time goes on.

Q. If we do have the opportunity to attract the social studies teachers in this system perhaps to a place during our next inservice day, do you think maybe we could show one of our tapes and get our point across a little better?

A. Well, I think that would be one of the best things to do. I've always said that if we can generate interest during school time these people would have much more interest to use their spare time to become involved but so far, we have not had any [school] time to use, and we have always gathered outside of school time.

Q. Is it not always going to be difficult, if not impossible to meet during school time except maybe on workdays?

A. But if the interest can be generated during school time then I think that many people would be willing to give it other time.

Q. One of the purposes of our network, or one of the things we have been experimenting with, is to see how much we can do outside of school time without regulations, restrictions, or guidelines passed down from the central office--the bureaucracy. Looking back over your years as department chairman, do you feel that you have had adequate input into the curriculum planning of this school system?

A. No I don't! I have especially felt that way about years past. In recent years, my biggest concern has been when curriculum concerns come up, in many cases I am informed of a meeting with just one day's notice and that does not give me time to consider the proposals, or I go to a meeting only to find out that the meeting is to deal with curriculum matters. I would like to see not only more input from the department chairpeople, but also more input on the part of teachers in curriculum decision-making. I hear time and time again some wonderful ideas about things that should be offered, but these ideas never seem to find their way into formal curriculum planning discussions.

Q. Do you see a possibility where our network can key in on these ideas in future projects, develop some things outside the regular system, or if nothing else, incorporate them within our existing courses?

A. Sure I think they can. One of the things we can look at is building some more course offerings and not limiting them just to background for what we now offer. One thing I think we need basically is more in communication areas. I don't see any movement whatsoever in improving communication of our students.

Q. Do you mean the communication skills of our students?

A. Right! Absolutely!

Q. Do you see an opportunity for our network to develop some strategies for helping to improve our student's communication skills? We talked about using some students in these taped interviews.

A. Very much so! Again, I think that is an area we need to work toward. I can see this developing simply by letting students do their research and using the network machinery to back up or falsify what they researched.

Q. How has the network--our network helped you so far?

A. Oh, I love to get involved in things like this. I was involved in the taping of the city government official [town manager]. Of course, the information was very eye-opening to me. Simply, to begin with, perhaps the cordiality of the city officials really astounded me, and the information that came out of that meeting and that taping were really eye-openers to me.

Q. I was impressed with the town manager's own personal interest in our project and his offer to help us further develop our program.

A. I agree and I think that perhaps his enthusiasm and interest made it a great success.

Q. What would you like to see for the future of this network?

A. I think one thing that is going to be essential is that we are going to have to branch out into other areas of community life-- religion, the wide range of business structures--sole proprietor- ships, corporations, etc. and we are going to have to examine county government too. The area is vast, huge. I have not had the time to sit down to think about all of the ways this could branch out, but I can think of many different areas that we could get involved in.

Q. Are you satisfied with what we have done so far?

A. Yes, very much so.

Q. One of the preliminary ideas we had about this network in the county system was the possibility of using it for inservice. Do you think that the inservice part of it is needed to attract people into the program? I know that you yourself are not interested in getting credit for your participation.

A. I loved getting involved in things. I feel that the more I stay busy, the better off I am. I think that however, to get a majority of our faculty members involved in it we need to offer some sort of inservice credit. If we can use this as part of our inservice day programs and have opportunities to present our work to those who attend them, we would have more people become involved in the network.

Q. How can we get students involved in this?

A. I think we can only get students involved after we have laid the groundwork. Once the students see you and I and the other teachers involved in it, many of them would be interested in doing follow-up studies. I think I have enough extroverts in my classes who would be interested in doing interviews and making tapes on their own.

To move ahead, we are going to have to get a number of people involved to branch this thing out, to meet the expectations you and I had in the beginning. I think the more involvement we have, the larger this will get. I just don't think two or three people can carry this network idea. Numbers will be important.

Q. How do you feel about keeping this on an informal basis--the way we have been doing it?

A. I believe that it would work much better that way. One of the things that would bother me--you were talking about inservice credit and credit renewal--is that there are certain stipulations and time constraints in going that route. We may not be able to meet those kinds of stipulations and deadlines, so if that is the case we are immediately defeated before we can accomplish very much. I prefer being informal. I prefer the informal meetings, the coffee, fellowship, and the other little things. I may not be able to make every meeting, but I can make the majority of them and I think that other people can too.

Q. Should administrators be part of this network?

A. I don't see any reason why they shouldn't. I think they can supply us with a great deal of input. I think though that if they do become part of the network, they should realize and we should realize that they are simply members of the network and they are not administrators and we are not teachers with regard to the working relationships of the network.

Q. What about leadership in the network? Since I initiated the project, I have been viewed as the "leader," but do you see opportunities for emerging leadership in the network?

A. Well, sure and I think that anyone who tackles a particular project is a leader as far as the network is concerned. Anyone who comes in with their own ideas as far as even a small area of interest is concerned--say someone comes in and says that they want to work on the religious topic of our project or something like that, can take on welcomed leadership responsibilities. I think that it is good to foster leadership qualities in people, and I think that it is also positive if students get involved to find out their own leadership qualities. Let them put programs together. I think that the psychologists have told us before that if you put a group of people together, a leader will emerge. Again with these students, I think that would be very true.

Q. One of the reasons given for creating networks is to not only provide a sense of community for the people involved and a sense of personal worth and satisfaction, but is considered to be a good way to bring resources together that you might be able to get. Of course the use of community people is one example, but the best thing about this idea is that it is a way to circumvent limited funds in the classroom and so on. Have you noticed any particular opportunities in what we have created so far for securing resources that you may not have?

A. Yes, as a matter of fact I have never even thought about the first part of what you just mentioned. The biggest thing I have thought about regarding the network system, has been in increasing the number of resources available to us as far as the classroom situation is concerned. That is one of the reasons I wanted to become part of the network--to expand the number of resources I had available to me in the classroom. I have never been satisfied, and probably never will be, with what I have in the classroom. No matter which want I have today, even if you pacify that want, it will increase tomorrow, and the network system can be one way to help pacify some of these wants for resources in the classroom.

Q. Thank you.